A LATIN GRAMMAR

Charles E. Bennett

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LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

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Quicquid præcipias, esto brevis, ut cito dicta
Percipient animi dociles teneantque fideles:
Omne supervacuum pleno de pectore monat.

ALLYN AND BACON
Boston and Chicago
PREFACE.

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

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

Ithaca, New York,
October 16, 1907.

C. E. B.

FROM THE PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

The object of this book is to present the essential facts of Latin grammar in a direct and simple manner, and within the smallest compass consistent with scholarly standards. While intended primarily for the secondary school, it has not neglected the needs of the college student, and aims to furnish such grammatical information as is ordinarily required in undergraduate courses.
The experience of German educators in recent years has tended to restrict the size of school-grammars of Latin, and has demanded an incorporation of the main principles of the language in compact manuals of 250 pages.¹ Within the past decade, several grammars of this scope have appeared which have amply met the exacting demands of the full Gymnasial Latin course, — a period of study representing quite as much reading as that covered by the average American undergraduate.

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

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

Ithaca, New York,
December 15, 1894.

¹ One of the most eminent of living Latinists, Professor Eduard Wolfflin, of Munich, has expressed the opinion that the essentials may be given within even smaller compass than this. See his Preface to the Schmalt-Wagner Latinische Grammatik, 1891.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## PART I.

**SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY, ETC.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PAGE</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Alphabet ..................</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classification of Sounds ........</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sounds of the Letters ..........</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syllables ......................</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity ......................</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## PART II.

**INFLECTIONS.**

### CHAPTER I. — Declension.

#### A. Nouns.

| Gender of Nouns .................. | 10 |
| Number .......................... | 11 |
| Cases ........................... | 11 |
| The Five Declensions ............ | 12 |
| First Declension ................ | 13 |
| Second Declension .............. | 14 |
| Third Declension ................ | 18 |
| Fourth Declension .............. | 28 |
| Fifth Declension ................ | 29 |
| Defective Nouns .................. | 30 |

#### B. Adjectives.

| Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions ........ | 34 |
| Adjectives of the Third Declension .................... | 36 |
| Comparison of Adjectives .................. | 40 |
| Formation and Comparison of Adverbs .................. | 43 |
| Numerals ......................... | 45 |

### C. PRONOUNS.

| Personal Pronouns .................. | 48 |
| Reflexive Pronouns .................. | 49 |
| Possessive Pronouns ................ | 49 |
| Demonstrative Pronouns ............ | 50 |
| The Intensive Pronoun .............. | 51 |
| The Relative Pronoun .............. | 51 |
| Interrogative Pronouns ............ | 52 |
| Indefinite Pronouns .............. | 52 |
| Pronominal Adjectives ............. | 53 |

### CHAPTER II. — Conjugation.

| Verb-Stems ....................... | 54 |
| The Four Conjugations ............ | 55 |
| Conjugation of Sum ................ | 56 |
| First Conjugation ................ | 58 |
| Second Conjugation ................ | 62 |
| Third Conjugation ................ | 66 |
| Fourth Conjugation ................ | 70 |
| Verbs in -iō of the Third Conjugation ........ | 74 |
| Deponent Verbs ................... | 76 |
### Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semi-Deponents</th>
<th>78</th>
<th>List of the Most Important Verbs with Principal Parts</th>
<th>83</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Periphrastic Conjugation</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>Irregular Verbs</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peculiarities of Conjugation</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>Defective Verbs</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formation of the Verb-Stems</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>Impersonal Verbs</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### PART III

**PARTICLES.**

- Adverbs ........................................... 106
- Prepositions ..................................... 107
- Interjections .................................... 108

#### PART IV

**WORD FORMATION.**

- Nouns ............................................. 109
- Adjectives ...................................... 111
- Verbs ............................................ 113
- Examples of Compounds ......................... 115

#### PART V

**SYNTAX.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER I. — Sentences.</th>
<th>CHAPTER III. — Syntax of Adjectives.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classification of Sentences</td>
<td>Agreement of Adjectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form of Interrogative Sentences</td>
<td>Adjectives used Substantively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject and Predicate</td>
<td>Adjectives with the Force of Adjectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple and Compound Sentences</td>
<td>Comparatives and Superlatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER II. — Syntax of Nouns.</td>
<td>Other Peculiarities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositional Nouns</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appositions</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Nominative</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Accusative</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Dative</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Genitive</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ablative</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Locative</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER IV. — Syntax of Pronouns.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Pronouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive Pronouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflexive Pronouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reciprocal Pronouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrative Pronouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table of Contents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative Pronouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite Pronouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronominal Adjectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER V. — Syntax of Verbs.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreement of Verbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of the Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of the Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of the Infinitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Independent Sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volitive Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optative Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Dependent Sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clauses of Purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clauses of Characteristic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clauses of Result</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causal Clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporal Clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduced by <em>Postquam</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Ubi, Ubi</em> etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Cum-Clauses</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduced by <em>Antequam</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and <em>Prinquam</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduced by <em>Dum, Dicere, Quod</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substantive Clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developed from the Volitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developed from the Optative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of Result</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After <em>non dubitatus, etc.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduced by <em>Quod</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect Questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional Sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of <em>Si, Nisi, Sin</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional Clauses of Comparison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concessive Clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative Clauses with <em>Quod, Quamquam, etc.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clauses of Wish and Proviso</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative Clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect Discourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moods in Indirect Discourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenses in Indirect Discourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implied Indirect Discourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjunctive by Attraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER VI. — Particles.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-ordinate Conjunctions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER VII. — Word-Order and Sentence-Structure.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word-Order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence-Structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER VIII. — Hints on Latin Style.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronouns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Cases</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PART VI.

PROSODY.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PAGE</th>
<th>Quantity of Vowels and Syllables</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>240</td>
<td>The Dactylic Hexameter</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>243</td>
<td>The Dactylic Pentameter</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUPPLEMENTS TO THE GRAMMAR.

I. Roman Calendar         247  III. Figures of Syntax and Rhetoric 249
II. Roman Names           249
PART I.

SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY.

THE ALPHABET.

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

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

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

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS.

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

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

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

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

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

¹ For 'voiceless,' 'sonant,' 'hard,' or 'tenuis' are sometimes used.
² For 'voiced,' 'sonant,' 'soft,' or 'media' are sometimes used.
c) **ph, th, ch** are aspirates. These are confined almost exclusively to words derived from the Greek, and were equivalent to **p + h, t + h, c + h**, i.e. to the corresponding voiceless mutes with a following breath, as in Eng. *loop-hole, hot-house, block-house*.

4. The Mutes admit of classification also as

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

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

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

    anceps, double, pronounced anceps.

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

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voiced</th>
<th>Aspirates</th>
<th>(Labials)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mutes</strong></td>
<td>p, b, ph,</td>
<td>(Labials).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dentals</strong></td>
<td>t, d, th,</td>
<td>(Dentals).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gutturals (or Palatalis)</strong></td>
<td>c, k, q, g, ch,</td>
<td>(Gutturals).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voiced</th>
<th>(Labial).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Liquids</strong></td>
<td>l, r,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nasals</strong></td>
<td>m, n,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Voiced</th>
<th>(Dental).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spirants</strong></td>
<td>s,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Semivowels</strong></td>
<td>j, v.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Sounds of the Letters.

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

1. Vowels.
- a as in father;
- e as in they;
- i as in machine;
- o as in note;
- u as in rude;
- y like French u, German ü.

2. Diphthongs.
- ae like ai in aisle;
- oe like oi in oil;
- ei as in rein;
- au like ow in how;

3. Consonants.
- b, d, f, h, k, l, m, n, p, qu are pronounced as in English, except that bs, bt are pronounced ph, pt.
- c is always pronounced as k.
- t is always a plain t, never with the sound of sh as in Eng. oration.
- g always as in get; when ngu precedes a vowel, gu has the sound of gw, as in anguis, languidus.
- j has the sound of y as in yet.
- r was probably slightly trilled with the tip of the tongue.
- s always voiceless as in sin; in sundeos, suavis, suusco, and in compounds and derivatives of these words, su has the sound of sw.
- v like w.
- x always like ks; never like Eng. gz or z.
- z uncertain in sound; possibly like Eng. zd, possibly like z. The latter sound is recommended.

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

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

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

In the division of words into syllables,—

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

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

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

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

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

QUANTITY.

5. A. Quantity of Vowels.

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

1. A vowel is long,—
   a) before n̄ or n̄d̄; as, Infāns, Inferior, cōnsāmō, cēnsō, Insum.
   b) when the result of contraction; as, nihilum for nīhilum.

2. A vowel is short,—
   a) before n̄t, n̄d̄; as, amant, amandus. A few exceptions occur in compounds whose first member has a long vowel; as, nōndum (nōn dum).
   b) before another vowel, or h; as, meus, trahō. Some exceptions occur, chiefly in proper names derived from the Greek; as, Aenēs.

---

1 In this book, long vowels are indicated by a horizontal line above them; as, ā, ī, ō, etc. Vowels not thus marked are short. Occasionally a curve is set above short vowels; as, ì, ò.
B. Quantity of Syllables.

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

1. A syllable is long —
   a) if it contains a long vowel; as, māter, rēgnum, dfus.
   b) if it contains a diphthong; as, causae, foedus.
   c) if it contains a short vowel followed by x, z, or any two consonants (except a mute with i or r); as, axia, gaza, restō.

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

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

Note. — These distinctions of long and short are not arbitrary and artificial, but are purely natural. Thus, a syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants, as ng, is long, because such a syllable requires more time for its pronunciation; while a syllable containing a short vowel followed by one consonant is short, because it takes less time to pronounce it. In case of the common syllables, the mute and the liquid blend so easily as to produce a combination which takes scarcely more time than a single consonant. Yet by separating the two elements (as ag-ri) the poets were able to use such syllables as long.

ACCENT.

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

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

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

1 To avoid confusion, the quantity of syllables is not indicated by any sign.
2 But if the l or r introduces the second part of a compound, the preceding syllable is always long: as, abrumpē.
4. Sometimes the final -e of -ne and -ce disappears, but without affecting the accent; as, tantón, istíc, llícó, vidén (for vidéne).

5. In utráque, each, and pléróque, most, -que is not properly an enclitic; yet these words accent the penult, owing to the influence of their other cases, — utérque, utrásque, plérsque.

VOWEL CHANGES.1

7. 1. In Compounds, —
   a) Æ before a single consonant becomes I; as, —
   colligó for con-legó.
   b) à before a single consonant becomes I; as, —
   adigó for ad-agó.
   c) à before two consonants becomes ë; as, —
   expers for ex-paras.
   d) ae becomes I; as, —
   conquiró for con-quaréó.
   e) au becomes ë, sometimes ë; as, —
   concludó for con-claudó;
   explódó for ex-plaudó.

2. Contraction. Concurrent vowels were frequently contracted into one long vowel. The first of the two vowels regularly prevailed; as, —
   trés for tre-as;
   máló for ma(v)eló;
   amástí for amā(v)ístī;
   débā for dé(h)ábeó;
   nil for nihil;
   cópia for co-opia;
   càgō for co-agó;
   cómō for co-emō;
   júniós for ju(v)enior.

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

So periculum, saeculum.

4. Syncope. Sometimes a vowel drops out by syncope; as, —
   árdor for áridor (compare áridus);
   validó for validá (compare validus).

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

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

\begin{itemize}
  \item arbōs, Gen. arborīs (for arboris);
  \item genuss, Gen. generās (for genesis);
  \item dirimō (for dis-emō).
\end{itemize}

2. dt, tt, ts each give s or ss; as,—

\begin{itemize}
  \item pēnsum for pend-tum;
  \item versum for vert-tum;
  \item mīles for mīlet-s;
  \item sessus for sedtus;
  \item passus for pattus.
\end{itemize}

3. Final consonants were often omitted; as,—

\begin{itemize}
  \item cor for cord;
  \item laco for lact.
\end{itemize}

4. Assimilation of Consonants. Consonants are often assimilated to a following sound. Thus: acurrō (adc-); aggerō (adg-);

\begin{itemize}
  \item asserō (ads-); allātus (adl-); apportō (adp-); attulū (adt-);
  \item arrēdeō (adr-); affeō (adf-); occurrō (obo-); suppōnō (subp-);
  \item offerō (obf-); corrūō (comr-); collātus (coml); etc.
\end{itemize}

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

\begin{itemize}
  \item a) b before s or t becomes p; as,—
    \begin{itemize}
      \item scripsē (scrib-sē), scrip'tum (scrib-tum).
    \end{itemize}
  \item b) g before s or t becomes c; as,—
    \begin{itemize}
      \item actus (āg-tus).
    \end{itemize}
  \item c) m before a dental or guttural becomes n; as,—
    \begin{itemize}
      \item eundem (eum-dem); princeps (prīm-ceps).
    \end{itemize}
\end{itemize}

PECULIARITIES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

9. Many words have variable orthography.

1. Sometimes the different forms belong to different periods of the language. Thus, quom, voltus, volūndā, voit, etc., were the prevail-

---

\footnote{Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.}
ing forms almost down to the Augustan age; after that, cum, vultus, vulnis, vult, etc. So optumnus, maximus, labet, lubatō, etc., down to about the same era; later, optimus, maximus, libet, libatō, etc.

2. In some words the orthography varies at one and the same period of the language. Examples are exspectō, expectō; existō, existatō; epistula, epistolā; adulēscēns, adulēscēns; paulīus, paulīus; cottūdiē, cotūdiē; and, particularly, prepositional compounds, which often made a concession to the etymology in the spelling; as,—

ad-gerō or aggerō; ad-serō or asserō;
ad-licō or allīciō; in-lūtus or illūtus;
ad-rogāns or arrogāns; sub-moveō or summmoveō;
and many others.

3. Compounds of jaciō were usually written ēciō, dēciō, adiciō, obiciō, etc., but were probably pronounced as though written adjiciō, objiciō, etc.

4. Adjectives and nouns in -quo, -quum; -vus, -vum; -vuns, -vum preserved the earlier forms in -quos, -quom; -vos, -vom;
-vos, -vom, down through the Ciceronian age; as, antiquos, anti-
quom; saevos; perpetuos; equos; servos. Similarly verbs in the 3rd plural present indicative exhibit the terminations -quont, -quontur; -vont, -vontur; -unt, -untur, for the same period; as, relinquent, loquentur; vivont, metuont.

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

INFL ECTIONS.

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

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

CHAPTER I.—Declension.

A. NOUNS.

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

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

2. Nouns are also distinguished as Concrete or Abstract.

a) Concrete nouns are those which designate individual objects; as, mons, mountain; pes, foot; dies, day; mens, mind.
Inflections.

Under concrete nouns are included, also, collective nouns; as, legiō, legio; comitātus, reinne.

b) Abstract nouns designate qualities; as, cōnstantia, stad-fastness; paupertās, poverty.

GENDER OF NOUNS.

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

Natural Gender.

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

1. Masculine, if they denote males; as,—
   nauta, sailor; agricola, farmer.

2. Feminine, if they denote females; as,—
   māter, mother; régina, queen.

Grammatical Gender.

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

A. Gender determined by Signification.

1. Names of Rivers, Winds, and Mouths are Masculine; as,—
   Sēquana, Seine; Burus, east wind; Aprilis, April.

2. Names of Trees, and such names of Towns and Islands as end in -us, are Feminine; as,—
   quercus, oak; Corinthus, Corinth; Rhodus, Rhodes.
Other names of towns and islands follow the gender of their endings (see § 8, below); as, —

Delphi, m.; Leuctra, n.; Tibur, n.; Carthago, f.

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

nihil, nothing; nefas, wrong; amare, to love.

Note.—Exceptions to the above principles sometimes occur; as, Allia (the river), f.

B. Gender determined by Ending of Nominative Singular.

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

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

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

NUMBER.

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

CASES.

17. There are six Cases in Latin:—

Nominaive, Case of Subject;
Gentive, Objective with of, or Possessive;
Dative, Objective with to or for;
Accusative, Case of Direct Object;
Vocative, Case of Address;
Ablative, Objective with by, from, in, with.

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

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

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

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

THE FIVE DECLENSIONS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decension</th>
<th>Final Letter of Stem</th>
<th>Gen. Termination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>á</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>ò</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>í</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>à (some consonant)</td>
<td>-as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>ò</td>
<td>-át</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cases alike in Form.

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

2. The Dative and Ablative Plural are always alike.

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

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

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

ā-Stems.

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

Porta, gate; stem, portā.-

SINGULAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CASES</th>
<th>MEANINGS</th>
<th>TERMINATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>porta a gate</td>
<td>-ā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>portae of a gate</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>portae to or for a gate</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>portam a gate (as object)</td>
<td>-am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>porta O gate!</td>
<td>-ā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>portā with, by, from, in a gate</td>
<td>-ā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLURAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CASES</th>
<th>MEANINGS</th>
<th>TERMINATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>portae gates (as subject)</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>portārum of gates</td>
<td>-ārum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>portās to or for gates</td>
<td>-ās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>portās gates (as object)</td>
<td>-ās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>portae O gates!</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>portās with, by, from, in gates</td>
<td>-ās</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Peculiarities of Nouns of the First Declension.

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

ii. Rare Case-Endings,—

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

b) In poetry a Genitive in -āf also occurs; as, aulāf.
Inflections.

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

Greek Nouns.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Archiās</td>
<td>Epitomē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Archiae</td>
<td>Epitomēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Archins (or ān)</td>
<td>Epitomēn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>Archῑn</td>
<td>Epitomē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>Archis</td>
<td>Epitomē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

2. Some other peculiarities occur, especially in poetry.

SECOND DECLENSION.

6-Stems.

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Nom. hortus</th>
<th>-us</th>
<th>bellum</th>
<th>-um</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. hortī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>bellī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. hortō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>bellō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. hortūm</td>
<td>-ūm</td>
<td>bellum</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. hortē</td>
<td>-e</td>
<td>bellum</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. hortō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>bellō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Nom. hortī</th>
<th>-ī</th>
<th>bella</th>
<th>-ā</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. hortūrum</td>
<td>-ūrum</td>
<td>bellōrum</td>
<td>-ūrum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. hortīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>bellīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. hortōs</td>
<td>-ōs</td>
<td>bella</td>
<td>-ā</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. hortī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>bella</td>
<td>-ā</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. hortīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>bellīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nouns in -er and -er are declined as follows:

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

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

1. Note that in words of the type of puer and vir the final vowel of the stem has disappeared in the Nominative and Vocative Singular.
In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of *ager*, the stem is further modified by the development of *e* before *r*.

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

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

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

*Earlier Inflection (including Caesar and Cicero).*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Servos, m., slave</td>
<td>Aevum, n., age</td>
<td>Equus, m., horse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Dative</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
<th>Vocative</th>
<th>Ablative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>servos</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevō</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>servi</td>
<td>acvii</td>
<td>acvō</td>
<td>acvum</td>
<td>acvum</td>
<td>acvō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>aevō</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>servum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>serve</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>aevō</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Later Inflection (after Cicero).**

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Dative</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
<th>Vocative</th>
<th>Ablative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>servus</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>servi</td>
<td>acvii</td>
<td>acvii</td>
<td>acvum</td>
<td>acvum</td>
<td>acvum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>aevō</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>servum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>serve</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>aevō</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**Peculiarities of Inflection in the Second Declension.**

25. 1. Proper names in *-ius* regularly form the Genitive Singular in *-i* (instead of *-ii*), and the Vocative Singular in *-i* (for *-ie*); *as, Vergili, of Virgil, or O Virgil (instead of Vergillii, Vergillie).* In such words the accent stands upon the penult, even though that be short. Nouns in *-ius, -ejus* form the Gen. in *-i, -ei*, as *Pompejus, Pompei.*

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

Nom. ingénium
Gen. ingénī
Filius
Gen. filī

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

3. Filius forms the Vocative Singular in -ī (for -iō); viz. filīs, O son!

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

Nom. df (def)
Gen. deorum (deum)
Dat. dis (defa)
Acc. deōs
Voc. df (def)
Abl. dis (defa)

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

6. The Genitive Plural has -um, instead of -orum,—
   a) in words denoting money and measure; as, talentum, of talents; modium, of pecks; sestertium, of sesterces.
   b) in duovir, triumvir, decemvīr; as, dumvīrum.
   c) in words denoting time; as, annum, of the years; nonārum, of the months.

Exceptions to Gender in the Second Declension.

26. 1. The following nouns in -us are Feminine by exception: —
   a) Names of towns, islands, trees; as, Aegyptus, Egypt.
   b) Five special words; —
      alvus, belly;
      carbasus, flax;
      colus, distaff;
      humus, ground;
      vannus, winnowing-fan.
   c) A few Greek Feminines; as, —
      atomus, atom;
      diphthongus, diphthong

2. The following nouns in -us are Neuter: —
   pelagus, sea;
   virbus, poison;
   vulgus, crowd.
Greek Nouns of the Second Declension.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barbitos, m. and f.</th>
<th>Androgeōs, m.</th>
<th>Ilion, n.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Barbitos&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Androgeōs&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Ilion&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Barbiti&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Androgeō&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Ilīs&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Barbitōn&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Androgeōn&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Ilion&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Barbitē&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Androgeōs&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Ilion&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Barbitā&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Androgeō&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Ilīs&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

THIRD DECLENSION.

28. Nouns of the Third Declension end in -a, -ē, -ī, -ō, -y, -o, -i, -n, -t, -s, -t, -x. The Third Declension includes several distinct classes of Stems,—

I. Pure Consonant-Stems.
II. 1-Stems.
III. Consonant-Stems which have partially adapted themselves to the inflection of 1-Stems.
IV. A very few Stems ending in a long vowel or a diphthong.
V. Irregular Nouns.

I. Consonant-Stems.

29. 1. In these the stem appears in its unaltered form in all the oblique cases; so that the actual case-endings may be clearly recognized.
2. Consonant-Stems fall into several natural subdivisions, according as the stem ends in a Mute, Liquid, Nasal, or Spirant.

A. Mute-Stems.

30. Mute-Stems may end,—

1. In a Labial (p); as, princeps.-s.
2. In a Guttural (g or c); as, rēmex (rēmig.-s); dux (duc.-s).
3. In a Dental (d or t); as, lapis (lapid.-s); miles (milit.-s).

1. STEMS IN A LABIAL MUTE (p).

31. Princeps, m., chief.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>TERMINATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. princeps</td>
<td>-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. principis</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. principi</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. principem</td>
<td>-em</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. princeps</td>
<td>-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. princepe</td>
<td>-e</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLURAL

| Nom. principēs | -ēs |
| Gen. principum | -um |
| Dat. principibus | -ibus |
| Acc. principēs | -ēs |
| Voc. principēs | -ēs |
| Abl. principibus | -ibus |

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

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

Rēmex, m., rower.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. rēmex</td>
<td>rēmigēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. rēmigēs</td>
<td>rēmigum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. rēmigēs</td>
<td>rēmigibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. rēmigēs</td>
<td>rēmigibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. rēmex</td>
<td>rēmigēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. rēmige</td>
<td>rēmigibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dux, c., leader.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. dux</td>
<td>ducēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ducēs</td>
<td>ducum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. ducēs</td>
<td>ducibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. ducēs</td>
<td>ducibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. dux</td>
<td>ducēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. duce</td>
<td>ducibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

3. Stems in a Dental Mute (d, t).

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lapis, m., stone.</th>
<th>Miles, m., soldier.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR</strong></td>
<td><strong>PLURAL</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR</strong></td>
<td><strong>PLURAL</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. lapis</td>
<td>lapidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. lapidēs</td>
<td>lapidēum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. lapidē</td>
<td>lapidēbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. lapidēm</td>
<td>lapidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. lapia</td>
<td>lapidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. lapide</td>
<td>lapidēbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Liquid Stems.

34. These end in -l or -r.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vigil, m., watchman.</th>
<th>Victor, m., conqueror.</th>
<th>Aequor, n., sea.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR</strong></td>
<td><strong>PLURAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>SINGULAR</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. vigil</td>
<td>victor</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. vigilēs</td>
<td>victorīs</td>
<td>aequorīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. vigilē</td>
<td>victorīs</td>
<td>aequorīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. vigilēm</td>
<td>victorīem</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. vigil</td>
<td>victor</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. vigilē</td>
<td>victorē</td>
<td>aequore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Nom. vigilēs | victorēs | aequor |
| Gen. vigilum | victorūm | aequorūm |
| Dat. vigilibus | victorībus | aequorībus |
| Acc. vigilēs | victorēs | aequor |
| Voc. vigilēs | victorēs | aequor |
| Abl. vigilibus | victorībus | aequorībus |

1. Masculine and Feminine stems ending in a liquid form the Nominative and Vocative Singular without termination.
2. The termination is also lacking in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular of all neuters of the Third Declension.
### C. Nasal Stems.

35. These end in \(-m\), which often disappears in the Nom. Sing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leō, m., lion.</th>
<th>Nōmen, n., name.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SINGULAR.</td>
<td>PLURAL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. leō</td>
<td>nōmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. leōnis</td>
<td>nōminis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. leōnī</td>
<td>nōminīnibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. leōnem</td>
<td>nōmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. leō</td>
<td>nōmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. leōne</td>
<td>nōmine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Nom. nōmen   | nōminīnibus       |
| Gen. nōminis | nōminum          |
| Dat. nōmini  | nōminibus        |
| Acc. nōmen   | nōmina           |
| Voc. nōmen   | nōmina           |
| Abl. nōmine  | nōminibus        |

### D. a-Stems.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. mōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mōris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mōrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mōrem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. mōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mōre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. mōrēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mōribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mōres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. mōres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mōribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

---

3 There is only one stem ending in \(-m\), — hiems, hiemis, winter.
II. I-Stems.

A. Masculine and Feminine I-Stems.

37. These regularly end in -is in the Nominative Singular, and always have -ium in the Genitive Plural. Originally the Accusative Singular ended in -im, the Abative Singular in -i, and the Accusative Plural in -ia; but these endings have been largely displaced by -em, -e, and -eis, the endings of Consonant-Stems.

38. Tusssis, f., cough; Ignsis, m., fire; Hostis, c., enemy;
    stem, tussi.-
    stem, igni.-
    stem, hosti.-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>TERMINATION</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>tusssis -is</td>
<td>hostis -is</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tusssis -is</td>
<td>hostis -is</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tussi -i</td>
<td>host -i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tussim -em</td>
<td>hostem -em</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>tusssis -is</td>
<td>hostis -is</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>tussi -e or -i</td>
<td>hoste -e, -i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nom. tusseis -is E Plural.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>TERMINATION</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tusseium -ium</td>
<td>hostium -ium</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tusseibus -ibus</td>
<td>hostibus -ibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tusseis or -eis</td>
<td>hostis or -eis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>tusseis -is</td>
<td>hostes -is</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>tusseibus -ibus</td>
<td>hostibus -ibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. To the same class belong—

   apis, bee. oratis, hurdle. ♠ *securis, ax.
   auris, ear. *febris, fever. sementis, sowing.
   avis, bird. orbis, circle. ♠ *sitis, thirst.
   axis, axe. ovis, sheep. torris, brand.
   *būris, plough-beam. pelvis, basin. ♠ *turris, tower.
   clūvis, key. puppis, stern. trudis, pole.
   colūris, hill. reatis, rope. vectis, lever.

and many others.

Words marked with a star regularly have Acc. -im; those marked with a ♠ regularly have Abl. -i. Of the others, many at times show -im and -i. Town and river names in -is regularly have -im, -i.
2. Not all nouns in -is are I-Stems. Some are genuine consonant-stems, and have the regular consonant terminations throughout, notably, canis, dog; juvenis, youth.\(^1\)

3. Some genuine I-Stems have become disguised in the Nominative Singular; as, pars, part, for par(t)i; anas, duck, for ana(t)iis; so also mors, death; dōs, dose; noctis, night; sors, lot; mēna, mind; ars, art; gēna, tribe; and some others.

**B. Neuter I-Stems.**

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

Sedile, seat; Animal, animal; Calcar, spur;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>sedili-</th>
<th>stem, animāli-</th>
<th>stem, calcāri-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>sedile</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>calcīr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>sedilia</td>
<td>animālia</td>
<td>calcāria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>sedili</td>
<td>animālī</td>
<td>calcārī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sedile</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>calcā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>sedile</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>calcā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>sedili</td>
<td>animālī</td>
<td>calcārī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **PLURAL.** | | | |
| Nom. | sedilia | animālia | calcāria | -ia |
| Gen. | sediliūm | animālīūm | calcāriūm | -ium |
| Dat. | sediliubus | animālībus | calcāribus | -ibus |
| Acc. | sedilia | animālia | calcāria | -ia |
| Voc. | sedilia | animālia | calcāria | -ia |
| Abl. | sediliubus | animālībus | calcāribus | -ibus |

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

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

\(^1\) Mēnsēs, month, originally a consonant stem (mēnsi), has in the Genitive Plural both mēnsiūm and mēnēsēs. The Accusative Plural is mēnēsēs.
III. Consonant-Stems that have partially adapted themselves to the Inflection of i-Stems.

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

Caedēs, i, slaughter; Arx, i, citadel; Linter, i, skiff;
stem, caed.; stem, aro.; stem, lintr.

SINGULAR.

Nom. caedēs
Gen. caedīs
Dat. caedī
Akk. caedēm
Voc. caedēs
Abl. caede

Arx
arca
arcī
arca
arcī
arca

Linter
lintrē
lintrēs
lintrē
lintrē
lintrē

PLURAL.

Nom. caedīs
Gen. caedīum
Dat. caedībus
Akk. caedes, -ēs
Voc. caedes
Abl. caedibus

Arcēs
arcēm
arcībus
arcēs.
arcē
arcībus

Lintrēs
lintrē
lintrē
lintrē
lintrē

1. The following classes of nouns belong here:

a) Nouns in -ēs, with Genitive in -is; as, nūbēs, aedēs, clādēs, etc.

b) Many monosyllables in -e or -x preceded by one or more consonants; as, urbs, mōns, stirps, lanx.

c) Most nouns in -ēs and -ēs; as, clīēs, cohors.

d) Ūter, venter; für, lēs, mēs, mūs, nīx; and the Plurals fauces, penītēs, Optimātēs, Samnītēs, Quīrītēs.

e) Sometimes nouns in -ēs with Genitive -tēs; as, civītās, aetās. Civitās usually has civitātium.
### Third Declension.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>force;</td>
<td>swine;</td>
<td>ox, cow;</td>
<td>Jupiter;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stem, vi.</td>
<td>stem, sa-</td>
<td>stem bou-</td>
<td>stem, Jou-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### SINGULAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>viis</th>
<th>sūs</th>
<th>bōs</th>
<th>Juppiter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>sūs</td>
<td>bovis</td>
<td>Jovis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>saē</td>
<td>bove</td>
<td>Jovem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>viis</td>
<td>sūs</td>
<td>bōs</td>
<td>Juppiter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>viis</td>
<td>sūs</td>
<td>bōs</td>
<td>Juppiter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>vi</td>
<td>sue</td>
<td>bove</td>
<td>Jove</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### PLURAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>virēs</th>
<th>sēs</th>
<th>boves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>virum</td>
<td>suum</td>
<td>bovum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>viribus</td>
<td>subus</td>
<td>bōbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>virēs</td>
<td>sēs</td>
<td>boves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>virēs</td>
<td>sēs</td>
<td>boves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>viribus</td>
<td>subus</td>
<td>bōbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Notice that the oblique cases of sūs have ē in the root syllable.
2. Grūs is declined like sūs, except that the Dative and Ablative Plural are always grūbus.
3. Juppiter is for Jov-pater, and therefore contains the same stem as in Jov-is, Jov-is, etc.
4. Nāvis was originally a diphthong stem ending in au-; but it has passed over to the 1-stems (§ 37). Its Ablative often ends in -ē.

### V. Irregular Nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>42. Senex, m., old man.</th>
<th>Carō, f., flesh.</th>
<th>Os, n., bone.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

#### SINGULAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>senex</th>
<th>carō</th>
<th>os</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>senis</td>
<td>carnis</td>
<td>ossis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>senī</td>
<td>carnī</td>
<td>oesī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>senem</td>
<td>carnem</td>
<td>os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>senex</td>
<td>carō</td>
<td>os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>senē</td>
<td>carne</td>
<td>osse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

PLURAL.

| Nom. | senēs | carnēs | ossa |
| Gen. | senum | carnium | ossium |
| Dat. | senibus | carnibus | ossibus |
| Acc. | senēs | carnēs |ossa |
| Voc. | senēs | carnēs | ossa |
| Abi. | senibus | carnibus | ossibus |

1. Iter, itineris, n., way, is inflected regularly throughout from the stem itiner.
2. Suppellex suppellectilis, l., furniture, is confined to the Singular. The oblique cases are formed from the stem suppellectil- . The ablative has both -i and -e.
3. Jecer, n., river, forms its oblique cases from two stems, — jecor- and jecinor-. Thus, Gen. jecoris or jecinoris.
4. Femur, n., leg, usually forms its oblique cases from the stem femor-, but sometimes from the stem femin-. Thus, Gen. femoris or feminis.

General Principles of Gender in the Third Declension.

43. 1. Nouns in -ō, -ōr, -ōs, -ēr, -ēs are Masculine.
2. Nouns in -ēs, -ēs, -ēs, -ēs, -ēs (preceded by a consonant); -dō, -dō (Genitive -inis); -iō (abstract and collective), -ūs (Genitive -ūtus or -ūtis) are Feminine.

Chief Exceptions to Gender in the Third Declension.

44. Exceptions to the Rule for Masculines.

1. Nouns in -ēs.
   a. Feminine: carō, flesh.
   a. Feminine: arbor, tree.
   b. Neuter: aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.
   a. Feminine: dōs, dowry.
   b. Neuter: ōs (ōris), mouth.
   a. Feminine: itiner, skiff.
b. Neuter: cadáver, corpse; iter, way; tábēr, tumor; áber, udder. Also botanical names in -er; as, acer, maple.

   a. Feminine: seges, crop.

45. Exceptions to the Rule for Feminines.

1. Nouns in -ēs.
   a. Masculine: rās, bondsman.
   b. Neuter: vās, vessel.

   a. Masculine: arīs, ram; partēs, wall; pēs, foot.

   a. Masculine: all nouns in -nis and -guis; as amnis, river;
      ignis, fire; pānis, bread; sanguis, blood; unguis, nail.
      Also —
      axis, axle.
      collis, hill.
      fascis, bundle.
      lapīs, stone.
      mēnis, month.

   b. Masculine: piscis, fish.
      postis, post.
      pulvis, dust.
      orbis, circle.
      sentis, brier.

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

5. Nouns in -ē preceded by a consonant.
   a. Masculine: dēns, tooth; fōns, fountain; mōns, mountain;
      pōns, bridge.

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

46. Exceptions to the Rule for Neuters.

1. Nouns in -ē.
   a. Masculine: sēl, sun; sāl, salt.

2. Nouns in -ē.
   a. Masculine: pecten, comb.

   a. Masculine: vultur, vulture.

   a. Masculine: lepus, hare.
Greek Nouns of the Third Declension.

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

1. The ending -ā in the Accusative Singular; as, ætherā, æther;

   Salaminā, Salamis.

2. The ending -ās in the Nominative Plural; as, Phrygās, Phrygians.

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

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

5. Neuters in -mα (Genitive -matis) have -mα instead of -ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural; as, poēmātis, poëmis.

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

7. Proper names in -ēs, like Periclēs, form the Genitive Singular sometimes in -ēs, sometimes in -ē; as, Periclis or Pericītē.

8. Feminine proper names in -ā have -ās in the Genitive, but -ā in the other oblique cases; as, —

   Nom. Didō
   Gen. Didōs
   Dat. Didō
   Acc. Didō
   Voc. Didō
   Abl. Didō

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

FOURTH DECLENSION.

ā-Stems.

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

Frūctus, m., fruit.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. frūctus</td>
<td>frūctūs</td>
<td>cornā</td>
<td>cornua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. frūctūs</td>
<td>frūctuum</td>
<td>cornūs</td>
<td>cornuum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. frūctūs</td>
<td>frūctibus</td>
<td>cornā</td>
<td>cornibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. frūctum</td>
<td>frūctūs</td>
<td>cornā</td>
<td>cornua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. frūctus</td>
<td>frūctūs</td>
<td>cornā</td>
<td>cornua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. frūctā</td>
<td>frūctibus</td>
<td>cornā</td>
<td>cornibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fifth Declension.
Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fifth Declension.

52. 1. The ending of the Genitive and Dative Singular is -iō, instead of -iō, when a consonant precedes; as, spēi, rēi, fidēi.

2. A Genitive ending -i (for -iō) is found in plēbi (from plēbēs = plēba) in the expressions tribūnus plēbi, tribune of the people, and plēbi scītum, decree of the people; sometimes also in other words.

3. A Genitive and Dative form in -e sometimes occurs; as, acīē.

4. With the exception of dīēs and rēs, most nouns of the Fifth Declension are not declined in the Plural. But acīēs, serīēs, specīēs, spēs, and a few others are used in the Nominative and Accusative Plural.

Gender in the Fifth Declension.

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

DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

54. Here belong —

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

Nouns used in the Singular only.

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

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

a) Proper names,— to denote different members of a family, or specimens of a type; as, Cicerōnēs, the Ciceros; Catōnēs, men like Cato.
b) Names of materials,—to denote objects made of the material, or different kinds of the substance; as, aera, bronzes (i.e. bronze figures); ligna, woods.

c) Abstract nouns,—to denote instances of the quality; as, ignōrantiae, cases of ignorance.

Nouns used in the Plural only.

56. Here belong —

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

   angustiae, narrow pass.  mānēs, spirits of the dead.
   arma, weapons.         minae, threats.
   dēliciae, delight.     moenia, city walls.
   dīvitiæ, riches.      nūptiae, marriage.
   Īdēs, ides.           posteri, descendants.
   indūtiae, truce.      reliquiae, remainder.
   insidiae, ambush.     tenebrae, darkness.
   majōrēs, ancestors.   verbera, blows.

Also in classical prose regularly —

   cervīcēs, neck.        nārēs, nose.
   fidēs, lyre.           viscerā, viscera.

Nouns used only in Certain Cases.

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

2. Used in Two Cases.
   b. Spontis (free-will), Gen. Sing.; sponte, Abl. Sing.

3. Used in Three Cases. Nēmō, no one (Nom.), has also the Dat. nēminī and the Acc. nēminem. The Gen. and Abl. are supplied by the corresponding cases of nūlius; vis. nūlīus and nūlīō.
Inflections.

4. Impetus has the Nom., Acc., and Abl. Sing., and the Nom. and Acc. Plu.; z. e. impetus, impetum, impetū, impetūs.

5. a. Precl, precem, prece, lacks the Nom. and Gen. Sing.
   b. Vicis, vicem, vice, lacks the Nom. and Dat. Sing.

6. Opis, dapis, and frūgis, — all lack the Nom. Sing.

7. Many monosyllables of the Third Declension lack the Gen. Plu.; as, cor, lūx, sōl, aes, ós (ōris), rūs, sāl, tūs.

Indeclinable Nouns.

58. Here belong —

   fās, n., right.
   lūstar, n., likeness.
   māne, n., morning.

   nefās, n., impiety.
   nihil, n., nothing.
   secus, n., sex.

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

Heteroclites.

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

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

   vās, vāsis (vessel); Plu., vāsa, vāsōrum, vāsīs, etc.
   jāgerum, jāgerī (acre); Plu., jāgera, jāgerōrum, jāgerībus, etc.

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

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

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

   c) Requiēs, requiētis, requiērum, regularly of the Third Declension, takes an Acc. of the Fifth, requiem, in addition to requiētum.

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

60. Heterogeneous nouns vary in Gender. Thus:—

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>balneum, n., bath;</td>
<td>balneae, f., bath-house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>epulum, n., feast;</td>
<td>epulae, f., feast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frēnum, n., bridle;</td>
<td>frēnē, m. (rarely frēna, n.), bridle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jōcus, m., jest;</td>
<td>jōca, n. (also jōcī, m.), jests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>locus, m., place;</td>
<td>loca, n., places; locī, m., passages or topics in an author.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rāstrum, n., rake;</td>
<td>rāstrī, m.; rāstra, n., rakes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**Plurals with Change of Meaning.**

61. The following nouns have one meaning in the Singular, and another in the Plural:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aedes, temple;</td>
<td>aedēs, house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auxilium, help;</td>
<td>auxilia, auxiliary troops.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carcer, prison;</td>
<td>carcerēs, stalls for racing-chariots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>castrum, fort;</td>
<td>castra, camp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>copia, abundance;</td>
<td>copiae, troops, resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finis, end;</td>
<td>finīs, borders, territory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fortūna, fortune;</td>
<td>fortūnae, possessions, wealth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gratia, favor;</td>
<td>gratiae, thanks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impedimentum, hindrance;</td>
<td>impedimenta, baggage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>littera, letter (of the alphabet);</td>
<td>litterae, epistles; literature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mōs, habit, custom;</td>
<td>mōrēs, character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opera, help, service;</td>
<td>operaē, laborers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ops) ops, help;</td>
<td>opēs, resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>para, part;</td>
<td>partēs, party; rôle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sal, salt;</td>
<td>salēs, salt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
62. Adjectives denote *quality*. They are declined like nouns, and fall into two classes,—

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

**ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS.**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Bonus, good.</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Nominative.</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Genitive.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dative.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ablative.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The Gen. Sing. Masc. and Neut. of Adjectives in *-us* ends in *-ī* (not in *-ī* as in case of Nouns; see § 25. 1; 2). So also the Voc. Sing. of such Adjectives ends in *-ī*, not in *-ī*. Thus *exīmus* forms Gen. *exīmissi*; Voc. *exīmis*.

2. Distributives (see § 78. 1. e) regularly form the Gen. Plu. Masc. and Neut. in *-um* instead of *-ōrum* (compare § 25. 6); as, *dānum*, *centēnum*; but always *singulōrum*.
64. Masculine like pocer:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MASCULINE</td>
<td>FEMININE</td>
<td>NEUTER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. tener</td>
<td>tenera</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. tener</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenerí</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. teneró</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>teneró</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. tenerum</td>
<td>teneram</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. tener</td>
<td>tenera</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. teneró</td>
<td>tenera</td>
<td>teneró</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. tener</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. tenerorum</td>
<td>tenerarum</td>
<td>tenerorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. teneris</td>
<td>teneris</td>
<td>teneris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. tenerıs</td>
<td>teneris</td>
<td>tenera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. tener</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. teneris</td>
<td>teneris</td>
<td>teneris</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65. Masculine like aeger:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MASCULINE</td>
<td>FEMININE</td>
<td>NEUTER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. sacer</td>
<td>sacra</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. sacrer</td>
<td>sacræ</td>
<td>sacré</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. sacreró</td>
<td>sacræ</td>
<td>sacró</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. sacrum</td>
<td>sacram</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. sacer</td>
<td>sacra</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. sacreró</td>
<td>sacrā</td>
<td>sacró</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. sacrer</td>
<td>sacræ</td>
<td>sacra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. sacrerorum</td>
<td>sacrarum</td>
<td>sacrorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. sacreris</td>
<td>sacrís</td>
<td>sacrís</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. sacreris</td>
<td>sacrís</td>
<td>sacrà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. sacrer</td>
<td>sacræ</td>
<td>sacrà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. sacreris</td>
<td>sacrís</td>
<td>sacrís</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Most adjectives in -er are declined like sacer. The following, however, are declined like tener: asper, rough; lacer, torn; hiber, free;
miser, wretched; prosperous, prosperous; compounds in -fer and -ger;
sometimes dexter, right.
2. Satur, full, is declined: satur, satura, saturum.

Nine Irregular Adjectives.

66. Here belong —

alius, another;
ulius, any;
uter, which? (of two);
solus, alone;
finus, one, alone.

They are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

67. These fall into three classes,—

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

---

1 This is almost always used instead of alius in the Genitive.
2 A Dative Singular Feminine altera also occurs.
Adjectives of the Third Declension.

a. With the exception of Comparatives, and a few other words mentioned below in § 70, 1, all Adjectives of the Third Declension follow the inflection of I-stems; i.e. they have the Ablative Singular in -i, the Genitive Plural in -iūm, the Accusative Plural in -is (as well as -ēs) in the Masculine and Feminine, and the Nominative and Accusative Plural in -iā in Neuters.

Adjectives of Three Terminations.

68. These are declined as follows:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ācer</td>
<td>ācris</td>
<td>ācre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ācris</td>
<td>ācris</td>
<td>ācrē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ācri</td>
<td>ācri</td>
<td>ācri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ācrem</td>
<td>ācrem</td>
<td>ācre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>ācer</td>
<td>ācris</td>
<td>ācre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ācri</td>
<td>ācri</td>
<td>ācri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
<td>ācrēa</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ācriūm</td>
<td>ācriūm</td>
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<tr>
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<td>ācriūs</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ācrēs -is</td>
<td>ācrēs -is</td>
<td>ācrēa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
<td>ācrēa</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ācriūs</td>
<td>ācriūs</td>
<td>ācriūs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

Adjectives of Two Terminations.

69. These are declined as follows: —

Fortis, strong. Fortior, stronger.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
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<td>forte</td>
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<tr>
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<td>fortis</td>
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PLURAL

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</thead>
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<td>fortis</td>
<td>fortioris</td>
<td>fortioris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>fortium</td>
<td>fortiorum</td>
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<td>fortibus</td>
<td>fortioribus</td>
<td>fortioribus</td>
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<tr>
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<td>fortis</td>
<td>fortioris, -is</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>fortis</td>
<td>fortioris</td>
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<td>fortibus</td>
<td>fortibus</td>
<td>fortioribus</td>
<td>fortioribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Adjectives of One Termination.

70. Felix, happy. Prudentus, prudent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
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<td>felicem</td>
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<td>prudentes</td>
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</tbody>
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PLURAL

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<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
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<td>felicum</td>
<td>prudentum</td>
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<td>felicibus</td>
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<td>prudentibus</td>
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<td>felicis, -is</td>
<td>felicis</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td>prudentes</td>
<td>prudentes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>felicibus</td>
<td>felicibus</td>
<td>prudentibus</td>
<td>prudentibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Adjectives of the Third Declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vetus, old.</th>
<th>Plūs, more.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR</strong></td>
<td><strong>SINGULAR</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. and F.</td>
<td>N. and F.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> vetus</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong> veteris</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> veterī</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> veterem</td>
<td>vētus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong> vētus</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong> vētere</td>
<td>vētere</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M. and F.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> veterēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong> veterum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> veteribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> veterēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong> vetera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong> veteribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. It will be observed that *vetus* is declined as a pure Consonant-Stem; *i.e.* Ablative Singular in -ē, Genitive Plural in -um. Nominative Plural Neuter in -a, and Accusative Plural Masculine and Feminine in -ās only. In the same way are declined *compon*us, *controlling*; *dīven*us, *rich*; *partiōc*es, *sharing*; *paupera*, *poor*; *prīncipēs*, *chief*; *sāpes*, *safe*; *superātus*, *surviving*. Yet *dīven*us always has Neut. Plu. dītīa.

2. *Inops*, *needy*, and *memor*, *mindful*, have Ablative Singular *ino*pī, *memorī*, but Genitive Plural *ino*pum, *memorum*.

3. Particles in -ēs and -āns follow the declension of 1-stems. But they do not have -ī in the Ablative, except when employed as adjectives; when used as participles or as substantives, they have -ē; as,—

   *A sapientē virō, by a wise man*; but
   *A sapientē, by a philosopher*;
   *Tarquiniō rēgnante, under the reign of Tarquin*.

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

5. In the Ablative Singular, adjectives, when used as substantives,—
   a) usually retain the adjective declension; as,—
   *aequālis*, *contemporary*, Abl. *aequālī*;
   *consulāris*, *ex-consul*, Abl. *consulārī*.

   So names of Months; as, *Aprīli*, *April*; *Decembris*, *December*.

b) But adjectives used as proper names have -ē in the Ablative Singular; as, *Colere*, *Celer*; *Juvenālis*, *Jovinal*.
Inflections.

c) Patrials in -sa, -stia and -sa, -stia, when designating places, regularly have -i; as, in Arpinâti, on the estate at Arpinum; yet -a, when used of persons; as, ab Arpinâti, by an Arpini-
nation.

6. A very few indeclinable adjectives occur, the chief of which are frugi, frugál; nêquam, worthless.

7. In poetry, adjectives and participles in -us sometimes form the Gen. Plu. in -um instead of -um; as, venietârum, of those coming.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

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

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

altus, high. altior, higher, altissimus, highest,
fortis, brave. fortior, fortissimus, very high.
felix, fortunate. felicior, felicissimus.

So also Participles, when used as Adjectives; as, —
docet, learned, doctior, doctissimus.
egens, needy, egentior, egentissimus.

3. Adjectives in -er form the Superlative by appending -imus to the Nominative of the Positive. The Comparative is regular. Thus: —
asper, rough, asperior, asperîmus.
pulchris, beautiful, pulchrior, pulcherrimus.
ácër, sharp, ácril, ácërîmus.
celer, swift, celerior, celerímus.

a. Notice mâtûrus, mâtûrîor, mâtûrisimus or mâtûrîmus.

4. Five Adjectives in -ilis form the Superlative by adding -îmus to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel. The Comparative is regular. Thus: —
facilis, easy, facilius, facilius.
difficilis, difficult, difficilius, difficilius.
similis, like, similior, simililimus.
dissimilis, unlike, dissimilior, dissimililimus.
humilis, low, humilior, humililimus.
Comparison of Adjectives.

5. Adjectives in -dicus, -dicus, and -volus form the Comparative and Superlative as though from forms in -dicēns, -dicēns, -volēns.
Thus:

māledicus, mālericus, māledicentior, māledicentiassimus.
magnificus, magnificentior, magnificentiassimus.
benevolus, kindlus, benevolentior, benevolentissimus.

a. Positives in -dicēns and -volēns occur in early Latin; as, māle dicēns, benevolēns.

6. Dīties has the Comparative dīvitior or dītius; Superlative dīvitiassimus or dītiussimus.

Irregular Comparison.

72. Several Adjectives vary the Stem in Comparison;

- bonus, good,
- malus, bad,
- parvus, small,
- magnus, large,
- multis, much,
- frugī, thrifty,
- nēquam, worthless,
- meiōr,
- pejor,
- minor,
- major,
- plis,
- frugālior,
- nēquior,
- optimum,
- pessimus,
- minimum,
- maximus,
- plurimus,
- frugalisimus,
- nēquissimus.

Defective Comparison.

73. 1. Positive lacking entirely,—
(Cf. prae, in front of.) prior, former, primus, first.
(Cf. citrā, this side of.) citerior, on this side, citius, nearer.
(Cf. utrā, beyond.) ulterior, farther, ultimus, farthest.
(Cf. intrā, within.) interior, inner, intimus, utmost.
(Cf. própe, near.) propior, nearer, proximus, nearest.
(Cf. dē, down.) dēterior, inferior, dēterrimus, worst.
(Cf. arcæī, possībus, possible.) potior, preferable, potissimus, chiefest.

2. Positive occurring only in special cases,—
posterō diē, annō, etc.,
the following day, etc., posterior, later,
posterī, descendants,
exterī, foreigners,
natioōneō, exterō, for- 
ēgu nationē;
posterī, posterior, later,
exterī, exterior,
postumus, late-born,
nationale, foreigner,
exterē, outer,
extrimus, outermost.
Inflections.

Inferi, gods of the lower world; inferior, lower; infimus, lowest.
Mare Inferum, Mediterranean Sea; medio, mid; medio, middle.
superior, gods above; superior, higher; suprèmus, last.
Mare Superum, Adriatic Sea; summus, highest.

3. Comparative lacking.

vetus, old; -erim, -st.
fidus, faithful; -issimus.
novus, new; novissimus, last.
sacer, sacred; -issimus.
falsus, false; falsissimus.

Also in some other words less frequently used.

4. Superlative lacking.

alacer, lively; alacrior.
ingens, great; ingentior.
salutarius, wholesome; salutarior.
juvenis, young; junior.
senex, old; senior.

a. The Superlative is lacking also in many adjectives in -alis, -alis, -alis, -alis, and in a few others.

Comparison by Magis and Maximē.

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


2. Adjectives in -us, preceded by a vowel; as, idoneus, adjecta, arduus, sleep; necessarius, necessary.

a. Adjectives in -quus, of course, do not come under this rule.

The first u in such cases is not a vowel, but a consonant.

1 Supplied by vetustior, from vetustus.
2 Supplied by recentior.
3 For newest, recentissimus is used.
4 Supplied by minimus nātū.
5 Supplied by maximus nātū.
Adjectives not admitting Comparison.

75. Here belong—

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

2. Some special words; as, misus, grarius, merus; and a few others.

FORMATION AND COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carus</th>
<th>Caris, dearly;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pulcher</td>
<td>Pulchrês, beautifully;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acerer</td>
<td>Acretër, fiercely;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Levis</td>
<td>Leviter, lightly;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

| Sapinis | Sapiniter, wisely; |
| Audax  | Audàctër, boldly; |
| Solleris | Sollerítër, skillfully; |

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

| (Carus) Caris, dearly. |
| (Pulcher) Pulchrês, beautifully. |
| (Acerer) Acretês, fiercely. |
| (Levis) Leviter, lightly. |
| (Sapinis) Sapiniter, wisely. |
| (Audax) Audàctër, boldly. |
Adverbs Peculiar in Comparison and Formation.

77. 1.

| benē, well       | melius,      | optimē.  |
| malē, ill       | pejus,       | pessimē. |
| magnopere, greatly | magis,       | maximē.  |
| multum, much    | plius,       | plūrimum.|
| nōn multum, *little* | minus,       | minimē.  |
| parum,          |              |          |
| dīō, long       | dūtius,      | dūtissimē.|
| nēquitur, worthless | nēquitus,    | nēquissimē.|
| saepe, often    | saeptius,    | saepissimē.|
| mātūrē, betimes  | mātūris,     | mātūrissimē.|
| prope, near     | proptius,    | proximē.  |
| nāper, recently |              | nūperrimē.|
| —                | potius,      | potissimum, especially. |
| —                | prīus, *before* | prīnum, *first*. |
| secus, otherwise| sētius, less |          |

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

crēbrōs, frequently; falsō, falsely;
continuō, immediately; subtilō, suddenly;
rārō, rarely; and a few others.

a. cito, quickly, has -ē.

3. A few adjectives employ the Accusative Singular Neuter as the Positive of the Adverb; as, —
multum, much; paulum, little; facile, easily.

4. A few adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive in -ter; as, —

firmus, firmly; humānus, humanly; largus, large, copiously; alius, alter, otherwise.

a. violentus has violenter.

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

78. Numerals may be divided into —

I. Numeral Adjectives, comprising —
   a. Cardinals; as, unus, one; duo, two; etc.
   b. Ordinals; as, primum, first; secundus, second; etc.
   c. Distributives; as, singuli, one by one; bini, two by two; etc.

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

79. Table of Numerical Adjectives and Adverbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cardinals</th>
<th>Ordinals</th>
<th>Distributives</th>
<th>Adverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>unus, una, unum</td>
<td>primum, first</td>
<td>singuli, one by one</td>
<td>semel, once</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duo, quae, duo</td>
<td>secundus, second</td>
<td>bini, two by two</td>
<td>bis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tria, tria</td>
<td>tertius, third</td>
<td>terni (trini)</td>
<td>ter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quattuor</td>
<td>quattuor, fourth</td>
<td>quaterni</td>
<td>quarti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quinque</td>
<td>quintus, fifth</td>
<td>quinquiennis</td>
<td>quinti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>sextus</td>
<td>seni</td>
<td>sexies</td>
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<td>septimus</td>
<td>septenni</td>
<td>septies</td>
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<td>viginti unus et viginti</td>
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<td>viginti duo</td>
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<td>septuaginti</td>
<td>septuaginti</td>
<td>septuageni</td>
<td>septages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>octoginti</td>
<td>octoginti</td>
<td>octageni</td>
<td>octages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nonaginti</td>
<td>nonaginti</td>
<td>nonageni</td>
<td>nonages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>centum</td>
<td>centum</td>
<td>centenii</td>
<td>centes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Inflections.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cardinals</th>
<th>Ordinals</th>
<th>Distributives</th>
<th>Adverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>101. centum unus</td>
<td>centèsimus primus</td>
<td>centëni singuli</td>
<td>centëni semel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200. ducenti, -ae, -a</td>
<td>ducentèsimus</td>
<td>ducentès</td>
<td>ducentès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300. trecenti</td>
<td>trecentèsimus</td>
<td>trecentès</td>
<td>trecentès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400. quadringenti</td>
<td>quattuorcentèsimus</td>
<td>quattuorcentès</td>
<td>quattuorcentès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500. quingenti</td>
<td>quingentèsimus</td>
<td>quingentès</td>
<td>quingentès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600. sescenti</td>
<td>sescentèsimus</td>
<td>sescentès</td>
<td>sescentès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700. septingenti</td>
<td>septingentèsimus</td>
<td>septingentès</td>
<td>septingentès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800. octingenti</td>
<td>octingentèsimus</td>
<td>octingentès</td>
<td>octingentès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900. nongenti</td>
<td>nongentèsimus</td>
<td>nongentès</td>
<td>nongentès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000. milia</td>
<td>millèsimus</td>
<td>millès</td>
<td>millès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,000. duo milia</td>
<td>bis millèsimus</td>
<td>bis millès</td>
<td>bis millès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000. centum milia</td>
<td>centès millèsimus</td>
<td>centès milia</td>
<td>centès milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000. decies centena</td>
<td>decies centès millès-</td>
<td>decies centès milia</td>
<td>decies centès milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>milia</td>
<td>milia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.**—-èsimus and -ēns are often written in the numerals instead of -ēsimus and -ēns.

### Declension of the Cardinals.

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

2. **Duō** is declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>duo</td>
<td>duorum</td>
<td>duobus</td>
<td>duōs</td>
<td>duobus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

3. **Tria** is declined,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tres</td>
<td>trium</td>
<td>tribus</td>
<td>tres (tria)</td>
<td>tribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

5. **Milia** is regularly an adjective in the Singular, and indeclinable.

   In the Plural it is a substantive (followed by the Genitive of the objects enumerated; § 201. 1), and is declined,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>milia</td>
<td>milia</td>
<td>milium</td>
<td>milia</td>
<td>milibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Thus *mīlle hōminēs, a thousand men;* but *duō mīła hōminum, two thousand men,* literally *two thousands of men.*

a. Occasionally the Singular admits the Genitive construction; as, *mīlle hōminum.*

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

**Peculiarities in the Use of Numerals.**

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

Thus:—

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

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

- *duodevigintī, eighteen* (but also *octōdecim*);
- *indēquadragintā, thirty-nine* (but also *trīgintā novem or novem et trīgintā*).

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

- *centum vigintī septem, one hundred and twenty-seven.*
- *annō octingentesīmō octōgēsimō secundō, in the year 882.*

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

- *centum et septem, one hundred and seven;*
- *centum et quadragintā, one hundred and forty.*

4. The Distributives are used—

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

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

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

- *bīnae litterae, two epistles.*

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

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

c) In multiplication; as,—

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

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

- *bīna hastīlia, two spears.*


C. PRONOUNS.

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

83. There are the following classes of pronouns:—

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

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Person</th>
<th>Second Person</th>
<th>Third Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ego, I</td>
<td>tū, thou</td>
<td>is, he; eo, she; id, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mei</td>
<td>tuī</td>
<td>(For declension see § 87.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mīhi</td>
<td>tīhi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mē</td>
<td>tē</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. ———</td>
<td>tū</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mē</td>
<td>tē</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PLURAL.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. nōs, we</td>
<td>vōs, you</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. nostrum</td>
<td>vēstrum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. nōs</td>
<td>vōs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. ———</td>
<td>vōs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. nōbis</td>
<td>vōbis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. A Dative Singular mī occurs in poetry.

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

---

1 The final 1 is sometimes long in poetry.
3. In early Latin, mé and tēd occur as Accusative and Ablative forms.

II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>First Person</th>
<th>Second Person</th>
<th>Third Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>mé, of myself</td>
<td>tūi, of thyself</td>
<td>sui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>mihi, to myself</td>
<td>tibi, to thyself</td>
<td>sibi1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>mé, myself</td>
<td>tē, thyself</td>
<td>sē or sēsē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>mé, with myself, etc.</td>
<td>tē, with thyself, etc.</td>
<td>sē or sēsē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

   inter sē pugnānt, they fight with each other.

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

III. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>First Person</th>
<th>Second Person</th>
<th>Third Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>meus, -a, -um, my</td>
<td>tuis, -a, -um, thy</td>
<td>sūs, -a, -um, his, her, its, their</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noster, nostra, nostrum, our</td>
<td>vester, vestra, vestrum, your</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Suus is exclusively Reflexive; as,

   pater liberos suōs amat, the father loves his children.

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

1 The final i is sometimes long in poetry.
2. The Vocative Singular Masculine of meus is mi.
3. The enclitic -pte may be joined to the Ablative Singular of the Possessive Pronouns for the purpose of emphasis. This is particularly common in case of suō, suā; as, suōpte, suāpte.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

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

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

Hic, istic, and ille are accordingly the Demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine</strong></td>
<td><strong>Feminine</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> híc</td>
<td>hác</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong> hújus</td>
<td>hújus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> húic</td>
<td>húic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> hune</td>
<td>hane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong> hóc</td>
<td>hác</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Iste, that, that of yours.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine</strong></td>
<td><strong>Feminine</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> istic</td>
<td>ista</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong> istius</td>
<td>istius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> istic</td>
<td>istic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> istum</td>
<td>istam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong> istic</td>
<td>ista</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ille (archaic olle), that, that one, he, is declined like iste.8

---

1 Forms of hic ending in -a sometimes append -ce for emphasis; as, hújusce, this . . . here; hóce, hisce. When -ne is added, -e and -ce become -el; as, bunóne, bunóce.

2 For istud, istác sometimes occurs; for ista, isticne.

3 For illus, illúce sometimes occurs.
### The Intensive Pronoun. — The Relative Pronoun. 51

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MASCULINE.</strong></td>
<td><strong>FEMININE.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ejus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>eum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>eō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Idem, the same.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MASCULINE.</strong></td>
<td><strong>FEMININE.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>idem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ejusdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>eidem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>eundem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>eōdem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Nom. Plu. Masc. also has *idem*, and the Dat. Abl. Plu. *idem* or *eadem*.

### V. The Intensive Pronoun.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MASCULINE.</strong></td>
<td><strong>FEMININE.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ipse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ipsius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ipsi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ipsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ipsō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### VI. The Relative Pronoun.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MASCULINE.</strong></td>
<td><strong>FEMININE.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>qui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cuius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>quem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>quiō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 An ablative *qui* occurs in *quicum*.
2 Sometimes *quis*.
VII. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

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

1. Quis, who?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MASC. AND FEM.</td>
<td>PLURAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUTER.</td>
<td>NUTER.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>quis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cūjus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>quem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>quō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. quid, what? what kind of? is declined precisely like the Relative Pronoun; viz. qui, quae, quod, etc.
   a. An old Ablative qui occurs, in the sense of how?
   b. Qui is sometimes used for quis in Indirect Questions.
   c. Quis, when limiting words denoting persons, is sometimes an adjective. But in such cases quis homō = what man?
      whereas qui homō = what sort of a man?
   d. Quis and qui may be strengthened by adding -nam. Thus: —
      Substantive. quīnam, who, pray? quīdamnam, what, pray?
      Adjective. quīnam, quaenam, quodnam, of what kind, pray?

VIII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBSTANTIVES</th>
<th>ADJECTIVES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M. AND F.</td>
<td>MASC.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quis</td>
<td>quis, qui, quid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alquis</td>
<td>alquid, aliqua, aliqua, aliqua, any.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quiscam,</td>
<td>quidquiam,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisperam</td>
<td>quidpieram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisque</td>
<td>quisque, quisque, quisque, any.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisvis, quaevs, quiatvis</td>
<td>quisvis, quaevs, quaevs, any.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quilbet, quiselbet, quidelbet</td>
<td>quilbet, quiatbet, quidelbet, any.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisdam, quaedam, quodam</td>
<td>quisdam, quaedam, quodam, any.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Indefinite Pronouns.—Pronominal Adjectives.

1. In the Indefinite Pronouns, only the pronominal part is declined. Thus: Genitive Singular aliōnum, oūjuslibet, etc.
2. Note that aliqua has aliqua in the Nominative Singular Feminine, also in the Nominative and Accusative Plural Neuter. Quiā has both quā and quās in these same cases.
3. Qualīm forms Accusative Singular quendam, quandam; Genitive Plural quīrundam, quārundam; the m being assimilated to n before d.
4. Aliquís may be used adjectively, and (occasionally) aliqua substantively.
5. In combination with nē, sī, nisi, num, either quis or qui may stand as a Substantive. Thus: sī quis or sī quiē.
6. Esquis, any one, though strictly an Indefinite, generally has interrogative force. It has both substantive and adjectival forms,—substantive, esquis, esquid; adjectival, esquiē, esquane and esquae, esquod.
7. Quisquam is not used in the Plural.
8. There are two Indefinite Relatives,—quicumque and quisquis, whoever. Quicumque declines only the first part; quisquis declines both, but has only quisquis, quidquid, quōquō in common use.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

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

1. alius, another; alter, the other;
    uter, which of two? (interr.); neuter, neither;
    whichever of two (rel.);
    finus, one;
    nūllus, no one (in oblique cases).

2. The compounds,
    uterque, utraque, utrumque, each of two;
    utercumque, utracumque, utrumñumque, whoever of two;
    uterlibet, utralibet, utrumlibet, either one you please;
    utervis, utravis, utrivis, either one you please;
    alteruter, alterutra, alterutrum, the one or the other.

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

Nom. alteruter altera utra alterum utrum
Gen. alterius utrius etc.
CHAPTER II. — Conjugation.

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

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

1. Two Voices, — Active and Passive.
2. Three Moods, — Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative.
3. Six Tenses, —
   Present, Perfect,
   Imperfect; Pluperfect,
   Future; Future Perfect.

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

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

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

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

96. The Personal Endings of the Verb are,—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVE</th>
<th>PASSIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1.</td>
<td>-o; -m; -o (Perf. Ind.);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-e; -et (Perf. Ind.); -eto or -eto, -re; -eto (Impv.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-te; -te (Impv.);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1.</td>
<td>-mus;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>-m; -mis (Perf. Ind.); -te, -minu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>-nt; -rant (Perf. Ind.); -nto</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VERB-STEMS.

97. Conjugation consists in appending certain endings to the Stem. We distinguish three different stems in a fully inflected verb,—
Verb-Stems.—The Four Conjugations.

I. Present Stem, from which are formed—
1. Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative,
2. Present and Imperfect Subjunctive,
3. The Imperative,
4. The Present Infinitive,
5. The Present Active Participle, the Gerund, and Gerundive.

II. Perfect Stem, from which are formed—
1. Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative,
2. Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive,
3. Perfect Infinitive,

III. Participial Stem, from which are formed—
1. Perfect Participle,
2. Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative,
3. Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive,
4. Perfect Infinitive,

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

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONJUGATION</th>
<th>INFINITIVE TERMINATION</th>
<th>DISTINGUISHING VOWEL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>-āre</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>-ēre</td>
<td>ę</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>-īre</td>
<td>ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>-īre</td>
<td>ā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>sum</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>es, thou art</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>est, he is</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>esse</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>ful</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>futurus</td>
<td></td>
<td>futurus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>sum</em>, I am,</td>
<td><em>sumus</em>, we are,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>es</em>, thou art,</td>
<td><em>estis</em>, you are,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>est</em>, he is;</td>
<td>* sunt*, they are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eram, I was,</td>
<td>erāmus, we were,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erās, thou wast,</td>
<td>erātis, you were,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erat, he was;</td>
<td>erant, they were.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erō, I shall be,</td>
<td>erimus, we shall be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eris, thou wilt be,</td>
<td>eritis, you will be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erit, he will be;</td>
<td>erunt, they will be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

| fut, I have been, I was, | futurum, you have been, they were. |
| futūris, thou hast been, thou wast, | futuritis, you have been, you were. |
| futūrat, he has been, he was; | futurant, they have been. |

**Perfect.**

| fueram, I had been, | fueramus, we had been, |
| fuerās, thou hadst been, | fuerātis, you had been, |
| fuerat, he had been; | fuerant, they had been. |

**Future Perfect.**

| fuerō, I shall have been, | fuerimus, we shall have been, |
| fueris, thou shall have been, | fueritis, you shall have been, |
| fuerit, he shall have been; | fuerint, they shall have been. |

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

### Present

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sim, may I be,</td>
<td>simus, let us be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stes, mayst thou be,</td>
<td>stes, be ye, may you be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sit, let him be, may he be;</td>
<td>sint, let them be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>essem, I should be,</td>
<td>essamus, we should be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>esses, thou wouldst be,</td>
<td>esses, you would be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>esset, he would be;</td>
<td>essent, they would be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fuerim, I may have been,</td>
<td>fuerimus, we may have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fueris, thou mayst have been,</td>
<td>fueritis, you may have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuerit, he may have been;</td>
<td>fuerint, they may have been.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Pluperfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fuissem, I should have been,</td>
<td>fuissem, we should have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuissest, thou wouldst have been,</td>
<td>fuissestis, you would have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuisset, he would have been;</td>
<td>fuisset, they would have been.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>esse, be thou,</td>
<td>esto, thou shalt be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>esto, he shall be;</td>
<td>sunt, they shall be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>esse, to be,</td>
<td>futurus esse, to be about to be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Participle

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>esse, to be,</td>
<td>futurus, about to be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

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

2. For essum, esses, esset, essent, the forms forem, foris, fores, forent are sometimes used.

3. For futurus esse the form fore is often used.

4. Declined like bonus, -a, -um.
FIRST (OR Ā-) CONJUGATION.


PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amō</td>
<td>amāre</td>
<td>amāvī</td>
<td>amātus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amō, I love,</td>
<td>amāmus, we love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amās, you love,</td>
<td>amātis, you love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amat, he loves;</td>
<td>amant, they love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

| amābam, I was loving,| amābāmus, we were loving,|
| amābās, you were loving,| amābātis, you were loving,|
| amābat, he was loving;| amābānt, they were loving.|

FUTURE.

| amābō, I shall love,| amābīmus, we shall love,|
| amābīs, you will love,| amābītis, you will love,|
| amābīt, he will love;| amābīnt, they will love.|

PERFECT.

| amāvī, I have loved, I loved,| amāvīmus, we have loved, we loved,|
| amāvīs, you have loved, you loved,| amāvītis, you have loved, you loved,|
| amāvit, he has loved, he loved;| amāvīrunt, -āre, they have loved, they loved.|

PLUPERFECT.

| amāveram, I had loved,| amāverāmus, we had loved,|
| amāverās, you had loved,| amāverātis, you had loved,|
| amāverat, he had loved;| amāverant, they had loved.|

FUTURE PERFECT.

| amāverō, I shall have loved,| amāverīmus, we shall have loved,|
| amāverēs, you will have loved,| amāverētis, you will have loved,|
| amāverīt, he will have loved;| amāverīnt, they will have loved. |
### Subjunctive

#### Present

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>amēm, may I love</em></td>
<td><em>amēmus, let us love</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amēs, may you love</em></td>
<td><em>amētis, may you love</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amēt, let him love</em></td>
<td><em>amēnt, let them love</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Imperfect

| *amārem, I should love* | *amāremus, we should love* |
| *amārēs, you would love* | *amārētis, you would love* |
| *amāret, he would love* | *amārent, they would love* |

#### Perfect

| *amāverim, I may have loved* | *amāverimus, we may have loved* |
| *amāverfa, you may have loved* | *amāverfitis, you may have loved* |
| *amāverit, he may have loved* | *amāverint, they may have loved* |

#### Pluperfect

| *amāvissem, I should have loved* | *amāvissemus, we should have loved* |
| *amāvisse, you would have loved* | *amāvisstis, you would have loved* |
| *amāvisset, he would have loved* | *amāvissent, they would have loved* |

### Imperative

**Pres.** *amē, love thou;*

**Fut.** *amētō, thou shalt love;*

**amētō, he shall love;**

**amētō, they shall love.**

### Infinitive

**Pres.** *amāre, to love.*

**Perf.** *amāvisse, to have loved.*

**Fut.** *amāturus esse, to be about to love.*

### Participle

**Pres. amāns,** loving.

(Gen. amantis.)

**Fut. amāturus, about to love.**

### Gerund

**Gen. amandī, of loving,**

**Dat. amandō, for loving,**

**Acc. amandum, loving,**

**Abl. amandō, by loving,**

**Acc. amātum, to love,**

**Abl. amātō, to love, be loved.**

---

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

**FIRST (OR Ā-) CONJUGATION.**


**Principal Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amor</td>
<td>amārī</td>
<td>amātus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amor</td>
<td>amāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāris</td>
<td>amāmin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātur</td>
<td>amantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābar</td>
<td>amābāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābāris, or -re</td>
<td>amābāmin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābātur</td>
<td>amābantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābor</td>
<td>amābimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāberis, or -re</td>
<td>amābimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābitur</td>
<td>amābuntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

*I have been loved or I was loved.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus (-a, -um) sum¹</td>
<td>amātūs (-ae, -a) sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus es</td>
<td>amātūs estis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus est</td>
<td>amātūs sunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

*I had been loved.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus eram¹</td>
<td>amātūs erāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erās</td>
<td>amātūs erātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erat</td>
<td>amātūs erant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future perfect.**

*I shall have been loved.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus erō¹</td>
<td>amātūs erīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erīs</td>
<td>amātūs erītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erit</td>
<td>amātūs erint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

¹ *Pri, pulsi, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc. So fueram, fuerās, etc., for eram, etc.; fuerō, etc., for erō, etc.*
First Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.

May I be loved, let him be loved.

Singular.

amer
amāris, or -re
amātur

Plural.

amāmur
amāmini
amāmentur

Imperfect.

I should be loved, he would be loved.

amārer
amārēris, or -re
amārētur

Perfect.

I may have been loved.

amātus sim
amātus atis

amātus sat

amātus esse
amātus essē
amātus esset

Pluperfect.

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

amātus essēm
amātus essētis
amātus essēt

Imperative.

Pres. amāre, be thou loved;
amāmini, be ye loved.

Fut. amātor, thou shalt be loved;
amātor, he shall be loved;
amantor, they shall be loved.

Infinitive.

Pres. amārī, to be loved.

Perf. amātus esse, to have been loved.

Fut. amātum Irī, to be about to be loved.

Participle.

Perfect. amātus, loved, having been loved.

Gerundive. amandus, to be loved, deserving to be loved.

1 Fuerim, etc., are sometimes used for sim; so fuissent, etc., for esset.
SECOND (OR Ε-) CONJUGATION.


PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>moneōre</td>
<td>monēfū</td>
<td>monitus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I advise.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>moneōmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēs</td>
<td>monētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēt</td>
<td>monēnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

I was advising, or I advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I was advising, or I advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēbam</td>
<td>monēbamus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbas</td>
<td>monēbatis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbat</td>
<td>monēbant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FUTURE.

I shall advise.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I shall advise.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēbō</td>
<td>monēbimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbis</td>
<td>monēbitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbit</td>
<td>monēbunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PERFECT.

I have advised, or I advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I have advised, or I advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monūf</td>
<td>monūimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monūstf</td>
<td>monūstis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monūt</td>
<td>monūrant, or-āre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLUPERFECT.

I had advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I had advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monueram</td>
<td>monuerāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerās</td>
<td>monuerātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerat</td>
<td>monuerant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I shall have advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monuerō</td>
<td>monuerīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monueris</td>
<td>monuerītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerit</td>
<td>monuerīnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Second Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I advise, let him advise.

SINGULAR.

moneam
moneas
moneat

PLURAL.

moneamus
moneatis
moneant

IMPERFECT.

I should advise, he would advise.

monearem
monearet

PERFECT.

I may have advised.

monearim
monearet

PLUPERFECT.

I should have advised, he would have advised.

moneassem
moneassest

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. monē, advise thou;
Fut. monētō, thou shalt advise,
monētō, he shall advise;

monē, advise ye.
monētē, ye shall advise,
monēntō, they shall advise.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. monēre, to advise.
Perf. monēisse, to have advised.
Fut. monērurus esse, to be about to advise.

PARTICIPE.

Pres. monēns, advising.

GERUND.

Gen. monēndi, of advising,
Dat. monēndo, for advising,
Acc. monēnum, advising,
Abl. monēndo, by advising.

SUPINE.

Acc. monēntum, to advise.
Abl. monēntō, to advise, be advised.
SECOND (OR Ἐ-) CONJUGATION.


**Principal Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pers. Ind</th>
<th>Pers. Inf.</th>
<th>Perf. Ind</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneor</td>
<td>monëri</td>
<td>monitus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneor</td>
<td>monëmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēris</td>
<td>monēminis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monētur</td>
<td>monēturus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I was advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbāris, or -re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbātur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I shall be advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēbor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēberis, or -re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbitur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I have been advised, I was advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus est</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I had been advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus eram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus eras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I shall have been advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus erō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus eris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monitus erimus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus eritis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Second Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.
May I be advised, let him be advised.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.
monēr
monērimur
monērīs, or -re monērīminfin
monērītur monērītuntur

IMPERFECT.
I should be advised, he would be advised.

monērēr
monērēmur
monērērīs, or -re monērērīminfin
monērērītur monērērītuntur

PERFECT.
I may have been advised.

monītus sim
monītīsimus
monītus sīs
monītīsīs
monītus sit
monītīsīt

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

monītus essēm
monītīessēmus
monītus essēs
monītīessēs
monītus essēt
monītīessēt

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. monērē, be thou advised; monērīminfin, be ye advised.
Fut. monētīr, thou shalt be advised,
monētīr, he shall be advised. monentōr, they shall be advised.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. monērī, to be advised.
Fut. monētūm irī, to be about to be advised.

PARTICIPLE.

Perfect. monītus, advised.
Gerundive. monēndus, to be advised, deserving to be advised.
THIRD (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION.

105. **Active Voice.** — Regō, *I rule.*

**Principal Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regō</td>
<td>regere</td>
<td>réxi</td>
<td>réctus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

*Singular.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><em>I rule.</em></th>
<th><em>I was ruling,</em> or <em>I ruled.</em></th>
<th><em>I shall rule.</em></th>
<th><em>I have ruled,</em> or <em>I ruled.</em></th>
<th><em>I shall have ruled.</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regō</td>
<td>regimus</td>
<td>regēbam</td>
<td>regāmus</td>
<td>rēxīs</td>
<td>rēxerīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regis</td>
<td>regitis</td>
<td>regēbās</td>
<td>regēbatis</td>
<td>rēxīt</td>
<td>rēxerītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regit</td>
<td>regunt</td>
<td>regēbat</td>
<td>regēbant</td>
<td>rēxīt</td>
<td>rēxerīnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><em>I shall rule.</em></th>
<th><em>I have ruled,</em> or <em>I ruled.</em></th>
<th><em>I shall have ruled.</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regam</td>
<td>regēmus</td>
<td>rēxīmus</td>
<td>rēxerīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regēs</td>
<td>regētis</td>
<td>rēxītis</td>
<td>rēxerītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reget</td>
<td>regent</td>
<td></td>
<td>rēxerīnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

**Present.**

*May I rule, let him rule.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regam</td>
<td>regāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regēs</td>
<td>regātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regat</td>
<td>regant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

*I should rule, he would rule.*

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēgerem</td>
<td>rēgerēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēgerēs</td>
<td>rēgerētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēgeret</td>
<td>rēgerent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

*I may have ruled.*

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēxerim</td>
<td>rēxerīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxerēs</td>
<td>rēxerētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxeret</td>
<td>rēxerent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

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

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēxissem</td>
<td>rēxissemus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxisēs</td>
<td>rēxisētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxisset</td>
<td>rēxisissent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperrative.**

*Pres. rege, rule thou; regite, rule ye.  Fut. regitē, thou shalt rule, reguntē, they shall rule.*

**Infinitive.**

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

**Gerund.**

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

**Participle.**

*Pres. regēns, ruling.  (Gen. regentis.)*

**Supine.**

*Acc. rēctūm, to rule, Abl. rēctū, to rule, be ruled.*
## Third (or Consonant-) Conjugation.


#### Principal Parts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regor</td>
<td>regī</td>
<td>rectus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Indicative Mood.

**Present Tense.**

- **Singular.** I am ruled.
  - regor
  - regeris
  - regitur

- **Imperfect.** I was ruled.
  - regēbar
  - regēbasīs, or -re
  - regēbātur

- **Future.** I shall be ruled.
  - regar
  - regēris, or -re
  - regētur

- **Perfect.** I have been ruled, or I was ruled.
  - rectus sum
  - rectus es
  - rectus est

- **Pluperfect.** I had been ruled.
  - rectus eram
  - rectus erās
  - rectus erat

- **Future Perfect.** I shall have been ruled.
  - rectus erō
  - rectus eris
  - rectus erit

- **Prerogative.**
  - rectus sum
  - rectus es
  - rectus est

- **Pluperfect.**
  - rectus eram
  - rectus erās
  - rectus erat

- **Future Perfect.**
  - rectus erō
  - rectus eris
  - rectus erit
**Third Conjugation.**

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

**PRESENT.**

*May I be ruled, let him be ruled.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regar</td>
<td>regāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regāris, or-re</td>
<td>regāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regātur</td>
<td>regantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERFECT.**

*I should be ruled, he would be ruled.*

| regerer | regerāmur |
| regerēris, or-re | regerēmini |
| regerētur | regerentur |

**PERFECT.**

*I may have been ruled.*

| rēctus sim | rēctīsimus |
| rēctus sita | rēctīsitis |
| rēctus sit | rēctīsint |

**PLUPERFECT.**

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

| rēctus essēm | rectīssēmus |
| rēctus essēs | rectīssētis |
| rēctus esset | rectīssēnt |

**IMPERATIVE.**

Pres. *regere, be thou ruled;* regēmini, be ye ruled.

Fut. *regērīs, thou shalt be ruled, reguntor, thou shalt be ruled.*

**INFINITIVE.**

Pres. *regī, to be ruled.*

Perf. *rēctus esse, to have been ruled.*

Fut. *rēctum fīt, to be about to be ruled.*

**PARTICIPLE.**

Pres. *rēctus, ruled.*

Perfect. *rēctus, ruled, having been ruled.*

Gerundive. *regendus, to be ruled, deserving to be ruled.*
Inflections.

FOURTH (OR Ī-) CONJUGATION.

107. Active Voice.—Audiō, I hear.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiō</td>
<td>audiō</td>
<td>audiō</td>
<td>audiō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīre</td>
<td>audīre</td>
<td>audīre</td>
<td>audīre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvi</td>
<td>audīvi</td>
<td>audīvi</td>
<td>audīvi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītus</td>
<td>audītus</td>
<td>audītus</td>
<td>audītus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>audiō</th>
<th>audīs</th>
<th>audit</th>
<th>I hear.</th>
<th>audiēbāmus</th>
<th>audiēbātis</th>
<th>audiēbat</th>
<th>audiēbant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I hear.</td>
<td>audiēmus</td>
<td>audiētis</td>
<td>audiēt</td>
<td>audiēbāmus</td>
<td>audiēbātis</td>
<td>audiēbat</td>
<td>audiēbant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

I was hearing, or I heard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>audiēbam</th>
<th>audiēbās</th>
<th>audiēbat</th>
<th>I shall hear.</th>
<th>audiēbāmus</th>
<th>audiēbātis</th>
<th>audiēbant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall hear.</td>
<td>audiēmus</td>
<td>audiētis</td>
<td>audiēt</td>
<td>audiēbāmus</td>
<td>audiēbātis</td>
<td>audiēbant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FUTURE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>audiēm</th>
<th>audiēs</th>
<th>audiet</th>
<th>I shall hear.</th>
<th>audiēmus</th>
<th>audiētis</th>
<th>audiēt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall hear.</td>
<td>audiēmus</td>
<td>audiētis</td>
<td>audiēt</td>
<td>audiēmus</td>
<td>audiētis</td>
<td>audiēt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PERFECT.

I have heard, or I heard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>audīvi</th>
<th>audīvī</th>
<th>audīverat</th>
<th>I had heard.</th>
<th>audīvīmus</th>
<th>audīvītis</th>
<th>audīverant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had heard.</td>
<td>audīveram</td>
<td>audīverā</td>
<td>audīverat</td>
<td>audīveram</td>
<td>audīverātis</td>
<td>audīverant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future Perfect.

I shall have heard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>audīverō</th>
<th>audīverīs</th>
<th>audīverit</th>
<th>I shall have heard.</th>
<th>audīverimus</th>
<th>audīverītis</th>
<th>audīverint</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall have heard.</td>
<td>audīverō</td>
<td>audīverīs</td>
<td>audīverit</td>
<td>audīverimus</td>
<td>audīverītis</td>
<td>audīverint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fourth Conjugation.

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

**Present.**
*May I hear, let him hear.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiám</td>
<td>audiánus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiäs</td>
<td>audiástis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiät</td>
<td>audiánt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**
*I should hear, he would hear.*

| audiērem | audiērémus |
| audiērës | audiērëtis |
| audiēret | audiērent |

**Perfect.**
*I may have heard.*

| audiēverim | audiēverémus |
| audiēverës | audiēverëtis |
| audiēverit | audiēverint |

**Pluperfect.**
*I should have heard, he would have heard.*

| audiēssēm | audiēssēmus |
| audiēssës | audiēssëtis |
| audiēssēt | audiēssētent |

**Imperative.**

- Pres. audí, hear thou; audíte, hear ye.
- Fut. audítō, thou shalt hear; audítōte, ye shall hear; audíuntō, they shall hear.

**Infinitive.**

- Pres. audíre, to hear.
- Perf. audiēsse, to have heard.
- Fut. audiērīs esse, to be about to hear.

**Participle.**

- Pres. audiēns, hearing.

**Gerund.**

- Gen. audiëndi, of hearing.
- Dativ. audiëndō, for hearing.
- Acc. audiëndum, hearing.
- Abl. audiëndō, by hearing.

**Supine.**

- Acc. audiētum, to hear.
- Abl. audiētū, to hear, be heard.
FOURTH (OR 1-) CONJUGATION.


PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perf. Ind.</th>
<th>Pres. Inf</th>
<th>Perf. Ind</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audior</td>
<td>audiri</td>
<td>auditus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>I am heard.</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audior</td>
<td>audimur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiris</td>
<td>audimini</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auditur</td>
<td>auditantur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Imperfect.

I was heard.

| audiēbar    | audiēbāmur  |
| audiēbāris, or -re | audiēbāmini |
| audiēbātur  | audiēbantur |

Future.

I shall be heard.

| audiēar     | audiēmur    |
| audiēris, or -re | audiēmini |
| audiētur    | audiēntur   |

Perfect.

I have been heard, or I was heard.

| auditus sum | auditus sumus |
| auditus es  | auditus estis |
| auditus est | auditus sunt  |

Pluperfect.

I had been heard.

| auditus eram | auditus erāmus |
| auditus erās | auditus erātis |
| auditus erat | auditus erant  |

Future Perfect.

I shall have been heard.

| auditus erō | auditus erīmus |
| auditus erīs | auditus erītis |
| auditus erīt | auditus erīnt  |
### Fourth Conjugation.

#### Subjunctive.

**Present.**

*May I be heard, let him be heard.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audĭar</td>
<td>audĭariamur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audĭaris, or -re</td>
<td>audĭariaminf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audĭatūr</td>
<td>audĭantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

*I should be heard, he would be heard.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Audīrer</th>
<th>Audīremur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audīrēris, or -re</td>
<td>Audīreminf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audīrētūr</td>
<td>Audīrentur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

*I may have been heard.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Audītus sīm</th>
<th>Audītīf sīmus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audītus sīs</td>
<td>Audītīf sītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audītus sīt</td>
<td>Audītīf sīnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Audītus essem</th>
<th>Audītīf essemus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audītus essēs</td>
<td>Audītīf essētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audītus essēt</td>
<td>Audītīf essēnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Imperative.

**Present.**

Audīrē, be thou heard; audīminī, be ye heard.

**Future.**

Audītor, thou shalt be heard, audītor, he shall be heard; audītuntor, they shall be heard.

#### Infinitive.

**Present.**

Audīrī, to be heard.

**Perfect.**

Audītus, heard, having been heard.

**Gerundive.**

Audīndus, to be heard, deserving to be heard.

Audīturī, to be about to be heard.
VERBS IN -tō OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

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

2. Here belong—
   a) capiō, to take; cupiō, to desire; faciō, to make; fodiō, to dig; fugiō, to flee; iaciō, to throw; pariō, to bear; quatiō, to shake; rapiō, to seize; sapiō, to taste.
   b) Compounds of laciō and speciō (both ante-classical); as, alliciō, entice; cōnspeciō, behold.
   c) The deponents gradior, to go; morior, to die; patior, to suffer.

110. **Active Voice.** — Capiō, I take.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPAL PARTS</th>
<th>PRES. IND.</th>
<th>PRES. IMP.</th>
<th>PERF. IND.</th>
<th>PERF. PASS. PARTIC.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiō</td>
<td>capere,</td>
<td>cēpi,</td>
<td>captus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**PRESENT TENSE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiō, capis, capit;</td>
<td>capimus, capitis, capiunt.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERFECT.**

| capiēbam, -iēbas, -iēbat; | capiēbāmus, -iēbatis, -iēbant. |       |       |

**FUTURE.**

| capiam, -iēs, -iēt; | capiēmus, -iētis, -iēnt. |       |       |

**PERFECT.**

| cēpi, -isti, -it; | cēpimus, -istis, -ērunt or -ēre. |       |       |

**PLUPERFECT.**

| cēperam, -erās, -erat; | cēperāmus, -erātis, -erant. |       |       |

**FUTURE PERFECT.**

| cēperō, -eris, -erit; | cēperimus, -eritis, -erint. |       |       |
SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR.
PRES.
capiam, -īas, -īat;

PLURAL.
capiamus, -īatis, -īant.

IMPERFECT.
caperem, -ēres, -ēret;

PERFECT.
cēperim, -ēris, -ērit;

PLUPERFECT.
cēpissem, -ēssēs, -ēssēt;

IMPETIVE.

Pres. cape;
Fut. capitō,

INFINITIVE.

Pres. capere.
Perf. cēpisse.
Fut. captūrus esse.

GERUND.

Gen. caplendi,
Dat. caplendō,
Acc. caplendum,
Abl. caplendō.

PARTICLE.

Pres. capiēns.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Acc. captum,
Abl. capti.


INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PRES.
capior,

caper, caperis, captur;

FUT.
capēbāris, -ēbāris, -ēbātūr;

IMPERFECT.
capēbar, -ēbāris, -ēbātūr;

FUTURE.
capior, -ēris, -ētur;

capēmur, -ēmini, -ēmentur.
Inflections.

Singular.  
Capture sum, es, est;  
captus eram, eras, erat;  
captus erō, eris, erit;  
SUBJUNCTIVE.  
caplar, -lāris, -lātur;  
caperer, -erēris, -erētur;  
captus slūm, sūs, slīt;  
captus essem, essēs, esset;  

Plural.  
capīsum, estīs, sunt.  
captī erūmus, erātis, erant.  
captī erīmus, erītis, erunt.  

Pluperfect.  
IMPERFECT.  
capīāmur, -āmini, -āntur.  
caperēmur, -erēmini, -erentur.  

Perfect.  
capīsimus, sitīs, sint.  
capīssimus, essētis, essent.  

Pluperfect.  

Imperative.  
Pres. capere;  
Fut. capētor, capitor;  

INFINITIVE.  
Pres. capt.  
Perf. captus esse.  
Fut. captum ēri.  

PARTICIPLE.  
Perfect. captus.  
Gerundive. capiendus.  

DEPONENT VERBS.

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

a. They have the following Active forms: Future Infinitive,
   Present and Future Participles, Gerund, and Supine.

b. They have the following Passive meanings: always in the
   Gerundive, and sometimes in the Perfect Passive Participle;
   as,—
   sequendus, to be followed; adepus, attained.
Deponent Verbs.

113. Paradigms of Deponent Verbs are —

I. Conj. mīrōr, mīrārī, mīrāitus sum, admirā.
II. Conj. verecr, verecrī, veritus sum, fear.
III. Conj. sequor, sequī, sequūtus sum, follow.
IV. Conj. largior, largīrī, largītus sum, give.
III. (in.-ior) patior, patī, passus sum, suffer.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

I. II. III. IV. III (in.-ior).

Pret. mīrōr verecr sequor largior patior
mīrāris verēris sequeria largēris pateris
mīrātur verētur sequitur largētur patiur
mīrāmur verēmur sequimur largēmur patimur
mīrāminf verēminf sequiminf largēminf patimini
mīrāntur verēntur sequuntur largēntur patiuntur

Impf. mīrābar verēbar sequēbar largēbar patībar
Pat. mīrābor verēbor sequar largiar patiār

Perf. mīrātus sum verītus sum secūtus sum largitus sum passus sum
Plup. mīrātus eram verītus eram secūtus eram largitus eram passus eram

F. P. mīrātus erō verītus erō secūtus erō largitus erō passus erō

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pret. mīrēr verēr sequar largēr patiār
Impf. mīrērer verērer sequerer largērer paterēr

Perf. mīrātus sim verītus sim secūtus sim largitus sim passus sim
Plup. mīrātus essem verītus essem secūtus essem largitus essem passus essem

IMPERATIVE.

Pret. mīrēte verēte sequere largētre patiēre
Pat. mīrētor verētor sequitor largētor patiōtor

INFinitive.

Pret. mīrētī verētī sequī largētī patī

Perf. mīrātus esse verītus esse secūtus esse largitus esse passus esse

Pat. mīrātus esse verītus esse secūtus esse largētus esse passētus esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pret. mīrēns verēns sequēns largēns patēns

Pat. mīrētūs verētūs secūtūs largētūs pastētūs

Perf. mīrātus verītus secūtus largētus pastētus

Ger. mīrēndus verēndus sequendus largēndus pastēndus

GERUND.

mirandī, verendi sequendi largēndi patiēndi
mirandō, etc. verendō, etc. sequendō, etc. largēndō, etc. patiēndō, etc.

SUPINE.

mīrātum, -ī · verītum, -ī · secūtum, -ī · largītum, -ī · passūm, -ī
SEMI-DEPONENTS.

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

audeō, audēre, ausus sum, to dare.

gaudeō, gaudeō, gavisus sum, to rejoice.

soleō, solēre, solitus sum, to rejoice.

fidō, fidēre, fīsus sum, to trust.

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

adolēscō, grow up; adultus, having grown up.

cēnāre, dīnus; cēnātus, having dined.

placēre, please; placitus, having pleased, agreeable.

prandēre, lunch; prānusus, having lunched.

pōtēre, drink; pōtus, having drunk.

jūrāre, swear; jūratūs, having sworn.

a. Juratūs is used in a passive sense also.

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

revertor, revertō (Inf.), revertī (Perf.), to return.

dēvertor, dēvertō (Inf.), dēvertī (Perf.), to turn aside.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

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

Active Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pret. amātūrus (a, -um) sum, I am about to love.

Imp. amātūrus eram, I was about to love.

Perf. amātūrus fui, I have been (was) about to love.

Pln. amātūrus fueram, I had been about to love.

Fut. F. amātūrus fuerō, I shall have been about to love.
PECULIARITIES OF CONJUGATION.

116. 1. Perfects in -ēvi, -ēvi, and -ēvi, with the forms derived from them, often drop the ve or vi before endings beginning with r or s. So also nōvi (from nōsec) and the compounds of mōvi (from moveō). Thus: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>aemāvisti</th>
<th>aemāstī</th>
<th>aemāvīste</th>
<th>aemāvīste</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāvisse</td>
<td>amāisse</td>
<td>amāvisse</td>
<td>amāissē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverunt amārunt</td>
<td>amāverunt</td>
<td>amārunt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverim</td>
<td>amārim</td>
<td>amāveram</td>
<td>amāram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverō</td>
<td>amārō</td>
<td>amāverō</td>
<td>amārō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nōvisti</td>
<td>nōstī</td>
<td>nōverit</td>
<td>nōrim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nōvīste</td>
<td>nōsīste</td>
<td>nōveram</td>
<td>nōram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvisti</td>
<td>audīstī</td>
<td>audīvisse</td>
<td>audīssē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. In the Gerund and Gerundive of the Third and Fourth Conjugations, the endings -undus, -undi, often occur instead of -endus and -endi, as faciundus, faciundī.

3. Dīcō, dūcō, faciō, form the Imperatives, dīcō, dūcō, facō. But compounds of faciō form the Imperative in -ficē, as cōnīficē. Compounds of dīcō, dūcō, accent the ultima; as, ēdīcē, ēducē.

4. Archaic and Poetic forms: —
   a. The ending -ier in the Present Infinitive Passive; as, amārīer, monērīer, dicērīer, for amārī, monērī, dicīrī.
   b. The ending -bam for -ēbam in Imperfects of the Fourth Conjugation, and -bō for -ēam in Futures; as, scībām, scībō, for scīēbam, sciam.
   c. Instead of the fuller forms, in such words as dīxīfī, scīpīsīsīsī, surrēxisse, we sometimes find dīxīrī, scīpīsīsī, surrēxe, etc.
   d. The endings -im, -is, etc. (for -am, -ās, etc.) occur in a few Subjunctive forms; as, edim (eat), duīnt, perdūnt.

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

FORMATION OF THE VERB STEMS.

Formation of the Present Stem.

117. Many verbs employ the Verb Stem for the Present Stem; as, dōcere, dūcere, amāre, monēre, audire. Others form the Present Stem variously, as follows: —

1. By appending the vowels, ē, ē, ē; as, —
   jūvāre, Present Stem jūvā- (Verb Stem jūv-).
   augēre, " " augē- (" " aug-).
   vincīre, " " vincī- (" " vinc-).

2. By adding l, as capīlō. Present Stem capī- (Verb Stem cap-).

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

4. By appending -n to the Verb Stem; as, —
   cernō
   pellō (for pel-nō).

---

1 Strictly speaking, the Present Stem always ends in a Thematic Vowel (ō or ō); as, dōcō-, dūcō-, amāre-, amā-. But the multitude of phonetic changes involved prevents a scientific treatment of the subject here. See the Author's Latin Language.
5. By appending t to the Verb Stem; as, —
   flect-ō.

6. By appending se to the Verb Stem; as, —
   crōsc-ō, sefōsc-ō.

7. By Reduplication, that is, by prefixing the initial consonant of
   the Verb Stem with t; as, —
   gi-gu-ō (root gen-), sīat-ō (root sta-).

Formation of the Perfect Stem.

118. The Perfect Stem is formed from the Verb Stem —

1. By adding v (in case of Vowel Stems); as, —
   amāv-ī, dālēv-ī, audīv-ī.

2. By adding u (in case of some Consonant Stems); as, —
   atēpū-ī, genu-ī, alu-ī.

3. By adding s (in case of most Consonant Stems); as, —
   carp-ō, Perfect carps-ī.
   scrīb-ō, “ scrīps-ī (for scrīb-as).
   rid-eō, “ rīs-ī (for rīd-as).
   sent-iō, “ sēns-ī (for sent-as).
   dic-ō, “ dir-ī (i.e. dic-as).

a. Note that before the ending -as a Dental Mute (t, d) is
   lost; a Guttural Mute (o, g) unites with s to form x; while
   the Labial b is changed to p.

4. Without addition. Of this formation there are three types: —
a) The Verb Stem is reduplicated by prefixing the initial con-
   sonant with the following vowel or e; as, —
   currō, Perfect cu-curtī.
   poecō, “ po-poecō.
   pēlī, “ pe-peelī.

NOTE 1. — Compounds, with the exception of dīō, stīō, stētō, dīscō, poecō,
   omit the reduplication. Thus: com-pull, but re-poecō.
NOTE 2. — Verbs beginning with sp or st retain both consonants in the redup-
   lication, but drop s from the stem; as, spondeō, spo-pondī; stō, stetī.

b) The short vowel of the Verb Stem is lengthened; as, legō,
   lēgit, agō, ēgit. Note that ē by this process becomes ē.

c) The vowel of the Verb Stem is unchanged; as, vertō,
   vertī; minuō, minuī.
Formation of the Participial Stem.

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

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

   amā-re, Participle amā-tus.
   délē-re, " délē-tus.
   audī-re, " audī-tus.
   legē-re, " legē-tus.
   scrib-e-re, " scrib-tus.
   sentī-re, " sēn-tus (for sent-tus).
   caed-e-re, " caed-tus (for caed-tus).

   a. Note that g, before t, becomes c (see § 6, 3); b becomes p; while dt or tt becomes ss, which is then often simplified to s (§ 5, 3).

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

   lāb-i, Participle lāp-sus.
   fig-e-re, " fig-tus.

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

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

   domā-re, dom-itus.
   monē-re, mon-itus.

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

   juvā-re, Perf. Partic. jūtus, has Fut. Act. Partic. juvātūrus. ¹
   lavā-re, " lautus, " " lavātūrus.
   part-e-re, " partus, " " " partūrus.
   ru-e-re, " rutus, " " " rutūrus.
   sect-e-re, " sectus, " " " sectūrus.
   fru-i, " frūctus, " " " frūctūrus.
   mort-i, " mortus, " " " mortūrus.
   ort-i, " ortus, " " " ortūrus.

¹ But the compounds of jūvē sometimes have jūtūrus; as, adjūtūrus.
LIST OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS, WITH
PRINCIPAL PARTS.

First (ā-) Conjugation.

120. 1. Perfect in -vit.

amō amāre amāvi amātus love
pōtō pōtāre pōtāvi pōtus (§ 114, 2) drink

II. Perfect in -uit.

crepō crepāre crepāvi crepītūrus rattle
cubō cubāre cubāvi cubītūrus lie down
domō domāre domāvi domītūrus tame
frīcō frīcāre frīcāvi frīctūrus and frīcatūs rub
micō micāre micāvi — glitter
dimicō dimicāre dimicāvī dimīcātūm (est)1 fight
explicō explicāre explicāvī (-ul) explicātūs (-itus) unfold
im-plicō implicāre implicāvī (-ul) implicātūs (-itus) entwine
secō secāre secāvī sectūs cut
sonō sonāre sonāvī sonātūrus sound
tonō tonāre tonāvī — thunder
vetō vetāre vetāvī vetītūs forbid

III. Perfect in -ī with Lengthening of the Stem Vowel.

juvō juvāre juvāvi jūtus help
lavō lavāre lāvī lautūs wash

IV. Perfect Reduplicated.

stō stāre stāvī stātūrus

V. Deponents.

These are all regular, and follow mirōr, mirātī, mirātus sum.

Second (ē-) Conjugation.

121. 1. Perfect in -vit.

dēleō dēlēre dēlevī dēletūs destroy
deplēō deplēre deplēvī deplētūs weep, lament
com-plēō com-plērē com-plēvī com-plētūs fill up
aboleō aboleāre aboleāvī aboleātūs destroy
sieō sīēre sīēvī sīētūs set in motion

1 Used only impersonally.
2 So implēō, explēō.
3 Compounds follow the Fourth Conjugation: acēō, accīre, etc.
II. Perfect in -UIT.

a. Type -eō, -ère, -uī, -itus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>1st Pers.</th>
<th>2nd Pers.</th>
<th>3rd Pers.</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arceō</td>
<td>arcēre</td>
<td>arcūī</td>
<td>coercitus</td>
<td>keep off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coerceō</td>
<td>coercēre</td>
<td>coercuī</td>
<td>exercitus</td>
<td>hold in check</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exercoē</td>
<td>exercēre</td>
<td>exercuī</td>
<td>calūī</td>
<td>practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calcō</td>
<td>calēre</td>
<td>caluī</td>
<td>carūī</td>
<td>be warm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carceō</td>
<td>carēre</td>
<td>caruī</td>
<td>caritūrus</td>
<td>be without</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dolceō</td>
<td>dolēre</td>
<td>doluī</td>
<td>dolitūrus</td>
<td>grieve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habeō</td>
<td>habēre</td>
<td>habuī</td>
<td>habitus</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēbeō</td>
<td>dēbēre</td>
<td>dēbuī</td>
<td>dēbitus</td>
<td>owe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praebēō</td>
<td>praebēre</td>
<td>praebuī</td>
<td>praebitus</td>
<td>offer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jaceō</td>
<td>jacēre</td>
<td>jacuī</td>
<td>jacitūrus</td>
<td>lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meroē</td>
<td>merēre</td>
<td>meruī</td>
<td>meritus</td>
<td>earn, deserve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>monēre</td>
<td>monuī</td>
<td>monitus</td>
<td>advise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nocēō</td>
<td>nocēre</td>
<td>nocuī</td>
<td>nocitum (est)</td>
<td>injure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pāreō</td>
<td>pāreō</td>
<td>pāruī</td>
<td>pāritūrus</td>
<td>obey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>placeō</td>
<td>placēre</td>
<td>placuī</td>
<td>placitūrus</td>
<td>please</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taceō</td>
<td>tacēre</td>
<td>tacuī</td>
<td>tacitūrus</td>
<td>be silent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>terreō</td>
<td>terrēre</td>
<td>terruī</td>
<td>territus</td>
<td>frighten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>valeō</td>
<td>valēre</td>
<td>valuī</td>
<td>valitūrus</td>
<td>be strong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1. — The following lack the Participial Stem: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ēgō</td>
<td>egēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēminō</td>
<td>ēminēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fōrō</td>
<td>fōrēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horō</td>
<td>horēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>latō</td>
<td>latēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nītō</td>
<td>nītēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oleō</td>
<td>oleēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pallō</td>
<td>pallēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patō</td>
<td>patēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rubō</td>
<td>rubēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sīlō</td>
<td>sīlēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>splendō</td>
<td>splendēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>studō</td>
<td>studēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stupō</td>
<td>stupēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>timō</td>
<td>timēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>torpō</td>
<td>torpēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vīgō</td>
<td>vīgēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vīrō</td>
<td>virēre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and others.
### List of the Most Important Verbs.

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

- aveō
- frigeō
- immineō
- maerēō
- pollēō
- and others.

#### b. Type -eō, -ere, -ui, -itus (-sus).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>First Form</th>
<th>Second Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cēnēō</td>
<td>cēnsūrē</td>
<td>cēnsūrī</td>
<td>cēnus</td>
<td>estimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>docēō</td>
<td>docuērē</td>
<td>docuērī</td>
<td>docēns</td>
<td>teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miscēō</td>
<td>miscuērē</td>
<td>miscuērī</td>
<td>mixtuēns</td>
<td>mix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teneō</td>
<td>tenērē</td>
<td>tenērī</td>
<td>tenēns</td>
<td>hold</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Soicontēō and sustineō; but —

- retineō
- obtineō
- torreō

#### III. Perfect in -ēī.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>First Form</th>
<th>Second Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>augeō</td>
<td>auguērē</td>
<td>auguērī</td>
<td>auctus</td>
<td>increase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>torqueō</td>
<td>torquērē</td>
<td>torquērī</td>
<td>tortus</td>
<td>twist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indulgeō</td>
<td>indulgērē</td>
<td>indulgērī</td>
<td>indulguēns</td>
<td>indulge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lūceō</td>
<td>lūcērē</td>
<td>lūcērī</td>
<td>lūxī</td>
<td>be light</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lūgeō</td>
<td>lūgērē</td>
<td>lūgērī</td>
<td>lūxī</td>
<td>mourn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jubeō</td>
<td>jubērē</td>
<td>jubērī</td>
<td>jussūs</td>
<td>order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>per-mulceō</td>
<td>permulcērē</td>
<td>permulcērī</td>
<td>permulcēns</td>
<td>soothe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rideō</td>
<td>ripērē</td>
<td>ripērī</td>
<td>risum (est)</td>
<td>laugh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suādeō</td>
<td>suādērē</td>
<td>suādērī</td>
<td>suāsum (est)</td>
<td>advise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abs-tergeō</td>
<td>abstergērē</td>
<td>abstergērī</td>
<td>abstergēns</td>
<td>wipe off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ārdeō</td>
<td>ārdērē</td>
<td>ārdērī</td>
<td>ārsum</td>
<td>burn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haerēō</td>
<td>haerērē</td>
<td>haerērī</td>
<td>haesūrōs</td>
<td>stick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maneō</td>
<td>manērē</td>
<td>manērī</td>
<td>mansūrōs</td>
<td>stay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>algeō</td>
<td>algērē</td>
<td>algērī</td>
<td>alsī</td>
<td>be cold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fulgeō</td>
<td>fulgērē</td>
<td>fulgērī</td>
<td>fulsī</td>
<td>gleam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>urgeō</td>
<td>urgeērē</td>
<td>urgeērī</td>
<td>urēs</td>
<td>press</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### IV. Perfect in -ēī with Replication.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>First Form</th>
<th>Second Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mordeō</td>
<td>mordērē</td>
<td>mordērī</td>
<td>morsūs</td>
<td>bite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spondeō</td>
<td>spondeērē</td>
<td>spondeērī</td>
<td>spōnsūs</td>
<td>promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tondeō</td>
<td>tondērē</td>
<td>tondērī</td>
<td>tōnsūs</td>
<td>shear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pendeō</td>
<td>pendērē</td>
<td>pendērī</td>
<td>pependī</td>
<td>hang</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
V. Perfect in -ē with Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

- caveō  cavēre  cīvi  cautīrus  
- faveō  favēre  fāvī  fātūrus  
- fočeō  fočere  fōvī  fōtus  
- moveō  movēre  mōvī  mōtus  
- paveō  pavēre  pāvī  
- sedeō  sedēre  sēdi  sessūrus  
- videō  vidēre  vīdī  visus  
- voveō  vovēre  vōvī  vōtus  

VI. Perfect in -ē without either Replication or Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

- serveō  servēre  (fervī fervul)  ——  
- praudeō  prandēre  prandī  prānsus (§ 114, 2)  lunch  
- strīdeō  stridēre  stridī  ——  

VII. Deponents.

- liceor  licēri  līcītus sum  
- polliceor  pollicēri  pollicitus sum  
- mereor  mercēri  merītus sum  
- misereor  miserēri  miserītus sum  
- vereor  verēri  verītus sum  
- fatēor  fatēri  fātus sum  
- confiteor  confitēri  confītītus sum  
- reor  rēri  rātus sum  
- medeor  medēri  
- tueor  tuēri  

Third (Consonant) Conjugation.

22. I. Verbs with Present Stem ending in a Consonant.

1. Perfect in -āt.

   a. Type -ē, -ēre, -āt, -tus.

   - carpō  carpere  carpī  carpūtus  
   - sculpō  sculpere  sculpī  sculpūtus  
   - rēpō  rēpere  rēpī  
   - serpō  serpere  serpī  
   - scribō  scribere  scripsī  scriptūtus  
   - nūbō  nūbere  nūpsī  nūptā (woman only)  
   - regō  regere  rēxi  rēctus  

   | take care | favor | cherish | move | fear | sit | see | vow |
   | boil | lunch | creak |

| bid | promise | earn | pity | fear | confess | confess | think | heal | protest |

<p>| pluck | chisel | creep | crawl | write | marry | govern |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tegō</th>
<th>tegere</th>
<th>tēxt</th>
<th>tēctus</th>
<th>cover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>al-flīgō</td>
<td>alflīgere</td>
<td>alflīxī</td>
<td>alflīcitus</td>
<td>shatter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dicō</td>
<td>dicere</td>
<td>dīxi</td>
<td>dīctus</td>
<td>say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dūcō</td>
<td>dūcere</td>
<td>dūxi</td>
<td>ductus</td>
<td>lead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coquō</td>
<td>coquere</td>
<td>coxī</td>
<td>coctus</td>
<td>cook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trahō</td>
<td>trahere</td>
<td>trāxi</td>
<td>trāctus</td>
<td>draw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vehō</td>
<td>vehere</td>
<td>vexī</td>
<td>vectus</td>
<td>carry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cingō</td>
<td>cingere</td>
<td>cīnxī</td>
<td>cinctus</td>
<td>gird</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tīngō</td>
<td>tīngere</td>
<td>tīnxī</td>
<td>tīntus</td>
<td>dip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jungō</td>
<td>jungere</td>
<td>jūnxī</td>
<td>jūctus</td>
<td>join</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fingō</td>
<td>fingere</td>
<td>fīnxī</td>
<td>fīctus</td>
<td>mould</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pīngō</td>
<td>pīngere</td>
<td>pīnxī</td>
<td>pīctus</td>
<td>paint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stringō</td>
<td>stringere</td>
<td>strīnxī</td>
<td>strictus</td>
<td>bind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-stingō 1</td>
<td>-stinguerē</td>
<td>-stīnxī</td>
<td>-stīctus</td>
<td>blow out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unguō</td>
<td>unguere</td>
<td>ānxī</td>
<td>ántus</td>
<td>anoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vivō</td>
<td>vivere</td>
<td>vīxī</td>
<td>victim (est)</td>
<td>live</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gerō</td>
<td>gerere</td>
<td>gessī</td>
<td>gestus</td>
<td>carry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūrō</td>
<td>ūrere</td>
<td>ussī</td>
<td>stūsus</td>
<td>burn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>temnō</td>
<td>temnere</td>
<td>con-tempsi</td>
<td>con-temptus</td>
<td>despise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Type -ō, -ōre, -ā, -ānōs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>figō</th>
<th>figere</th>
<th>fīxī</th>
<th>fīxus</th>
<th>fasten</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mergō</td>
<td>mergere</td>
<td>mersī</td>
<td>mersus</td>
<td>sink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spargō</td>
<td>spargere</td>
<td>sparsī</td>
<td>sparsus</td>
<td>scatter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flectō</td>
<td>flectere</td>
<td>flexī</td>
<td>flexus</td>
<td>bend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nectō</td>
<td>nectere</td>
<td>nēxi (nexī)</td>
<td>nexus</td>
<td>twine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mittō</td>
<td>mittere</td>
<td>mīsī</td>
<td>missus</td>
<td>send</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rādō</td>
<td>rādere</td>
<td>rāsī</td>
<td>rāsus</td>
<td>shave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rōdō</td>
<td>rōdere</td>
<td>rōsī</td>
<td>rōsus</td>
<td>gnaw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vādō</td>
<td>vādere</td>
<td>-vāsi 2</td>
<td>-vāsum (est) 2</td>
<td>march, walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lūdō</td>
<td>lūdere</td>
<td>lūsī</td>
<td>lūsum (est)</td>
<td>play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trūdō</td>
<td>trūdere</td>
<td>trūsī</td>
<td>trūsus</td>
<td>push</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laedō</td>
<td>laedere</td>
<td>laesī</td>
<td>laesus</td>
<td>injure, hurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>claudō</td>
<td>claudere</td>
<td>clausī</td>
<td>clausus</td>
<td>close</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plaudō</td>
<td>plaudere</td>
<td>plausī</td>
<td>plausum (est)</td>
<td>clap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>explōdō</td>
<td>explodere</td>
<td>explōsī</td>
<td>explōsus</td>
<td>hoot off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cēdō</td>
<td>cēdere</td>
<td>cessī</td>
<td>cessum (est)</td>
<td>withdraw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dividō</td>
<td>dividere</td>
<td>divīsī</td>
<td>divisus</td>
<td>divide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>premō</td>
<td>premere</td>
<td>pressī</td>
<td>pressus</td>
<td>press</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Fully conjugated only in the compounds: exstingūō, restingūō, dīstingūō.
2 Only in the compounds: évādō, invādō, pervādō.
2. Perfect in -3 with Reduplication.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Middle</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ab-dō</td>
<td>abdere</td>
<td>abdidi</td>
<td>abditus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red-dō</td>
<td>red-dere</td>
<td>reddidi</td>
<td>redditus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So add, condī, dīdī, perdī, prōdī, tríndī, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Middle</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cōn-sistō</td>
<td>cōnstitere</td>
<td>cōnstiti</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>resistō</td>
<td>resistere</td>
<td>resisti</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circumstō</td>
<td>circumstistere</td>
<td>circumsteti</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cadō</td>
<td>cadere</td>
<td>cecidī</td>
<td>cāsārus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caedō</td>
<td>caedere</td>
<td>cecidī</td>
<td>caesus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pendō</td>
<td>pendere</td>
<td>pecpendī</td>
<td>pēnsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tendō</td>
<td>tendere</td>
<td>tetendī</td>
<td>tentus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trūndō</td>
<td>tundere</td>
<td>tutudī</td>
<td>tūsus, tūnsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fallō</td>
<td>fellere</td>
<td>fēklii</td>
<td>(falsus, as Adj.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pellō</td>
<td>pellere</td>
<td>pepuli</td>
<td>pulslus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>currō</td>
<td>currere</td>
<td>cuccurrī</td>
<td>cursum (est)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parcō</td>
<td>parcere</td>
<td>pecperci</td>
<td>parsārus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>canō</td>
<td>canere</td>
<td>cecini</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tangō</td>
<td>tangere</td>
<td>tēligi</td>
<td>tāctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>punctō</td>
<td>punctere</td>
<td>pūpugi</td>
<td>pāctus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—In the following verbs the perfects were originally reduplicated, but have lost the reduplicating syllable: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Middle</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>per-cellō</td>
<td>percellere</td>
<td>perculi</td>
<td>perculsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>findō</td>
<td>findere</td>
<td>fidī</td>
<td>fissus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scindō</td>
<td>scindere</td>
<td>scidi</td>
<td>scissus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tollō</td>
<td>tollere</td>
<td>sus-tuli</td>
<td>sublātus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Perfect in -1 with Lengthening of Stem-Vowel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Middle</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agō</td>
<td>agere</td>
<td>égī</td>
<td>āctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peragō</td>
<td>peragere</td>
<td>perēgī</td>
<td>perāctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subligō</td>
<td>subligere</td>
<td>subēgī</td>
<td>subāctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cogō</td>
<td>cogere</td>
<td>coēgī</td>
<td>coāctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frangō</td>
<td>frangere</td>
<td>frēgī</td>
<td>frāctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfringō</td>
<td>perfringere</td>
<td>perfrēgī</td>
<td>perfrāctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>legō</td>
<td>legere</td>
<td>īgī</td>
<td>īctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perlegō</td>
<td>perlegere</td>
<td>perīgī</td>
<td>perīctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colligō</td>
<td>colligere</td>
<td>collēgī</td>
<td>collēctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delīgō</td>
<td>delīgere</td>
<td>delēgī</td>
<td>delēctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dilligō</td>
<td>dilligere</td>
<td>dillēxi</td>
<td>dillēctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intellegō</td>
<td>intellegere</td>
<td>intelēxi</td>
<td>intelēctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neglegō</td>
<td>neglegere</td>
<td>neglēxi</td>
<td>neglēctus</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### List of the Most Important Verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>emō</td>
<td>emere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coemō</td>
<td>coemere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>redimō</td>
<td>redimere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dirimō</td>
<td>dirimere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēmō</td>
<td>dēmere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sūmō</td>
<td>sūmere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōmō</td>
<td>prōmere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vincō</td>
<td>vincere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relinquō</td>
<td>relinquere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rumpō</td>
<td>rumpere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>edō</td>
<td>esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fundō</td>
<td>fundere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excūdō</td>
<td>excūdere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnsidō</td>
<td>cōnsidere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possidō</td>
<td>possidere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ascendō</td>
<td>ascendere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēfendō</td>
<td>dēfendere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prehendō</td>
<td>prehendere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iō</td>
<td>iēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vellō</td>
<td>vellere</td>
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<tr>
<td>vertō</td>
<td>vertere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pandō</td>
<td>pandere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solvō</td>
<td>solvere</td>
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<tr>
<td>visō</td>
<td>visere</td>
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<td>volvō</td>
<td>volvere</td>
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<td>verrō</td>
<td>verrere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-cumbō</td>
<td>incumbere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gigō</td>
<td>gignere</td>
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<tr>
<td>molō</td>
<td>molere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vomō</td>
<td>vomere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fremō</td>
<td>fremere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gemō</td>
<td>gemere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metō</td>
<td>metere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emptus</td>
<td>emptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coemptus</td>
<td>coemptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>redemptus</td>
<td>redemptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diremptus</td>
<td>diremptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēemptus</td>
<td>dēemptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sūmptus</td>
<td>sūmptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōmptus</td>
<td>prōmptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>victus</td>
<td>victus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reliquī</td>
<td>reliquī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ruptus</td>
<td>ruptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēsus</td>
<td>ēsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fūsus</td>
<td>fūsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excūsus</td>
<td>excūsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possēdī</td>
<td>possēdī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accēnsus</td>
<td>accēnsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ascēnsum (est)</td>
<td>ascēnsum (est)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēfēnsus</td>
<td>dēfēnsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prehēnsus</td>
<td>prehēnsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēctus</td>
<td>ēctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vulsīs</td>
<td>vulsīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>versus</td>
<td>versus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>passus</td>
<td>passus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solūtus</td>
<td>solūtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēsīs</td>
<td>ēsīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>versus</td>
<td>versus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incubō</td>
<td>incubō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incubītūs</td>
<td>incubītūs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Perfect in -I without either Reduplication or Lengthening of Stem-Vowel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>excūdō</td>
<td>excūdere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnsidō</td>
<td>cōnsidere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possidō</td>
<td>possidere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ascendō</td>
<td>ascendere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēfendō</td>
<td>dēfendere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prehendō</td>
<td>prehendere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iō</td>
<td>iēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vellō</td>
<td>vellere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vertō</td>
<td>vertere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pandō</td>
<td>pandere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solvō</td>
<td>solvere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visō</td>
<td>visere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volvō</td>
<td>volvere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verrō</td>
<td>verrere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-cumbō</td>
<td>incumbere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gigō</td>
<td>gignere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>molō</td>
<td>molere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vomō</td>
<td>vomere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fremō</td>
<td>fremere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gemō</td>
<td>gemere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metō</td>
<td>metere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Perfect in -UL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>incubō</td>
<td>incubō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incubītūs</td>
<td>incubītūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gigō</td>
<td>gignere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gemūt</td>
<td>gemūt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hammer: hammer
Take one's seat: take possession
Take one's possession: take possession
Kindle: kindle
Climb: climb
Defend: defend
Seize: seize
Strike: strike
Pluck: pluck
Turn: turn
Spread: spread
Loose: loose
Visit: visit
Roll: roll
Sweep: sweep
Lean on: lean on
Bring forth: bring forth
Grind: grind
Vomit: vomit
Snort: snort
Sigh: sigh
Reap: reap
Inflections.

tremō        tremere        tremuī        ——          tremble
streō        streperere     strepūī      ——          rattle
alō          alere          aluī         altus (alitus) nourish
colō         colere         coluī        cultus       cultivate
incīlo       incolere       incoluī      ——          inhabit
excolō       excolere       excoluī      excultus    perfect
consulō      consulere      consulūī     consulitus consult
consurērō    consurere       consurūī     consurērūs join
dēsērō       dēserere       dēserūī     désertus     desert
disserērō    disserere       disserūī     ——          discourse
texō         texere         texuī        textus       wave


sinō          sinere         sīvī         situs        allow
dēsinō       dēsinere       dēsīfī       dēsītus     cease
pōnō         pōnere         poṣuī        posītus      place
ob-luō       oblinere       oblēvī       oblitus     snear
serō         serere         sēvī         satus       sow
consērō      consērere       consēvī      consēitus   plant
cernō        cernere         ——           ——          separate
discernō     discernere      discrēvī     discrētus   distinguish
dēcernō      dēcernere      dēcrēvī      dēcrētus    decide
spērērō      spērere         spēvī        spētus      scorn
sternō       sternere       strāvī       strātus     spread
prō-sternō   prōsternere     prōstrāvī   prōstrātus overthrow
pētō         pētere          pētīvī (petīlī) petitus seek
appetō       appetere       appetivī     appetitus   long for
terō         terere          trivī        tritus      rub
quacrō       quacrerere     quacsīvī     quacsītus  seek
acquirō      acquirere      acquisivī    acquisītus acquire
accessō      accessere      accessivī    accessītus sumnum
capecōsō     capessere       capessivī    capessītus seize
lacessōsō    lacessere       lacessivī    lacessītus provoke

7. Used only in Present System.

angō         angere         ——           ——          choke
lambō        lambere        ——           ——          lick
claudō       claudere       ——           ——          be lame
furō         furere         ——           ——          rise
vergō        vergere        ——           ——          bend

and a few others.
II. Verbs with Present Stem ending in -U.

induō  induere  induī  induēs  put on
imbuō  imbuerre  imbūi  imbūtus  moisten
luō  luere  luī  ——  wash
palliō  polluere  pollūi  pollūtus  defile
minaō  minuere  minūi  minūtus  lessen
statuō  statuerre  statūi  statūtus  set pp
constituō  constituere  constitūi  constitūtus  determine
suō  suere  suī  sūtus  sew
tribuō  tribuerre  tribūi  tribūtus  allot
ruō  ruerre  rūi  ruītūrus  fall
diruō  diruerre  dirūi  dirūtus  destroy
obruō  obuerre  obrūi  obrutus  overwhelm
acuō  acuere  acūi  ——  sharp pen
arguō  arguerre  argūi  ——  accuse
congruō  congruerre  congrūi  ——  agree
metuō  metuerre  metūi  ——  fear
ab-nuō  abnuere  abnuī  ——  decline
re-spüō  respuerre  respūi  ——  reject
struō  struerre  strūxi  strūctus  build
fluō  fluere  flūxi  (flūxus, as Adj.) flow

III. Verbs with Present Stem ending in -I.

cupiō  cupere  cupīvī  cupītus  wish
sapiō  sapere  sapīvī  ——  taste
rapīō  rapere  rapūi  raptus  snatch
diripīō  diripere  dirīpūi  direptus  plunder
consipicīō  consipicere  consipexī  conspectus  gaze at
aspicīō  aspicere  aspexī  aspexitus  behold
illiciō  illicere  illexī  illectus  allure
pelliciō  pellicere  pellexī  pellectus  allure
elicīō  elicere  elicītī  elicitus  elicit
quatiō  quaterre  ——  quassus  shake
concutiō  concutere  concussī  concussus  shake
pariō  parere  peperi  partus  bring forth
capiō  capere  cepī  captus  take
accipiō  accipere  accēpī  acceptus  accept
incipiō  incipere  incēpī  inceptus  begin
faciō  facere  fecī  factus  make
afficiō  afficerre  affēcit  affectus  affect

Passive, afficior, affici, affectus sum
Inflections.

So other prepositional compounds, *perficiō, perficior; interficiō, interficior;* etc. But —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>assisfacī</th>
<th>assisfacere</th>
<th>assisfacē</th>
<th>assisfactus</th>
<th>accustom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Passive, assisfiō, assisferiō, assisfactus sua.

So also *patfacīō, patfaciō; taelfacīō, taelfæliō;* and all non-prepositional compounds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>jaciō</th>
<th>jacere</th>
<th>jecī</th>
<th>jacētus</th>
<th>hurl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abiciō</td>
<td>abicere</td>
<td>abijēcī</td>
<td>abjectus</td>
<td>throw away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fodiō</td>
<td>fodere</td>
<td>fodiō</td>
<td>fossus</td>
<td>dig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fugiō</td>
<td>fugere</td>
<td>fugiō</td>
<td>fugitūrus</td>
<td>flee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effugiō</td>
<td>effugere</td>
<td>effugiō</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>escape</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. Verbs in *-scō.*

1. Verbs in *-scō* from Simple Roots.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>poscō</th>
<th>poscere</th>
<th>pospcē</th>
<th>demand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>disco</td>
<td>discere</td>
<td>dīdīcī</td>
<td>learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pascō</td>
<td>pascere</td>
<td>pāvī</td>
<td>pāstus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pascoor</td>
<td>pāscī</td>
<td>pāstus</td>
<td>sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crescō</td>
<td>crescere</td>
<td>cēvī</td>
<td>crētus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consuescō</td>
<td>consuescere</td>
<td>consuevī</td>
<td>consuctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quiescō</td>
<td>quiescere</td>
<td>quilīvī</td>
<td>quiētūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adoliscō</td>
<td>adoliscere</td>
<td>adolīvī</td>
<td>adultus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obsolescō</td>
<td>obsoliscere</td>
<td>obsolvī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noscō</td>
<td>noscere</td>
<td>nōvī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ignoscō</td>
<td>ignoscere</td>
<td>ignōvī</td>
<td>ignōtūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agnoscō</td>
<td>agnoscere</td>
<td>agnōvī</td>
<td>agnitus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cognoscō</td>
<td>cognoscere</td>
<td>cognōvī</td>
<td>cognitus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Verbs in *-scō* formed from other Verbs.

These usually have Inchoative or Inceptive meaning (see § 135. 1).

When they have the Perfect, it is the same as that of the Verbs from which they are derived.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>floriscō</th>
<th>floriscere</th>
<th>florūt</th>
<th>begin to bloom (flōreō)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sciscō</td>
<td>sciēscere</td>
<td>sciēvī</td>
<td>enact (sciō)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>āriscō</td>
<td>āriscere</td>
<td>ārūt</td>
<td>become dry (āreō)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caliscō</td>
<td>caliscere</td>
<td>calūt</td>
<td>become hot (caleō)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conseniscō</td>
<td>conseniscere</td>
<td>consenīvī</td>
<td>grow old (seneō)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extenisicō</td>
<td>extenisicere</td>
<td>extnimīvī</td>
<td>fear greatly (timēo)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ingemiscō</td>
<td>ingemiscere</td>
<td>ingemīvī</td>
<td>sigh (gemō)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adhaeriscō</td>
<td>adhaeriscere</td>
<td>adhaesī</td>
<td>stick (haereō)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of the Most Important Verbs.

3. Verbs in *-scō* derived from Adjectives, usually with Inchoative meaning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>obdūrēscō</td>
<td>obdūrēscere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>évānēscō</td>
<td>évānēscere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>percrēbrēscō</td>
<td>percrēbrēscere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mātūrēscō</td>
<td>mātūrēscere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obmūtēscō</td>
<td>obmūtēscere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V. Deponents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fungor</td>
<td>functus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quoror</td>
<td>questus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loquir</td>
<td>locūtus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sequor</td>
<td>secūtus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fruor</td>
<td>frūtūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfruor</td>
<td>perfrūtus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lábor</td>
<td>lápus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amplector</td>
<td>amplexus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nitor</td>
<td>nīsus sum, nīxus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gradior</td>
<td>gressus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patior</td>
<td>passus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perpetior</td>
<td>perpassus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūtor</td>
<td>āsūs sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>morior</td>
<td>mortuus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adipsior</td>
<td>adeptus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comminiscor</td>
<td>comminisci</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reminiscor</td>
<td>reminisci</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nancisor</td>
<td>nancius (nactus) sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nāscor</td>
<td>nātus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obliviscor</td>
<td>obliviuscī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paciscor</td>
<td>pactus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>profiscor</td>
<td>profectus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uliscor</td>
<td>ulius sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irāscor</td>
<td>irāsci (irātus, as Adj.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vescor</td>
<td>vescī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fourth Conjugation.

123. 1. Perfect ends in *-vī*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīō</td>
<td>audire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So all regular Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sepellō</td>
<td>sepellire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
II. Perfect ends in -UI.
aperīō  aperiēre  aperūl  apertus  open
operīō  operīēre  operūl  opertus  cover
saliō  salīēre  salūl  ——  leap

III. Perfect ends in -SL.
aepīō  aepīēre  saepīl  saeptus  hedge in
sancīō  sancīēre  sānxl  sāncutus  ratify
vincīō  vincīēre  vinxī  vincutus  bind
amicīō  amicīēre  ——  amicutus  envelop
fulcīō  fulcīēre  fulst  fultus  fill
refercīō  refercīēre  referst  refertus  prop up
sarcīō  sarcīēre  sarāl  sartus  patch
haurīō  hauriēre  haustī  haustus  draw
sentīō  sentīēre  sēnsī  sēnus  feel

IV. Perfect in -ī with lengthening of stem vowel.
venīō  venīēre  venīl  ventum (est)  come
advenīō  advenīēre  advēnl  adventum (est)  arrive
invenīō  invenīēre  invenīl  inventus  find

V. Perfect with loss of reduplication.
reperiō  reperiēre  reperrī  repertus  find
comperiō  comperiēre  comperrī  compertus  learn

VI. Used only in the Present.
ferīō  ferīēre  ——  ——  strike
ēsurīō  ēsurīēre  ——  ——  be hungry

VII. Deponents.
largior  largīrī  largītus sum  bestow
So many others.
expel or  experīrī  expertus sum  try
oppeor  opperīrī  opperītus sum  await
ördor  ördīrī  örsus sum  begin
orior  orīrī  ortus sum  arise

Orior usually follows the Third Conjugation in its inflexion; as,
peror  orērī  orērītus ; orēr (Imp. Subj.); orēre (Imper.).
mētor  mētīrī  mēnsus sum  measure
assentior  assentīrī  assēnsus sum  assent
IRREGULAR VERBS.

124. A number of Verbs are called Irregular. The most important are sum, dō, edō, ferō, volō, nōlō, mālō, ēō, fīō. The peculiarity of these Verbs is that they append the personal endings in many forms directly to the stem, instead of employing a connecting vowel, as fer-s (2d Sing. of fer-ō, instead of fer-is). They are but the relics of what was once in Latin a large class of Verbs.

125. The Inflection of sum has already been given. Its various compounds are inflected in the same way. They are—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>stem</th>
<th>1s singular</th>
<th>2s singular</th>
<th>3s singular</th>
<th>present participle</th>
<th>perfect participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>absūm</td>
<td>absesse</td>
<td>āfuī</td>
<td>am absent</td>
<td>absēns (absentis), absent.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adsum</td>
<td>adesse</td>
<td>adfuī</td>
<td>am present</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēsum</td>
<td>deesse</td>
<td>défuī</td>
<td>am lacking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insum</td>
<td>inesse</td>
<td>infuī</td>
<td>am in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intersum</td>
<td>intersesse</td>
<td>interfuī</td>
<td>am among</td>
<td>praesēns (praesentis), present.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praesum</td>
<td>praeesse</td>
<td>praefuī</td>
<td>am in charge of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—Prōsum is compounded of prō (earlier form of prō) and sum; the d disappears before consonants, as prōsumus; but prōdestīs.

126. Possum. In its Present System possum is a compound of pot- (for poete, able) and sum; potuī is from an obsolete potēre.

**Principal Parts.**

possum, posse, potuī, to be able.

**Indicative Mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pres.</td>
<td>possum, potes, potest ;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impf.</td>
<td>poteram ;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fut.</td>
<td>poterō ;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perf.</td>
<td>potuī ;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plpf.</td>
<td>potueram ;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fut. p.</td>
<td>potuerō ;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

**Subjunctive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. possessim, possis, possit; possimus, possitis, possat.</td>
<td>possimus, possis, possis, possat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. possem;</td>
<td>possēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. potuerim;</td>
<td>poērēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. potuissem;</td>
<td>poērēmus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Pres. potēns (as an adjective).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>posse.</td>
<td>poēs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>potuisse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

127. Dō, I give.

**Principal parts.**

dō, dare, dedi, dēsus.

**Active voice.**

**Indicative mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. dō, dīs, dat;</td>
<td>dāmus, dātis, dant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>dābam, etc.;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>dābāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>dēdī;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>dēdīmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P.</td>
<td>dēdēram;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>dēdērāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>dēdērissem;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parfait</td>
<td>dēdērimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>dēm;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>dēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>dārem;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>dāremus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P.</td>
<td>dēderim;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>dēderēmus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>dat.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>datō;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>datō;</td>
<td>datō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dare.</td>
<td>dedisse.</td>
<td>datūrus esse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gerund.**

dandī, etc.

**Supine.**

dātum, dātā.
Irregular Verbs.

1. The Passive is inflected regularly with the short vowel. Thus: dārī, dātur, dābātur, dārētur, etc.
2. The archaic and poetic Present Subjunctive forms duim, duint, interduō, perduint, etc., are not from the root du-, but from du-, a collateral root of similar meaning.

128. Eō, I cat.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

edō, ēsse, ēdī, ēsus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. edō ēdī edimus
ēs ēstīs ēstis
ēst ēdūt ēdūt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. ēssem ēssēmus ēssētis ēssēt
ēssē ēssēt ēssēt
ēscet ēssēnt

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ēs ēste ēs ēs ēste ēste
Pst. ēstō ēstōt ēstō ēstōt ēstōt ēstōt

INFinitive.

Pres. ēsse

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. 3d Sing. ēstur

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. 3d Sing. ēssētur

1. Observe the long vowel of the forms in ēs-, which alone distinguishes them from the corresponding forms of esse, to be.
2. Note comedō, communist, comēdī, communistus, communist, consume.
3. The Present Subjunctive has edīm, -ēs, -ēt, etc., less often edam, -ēs, etc.
Inflections.

129. Ferō, I bear.

Principal Parts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Ferō, Ferē, Ferrē, Ferēs</th>
<th>Tullī</th>
<th>Lātus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Active Voice.

Indicative Mood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>ferō, ferēs, fert;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong></td>
<td>ferēbam;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>feram;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>tuli;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plup.</strong></td>
<td>tuleram;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut. P.</strong></td>
<td>tulerō;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subjunctive.

| **Pres.**       | feram;           |
| **Imp.**        | ferēm;           |
| **Perf.**       | tulerīm;         |
| **Plup.**       | tulissem;        |

Imperative.

| **Pres.**       | fer;             |
| **Fut.**        | fertō;           |

Infinitive.

| **Pres.**       | Ferēns.         |
| **Perf.**       | Tulisse.        |
| **Fut.**        | Lātūrus esse.   |

Gerund.

| **Gen.**       | Ferendi.        |
| **Dat.**       | Ferendō.        |
| **Acc.**       | Ferendum.       |
| **Abl.**       | Ferendō.        |

Supine.

| **Pres.**       | Lātum.          |
| **Abl.**        | Lātū.           |

¹It will be observed that not all the forms of ferō lack the connecting vowel. Some of them, as ferēmus, ferunt, follow the regular inflection of verbs of the Third Conjugation.
Irregular Verbs.

Passive Voice.
feror, fertī, lātus sum, to be borne.

**Indicative Mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>fero, ferris, fertur;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong></td>
<td>ferēbar;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>fērār;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>lātus sum;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plup.</strong></td>
<td>lātus eram;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut. P.</strong></td>
<td>lātus erō;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Ferār.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>Ferēr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>Lātus sim;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>Lātus essēm;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Fer.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>Fertor;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Feri.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>Lātus esse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So also the Compounds —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>afferō</th>
<th>afferre</th>
<th>attulī</th>
<th>allātus</th>
<th>bring toward</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>auferō</td>
<td>auferre</td>
<td>abstulī</td>
<td>ablātus</td>
<td>take away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conferō</td>
<td>conferre</td>
<td>contulī</td>
<td>collātus</td>
<td>compare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>differō</td>
<td>differre</td>
<td>distulī</td>
<td>dilātus</td>
<td>put off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>efferō</td>
<td>efferre</td>
<td>extulī</td>
<td>ēlātus</td>
<td>carry out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inferō</td>
<td>inferre</td>
<td>intulī</td>
<td>illātus</td>
<td>bring against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>offerō</td>
<td>offerre</td>
<td>obtulī</td>
<td>oblātus</td>
<td>present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>referō</td>
<td>referre</td>
<td>retulī</td>
<td>retlātus</td>
<td>bring back</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** — The forms sustulī and substulus belong to tollō.
### Inflections.

130. **Volē, nōlē, mālē.**

**Principal Parts.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>volē,</td>
<td>velle,</td>
<td>volūf,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nōlē,</td>
<td>nōlē,</td>
<td>nōlūf,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mālē,</td>
<td>mālē,</td>
<td>mālūf,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*to wish.*

*to be unwilling.*

*to prefer.*

**Indicative Mood.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>volē,</td>
<td>nōlē,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vis,</td>
<td>nōn vis,</td>
<td>māvis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vult;</td>
<td>nōn vult;</td>
<td>māvult;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volumus,</td>
<td>nōlumus,</td>
<td>mālumus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vultis,</td>
<td>nōn vultis,</td>
<td>māvultis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volunt.</td>
<td>nōlunt.</td>
<td>mālunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>volēbam.</td>
<td>nōlēbam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>volam.</td>
<td>nōlām.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>volū.</td>
<td>nōlū.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperf.</td>
<td>volueram.</td>
<td>nōlueram.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P.</td>
<td>voluerō.</td>
<td>nōluerō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>velim, -is, -et, etc.</td>
<td>nōlim.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vel.</td>
<td>vellem, -ēs, -et, etc.</td>
<td>nōlēm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>voluerim.</td>
<td>nōluerim.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperf.</td>
<td>voluerisse.</td>
<td>nōluerisse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>nōlī, nolite.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>nōlītō, nolite,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nōlītō; nōluntō.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>velle.</td>
<td>nōlle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>voluisse.</td>
<td>nōluisse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Participle.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>volēns.</td>
<td>nōlēns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Irregular Verbs.

131.

FIÔ.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

fiô, fier, factus sum, to become, be made.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. fiô, fis, fit</td>
<td>fimus, fitis, flunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. fiēbam</td>
<td>fiēbāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. fiâm</td>
<td>fiēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. factus sum</td>
<td>facti sumus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. factus eram</td>
<td>facti ērāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P. factus erō</td>
<td>facti ērimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

| Pres. fiâm              | fiāmus.             |
| Imp. fierem             | fierēmus.           |
| Perf. factus ēsim       | facti ēsimus.       |
| Plup. factus ēsimem     | facti ēssēmus.      |

IMPERATIVE.

| Pres. fi;               |
|                        |

INFinitive.

| Pres. fieri.            |
| Perf. factus esse.      |
| Fut. factum ēri.        |

PARTICIPLE.

| Perf. factus.           |
| Ger. faciendus.         |

NOTE. — A few isolated forms of compounds of fiô occur; as, dēfiit, facēs; Infinit, faciēs.

132.

EÔ.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

eô, ire, īvi, ītum (eat), to go.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. eô, is, it</td>
<td>īmus, ītis, īunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. ibam</td>
<td>ībāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. ibō</td>
<td>ībīmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. īvi (Ī)</td>
<td>īvīmus (īimus).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. Iveram (īeram)</td>
<td>Iverāmus (īerāmus).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P. Iverō (īerō)</td>
<td>Iverīmus (īerīmus).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Inflections.

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>eam; eamus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imper.</td>
<td>irem; iremus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>iverim (ierim); iverimus (ierimus).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>ivissem (issem, issem); ivissimus (isscimus, isscimus).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>i; ite.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>itō; eustō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>ire.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>ivisse (isse). (Gen. euntis.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPLE.**

| Pres. | iēns. |

**GERUND.**

eundi, etc.

**SUPINE.**

itum, itū.

1. Transitive compounds of eō admit the full Passive inflection; as, adeor, adīris, adītur, etc.

**DEFECTIVE VERBS.**

Defective Verbs lack certain forms. The following are the most important: —

133. USED MAINLY IN THE PERFECT SYSTEM.

**Coepī, I have begun.**

| Meminī, I remember. | Œdi, I hate. |

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perf.</th>
<th>coepī. memini.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>coeperam. memineram.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P.</td>
<td>coeperō. meminerō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perf.</th>
<th>coeperim. meminerim.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>coepissem. meminíssem.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE.**

Sing. mementō; Plur. mementōte.
Defective Verbs.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. coepisse. meminisse. ódisse.
Fut. coepturus esse.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. coeptus, begun. ósus.
Fut. coepturus. ósurus.

1. When coept governs a Passive Infinitive it usually takes the form coeptus est; as, amāri coeptus est, he began to love.
2. Note that memin & ódis, though Perfect in form, are Present in sense. Similarly the Pluperfect and Future Perfect have the force of the Imperfect and Future; as, memineram, I remembered; óderō, I shall hate.

134. Inquam, I say (inserted between words of a direct quotation).

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. Inquam, —
Inquis, —
Inquit; inqulunt.

Fut. —
Inquiēs, —
Inquiēt.

Pres: 3d Sing. Inquit.

135. Ajō, I say.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. ajō, —
aiū, —
ait; ajunt.

Imp. ajēbam, ajēbamus,
ajēbās, ajēbatis,
ajēbat; ajēbant.

Perf. 3d Sing. ait.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. 3d Sing. ajat.

NOTE. — For ajāne, do you mean? aín is common
Inflections.

136. *Fari*, to speak.

This is inflected regularly in the perfect tenses. In the Present System it has—

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>SINGULAR</strong></th>
<th><strong>PLURAL</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>fātur</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong></td>
<td>fāre</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inf.</strong></td>
<td>fāri</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres. Partic.</strong></td>
<td>fantis, fanti, etc.</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gerund, G.</strong></td>
<td>fandi; D. and Abl., fandī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gerundive, G.</strong></td>
<td>fandus</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.**—Forms of *fāri* are rare. More frequent are its compounds; as,—

affātur, he addresses; praefāmur, we say in advance.

137. Other Defective Forms.

1. *Quēō, quire, quiūī*, to be able, and *nequēō, nequire, nequīūī*, to be unable, are inflected like *ēō*, but occur chiefly in the Present Tense, and there only in special forms.

2. *Quaesō*, I entreat; *quesumus*, we entreat.

3. *Cedo* (2d sing.), *cette* (2d plu.); give me, tell me.

4. *Salvē, salvēte, salvi*. Also Infinitive, *salvēre*.

5. *Hāvē* (avē), *havēte, havi*. Also Infinitive, *havēre*.

**IMPERSONAL VERBS.**

138. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English, *it snows, it seems, etc.* They have no personal subject, but may take an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Neuter Pronoun; as, *mē pudet hōc sécisse*, lit. it shames me to have done this; *hōc decet, this is fitting*. Here belong—

I. Verbs denoting operations of the weather; as,—

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>fulget</em></td>
<td><em>fulsit</em></td>
<td><em>it lightens</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>tonat</em></td>
<td><em>tonuit</em></td>
<td><em>it thunders</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Impersonal Verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>grandinat</td>
<td>it hails</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ningit</td>
<td>it snows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pluit</td>
<td>it rains</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. Special Verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>paenitet</td>
<td>paenitère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piget</td>
<td>pigère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>padet</td>
<td>pudère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taedet</td>
<td>taèdère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miscret</td>
<td>miserère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>libet</td>
<td>libère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>licet</td>
<td>licère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oportet</td>
<td>oportère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decet</td>
<td>decère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dèdecet</td>
<td>dèdecère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>réfert</td>
<td>référe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. Verbs Impersonal only in Special Senses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cōnstat</td>
<td>cōnstāre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praestat</td>
<td>praestāre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>juvat</td>
<td>juvāre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appāret</td>
<td>appārère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>placet</td>
<td>placère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accēdit</td>
<td>accēdère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accidit</td>
<td>accidère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contingit</td>
<td>contingère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>événit</td>
<td>évĕnère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interest</td>
<td>interesse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. The Passive of Intransitive Verbs; as, —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>itur</td>
<td>lit. it is gone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>curritur</td>
<td>lit. it is run</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ventum est</td>
<td>lit. it has been come</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>veniendum est</td>
<td>lit. it must be come</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pugnāri potest</td>
<td>lit. it can be fought</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Part III.

**PARTICLES.**

139. Particles are the four Parts of Speech that do not admit of inflection; *viz.* Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Interjections.

### Adverbs.

140. Adverbs denote manner, place, time, or degree. Most adverbs are in origin case-forms which have become stereotyped by usage. The common adverbial terminations have already been given above (§ 76). The following Table of Correlatives is important:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative and Interrogative</th>
<th>Demonstrative</th>
<th>Indefinite</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ubi, where; where?</td>
<td>hic, here.</td>
<td>alicubi, baquam, aspiam, somewhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quōs, whither; whither?</td>
<td>hōc, hither.</td>
<td>aliquō, to some place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unde, whence; whence?</td>
<td>hinc, hence.</td>
<td>aliunde, from somewhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quā, where; where?</td>
<td>hinc, by this way.</td>
<td>aliquā, by some way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cūm, when.</td>
<td>nunc, now.</td>
<td>aliquandō, umquam, sometime, ever.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quandō, when?</td>
<td>tum, tunc, thence.</td>
<td>aliquotiam, some number of times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quotiens, as often as; how often?</td>
<td>totiēns, so often.</td>
<td>aliquantum, somewhat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quam, as much as; how much?</td>
<td>tam, so much.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

106
PREPOSITIONS.

141. Prepositions show relations of words. The following Prepositions govern the Accusative:—

ad, to.
adversus, against.
adversum, toward, against.
aute, before.
apud, with, near.
circā, around.
circiter, about.
circum, around.
cis, this side of.
citā, this side of.
contrā, against.
post, after.
praeter, past.
prope, near.
propter, on account of.
secundum, after.
subter, beneath.
super, over.
suprā, above.
trans, across.
ultrā, beyond.
versus, toward.

1. Usque is often prefixed to ad, in the sense of even; as,—
   usque ad urbem, even to the city.

2. Versus always follows its case; as,—
   Rōmam versus, toward Rome.

   It may be combined with a preceding Preposition; as,—
   ad urbem versus, toward the city.

3. Like prope, the Comparatives propter, proplius, and the Superlatives proximus, proximē, sometimes govern the Accusative; as,—
   ubi proximē Rhēnum incloent, the Ubi dwell next to the Rhine;
   propius castra hostium, nearer the camp of the enemy.

142. The following Prepositions govern the Ablative:—

ā, ab, abs, from, by.
absque, without.
cōram, in the presence of.
prō, in front of.
prae, before.
pro, in.
sine, without.
tenēs, up to.

1. Ā, ab, abs. Before vowels or h, ab must be used; before consonants we find sometimes ā, sometimes ab (the latter usually not before the labials b, p, f, v, m; nor before c, g, q, or t); ab occurs only before tē, and ā is admissible even there.

2. Ē, ex. Before vowels or h, ex must be used; before consonants, we find sometimes ē, sometimes ex.
3. *Tenus* regularly follows its case, as *pectoris tenus*, *up to the breast*. It sometimes governs the Genitive, as *labrorum tenus*, *as far as the lips*.

4. *Cum* is appended to the Pronouns of the First and Second Persons, and to the Reflexive Pronoun; usually also to the Relative and Interrogative. Thus: —
   
   mēcum nobiscum quācum or cum quā
   tēcum vōbiscum quācum or cum quā
   sécum quibuscum or cum quibus

   On quācum, see § 89, Footnote 1.

143. Two Prepositions, *in, in, into*, and *sub, under*, govern both the Accusative and the Ablative. With the Accusative they denote *motion*; with the Ablative, *rest*; as, —

   *in urbem, into the city; in urbe, in the city.*

1. *Subter* and *super* are also occasionally construed with the Ablative.

144. Relation of Adverbs and Prepositions.

1. Prepositions were originally Adverbs, and many of them still retain their adverbial meaning; as, *post, afterwards; ante, previously; contrā, on the other hand, etc.*

2. Conversely several words, usually adverbs, are occasionally employed as prepositions; as, —

   *clam, pridē, with the Accusative.
   procūl, simul, palam, with the Ablative.*

3. Anāstrophe. A Preposition sometimes follows its case. This is called Anāstrophe; as, —

   *et, quās inter erat, those among whom he was.*

Anāstrophe occurs chiefly with dissyllabic prepositions.

CONJUNCTIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

145. 1. Conjunctions are used to connect ideas. For Coordinate Conjunctions, see §§ 341 ff. Subordinate Conjunctions are treated in connection with Subordinate Clauses.

2. Interjections express emotion. Thus: —
   
   1. Surprise; as, *ēn, ecce, ó.*
   2. Joy; as, *īō, enōe.*
   4. Calling; as, *heus, eho.*
PART IV.

WORD-FORMATION.

I. DERIVATIVES.

146. Derivatives are formed by appending certain terminations called Suffixes to stems of verbs, nouns, or adjectives.

A. NOUNS.

1. Nouns derived from Verbs.

147. 1. The suffix -tor (-sor), Fem. -trix, denotes the agent; as, —
victor, victrix, victor; défensor, defender.

Note. — The suffix -tor is occasionally appended to noun stems; as, —
gladiator, gladiator (from gladius).

2. The suffix -or (originally -ōs) denotes an activity or a condition; as, —
amor, love; timor, fear; dolor, pain.

3. The suffixes -tōs (sīōs), Gen. -ōnis, and -tus (-aus), Gen. -ūs, denote an action as in process; as, —
vēnātīō, hunting; obsessās, blockade; gemitūs, sighing; cursūs, running.

Note. — Rarer endings with the same force are: —

a) -tūra, -āura; as, —
sepultūra, burial; mensūra, measuring.

b) -lum; as, —
gaudium, rejoicing.

c) -dō, as, —
cupīdō, desire.
4. The suffixes -men, -mentum, -crum, -trum, -bulum, -culum, denote the means or place of an action; as, —

lōmen (lūc-e-men), light; vocabulum, word;
dōnāmentum, ornament; documentum, proof;
sepulorum, grave; ara trium, plough;
vehiculum, carriage.

2. Nouns derived from Nouns.

148. 1. Diminutives end in —

-ulus, (-ula, -ulum)
-olus, (-ola, -olum), after a vowel
-culus, (-cula, -culum)
-ellus, (-ella, -ellum)
-illus, (-illa, -illum)

as, —

nidulus, little nest (nīdus);
virgula, wand (virga);
oppidulum, little town (oppidum);
filiolus, little son (filius);
opuscolum, little work (opus);
tabella, tablet (tabula);
lapillus, pebble (lapis).

Note 1. — It will be observed that in gender the Diminutives follow the gender of the words from which they are derived.

Note 2. — The endings -ollus, -illus contain the primitive form of the diminutive suffix, viz., -io. Thus: —

collículus, field, for ager-lus;
lapillus, pebble, for lapid-lus.

2. The suffix -ulum appended to nouns denoting persons designates either a collection of such persons or their function; as, —
collégium, a corporation, body of colleagues (collega);
sacerdōtium, priestly function (sacerdos).

3. The suffixes -ārium, -ēustum, -īle designate a place where objects are kept or are found in abundance; as, —
columbārium, dove-cote (columba);
olivēstum, olive-orchard (olīva);
ōvīle, sheep-fold (ōvis).
4. The suffix -ātus denotes official position or honor; as,
   cōnsulātus, consulship (consul).

5. The suffix -īna appended to nouns denoting persons designates a
   vocation or the place where it is carried on; as,
   doctrina, teaching (doctor, teacher);
   medicina, the art of healing (medicus, physician);
   sūtīna, cobbler's shop (sūtor, cobbler).

6. Patronymics are Greek proper names denoting son of . . ., 
   daughter of . . . . They have the following suffixes:
   a) Masculines: -idēs, -addēs, -idēs; as, Priamidēs, son of
      Priam; Aeneidēs, son of Aeneas; Pelidēs, son of Pelias.
   b) Feminines: -īnēs, -īnās; as, Nērēnēs, daughter of Nereus;
      Atlantēs, daughter of Atlas; Thaumantēs, daughter of
      Thaumas.

3. Nouns derived from Adjectives.

149. The suffixes -ās (-ās), -tōdō (-tōdō), -ia, -itia are used
   for the formation of abstract nouns denoting qualities; as,
   bonitās, goodness; celeritās, swiftness; magnitūdō, greatness; audā-
   cia, boldness; amicitia, friendship.

B. ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives derived from Verbs.

150. 1. The suffixes -undus and -undus give nearly the force
   of a present participle; as,
   tremundus, trembling; jucundus (juvō), pleasing.

2. The suffixes -āx and -ulus denote an inclination or tendency,
   mostly a faulty one; as,
   loquax, loquacious; orādūlus, credulous.

3. The suffix -idus denotes a state; as,
   calidus, hot; timidus, timid; cupidus, eager.

4. The suffixes -īlis and -īlīs denote capacity or ability, usually in
   a passive sense; as,
   fragilis, fragile (i.e. capable of being broken);
   docilis, docile.
2. Adjectives derived from Nouns.

a) From Common Nouns.

151. 1. The suffixes -ous and -nus are appended to names of substances or materials; as,—

   aureus, of gold;    ferreus, of iron;    fæginus, of beech.

2. The suffixes -lus, -icus, -alis, -aris, -arilis, -nus, -anus,
   -nus, -ivus, -ensis signify belonging to, connected with; as,—

   oratórius, oratorical;  legiōnārius, legionary;
   bellicosus, pertaining to war;  paternus, paternal;
   civilis, civil;  urbānus, of the city;
   régillis, regal;  marinus, marine;
   cōnsularīs, consular;  aestivus, pertaining to summer;
   circŭnŏnis, belonging to the circus.

3. The suffixes -sus and -lentus denote fullness; as,—

   perticulōsus, full of danger;  gloriōsus, glorious;
   opulentus, wealthy.

4. The suffix -tus has the force of provided with; as,—

   barbātus, bearded;  stellātus, set with stars.

b) From Proper Names.

152. 1. Names of persons take the suffixes: -anus, -ānus, -īnus;

   as,—

   Catŏnānus, belonging to Cato;  Plautīnus, belonging to Plautus.

2. Names of nations take the suffixes -icus, -lus; as,—

   Germānicus, German;  Thraecius, Thracian.

3. Names of places take the suffixes -ānus, -īnus, -ensis, -aeus,
   -īnus; as,—

   Rōmānus, Roman;  Atheniēnis, Athenian;
   Amerīnus, of America;  Smyrēnus, of Smyrna;
   Corinthīnus, Corinthian.

Note. — -anus and -ensis, appended to names of countries, designate something stationed in the country or connected with it, but not indigenous; as,—

   bellum Africānus, a war (of Romans with Romans) in Africa.
   bellum Hispaniēnsae, a war carried on in Spain.
   legiōnēs Gallicānæ (Roman) legions stationed in Gaul.
3. Adjectives derived from Adjectives.

153. Diminutives in -lus sometimes occur; as,—

parvulus, little;
misellus (passer), poor little (sparrow);
paupeculius, needy.

4. Adjectives derived from Adverbs.

154. These end in -ernus, -ternus, -tinus, -tinus; as,—

hodiernus, of to-day (hodiē);
he ster nus, of yesterday (herī);
intestīnus, internal (intus);
diūtinus, long-lasting (dīn).

C. VERBS.

1. Verbs derived from Verbs.

155. 1. Inceptive or Inchoatives. These end in -scō, and are formed from Present Stems. They denote the beginning of an action; as,—

labēscō, begin to totter (from labō);
horrēscō, grow rough (from horreō);
tremēscō, begin to tremble (from tremō);
obdormīscō, fall asleep (from dormīō).

2. Frequentatives or Intensives. These denote a repeated or energetic action. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -tō or -sō. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in -tō (not -tō, as we should expect). Examples of Frequentatives are—

jactō, toss about, brandish (from jactō, hurl);
curto, run hither and thither (from currō, run);
voltō, flit about (from volō, fly).

a. Some double Frequentatives occur; as,—

cantītō, sing over and over (cantō);
cursetō, keep running about (currō);
ventītō, keep coming.

b. agōtō, set in motion, is formed from the Present Stem.
3. Desideratives. These denote a desire to do something. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -uriō; as,—

ēsuriō, desire to eat, am hungry (ēdō);
parturiō, want to bring forth, am in labor (parīō).

2. Verbs derived from Nouns and Adjectives (Denominatives).

156. Denominatives of the First Conjugation are mostly transitive, those of the Second exclusively intransitive. Those of the Third and Fourth Conjugations are partly transitive, partly intransitive. Examples are—

a) From Nouns:—
    fraudō, defraud (frauś);
    vestīō, clothe (vestīs);
    sōreō, bloom (sōna).

b) From Adjectives:—
    liberō, free (liber);
    saevīō, be fierce (saevus).

D. ADVERBS.

157. 1. Adverbs derived from verbs are formed from the Participial Stem by means of the suffix -im; as,—
    certātim, emulously (certō);
    cursim, in haste (currō);
    statim, immediately (stō).

2. Adverbs derived from nouns and adjectives are formed:—

a) With the suffixes -tim (-sim), -ātim; as,—
    gradātim, step by step;
    paulātim, gradually;
    virītim, man by man.

b) With the suffix -tus; as,—
    antiquitus, of old;
    rādīcitus, from the roots.

c) With the suffix -ter; as,—
    breviter, briefly.
Compounds.

II. COMPOUNDS.

158. 1. Compounds are formed by the union of simple words. The second member usually contains the essential meaning of the compound; the first member expresses some modification of this.

2. Vowel changes often occur in the process of composition. Thus:

a. In the second member of compounds. (See § 7, i.)

b. The final vowel of the stem of the first member of the compound often appears as i where we should expect o or a; sometimes it is dropped altogether, and in case of consonant stems i is often inserted; as,—

signifer, standard-bearer;
tubicen, trumpeter;
magnanimus, high-minded;
matrioidea, matricide.

159. EXAMPLES OF COMPOUNDS.

1. Nouns:—

a) Preposition + Noun; as,—
dē-decua, disgrace;
pro-avus, great-grandfather.

b) Noun + Verb Stem; as,—
agri-cola, farmer;
frātriciōda, fratricide.

2. Adjectives:—

a) Preposition + Adjective (or Noun); as,—
per-magnus, very great;
sub-obscūrus, rather obscure;
a-mēns, frantic.

b) Adjective + Noun; as,—
magn-animus, great-hearted;
celer-pēs, swift-footed.

c) Noun + Verb Stem; as,—
parti-cope, sharing;
mortifēr, death-dealing.
3. Verbs: —
The second member is always a verb. The first may be —

a) A Noun; as,—
   aedificō, build.

b) An Adjective; as,—
   amplificō, enlarge.

c) An Adverb; as,—
   malefactō, rall at.

d) Another Verb; as,—
   calefaciō, make warm.

e) A Preposition; as,—
   abjungō, detach;
   referō, bring back;
   discernō, distinguish;
   exspectō, await.

Note. — Here belong the so-called Inseparable Prepositions: —
   ambi- (amb-), around;
   dis- (dir-, di-), apart, asunder;
   por-, forward;
   red- (re-), back;
   aedu- (a-), apart from;
   vē-, without.

4. Adverbs: —
These are of various types; as,—
   antea-, before;
   hicō (in locō), on the spot;
   inpinnis, especially;
   obviam in the way.
PART V.

SYNTAX.

160. Syntax treats of the use of words in sentences.

CHAPTER I.—Sentences.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

161. Sentences may be classified as follows:

1. **Declarative**, which state something; as,—
   *puer scribit, the boy is writing.*

2. **Interrogative**, which ask a question; as,—
   *quid puer scribit, what is the boy writing?*

3. **Exclamatory**, which are in the form of an exclamation; as,—
   *quot libros scribit, how many books he writes!*

4. **Imperative**, which express a command or an admonition; as,—
   *scriba, write!*

FORM OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

162. Questions may be either Word-Questions or Sentence-Questions.

1. **Word-Questions.** These are introduced by the various interrogative pronouns and adverbs; such as — *quis, quæ, quæs, quæs, quantus, quot, quotiens, quod, quæ, etc.* Thus:—

   *quis venit, who comes?*
   *quam diō manēbit, how long will he stay?*
2. Sentence-Questions. These are introduced —
   a) By nōne implying the answer 'yes'; as, —
      nōne vidēs, do you not see?
   b) By num implying the answer 'no'; as, —
      num expectās, do you expect? (i.e., you don't expect, do you?)
   c) By the enclitic -ne, appended to the emphatic word (which
      usually stands first), and simply asking for information; as, —
      vidēs -ne, do you see?

      A question introduced by -ne may receive a special implication
      from the context; as, —
      seministine, did you not perceive?
   d) Sometimes by no special word, particularly in expressions of
      surprise or indignation; as, —
      tū in jūdicium conspectum venire audēs, do you dare to
      come into the presence of the judges?

3. Rhetorical Questions. These are questions merely in
   form, being employed to express an emphatic assertion; as, quis
dubitāt, who doubts? (= no one doubts).

4. Double Questions. Double Questions are introduced
   by the following particles: —
   utrum . . . an;
   -ne . . . . . an;
   _______ . . . an.

   If the second member is negative, annōn (less often neone) is used.
   Examples: —
   utrum honestum est an turpe,
   honestum ne est an turpe,
   _______ _______ honestum est an turpe,
   suntne dī annōn, are there gods or not?

a. By an ellipsis of the first member, an sometimes stands alone.
   Its force depends upon the context; as, —
   À rēbus gereōdīs abstrābit senectūs. Quibus? An
eis quae juvenūtē geruntur et viribus? Old age (it is
alleged) withdraws men from active pursuits. From what
pursuits? Is it not merely from those which are carried on
by the strength of youth?
5. Answers.

a. The answer Yes is expressed by ita, etiam, vērō, sānē, or by repetition of the verb; as, —

‘vīsae locum mūtēmus?’ ‘sānē.’ ‘Shall we change the place?’ ‘Certainly.’
‘estiane vōs légāti?’ ‘sumus.’ ‘Are you envoys?’ ‘Yes.’

b. The answer No is expressed by nōn, minīmē, minūmē vērō, or by repeating the verb with a negative; as, —

‘jam ea praeterīvit?’ ‘nōn.’ ‘Has it passed?’ ‘No.’
‘estne frāter intus?’ ‘nōn est.’ ‘Is your brother within?’ ‘No.’

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

163. The two essential parts of a sentence are the Subject and Predicate.

The Subject is that concerning which something is said, asked, etc. The Predicate is that which is said, asked, etc., concerning the Subject.

SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

164. Sentences containing but one Subject and one Predicate are called Simple Sentences, those containing more are called Compound Sentences. Thus puer librōs legit, the boy reads books, is a Simple Sentence; but puer librōs legit et epistulās scribit, the boy reads books and writes letters, is a Compound Sentence. The different members of a Compound Sentence are called Clauses.

165. Coordinate and Subordinate Clauses. Clauses which stand upon an equality are called Coordinate; a Clause dependent upon another is called Subordinate. Thus in puer librōs legit et epistulās scribit the two clauses are Coordinate; but in puer librōs legit quōs pater scribit, the boy reads the books which his father writes, the second clause is Subordinate to the first.
Syntax.

Chapter II. — Syntax of Nouns.

Subject.

166. The Subject of a Finite Verb (i.e. any form of the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative) is in the Nominative Case.

1. The Subject may be —
   a) A Noun or Pronoun; as, —
      puer scribit, the boy writes;
      hoc scribit, this man writes.
   b) An Infinitive; as,—
      decūrum est pró patriā morī, to die for one's country is a noble thing.
   c) A Clause; as,—
      opportūnē accidit quod vēnit, it happened opportune that you arrived.

2. A Personal Pronoun as Subject is usually implied in the Verb, and is not separately expressed; as,—
   scribo, I write;
   vīdet, he sees.
   a. But for the purpose of emphasis or contrast the Pronoun is expressed; as,—
      ego scribo et tā legis, I write, and you read.

3. The verb is sometimes omitted when it can be easily supplied from the context, especially the auxiliary sum; as,—
   rēctē ille (se factis), he does rightly; cōnsul prōfectus (sc. est), the consul set out.

Predicate Nouns.

167. A Predicate Noun is one connected with the Subject by some form of the verb Sum or a similar verb.

168. A Predicate Noun agrees with its Subject in Case;¹ as,—

¹ For the Predicate Genitive see §§ 198, 292, s.


**Predicate Nouns. — Appositives.**

*Cicerō ōrātor fuit, Cicero was an orator;
Numa creātus est rēx, Numa was elected king.*

1. When possible the Predicate Noun usually agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as,—

*philosophia est vītæ magistra, philosophy is the guide of life.*

2. Besides *sum* the verbs most frequently accompanied by a Predicate Noun are —

  a) *fīō, ēsvādō, existō; maneō; videor; as,—
  *CρEOSUS nōn semper mānsit rēx, Croesus did not always remain king.*

  b) Passive verbs of *making, calling, regarding, etc.*; as, *creor, appellor, habeoer; as,—
  *Rōmulus rēx appellātus est, Romulus was called king;
habitūs est deus, he was regarded as a god.*

**APPOSITIVES.**

169. 1. An Appositive is a Noun explaining or defining another Noun denoting the same person or thing; as,—

*Cicerō cōnsul, Cicero, the Consul;
urbs Rōma, the city Rome.*

2. An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case; as,—

*opera Cicerōns orātoris, the works of Cicero, the orator;
apud Hērodotum, patrem historiae, in the works of Herodotus, the father of history.*

3. When possible the Appositive agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as,—

*assentātiō adjūtrīx vitiōrum, flattery, the promoter of evils.*

4. A Locative may take in Apposition the Ablative of *urbs* or *oppidum,* with or without a preposition; as,—

*COrinthi, urbe praecellārā, or in urbe praecellārā, at Corinth, a famous city.*

5. **Partitive Apposition.** A Noun denoting a whole is frequently followed by an Appositive denoting a part; as,—

*mīltēs, fortissimus quisque, hostibus restīturunt, the soldiers, all the bravest of them, resisted the enemy.*
Syntax.

THE CASES.

THE NOMINATIVE.

170. The Nominative is confined to its use as Subject, Appositive, or Predicate Noun, as already explained. See §§ 166–169.

THE VOCATIVE.

171. The Vocative is the Case of direct address; as,—
crēdite mihi, jūdicēs, believe me, judges.

1. By a species of attraction, the Nominative is occasionally used for the Vocative, especially in poetry and formal prose; as, audi tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban people!

2. Similarly the Appositive of a Vocative may, in poetry, stand in the Nominative; as, nāte, mea magna potentiā sōlus, O son, alone the source of my great power.

THE ACCUSATIVE.

172. The Accusative is the Case of the Direct Object.

173. The Direct Object may express either of the two following relations:—

A. The Person or Thing Affected by the action; as,—
cōnsulem interfēcit, he slew the consul;
legō librum, I read the book.

B. The Result Produced by the action; as,—
librum scripsī, I wrote a book (i.e. produced one);
templum struit, he constructs a temple.

174. Verbs that admit a Direct Object of either of these two types are Transitive Verbs.

a. Verbs that regularly take a Direct Object are sometimes used without it. They are then said to be employed absolutely; as,—
rūmor est meum gnātum amāre, it is rumored that my son is in love.
Accusative of the Person or Thing Affected.

175. 1. This is the most frequent use of the Accusative; as in —
  parentēs amāmus, we love our parents;
  mare aspicit, he gazes at the sea.

2. The following classes of Verbs taking an Accusative of this kind are worthy of note: —

a) Many Intransitive Verbs, when compounded with a Preposition, become Transitive. Thus: —

  1) Compounds of circum, prae, ter, trans; as, —
  hostēs circumstāre, to surround the enemy;
  urbem praeterire, to pass by the city;
  mūrōs transscendere, to climb over the walls.

  2) Less frequently, compounds of ad, per, in, sub; as, —
  adīre urbem, to visit the city;
  peragrāre Italiam, to travel through Italy;
  infrē magistrātum, to take office;
  subīre periculum, to undergo danger.

b) Many Verbs expressing emotions, regularly Intransitive, have also a Transitive use; as, —
  quero sātum, I lament my fate;
  dolēō ejus mortem, I grieve at his death;
  rīdeō tuam stultitiam, I laugh at your folly.
  So also lāgeō, maereō, mourn; gemō, bemoan; horreo, shudder, and others.

c) The impersonals deoet, it becomes; dēdeoet, it is unbecoming; juvat, it pleases, take the Accusative of the Person Affected; as, —
  mā deoet haec dicere, it becomes me to say this.

d) In poetry many Passive Verbs, in imitation of Greek usage, are employed as Middles (§ 256, 1; 2), and take the Accusative as Object; as, —
  galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet;
  elicōtus tempora hederā, having bound his temples with myos;
  nōādō sinus collēgōta, having gathered her dress in a knot.
Syntax.

Accusative of the Result Produced.

176. 1. The ordinary type of this Accusative is seen in such expressions as —

librum scribō, I write a book;
domum aedificō, I build a house.

2. Many Verbs usually Intransitive take a Neuter Pronoun, or Adjective, as an Accusative of Result. Thus: —

a) A Neuter Pronoun; as, —
haec gemēbat, he made these moans;
ilud glōrior, I make this boast;
eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes.

b) A Neuter Adjective, — particularly Adjectives of number or amount, — multum, multa, paucă, etc.; also nihil; as, —
multa dubitāt, I have many doubts;
paucā studet, he has few interests;
multum valet, he has great strength;
nihil prōgreditur, he makes no progress.

Note. — In poetry other Adjectives are freely used in this construction; as, —
minitantem vàna, making vain threats;
acēbra tūdōn, giving a fierce look;
dulce loquentem, sweetly talking.

3. The adverbial use of several Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives grows out of this Accusative; as, —
multum sunt in vēnātāōne, they are much engaged in hunting.

a. So also plūrumnum, very greatly; plērumque, generally;
aliquid, somewhat; quid, why? nihil, not at all; etc.

4. Sometimes an Intransitive Verb takes an Accusative of Result which is of kindred etymology with the Verb. This is called a CoGNATE ACCUSATIVE, and is usually modified by an Adjective; as, —
semipiternam servitūtem serviat, let him serve an everlasting slavery;
vītam dūram viāt, I have lived a hard life.

a. Sometimes the Cognate Accusative is not of kindred etymology, but merely of kindred meaning; as, —

stadium currit, he runs a race;
Olympia vincit, he wins an Olympic victory.
5. The Accusative of Result occurs also after Verbs of *tasting* and *smelling*; as,—

\[\text{picis mare sapit, the fish tastes of the sea;}\]
\[\text{oratōnēs antiquitātem redolent, the speeches smack of the past.}\]

**Two Accusatives—Direct Object and Predicate Accusative.**

177. 1. Many Verbs of *Making, Choosing, Calling, Showing,* and the like, take two Accusatives, one of the Person or Thing Affected, the other a Predicate Accusative; as,—

\[\text{mō hērēdēm fācit, he made me heir.}\]

Here \text{mō} is Direct Object, \text{hērēdēm} Predicate Accusative.

So also—

\[\text{eum jūdicem cēsēre, they took him as judge;}\]
\[\text{urbem Rōman vocāvit, he called the city Rome;}\]
\[\text{sē virum praestītīt, he showed himself a man.}\]

2. The Predicate Accusative may be an Adjective as well as a Noun; as,—

\[\text{hominēs caecōs reddidit cupiditās, cupidity renders men blind;}\]
\[\text{Apollo Sōcratem sapientissimum jūdicāvit, Apollo adjudged Socrates the wisest man.}\]

3. Some Verbs, as *reddō,* usually admit only an Adjective as the Predicate Accusative.

3. In the Passive the Direct Object becomes the Subject, and the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nominative (§ 168. 2. 6); as,—

\[\text{urbs Rōma vocāta est, the city was called Rome.}\]

4. Not all Verbs admit the Passive construction; *reddō* and *officiō,* for example, never take it.

**Two Accusatives—Person and Thing.**

178. 1. Some Verbs take two Accusatives, one of the Person Affected, the other of the Result Produced. Thus:—

a) Verbs of *requesting* and *demanding,* as,—

\[\text{ōstium divōs rogat, he asks the gods for rest;}\]
\[\text{mō duās oratōnēs postulās, you demand two speeches of me.}\]
So also ὤς, posco, reposco, approach, flâgitō, though some of these prefer the Ablative with ab to the Accusative of the Person; as,—

open a té poscō, I demand aid of you.

b) Verbs of teaching (doceō and its compounds); as,—

tē litterās doceō, I teach you your letters.

c) Verbs of inquiring; as,—

tē haec rogō, I ask you this;

tē sententiam rogō, I ask you your opinion.

d) Several Special Verbs; vír. moneō, admoneō, commoneō, cōgō, accūsō, arguō, and a few others. These admit only a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective as Accusative of the Thing; as,—

tré haec moneō, I give you this advice;

mē id accusās, you bring this accusation against me;

tē cōgit nōs nātūrā, nature compels us (to) this.

e) One Verb of concealing, celō; as,—

nōn té celāvi sermōnem, I have not concealed the conversation from you.

2. In the Passive construction the Accusative of the Person becomes the Subject, and the Accusative of the Thing is retained; as,—

omnēs artēs ēductae sunt, he taught all accomplishments;

rogātus sum sententiam. I was asked my opinion;

aliaque admonēmur, we are given some admonition.

a. Only a few Verbs admit the Passive construction.

**Two Accusatives with Compounds.**

179. 1. Transitive compounds of trāns may take two Accusatives, one dependent upon the Verb, the other upon the Preposition; as,—

mīlitēs flūmen trādūcit, he leads his soldiers across the river.

2. With other compounds this construction is rare.

3. In the Passive the Accusative dependent upon the preposition is retained; as,—

mīlitēs flūmen trādūcebantur, the soldiers were led across the river.
The Accusative.

180. 1. The Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative denotes the part to which an action or quality refers; as,—

transit artēs, literally, he trembles as to his limbs, i.e. his limbs tremble;
śūs gentūs, lit. bare as to the knee, i.e. with knee bare;
manēs revinctus, lit. tied as to the hands, i.e. with hands tied.

2. Note that this construction —
a) is borrowed from the Greek.
b) is chiefly confined to poetry.
c) usually refers to a part of the body.
d) is used with adjectives as well as verbs.

Accusative of Time and Space.

181. 1. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are denoted by the Accusative; as,—

quadrāginta annōs vīxit, he lived forty years;
hīr locus passēs sescentōs aberat, this place was six hundred paces away.
arboreā quīnquāgintā pedēs altae, trees fifty feet high.
sābinc septem annōs, seven years ago.

2. Emphasis is sometimes added by using the preposition per; as,

per biennium labōrāvi, I toiled throughout two years.

Accusative of Limit of Motion.

182. 1. The Accusative of Limit of Motion is used —

a) With names of towns, small islands, and peninsulas; as,—

Rōmam vēnī, I came to Rome;
Athēnēs profectūrur, he sets out for Athens;
Dēlum pervēnī, I arrived at Delos.

b) With domum, domōs, rūs; as,—

domum revertitur, he returns home;
rūs ibō, I shall go to the country.

Note. — When domus means house (i.e. building), it takes a preposition; as,—

in domum veterem remigrāre, to move back to an old house.
2. Other designations of place than those above mentioned require a Preposition to denote Limit of Motion; as,—
   ad Italiam vēnit, he came to Italy.

   a. The Preposition is also customary with the Accusatives urbem or oppidum when they stand in apposition with the name of a town; as,—
      Cirta in urbem, to the city Cirta;
      Genavam ad oppidum, to the town Geneva.

   b. The name of a town denoting limit of motion may be combined with the name of a country or other word dependent upon a preposition; as,—
      Thūriōs in Italiam pervectus, carried to Thurii in Italy;
      cum Aexī ad exercitum vēgisset, when he had come to the army at Act.

3. To denote toward, to the vicinity of, in the vicinity of, ad is used; as,—
   ad Tarentum vēni, I came to the vicinity of Tarentum;
   ad Cannās pugna facta est, a battle was fought near Cannae.

4. In poetry the Accusative of any noun denoting a place may be used without a preposition to express the limit of motion; as,—
   Italiam vēnit, he came to Italy.

5. The goal notion seems to represent the original function of the Accusative Case. Traces of this primitive force are recognizable in the phrase Inītiās ire, to deny (lit. to go to a denial), and a few other similar expressions.

**Accusative in Exclamations.**

§183. The Accusative, generally modified by an Adjective, is used in Exclamations; as,—
   mē miserum, ah, wretched me!
   Ō fallācem aem, ah, deceptive hope!

**Accusative as Subject of the Infinitive.**

§184. The Subject of the Infinitive is put in the Accusative; as,—
   videō hominem abīre, I see that the man is going away.
Other Uses of the Accusative.

185. Here belong—

1. Some Accusatives which were originally Appositive; viz.—
   id genus, of that kind; as, hominēs id genus, men of that kind
   (originally hominēs, id genus hominum, men, that kind
   of men);
   virile securis, muliebre securis, of the male sex, of the female sex;
   meas vicem, tuam vicem, etc., for my part, etc.;
   bonam partem, magnam partem, in large part;
   maximam partem, for the most part.

2. Some phrases of doubtful origin; as,—
   id tempore, at that time; quod si, but if;
   id aetātis, at that time;  quod si, but if;
   id aetātis, in other respects.

THE DATIVE.

186. The Dative case in general expresses relations which are designated in English by the prepositions to and for.

Dative of Indirect Object.

187. The commonest use of the Dative is to denote the person to whom something is given, said, or done. Thus:—

I. With transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative; as,—
   hanc pecūniam mihi dat, he gives me this money;
   haece nōbis dīxit, he said this to us.

a. Some verbs which take this construction (particularly dōnāre and circumdō) admit also the Accusative of the person along with the Ablative of the thing. Thus:—
   Either Themistocēlem munera dōnāvit, he presented gifts to
   Themistocles, or
   Themistocēlem muneribus dōnāvit, he presented Themistocles with gifts;
   urbī mūrēs circumdat, he builds walls around the city, or
   urbem mūrēs circumdat, he surrounds the city with walls.
II. With many intransitive verbs; as,—

nulli labōrī cēdit, he yields to no labor.

a. Here belong many verbs signifying favor,1 help, injure, please, displease, trust, distrust, command, obey, serve, resist, indulge, spare, pardon, envy, threaten, be angry, believe, persuade, and the like; as,—

Caesar populāribus favet, Caesar favors (i.e., is favorable to) the popular party;
amīca cōnstitō, I trust (to) my friends;
Orgetorīx Helvētīs persuāsit, Orgetorix persuaded (made it acceptable to) the Helvétians;
bons nocet quī mali parcit, he injures (does harm to) the good, who spares the bad.

Note. — It is to be borne in mind that these verbs do not take the Dative by virtue of their apparent English equivalence, but simply because they are intransitive, and adapted to an indirect object. Some verbs of the same apparent English equivalence are transitive and govern the Accusative; as, juvō, laedō, dēlectō. Thus: āduētēs deus juvēt, God helps the bold; nōminem laesit, he injured no one.

b. Verbs of this class are used in the passive only impersonally; as,—

tibī parōitur, you are spared;
mīhi persuaūdētur, I am being persuaded;
eī invidētur, he is envied.

c. Some of the foregoing verbs admit also a Direct Object in connection with the Dative; as,—
mīhi mortem mīlitūtur, he threatens me with death (threatens death to me).

III. With many verbs compounded with the prepositions: ad, ante, circum, com-,2 in, inter, ob, post, prae, pró, sub, super.

These verbs fall into two main classes,—

1. Many simple verbs which cannot take a Dative of the indirect object become capable of doing so when compounded with a preposition; as,—

afflictīs succurrīt, he helps the afflicted;
exercitūr praefuit, he was in command of the army;
intersum cōnsiliā, I share in the deliberations.

1 Many such verbs were originally intransitive in English also, and once governed the Dative. 2 This was the original form of the preposition cum.
2. Many transitive verbs which take only a direct object become capable, when compounded, of taking a Dative also as indirect object; as,—

pecuniae pudorem antepone, he puts honor before money;
incere spem animo, to inspire hope in one's friend;
Labienum exercitum praeficit, he put Labienus in charge of the army.

Dative of Reference.

188. 1. The Dative of Reference denotes the person to whom a statement refers, of whom it is true, or to whom it is of interest; as,—
mibi ante oculis versaris, you hover before my eyes (lit. hover before the eyes to me);
illī sevīritās amōrem non dēminuit, in his severity did not diminish love (lit. to him severity did not diminish);
interclādēre hostibus commētātum, to cut off the supplies of the enemy.

a. Note: the phrase allocut interdicere aquās et igni, to interdict one from fire and water.

NOTE.—The Dative of Reference, unlike the Dative of Indirect Object, does not modify the verb, but rather the sentence as a whole. It is often used where, according to the English idiom, we should expect a Genitive; so in the first and third of the above examples.

2. Special varieties of the Dative of Reference are—

a) Dative of the Local Standpoint. This is regularly a participle; as,—
oppidum primum Thessalīae vententibus ab Ἐπίρῳ, the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (lit. to those coming from Epirus).

b) Ethical Dative. This name is given to those Dative constructions of the personal pronouns in which the connection of the Dative with the rest of the sentence is of the very slightest sort; as,—
tā mihi iustus audaciae dēfendis? tell me, do you defend that man's audacity?
quid mihi Ceasūs aget? what is my Ceasūs doing?
quid sibi vult? what does he mean? (lit. wish for himself?)
c) **Dative of Person Judging**: as,—

   *crit ille mihi semper deus, he will always be a god to me* (i.e. in my opinion);

   *quae ista servitūs tam clārō hominī, how can that be slavery to so illustrious a man (i.e. to his mind)!*

\{ d) **Dative of Separation.** Some verbs of taking away, especially compounds of *ab, dē, ex, ad*, govern a Dative of the person, less often of the thing; as,—

   *honōrem dētrāxiōrunt hominī, they took away the honor from the man;*

   *Caesar rēgī tetrarchiam στριπύτησ, Caesar took the tetrarchy away from the king;*

   *sillō scintillam excūdit, he struck a spark from the flint.*

**Dative of Agency.**

189. The Dative is used to denote **agency** —

1. Regularly with the Gerundive; as,—

   *haec nōbis agenda sunt, these things must be done by us;*

   *mihi eundum est, I must go (lit. it must be gone by me).*

   *a. To avoid ambiguity, & with the Ablative is sometimes used with the Gerundive; as,—*

   *hostibus ā nōbis parçendum est, the enemy must be spared by us.*

2. Much less frequently with the compound tenses of the passive voice and the perfect passive participle; as,—

   *disputātiō quae mihi nūper habita est, the discussion which was recently conducted by me.*

3. Rarely with the uncompounded tenses of the passive; as,—

   *honesta bonōs virtōs quaeruntur, noble ends are sought by good men.*

**Dative of Possession.**

190. The Dative of Possession occurs with the verb *esse* in such expressions as: —

   *mihi est liber, I have a book;*

   *mihi nōmen est Mārcus, I have the name Marcus.*

1. But with *nōmen est* the name is more commonly attracted into the Dative; as, *mihi Mārcō nōmen est.*
Dative of Purpose or Tendency.

191. The Dative of Purpose or Tendency designates the end toward which an action is directed or the direction in which it tends. It is used —

1. Unaccompanied by another Dative; as, —
    castra locum diligere, to choose a place for a camp;
    legiones praesidio relinquere, to leave the legions as a guard (lit.
    for a guard);
    receptus canere, to sound the signal for a retreat.

Much more frequently in connection with another Dative of the person; —

a) Especially with some form of esse; as, —
    fortunae tuae mihi cœrae sunt, your fortunes are a care to
    me (lit. for a care);
    nobis sunt odio, they are an object of hatred to us;
    cui boni? to whom is it of advantage?

b) With other verbs; as, —
    hœc tibi minus malit, he has sent these to you for a
    present;
    Pausaniae Atticae venit auxiliis, Pausania came to the
    aid of the Athenians (lit. to the Athenians for aid).

3. In connection with the Gerundive; as, —
    decemviri legibus sortundis, decemvirs for codifying the laws;
    mægerendō beliō ducem creāvère, me they have made leader for
    carrying on the war.

Note. — This construction with the gerundive is not common till Livy.

Dative with Adjectives.

192. The use of the Dative with Adjectives corresponds very closely to its use with verbs. Thus: —

1. Corresponding to the Dative of Indirect Object it occurs with adjectives signifying: friendly, unfriendly, similar, dissimilar, equal, near, related to, etc.; as, —
    mihi inimicus, hostile to me;
    sunt proximi Germaniae, they are next to the Germans;
    noxiam poena pœr est, let the penalty be equal to the damage.
a. For proprius and proximus with the Accusative, see § 141, 3.

2. Corresponding to the Dative of Purpose, the Dative occurs with adjectives signifying: suitable, adapted, fit; as,—
cast in idoneus locus, a place fit for a camp;
apta die sacrificiö, a day suitable for a sacrifice.

Note.—Adjectives of this last class often take the Accusative with ad.

Dative of Direction.

193. In the poets the Dative is occasionally used to denote the direction of motion; as,—
   it cliamor caelö, the shout goes heavenward;
cinerö rivi fluöt iace, cast the ashes toward the flowing stream.

1. By an extension of this construction the poets sometimes use the Dative to denote the limit of motion; as,—
dum Latiiö deös Interret, till he should bring his gods to Latium.

THE GENITIVE.

194. The Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

195. With Nouns the Genitive is the case which defines the meaning of the limited noun more closely. This relation is generally indicated in English by the preposition of. There are the following varieties of the Genitive with Nouns:—

Genitive of Origin,  Objective Genitive,
Genitive of Material, Genitive of the Whole,
Genitive of Possession, Appositional Genitive,
Subjective Genitive,  Genitive of Quality.

196. Genitive of Origin; as,—
   Märci flius, the son of Marcus.

197. Genitive of Material; as,—
   talentum auri, a talent of gold;
   acervus frumenti, a pile of grain.
198. **Genitive of Possession or Ownership;** as, —

*domus Cicerōnis, Cicerō's house.*

1. Here belongs the Genitive with *causā* and *grātīā.* The Genitive always precedes; *as,* —

- *hominum causā,* for the sake of men;
- *meōrum amīcōrum grātīā,* for the sake of my friends.

2. *Instar* (lit. image) also takes the Possessive Genitive; *as,* —

- *equus instar montis,* a horse as large as a mountain.

3. The Possessive Genitive is often used predicatively, especially with *esse* and *sērī;* *as,* —

- *domus est rāgis,* the house is the king's;
- *stultī est in errōre manēre,* it is (the part) of a fool to remain in error;
- *dē bellō judicium imperātōris est, nōn mīlitum,* the decision concerning war belongs to the general, not to the soldiers.

199. **Subjective Genitive.** This denotes the person who makes or produces something or who has a feeling; *as,* —

- *dicta Platōnis,* the utterances of Plato;
- *timōrēs Iberōrum,* the fears of the children.

200. **Objective Genitive.** This denotes the object of an action or feeling; *as,* —

- *metus deōrum,* the fear of the gods;
- *amor libertātis,* love of liberty;
- *coniunctūdō bonōrum hominum,* intercourse with good men.

1. This relation is often expressed by means of prepositions; *as,* —

- *amor ergā parentēs,* love toward one's parents.

201. **Genitive of the Whole.** This designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used —

1. With Nouns, Pronouns, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Ordinal Numerals; *as,* —

- *magna pars hominum,* a great part of mankind;
- *duo mīlia pedītum,* two thousand foot-soldiers;
- *quis mortālium,* who of mortals?
- *major frātrum,* the elder of the brothers;
- *gēna maxima Germanōrum,* the largest tribe of the Germans;
- *primus omnium,* the first of all.
136

Syntax.

a. Yet instead of the Genitive of the Whole we often find *ex* or *de* with the Ablative, regularly so with Cardinal numbers and *quidam*; as,—

*fidissimus de servis, the most trusty of the slaves;*
*quidam ex amicis, certain of his friends;*
*minus ex militibus, one of the soldiers.*

b. In English we often use *of* where there is no relation of whole to part. In such cases the Latin is more exact, and does not use the Genitive; as,—

*quot vos estis, how many of you are there?*
*recenti conjuravimus, three hundred of us have conspired (i.e. we, three hundred in number).*

2. The Genitive of the Whole is used also with the Nominative or Accusative Singular Neuter of Pronouns, or of Adjectives used substantively; also with the Adverbs *parum, satis, and partim* when used substantively; as,—

*quid consilii, what purpose?*
*tantum cibi, so much food;*
*plus auctorisitatis, more authority;*
*minus laboris, less labor;*
*satis pecuniae, enough money;*
*parum industriae, too little industry.*

a. An Adjective of the second declension used substantively may be employed as a Genitive of the Whole; as, *nihil boni, nothing good.*

b. But Adjectives of the third declension agree directly with the noun they limit; as, *nihil dulcior, nothing sweeter.*

3. Occasionally we find the Genitive of the Whole dependent upon Adverbs of place; as,—

*ubi terrarum? ubi gentium? where in the world?*

a. By an extension of this usage the Genitive sometimes occurs in dependence upon *pridie* and *postridie,* but only in the phrases *pridie ejus dies,* *on the day before that;* *postridie ejus dies,* *on the day after that.*

202. Appositional Genitive. The Genitive sometimes has the force of an appositive; as,—

*nomen regis, the name of king;*
*poena mortis, the penalty of death;*
*ars scribendi, the art of writing.*

203. Genitive of Quality. The Genitive modified by an Adjective is used to denote quality. This construction presents several varieties. Thus it is used—
The Genitive. 137

1. To denote some internal or permanent characteristic of a person or thing; as,—

vir magnae virtutis, a man of great virtue;
ratiorum ejus modi, considerations of that sort.

a. Only a limited number of Adjectives occur in this construction, chiefly
magnus, maximus, summus, tantus, along with ejus.

2. To denote measure (breadth, length, etc.); as,—

fossa quindecim pedum, a trench fifteen feet wide (or deep);
exsilium decem annorum, an exile of ten years.

3. By omission of prett (price), or some kindred word, tantf, quanti, parvi, magni, minores, minimi, plures, maximi are used predicatively to denote indefinite value; as,—
nulla studia tantz sunt, no studies are of so much value;
magni opera ejus existimata est, his assistance was highly esteemed.

a. Plures (not strictly an adjective) follows the same analogy.

4. By an extension of the notion of value, quanti, tanti, plures, and minores are also used with verbs of buying and selling, to denote indefinite price; as,—

quantae aedae aesti, at how high a price did you purchase the house?

5. Any of the above varieties of the Genitive of Quality may be used predicatively; as,—
tantae moleis erat Romenam condere gentem, of so great difficulty
was it to found the Roman race.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

204. The Genitive is used with many Adjectives, to limit
the extent of their application. Thus:—

With Adjectives signifying desire, knowledge, familiarity,
memory, participation, power, fineness, and their opposites; as,—

studiosus discendi, desirous of learning;
peritus belii, skilled in war;
insanus laboris, unused to toil;
immemor mandati tui, unmindful of your commission;
plena periculo rum est vita, life is full of dangers.

Some participles used adjectively also take the Genitive; as,—
diligens veritatis, fond of truth;
amicus patriae, devoted to one's country.
2. Sometimes with proprius and communis; as,—

vir proprius fortitudinis, bravery is characteristic of a man.
memoria communis omnium artium, memory is common to all
professions.
a. proprius and communis are also construed with the Dative.

3. With similis the Genitive is the commoner construction in Cicero,
when the reference is to living objects; as,—

filius patris similius est, the son is exactly like his father.
mei similis, like me; vestri similis, like you.

When the reference is to things, both Genitive and Dative occur; as,—
mors somni (or somni) similis est, death is like sleep.

4. In the poets and later prose writers the use of the Genitive with Adjectives
is extended far beyond earlier limits; as, atrox animi, fierce of temper; incertus
cōnsilii, undecided in purpose.

GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

205. The Genitive is used with the following classes of
Verbs: —

Memint, Reminiscor, Obliviscor.

206. 1. WHEN REFERING TO PERSONS—

a. memint always takes the Genitive of personal or reflexive
pronouns; as,—

mei memineris, remember me!
nostrī meminit, he remembers us.

With other words denoting persons memint takes the Accusative,
rarely the Genitive; as,—

Sullam memint, I recall Sulla.
vivōrum memint, I remember the living.

b. obliviscor regularly takes the Genitive; as,—

Epicuri nōn licet obliviscer, we mustn’t forget Epicurus.

2. WHEN REFERING TO THINGS. memint, reminiscor, obliviscor take sometimes the Genitive, sometimes the Accusative, without
difference of meaning; as,—

animus praetertōrum meminit, the mind remembers the past;
meministhē nōmina, do you remember the names?
reminiscere veteris incommodi, remember the former disaster;
reminiscēns acerbitātem, remembering the severity.
The Genitive.

139

a. But neuter pronouns, and adjectives used substantively, regularly stand in the Accusative; as,—

haec memini, I remember this;
multa reminiscor, I remember many things.

3. The phrase mihi (tibi, etc.) in mentem venit, following the analogy of memini, takes the Genitive; as,—

civium mihi in mentem venit, I remember the citizens.

Admoneō, Commoneō, Commonefactō.

207. These verbs, in addition to an Accusative of the person, occasionally take a Genitive of the thing; as,—

tē admoneō amicitiae nostrae, I remind you of our friendship.

a. But more frequently (in Cicero almost invariably) these verbs take dē with the Ablative; as,—

dē pectūm miē admoneō, you remind me of the money.

b. A neuter pronoun or adjective used substantively regularly stands in the Accusative (178. 1. d.): as,—

tē hōc admoneō, I give you this warning.

Verbs of Judicial Action.

208. 1. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting take the Genitive of the charge; as,—

mē furfī accusat, he accuses me of theft;
Verrem avāritiae coarguit, he convicts Verres of avarice;
impietātis absolūtus est, he was acquitted of blasphemy.

2. Verbs of Condemning take —

a. The Genitive of the charge; as,—

pectūnias pūblicae damnātus, condemned (on the charge) of embezzlement (lit. public money);

capitis damnātus, condemned on a capital charge (lit. on a charge involving his head).

b. The Ablative of the penalty; as,—
capite damnātus est, he was condemned to death;
mīli nūmmīs damnātus est, he was condemned (to pay) a thousand sesterces (lit. by a thousand sesterces, Abl. of Means).
Note the phrases:

vōtī damnatus, vōtī reus, having attained one's prayer (lit. condemned on the score of one's vow);
dē vi, (accused, convicted, etc.) of assault;
inter ściāriōn, (accused, convicted, etc.) of murder.

Gentive with Impersonal Verbs.

209. 1. The Impersonals pudet, paenitet, miseret, taedet, piget take the Accusative of the person affected, along with the Gentive of the person or thing toward whom the feeling is directed; as,—

pudet mē tui, I am ashamed of you (lit. it shames me of you);
paenitet mē hōjus factū, I repent of this act;
sum taedet vītæ, he is weary of life;
pauperum tē miseret, you pity the poor.

a. Instead of the Genitive of the thing we often find an Infinitive or Neuter Pronoun used as subject of the verb. Thus:—
mē paenitet hōc fācisse, I repent of having done this;
mē hōc pudet, I am ashamed of this.

2. Misereor and miserēscō also govern the Genitive; as,—
miserēmini sociōrum, pity the allies.

Interest, Réferē.

210. With interest, it concerns, three points enter into consideration; viz.—

a) the person concerned;
b) the thing about which he is concerned;
c) the extent of his concern.

211. 1. The person concerned is regularly denoted by the Genitive; as,—

patris interest, it concerns the father.

a. But instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, meā, tui, etc., the Latin uses the Ablative Singular Feminine of the Possessive, viz.: meā, tuā, etc.; as,—

meā interest, it concerns me.
2. The thing about which a person is concerned is denoted —
   a) by a Neuter Pronoun as subject; as, —
      hóc ref públicæ interest, this concerns the state.
   b) by an Infinitive; as, —
      omnium interest valère, it concerns all to keep well.
   c) by an Indirect Question; as, —
      meā interest quandō veniás, I am concerned as to when you are coming.

3. The degree of concern is denoted —
   a) by the Genitive (of Quality): magni, parvi, etc.; as, —
      meā magni interest, it concerns me greatly.
   b) by the Adverbs, magnopere, magis, maximē, etc.; as, —
      omnium minimē interest, it concerns the citizens very little.
   c) by the Neuters, multum, pītis, minus, etc.; as, —
      multum vestrā interest, it concerns you much.

4. Réfert follows interest in its construction, except that it rarely takes the Genitive of the person. Thus: —
   meā réfert, it concerns me;
   but rarely illius réfert, it concerns him.

Genitive with Other Verbs.

212. 1. Verbs of Plenty and Want sometimes govern the Genitive; as, —
      pecūniae indīgēs, you need money.
   a. These verbs more commonly take the Ablative (§ 214, 1):
      indīgēs is the only verb which has a preference for the Genitive.

2. Potior, though usually followed by the Ablative, sometimes takes the Genitive, almost always so in Sallust; and regularly in the phrase:
   potīr iōrum, to get control of affairs.

3. In poetry some verbs take the Genitive in imitation of the Greek; as, —
   dēsine quærellārum, cease your complaints;
   operum solutī, freed from their tasks.
THE ABLATIVE.

213. The Latin Ablative unites in itself three cases which were originally distinct both in form and in meaning; viz. —

The Ablative or from-case.
The Instrumental or with-case.
The Locative or where-case.

The uses of the Latin Ablative accordingly fall into Genuine Ablative uses, Instrumental uses, and Locative uses.

GENUINE ABLATIVE USES.

Ablative of Separation.

214. The Ablative of Separation is construed sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition.

1. The following words regularly take the Ablative without a preposition: —

a) The Verbs of freeing: liberő, solvő, levő;
b) The Verbs of depriving: privő, spoliő, exuő, fraudő, nūdő;
c) The Verbs of lacking: egeő, careő, vacő;
d) The corresponding Adjectives, liber, inānis, vacuos, nūdus, and some others of similar meaning.

Thus: —
cūris liberātus, freed from cūres;
Caesar hostēs armīs exuit, Caesar stripped the enemy of their arms;
caret sēnā undūtīi, he lacks common sense;
auxiliō egē, he needs help;
bonōrūm vita vacuos est metē, the life of the good is free from fear.

NOTE 1. — Yet Adjectives and liberő may take the preposition ab, — regularly so with the Ablative of persons; —

urbem e tyranno liberāruit, they freed the city from the tyrant.

NOTE 2. — Indigeő usually takes the Genitive. See § 212, 1, a.
2. Of Verbs signifying to keep from, to remove, to withdraw, some take the preposition, others omit it. The same Verb often admits both constructions. Examples: —

abstinēre cibō, to abstain from food;
hostēs finibus prohibuērunt, they kept the enemy from their borders;
praedōnēs ab Insulā prohibuit, he kept the pirates from the island.

3. Other Verbs of separation usually take the Ablative with a Preposition, particularly compounds of dis- and sē-; as,—

dissentiō a tē, I dissent from you;
sēcernuntur a nōbēs, let them be separated from us.

4. The Preposition is freely omitted in poetry.

Ablative of Source.

215. The Ablative of Source is used with the participles nātus and ortus (in poetry also with editus, satus, and some others), to designate parentage or station; as,—

Jove nātus, son of Jupiter;
summō locō nātus, high-born (lit. born from a very high place);
nōbilī genere ortus, born of a noble family.

1. Pronouns regularly (nouns rarely) take ex; as,

ēx mē nātus, sprung from me.

2. To denote remoter descent, ortus ab, or oriundus (with or without ab), is used; as,—

āb Uilīe oriundus, descended from Ulysses.

Ablative of Agent.

216. The Ablative accompanied by a (ab) is used with passive verbs to denote the personal agent; as,—

ā Caesare accusātus est, he was arraigned by Caesar.

1. Collective nouns referring to persons, and abstract nouns when personified, may be construed as the personal agent. Thus: —

hostēs a fortūnā déserēbantur, the enemy were deserted by Fortune;
ā multitūdīne hostium mōntēs tenēbantur, the mountains were held
by a multitude of the enemy.

2. Names of animals sometimes admit the same construction. Thus: —

ā canībus lānātus est, he was torn to pieces by dogs.
Syntax.

Ablative of Comparison.

217. 1. The Ablative is often used with Comparatives in the sense of than; as,—

melle dulcor, sweeter than honey;
patria mihi vitali cärior est, my country is dearer to me than life.

2. This construction, as a rule, occurs only as a substitute for quam (than) with the Nominative or Accusative. In other cases quam must be used; as,—

tuf studiōsior sum quam illius, I am fonder of you than of him.

Studiōsior illō would have meant, I am fonder of you than he is.

3. Plús, minus, amplitus, longitus are often employed as the equivalents of plús quam, minus quam, etc. Thus:—
amplitus viginti urbēs incenduntur, more than twenty cities are fired;
minus quīnque milia prōcessit, he advanced less than five miles.

4. Note the use of opinōne with Comparatives; as,—
opinōne celerius venit, he comes more quickly than expected (lit. than opinion).

INSTRUMENTAL USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Means.

218. The Ablative is used to denote means or instrument; as,—

Alexander sagittā vulnerātus est, Alexander was wounded by an arrow.

There are the following special varieties of this Ablative:—

1. Ītor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds take the Ablative; as,—

divītia stūtur, he uses his wealth (lit. he benefits himself by his wealth);
vitā fruitur, he enjoys life (lit. he enjoys himself by life);
mūnere fungor, I perform my duty (lit. I busy myself with duty);
carne vescuntur, they eat flesh (lit. feed themselves by means of);
urbē potitus est, he got possession of the city (lit. made himself powerful by the city).

The Ablative.

2. With opus est (rarely situs est), there is need; as,—

duce nobis opus est, we need a leader.

a. A Neuter Pronoun or Adjective often stands as subject with
opus as predicate. Thus: —

hoc mihi opus est, this is necessary for me.

b. An ordinary substantive rarely stands as subject. Thus dux
nobilis opus est is a rare form of expression.

c. Note the occasional use of a perfect passive participle with opus
est; as,—

opus est praebatū, there is need of haste.

3. With nitor, innexus, and frētus; as,—

nītur hastā, he rests on a spear (lit. supports himself by a spear);
frētus virūtū, relying on virtūe (lit. supported by virtu).

4. With contīnērī, consistere, consistāre, consist of; as,—
nervīs et ossibus continentur, they consist of sinews and bones (lit.
they are held together by sinews and bones);
mortāli consistit corpore mundus, the world consists of mortal sub-
stance (lit. holds together by means of, etc.).

5. In expressions of the following type: —

quid hōc homine faciās, what can you do with this man?
quid meā Tulliā sēt, what will become of my dear Tullia ? (lit. what
will be done with my dear Tullia ?)

7. In the following special phrases at variance with the ordinary
English idiom: —

proelī contendere, vincere, to contend, conquer in battle;
proelī laecessere, to provoke to battle;
currū vehi, to ride in a chariot;
pedibus ēre, to go on foot;
castrā sē tenēre, to keep in camp.

8. With Verbs of filling and Adjectives of plenty; as,—

fossās virgultīs complērunt, they filled the trenches with brush.

a. But plēnus more commonly takes the Genitive. See § 304, i.

9. Under 'Means' belongs also the Ablative of the Way by
which; as,—
vīnum Tiberī dāvētum, wine brought down (by) the Tiber.
10. The means may be a person as well as a thing. Thus:—

militibus & loco Lemannō ad montem Jūram mūrum perdūcit, ut
(i.e., by means of) his troops he runs a wall from Lake Geneva to Mt. Jura.

**Ablative of Cause.**

219. The Ablative is used to denote cause; as,—

multa gloriae cupiditāte fēcit, he did many things on account of his
love of glory.

1. So especially with verbs denoting mental states; as, dēlector,
gaudēs, laetor, glōrior, fīōdūs, cōnsidēs. Also with contentus;
as,—

fortūna amīcis gaudēs, I rejoice at the fortune of my friend (i.e. on
account of it);

victoria suā gloriāntur, they exult over their victory;

nātūra loci cōnsidērabant, they trusted in the character of their country
(lit. were confident on account of the character).

a. fīōdū and cōnsidērāvē always take the Dative of the person (§ 187, II. a);
sometimes the Dative of the thing.

2. As Ablatives of Cause are to be reckoned also such Ablatives as
usū, by order of, inuissū, without the order, rogātū, etc.

**Ablative of Manner.**

220. The Ablative with cum is used to denote manner;
as,—

cum gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with dignity.

1. The preposition may be omitted when the Ablative is modified
by an adjective; as,—

magnā gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with great dignity.

2. The preposition is regularly omitted in the expressions jūre,
ínfrūia, jocō, vī. fraude, voluntāte, fortūna, silentiā.

3. A special variety of the Ablative of Manner denotes that in ac-
cordance with which or in pursuance of which anything is or is done.
It is generally used without a preposition. Thus:—

meā sententia, according to my opinion;

suis mōribus, in accordance with their custom;

suā sponte, voluntarily, of his (their) own accord;

sē condicio, on these terms.
The Ablative.

Ablative of Attendant Circumstance.

221. The Ablative is often used to denote an attendant circumstance of an action or an event; as, —
bonis auspiciis, under good auspices;
nulla est altere tribus quam habita maiore tuo;
debate was ever held under circumstances of greater applause;
exstant in urbe fumes, in the city;
de the province;
longus intervallum sequitur, he follows at a great distance.

Ablative of Accompaniment.

222. The Ablative with cum is used with verbs of motion to denote accompaniment; as, —
cum omnia sanctaeque praebent, he went out with all his attendants;
cum febre domum reddidit, he returned home with a fever.

1. In military expressions the Ablative may stand without cum when modified by any adjective except a numeral; as, —
omnibus copiis, in the army;
magnis manibus, but usually cum exercitibus, cum duabus legioniis.

Ablative of Association.

222 A. The Ablative is often used with verbs of joining, mixing, clinging, exchanging; also with consuecuo, consuecuo, consuetudo, and some others to denote association; as, —
improbitate societate juncta, badness joined with crime;
ars calore admixtus, air mixed with heat;
consuetudine labor, accustomed to (lit. familiarized with) toil;
pacific bellis permittant, they change peace for (lit. with) war.

Ablative of Degree of Difference.

223. The Ablative is used with comparatives and words involving comparison (as post, ante, infra, supra) to denote the degree of difference; as, —
demidio minor, smaller by a half;
tribus pedibus altior, three feet higher;
paulum post, a little afterwards;
quodplus habemus, the more we have, the more we want.
Ablative of Quality.

224. The Ablative, modified by an adjective, is used to denote quality; as,—

puella eximīō fūrmā, a girl of exceptional beauty;
vir singulārī industriā, a man of singular industry.

1. The Ablative of Quality may also be used predicatively; as,—
est magnū prūdentīō, he is (a man) of great wisdom;
bonō animō sunt, they are of good courage.

2. In place of the Adjective we sometimes find a limiting Genitive; as,—
sunt specūs et colōre taurī, they are of the appearance and color of a bull.

3. In poetry the Ablative of Quality sometimes denotes material; as,—
scopūs pandentūs antrum, a cave of arching rocks.

Ablative of Price.

225. With verbs of buying and selling, price is designated by the Ablative; as,—
servum quīnque minūs ēmit, he bought the slave for five minae.

1. The Ablatives magnū, plūrimīō, parvō, minimō (by omission of pretīō) are used to denote indefinite price; as,—
coneās magnīō vendīdīt, he sold the house for a high price.

2. For the Genitive of Indefinite Price, see § 203. 4.

Ablative of Specification.

226. The Ablative of Specification is used to denote that in respect to which something is or is done; as,—

Helvītīī omniōs Gallīs virtūte praestābant, the Helvetians surpassed all the Gauls in valor;
pede claudūs, lame in his foot.

1. Note the phrases:—

major nātū, older (lit. greater as to age);
minor nātū, younger.

2. Here belongs the use of the Ablative with dignūs, worthy, indignūs, unworthy, and dignor, deem worthy of; as,—
dignī honōre, worthy of honor (i.e. in point of honor);
fīdē indignī, unworthy of confidence.
mē dignor honōre, I deem myself worthy of honor.
Ablative Absolute.

227. The Ablative Absolute is grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. In its commonest form it consists of a noun or pronoun limited by a participle; as,—

urbe captā, Aeneās fūgit, when the city had been captured, Aeneas fled (lit. the city having been captured).

1. Instead of a participle we often find an adjective or noun; as,—
vivō Caesare rēs pūblica sālva erat, while Caesar was alive the state was safe (lit. Caesar being alive);
Tarquiniō rēge, Pythagorās in Italiam vēnit, in the reign of Tarquin Pythagoras came into Italy (lit. Tarquin being king).

2. The Ablative Absolute is generally used in Latin where in English we employ subordinate clauses. Thus the Ablative Absolute may correspond to a clause denoting —
   a) Time, as in the foregoing examples.
   b) Condition; as,—
   omnēs virtūtēs jacent, voluptāte dominante, all virtus lie prostrate, if pleasure is master.
   c) Opposition; as,—
   perdītis omnibus rēbus, virtūs sē sustentāre potest, though everything else is lost, yet Virtue can maintain herself.
   d) Cause; as,—
   nāliō adversānte rēgnum obtinuīt, since no one opposed him, he secured the throne.
   e) Attendant circumstance; as,—
   passīs palīmis paeōm petīvērunt, with hands outstretched they sued for peace.

3. An Infinitive or clause sometimes occurs in the Ablative Absolute construction, especially in Livy and later writers; as,—
audītō eum fūgīisse, when it was heard that he had fled.

4. A noun or pronoun stands in the Ablative Absolute construction only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the clause in which it stands. Exceptions to this principle are extremely rare.
LOCATIVE USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Place.

A. Place where.

228. The place where is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as, —

in urbe habitat, he dwells in the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz. —

a) Names of towns,—except Singulairs of the First and Second Declensions (see § 232. 1); as, —

Carthāginī, at Carthage;

Athēnēs, at Athens;

Vejiā, at Veii.

b) The general words locō, locīs, parte, also many words modified by tōtus or even by other Adjectives; as, —

hōc locō, at this place;

tōtīs castīn, in the whole camp.

c) The special words: forīs, out of doors; rūrī, in the country;

terrā mareque, on land and sea.

d) The poets freely omit the preposition with any word denoting place; as, —

stant liōre puppēs, the sterns rest on the beach.

B. Place from which.

229. Place from which is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as, —

ab Itāliā profectus est, he set out from Italy;

ex urbe reditī, he returned from the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz. —

a) Names of towns and small islands; as, —

Rōmā profectus est, he set out from Rome;

Rhodō revertīt, he returned from Rhodes.

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1 Place from which, though strictly a Genuine Ablative use, is treated here for sake of convenience.
The Ablative.

6) domō, from home; rūre, from the country.
7) Freely in poetry; as,—
   Italiā dēcessit, he withdrew from Italy.

2. With names of towns, ab is used to mean from the vicinity of,
or to denote the point whence distance is measured; as,—
   a Gergovia dēcessit, he withdrew from the vicinity of Gergovia.
   a Rōmā X mīlia aberat, he was ten miles distant from Rome.

Urbe and oppidō, when standing in apposition with a town name,
are accompanied by a preposition; as,—
   Curibus ex oppidō Sābīnōrum, from Cures, a town of the Sabines.

Ablative of Time.

A. Time at which.

230. The Ablative is used to denote the time at
   which; as,—
   quartā hōra mortuus est, he died at the fourth hour;
   annō septuāgésimō quinto cōnsul creāitus, elected consul in his seventy-third
   year.

1. Any word denoting a period of time may stand in this con-
   struction, particularly annus, vēr, aestās, hiemē, dīēs, nōx, hōra,
   comītia (Election Day), lītī (the Games), etc.

2. Words not denoting time require the preposition in, unless
   accompanied by a modifier. Thus:—
   in pāce, in peace; in bēlō, in war;
   but secundō bēlō Pūnicō, in the second Punic War.

3. Expressions like in eō tempore, in summē senectūte, take the
   preposition because they denote situation rather than time.

B. Time within which.

231. Time within which is denoted by the Ablative
   either with or without a preposition; as,—
   stella Šartūrī trīgintā annīs cursum oūñāvit, the planet Saturn
   completes its orbit within thirty years;
   ter in annō, thrice in the course of the year.

1. Occasionally the Ablative denotes duration of time; as,—
   biēnnō pōsperās rōs habuit, for two years he had a prosperous administration.
THE LOCATIVE.

232. The Locative case occurs chiefly in the following words:

1. Regularly in the Singular of names of towns and small islands of the first and second declensions, to denote the place in which; as, —

Rōmae, at Rome;                       Corinthī, at Corinth;
Rhodī, at Rhodes.

2. In the following special forms: —

domī, at home;                         humī, on the ground;
bellī, in war;                         militiae, in war;
vesperī, at evening;                   hērī, yesterday.

3. Note the phrase pendīre animī, lit. to be in suspense in one's mind.

4. For urbs and oppidum in apposition with a Locative, see § 169. 4.

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CHAPTER III. — Syntax of Adjectives.

233. 1. The word with which an Adjective agrees is called its Subject.

2. Attributive and Predicate Adjectives. An Attributive Adjective is one that limits its subject directly; as, —

vir sapiēns, a wise man.

A Predicate Adjective is one that limits its subject through the medium of a verb (usually esse); as, —

vir est sapiēns, the man is wise;

vir vidēbatur sapiēns, the man seemed wise;

vir jūdicātus est sapiēns, the man was judged wise;

huno virum sapientem jūdicāvīmus, we adjudged this man wise.

3. Participles and Adjective Pronouns have the construction of Adjectives.
AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

234. Agreement with One Noun. When an Adjective limits one noun it agrees with it in Gender, Number, and Case.

1. Two Adjectives in the Singular may limit a noun in the Plural; as, prima et vigésima legiōnās, the first and twentieth legions.

2. A Predicate Adjective may stand in the Neuter when its Subject is Masculine or Feminine and denotes a thing; as,—
mors est miserum, death is a wretched thing.

235. Agreement with Two or More Nouns.

A. AGREEMENT AS TO NUMBER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in number with the nearest noun; as,—
pater tuus et māter, your father and mother;
eadem alacritās et studium, the same eagerness and zeal.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative, it is regularly Plural; as,—
pāx et concōrdia sunt pulchrae, peace and concord are glorious.

B. AGREEMENT AS TO GENDER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in gender with the nearest noun; as,—
rēs operae multae sunt laboris, a matter of much effort and labor.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative—
   a) If the nouns are of the same gender, the Adjective agrees with them in gender; as,—
pater et filius capti sunt, father and son were captured.

   Yet with feminine abstract nouns, the Adjective is more frequently Neuter; as,—
   stultitia et timidiōs fugienda sunt, folly and cowardice must be shunned.
b) If the nouns are of different gender; then,—

a) In case they denote persons, the Adjective is Masculine; as,—

pater et mater mortui sunt, the father and mother have died.

β) In case they denote things, the Adjective is Neuter; as,—

bonores et victoriae fortuita sunt, honors and victories are accidental.

γ) In case they include both persons and things, the Adjective is,—

αα) Sometimes Masculine; as,—

domus, uxor, liber inventi sunt, home, wife, and children are secured.

ββ) Sometimes Neuter; as,—

parentes, liberis, domos villa habere, to hold parents, children, houses, crops.

γγ) Sometimes it agrees with the nearest noun; as,—

populi provinciae liberatae sunt, nations and provinces were liberated.

c) Construction according to Sense. Sometimes an Adjective does not agree with a noun according to strict grammatical form, but according to sense; as,—

pars bestiarum objecti sunt, part (of the men) were thrown to beasts.

ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY.

236. 1. Plural Adjectives used Substantively. Adjectives are quite freely used as Substantives in the Plural. The Masculine denotes persons; the Neuter denotes things; as,—

doctri, scholars;       parva, small things;
mali, the wicked;      magna, great things;
Graeci, the Greeks;    utilia, useful things;
nostrae, our men.
2. Neuter Plural Adjectives thus used are confined mainly to the Nominative and Accusative cases. Such forms as magnórum, omnium; magnis, omnibus, would ordinarily lead to ambiguity; yet where there is no ambiguity, they sometimes occur; as,—

parva compônere magnis, to compare small things with great.

Otherwise the Latin says: magnórum rērum, magnis rēbus, etc.

237. Singular Adjectives used Substantively. Adjectives are less freely used as Substantives in the Singular than in the Plural.

1. Masculine Adjectives occur only occasionally in this use; as,—

probus uvidet nēmini, the honest man envies nobody.

a. Usually vir, homō, or some similar word is employed; as,—

homō doctus, a scholar; 
vir Rōmānus, a Roman.

b. But when limited by a pronoun any adjective may be so used; as,—

hiō doctus, this scholar; 
doctus quidam, a certain scholar.

2. Neuters are likewise infrequent; as,—

vērum, truth; 
justum, justice; 
honestum, virtue.

a. This substantive use of Neuter Singulagers is commonest in the construction of the Genitive of the Whole, and after Prepositions; as,—

aliquid vēri, something true; 
nihil novi, nothing new; 
in mediō, in the midst.

238. From Adjectives which, like the above, occasionally admit the substantive use, must be carefully distinguished certain others which have become nouns; as,—

adversārius, opponent; 
aequālis, contemporary; 
aequus, friend; 
cognātus, kinsman; 
vicianus, neighbor; etc.

hiberns, winter quarters; 
propinquus, relative; 
soctus, partner; 
sodalis, comrade;

etc.
ADJECTIVES WITH THE FORCE OF ADVERBS.

239. The Latin often uses an Adjective where the English idiom employs an Adverb or an adverbial phrase; as,—

senátus frequéns convénit, the senate assembled in great numbers;
fuit assiduus mécum, he was constantly with me.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

240. 1. The Comparative often corresponds to the English Positive with 'rather,' 'somewhat,' 'too'; as,—

senectús est loquációr, old age is rather talkative.

2. So the Superlative often corresponds to the Positive with 'very'; as,—

vir fortissímus, a very brave man.

3. Strengthening Words. Vel and quam are often used with the Superlative as strengthening particles, vel with the force of 'very,' and quam with the force of 'as possible'; as,—

vel maximus, the very greatest;
quam maximae còpiæ, as great forces as possible.

4. Phrases of the type 'more rich than brave' regularly take the Comparative in both members; as,—

exercitus erat dítilor quam fortior, the army was more rich than brave.

OTHER PECULIARITIES.

241. 1. Certain Adjectives may be used to denote a part of an object, chiefly primum, extrémus, summus, medius, infimus, ímus; as,—

summus móns, the top of the mountain;
extrémá hiémæ, in the last part of the winter.

2. Prior, primum, ultimus, and postrémus are frequently equivalent to a relative clause; as,—

primum sám vídi, I was the first who saw her;
ultimus décésit, he was the last who withdrew.

3. When multus and another adjective both limit the same noun, et is generally used; as,—

multae et magnae cògitátîonés, many (and) great thoughts.
Chapter IV. — Syntax of Pronouns.

Personal Pronouns.

242. 1. The Personal Pronouns as subjects of verbs are, as a rule, not expressed except for the purpose of emphasis, contrast, or clearness. Thus ordinarily: —

videō, I see; amat, he loves.

But ego tē videō, et tū me videō, I see you, and you see me.

2. The Genitives mei, tuī, nostrī, vestīri are used only as Objective Genitives; nostrum and vestrum as Genitives of the Whole. Thus: —

memor tuī, mindful of you;

dēsiderium vestīri, longing for you;

nēmō vestrum, no one of you.

a. But nostrum and vestrum are regularly used in place of the Possessive in the phrases omnium nostrum, omnium vestrum.

3. The First Plural is often used for the First Singular of Pronouns and Verbs. Compare the Eng. editorial 'we.'

4. When two Verbs govern the same object, the Latin does not use a pronoun with the second, as is the rule in English. Thus: —

virtūs amicitiae conciliat et cōnservat, virtue establishes friendships and maintains them (not eam cōnservat).

Possessive Pronouns.

243. 1. The Possessive Pronouns, as a rule, are not employed except for the purpose of clearness. Thus: —

patrum amō, I love my father;

dē filii morte fēbās, you wept for the death of your son.

But —

dē morte filii mei fēbās, you wept for the death of my son.

a. When expressed merely for the sake of clearness, the possessive usually stands after its noun; but in order to indicate emphasis or contrast, it precedes; as, —

suī mand liberās occīdīt, with his own hand he slew his children;

meā quidem sententia, in my opinion at least.
2. Sometimes the Possessive Pronouns are used with the force of an Objective Genitive; as, —
   *metus vester, fear of you;*
   *désiderium tuum, longing for you.*

3. For special emphasis, the Latin employs *ipsius or ipsōrum,* in apposition with the Genitive idea implied in the Possessive; as, —
   *meā ipsius operā, by my own help;*
   *nostrā ipsōrum operā, by our own help;*

4. So sometimes other Genitives; as, —
   *meā ūndus operā, by the assistance of me alone.*

**REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.**

244. 1. The Reflexive Pronoun *sē* and the Possessive Reflexive *suus* have a double use: —

I. They may refer to the subject of the clause (either principal or subordinate) in which they stand, — *Direct Reflexives*; as, —
   *sē amant, they love themselves;*
   *suōs amīcōs adjuvāt, he helps his own friends;*
   *cum ōrāvi, ut sē servāret, I besought him to save himself.*

II. They may stand in a subordinate clause and refer to the subject of the principal clause, — *Indirect Reflexives*; as, —
   *mō ōrāvit ut sē défenderem, he besought me to defend him (lit. that I defend himself);*
   *mō ōrāvēruit, ut fortūnārum suārum défensiónem susciperem, they besought me to undertake the defense of their fortunes.*

   a. The Indirect Reflexive is mainly restricted to those clauses which express the thought, not of the author, but of the subject of the principal clause.

2. The Genitive *suus* is regularly employed, like *meī* and *tuī,* as an Objective Genitive, e.g. *obitus suī,* forgetful of himself; but it occasionally occurs — particularly in post-Augustan writers — in place of the Possessive *suus;* as, *fruittur fāmī suī, he enjoys his own fame.*

3. *Sē* and *suus* are sometimes used in the sense, *one's self,* *one's own,* where the reference is not to any particular person; as, —
   *sē amāre, to love one's self;*
   *suum geniūm propitiāre, to propitiate one's own genius.*
4. **Suus** sometimes occurs in the meaning his own, their own, etc., referring not to the subject but to an oblique case; as, —

Hannibalem sui orbēs e civitāte ejecērunt, his own fellow-citizens drove out Hannibal.

a. This usage is particularly frequent in combination with quisque: as, —

suus quemque error vexat, his own error troubles each.

5. The Reflexives for the first and second persons are supplied by the oblique cases of ego and tū (§ 85); as, —

vōs defendētis, you defend yourselves.

### RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

245. 1. The Latin has no special reciprocal pronoun ("each other"), but expresses the reciprocal notion by the phrases: inter nōs, inter vōs, inter sē; as, —

Belgae oblītēs inter sē dedērunt, the Belgae gave each other hostages (lit. among themselves);

amāmus inter nōs, we love each other;

Galīn inter sē cohortātī sunt, the Gauls exhorted each other.

a. Note that the Object is not expressed in sentences of this type.

### DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Hīc, Ille, Iste.

246. 1. Where hīc and ille are used in contrast, hīc usually refers to the latter of two objects, and ille to the former.

2. Hīc and ille are often used in the sense of "the following"; as, —

Themistoclēs hīc verbīa epistulam māsit, Themistocles sent a letter (couchèd) in the following words;

filum intellegō, omnium òra in mē conversa esse, I understand this, that the faces of all are turned toward me.

3. Ille often means the famous; as, Solōn ille, the famous Solon.

4. Iste frequently involves contempt; as, iste homēs, that fellow!

5. The above pronouns, along with īs, are usually attracted to the gender of a predicate noun; as, hīc est honor, memmiīsē officium sum, this is an honor, to be mindful of one's duty.
Syntax.

Is.

247. 1. Is often serves as the antecedent of the relative qui. Thus:

Maximum, eum qui Tarentum recēpit, dīlēxi, I loved Maximus, the man who took Tarentum.

a. Closely akin to this usage is is in the sense of such (= tālla);

nōn sum is qui terrērar, I am not such a person as to be frightened.

b. Note the phrase id quod, where id stands in apposition with an entire clause; as,

nōn suspicābātur (id quod nūn sentiēt) satis multōs testēs nōbīs reliquōs esse, he did not suspect (a thing which he will now perceive) that we had witnesses enough left.

Yet quod alone, without preceding id, sometimes occurs in this use.

2. Is also in all cases serves as the personal pronoun of the third person, 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' 'they,' 'them.'

3. When the English uses 'that of,' 'those of,' to avoid repetition of the noun, the Latin omits the pronoun; as,

in exercitū Sullae et posteā in Crassī fuerat, he had been in the army of Sulla and afterward in that of Crassus;

nullae mē fābulae dēlectant nisi Plautī, no plays delight me except those of Plautus.

4. Note the phrases et is, et ea, etc., in the sense: and that too; as,

vincula, et ea sempiterna, imprisonment, and that too permanently.

Idem.

248. 1. Idem in apposition with the subject or object often has the force of also, likewise: as, —

quod idem mihi contigit, which likewise happened to me (lit. which the same thing);

bonus vīr, quem eundem sapientem appellāmus, a good man, whom we call also wise.

2. For idem atque (ac), the same as, see § 341. 1. c.
Ipse.

249. 1. *Ipse*, literally *self*, acquires its special force from the context; as,—

*eō ipsō die*, *on that very day*;
*ad ipsam rīpam*, *close to the bank*;
*ipsō terrōre*, *by mere fright*;
*valvae sē ipsae aperuērant*, *the doors opened of their own accord*;
*ipse aderat*, *he was present in person*.

2. The reflexive pronouns are often emphasized by the addition of *ipse*, but *ipse* in such cases, instead of standing in apposition with the reflexive, more commonly agrees with the subject; as,—

*sēcum ipsi loquuntur*, *they talk with themselves*;
*sē ipsē contīnēre nōn potest*, *he cannot contain himself*.

3. *Ipse* is also used as an Indirect Reflexive for the purpose of marking a contrast or avoiding an ambiguity; as,—

*Persae pertinuērant sē Alcibiade s ab ipsā deścisceret et cum suis in gratiam redisceret*, *the Persians feared that Alcibiades would break with them and become reconciled with his countryman*.

*ea molestissimē ferre dēbent hominēs quae ipsōrum culpā contrācta sunt*, *men ought to chafe most over those things which have been brought about by their own fault* (as opposed to the fault of others).

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

250. Agreement. 1. The Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person, but its case is determined by its construction in the clause in which it stands; as,—

*muller quam vidēbāmus*, *the woman whom we saw*;
*bona quibus fruimus*, *the blessings which we enjoy*.

2. Where the antecedent is compound, the same principles for number and gender prevail as in case of predicate adjectives under similar conditions (see § 235. B. 2). Thus,—

*pater et filius, quif captī sunt, the father and son who were captured*;
*stultitia et timiditās quae fugiēnda sunt, folly and cowardice which must be shunned*;
*honōres et victōriae quae sunt fortūta, honors and victories which are accidental.*
3. The Relative regularly agrees with a predicate noun (either Nominative or Accusative) instead of its antecedent; as,—
carcer, quae lautumiae vocantur, the prison, which is called Lautumiae;
Celtae, quae est tertia pars, the Celts, who are the third part.

4. Sometimes the Relative takes its gender and number from the meaning of its antecedent; as,—
pars quæ béstias objecti sunt, a part (of the men) who were thrown to beasts.

5. Occasionally the Relative is attracted into the case of its antecedent; as,—
natus eō patre quō dixi, born of the father that I said.

251. Antecedent. 1. The antecedent of the Relative is sometimes omitted; as,—
quí náthāram sequitur sapiens est, he who follows Nature is wise.

2. The antecedent may be implied in a possessive pronoun (or rarely an adjective); as,—
nostra quĩ remanuitus caedēs, the slaughter of us who remained;
servī tumulti, quís ãsus ac disciplīna sublevārunt, at the uprising of the slaves, whom experience and discipline assisted (servī — servōrum).

3. Sometimes the antecedent is repeated with the Relative; as,—
erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus, there were two routes, by which (routes).

4. Incorporation of Antecedent in Relative Clause. The antecedent is often incorporated in the relative clause. Thus;—

a) When the relative clause stands first; as,—
quãm quisque nóvit artem in hāc sē exerceat, let each one practice the branch which he knows.

b) When the antecedent is an appositive; as,—
nōn longā a Tōiātium finibus absunt, quae civitās est in prōvinciā, they are not far from the borders of the Tōiātium, a state which is in our province.

c) When the logical antecedent is a superlative; as,—
Themistocrès dē servis suis, quem habuit fidēissimum, mūsit, Themistocles sent the most trusty slave he had.
In expressions of the following type—

qui est prudentiā; quae tua est prudencia, such is your prudence (lit. of which prudence you are; which is your prudence).

5. The Relative is never omitted in Latin as it is in English. Thus the boy I saw must be puér quem vidi.

6. The Relative is used freely in Latin, particularly at the beginning of a sentence, where in English we employ a demonstrative; as,—

quō factum est, by this it happened;
quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
quibus rébus cognitis, when these things became known.

7. The Relative introducing a subordinate clause may belong grammatically to a clause which is subordinate to the one it introduces; as,—

numquam dignō satis laudāri philosophia poterit, cui qui pāreat, omne tempus aetātis sine molestiā possit dēgere, philosophy can never be praised enough, since he who obeys her can pass every period of life without annoyance (lit. he who obeys which, etc.).

Here cui introduces the subordinate clause possit and connects it with philosophia; but cui is governed by pāreat, which is subordinate to possit.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

252. 1. Quis, any one, is the weakest of the Indefinites, and stands usually in combination with si, nisi, nē, num; as,—

si quis putat, if any one thinks.

2. Aliquis (adj. alicui) is more definite than quis, and corresponds usually to the English some one, somebody, some; as,—
nunc alius dicat mihi, now let somebody tell me;
utinam modo āgātur aliquid, oh that something may be done.

3. Quidam, a certain one, is still more definite than aliquis; as,—

homō quidam, a certain man (i.e. one whom I have in mind).

a. Quidam (with or without quæsi, as if) is sometimes used in the sense: a sort of, kind of; as,—
quædam cognitiō, a sort of relationship;
mors est quasi quædam migrātiō, death is a kind of transfer,
4. Quisquam, any one, any one who ever (more general than quis), and its corresponding adjective fillus, any, occur mostly in negative and conditional sentences, in interrogative sentences implying a negative, and in clauses of comparison; as,—

júsítia numquam nocet cuiquam, justice never harms anybody;

si quisquam, Cásu sápiéns fuit, if anybody was ever wise, Cásu was;

votestne quisquam sine perturbâtione animi rásque, can anybody be angry without excitement?

si Úlli moó dé sier potest, if it can be done in any way;

taetrior hic tyrannus fuit quam quisquam superiórur, he was a viler tyrant than any of his predecessors.

5. Quisque, each one, is used especially under the following circumstances:—

a) In connection with suus. See § 2:4. 4. a.

b) In connection with a Relative or Interrogative Pronoun; as,—

quod cuique obtigit, id teneat, what falls to each, that let him hold.

c) In connection with superlatives; as,—

optimus quique, all the best (lit. each best one).

d) With ordinal numerals; as,—

quintus quóque annó, every fourth year (lit. each fifth year).

6. Némó, no one. In addition to its other uses, stands regularly with adjectives used substantively; as,—

némó mortális, no mortal;

némó Rómánus, no Roman.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

253. 1. Alius, another, and alter, the other, are often used correlative; as,—

aliud loquitur, aliud sentit, he says one thing; he thinks another;

alií résistunt, alií fugiunt, some resist, others flee;

alter exercitum perdidit, alter vénidit, one ruined the army, the other sold it.

alter sí in montem reoférint, alter sí ad impedimenta sê contu-

lérunt, the one party retreated to the mountain, the others betook themselves to the baggage.
2. Where the English says *one does one thing, another another*, the Latin uses a more condensed form of statement; as,—

\[\text{alius alius amat, one likes one thing, another another; alius alius placet, one thing pleases some, another others.}\]

3. So sometimes with adverbs; as,—

\[\text{alius aliis fugit, some flee in one direction, others in another.}\]

3. The Latin also expresses the notion *each other* by means of *alius* repeated; as,—

\[\text{alius alius aliis cohabitat, the Gauls encouraged each other.}\]

4. *Ceteri* means *the rest, all the others*; as,—

\[\text{ceteris praestare, to be superior to all the others.}\]

5. *Reliqui* means *the others* in the sense of *the rest, those remaining*,—hence is the regular word with numerals; as,—

\[\text{reliqui sex, the six others.}\]

6. *Nescio quis* forms a compound indefinite pronoun with the force of *some one or other*; as,—

\[\text{causidicus nescio quis, some pettyfogger or other; mnisit nescio quem, he sent some one or other; nescio quod pacto, somehow or other.}\]

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**Chapter V. — Syntax of Verbs.**

**Agreement.**

**With One Subject.**

254. 1. Agreement in Number and Person. A Finite Verb agrees with its subject in Number and Person; as,—

\[\text{vōs vidētas, you see; pater filiōs instituit, the father trains his sons.}\]

2. Agreement in Gender. In the compound forms of the verb the participle regularly agrees with its subject in gender; as,—

\[\text{aëdificō repressa est, the mutiny was checked.}\]
3. But when a predicate noun is of different gender or number from its subject, the verb usually agrees with its nearest substantive; as,—

Tarquiniā māterna patria erat, Tarquinii was his native country on his mother's side;

nōn omnis error stultitia est dīcenda, not every error is to be called folly.

a. Less frequently the verb agrees with an appositive; as,—

Corioli oppidum Volscōrum, captum est, Corioli, a town of the Volsci, was captured.

4. Construction according to Sense. Sometimes the verb agrees with its subject according to sense instead of strict grammatical form. Thus:—

a) In Number; as,—

multītūdō homīnīm convĕnerant, a crowd of men had gathered.

b) In Gender; as,—

dīo milliā crucībus addīxī sunt, two thousand (men) were crucified.

With Two or More Subjects.

255. 1. Agreement in Number. With two or more subjects the verb is regularly plural; as,—

pater et filiūs mortuus sunt, the father and son died.

2. But sometimes the verb agrees with the nearest subject; vēr,—

a) When the verb precedes both subjects or stands between them; as,—

mortuus est pater et filiūs;

pater mortuus est et filiūs.

b) When the subjects are connected by aut; aut... aut;

vel... vel; neque... neque; as,—

neque pater neque filiūs mortuus est, neither father nor son died.

3. When the different subjects are felt together as constituting a whole, the singular is used; as,—

temeritās ignōratiōque vitīōsa est, rashness and ignorance are bad.

a. This is regularly the case in senātus populusque Rōmānus.
4. Agreement in Person. With compound subjects of different persons the verb always takes the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; as,—

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

5. Agreement in Gender. With subjects of different genders the participle in the compound tenses follows the same principles as laid down for predicate adjectives. See § 235, B, 2.

VOICES.

256. 1. The Passive Voice sometimes retains traces of its original middle or reflexive meaning; as,—

ego nōn patiar eum défendī, I shall not allow him to defend himself.

2. In imitation of Greek usage many perfect passive participles are used by the poets as indirect middles, i.e. the subject is viewed as acting not upon himself, but as doing something in his own interest; as,—

vēlātus tempora, having veiled his temples.

a. Occasionally finite forms of the verb are thus used; as,—
tunicī indūcitur artūs, he covers his limbs with a tunic.

3. Intransitive Verbs may be used impersonally in the passive; as,—
corrūitur, people run (lit. it is run);
ventum est, he (they, etc.) came (lit. it was come).

TENSES.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE.

257. 1. The Latin tenses express two distinct notions: —

a) The period of time to which the action belongs: Present, Past, or Future.

b) The kind of action: Undefined, Going on, or Completed.

The Latin with its six tenses is able to express each of the three kinds of action for each of the three periods of time (making practically nine
tenses). It does this by employing certain tenses in more than one way, as may be seen by the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KIND OF ACTION</th>
<th>PERIOD OF TIME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PRESENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOING ON</td>
<td>Present: scribo, I am writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPLETED</td>
<td>Present Perfect: scripsi, I have written.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. It will be seen that the Present may express Undefined action or action Going on; so also the Future. The Perfect likewise has a double use, according as it denotes action Completed in present time (Present Perfect) or Undefined action belonging to past time (Historical Perfect).

Principal and Historical Tenses.

258. Tenses which denote Present or Future time are called Principal (or Primary) Tenses; those which denote Past time are called Historical (or Secondary).

The Principal Tenses of the Indicative are: Present, Future, Present Perfect, Future Perfect.

The Historical Tenses are: Imperfect, Historical Perfect, Pluperfect.

Present Indicative.

259. Besides the two uses indicated in the table, the Present Indicative presents the following peculiarities:

1. It is used to denote a general truth, i.e. something true not merely in the present but at all times (‘Gnomic Present’); as,—

virtus conciliat amicitias et conservat, virtue establishes ties of friendship and maintains them (i.e. always does so).
2. It is used of an attempted action (‘Conative Present’); as,—

dum vītant vitās, in contrāria currunt, while they try to avoid (vītant) vices, they rush into opposite ones.

3. In lively narration the Present is often used of a past action (‘Historical Present’); as,—

Caesar Haeduīs obsidēs imperat, Caesar demanded hostages of the Haeduī (lit. demands).

4. In combination with jam, jam diū, jam prīdem, and similar words, the Present is frequently used of an action originating in the past and continuing in the present; as,—

jam diū cupidō tē vēhere, I have long been desiring to visit you (i.e. I desire and have long desired).

Imperfect Indicative.

260. 1. The Imperfect primarily denotes action going on in past time; as,—

librum legēbam, I was reading a book.

a. This force makes the Imperfect especially adapted to serve as the tense of description (as opposed to mere narration).

2. From the notion of action going on, there easily develops the notion of repeated or customary action; as,—

lēgātōs interrogabat, he kept asking the envoys;
puer C. Dulium vidēbam, as a boy I often used to see Gaius Duilius.

3. The Imperfect often denotes an attempted action (‘Conative Imperfect’) or an action as beginning (‘Inceptive Imperfect’); as,—

hostēs nostrōs intrā múntiōnēs prōgreōdī prohibēbant, the enemy tried to prevent (prohibēbant) our men from advancing within the fortifications (‘Conative’);

ad proelium sē expedēbant, they were beginning to get ready for battle (‘Inceptive’).

4. The Imperfect, with jam, jam diū, jam dūdum, etc., is sometimes used of an action which had been continuing some time; as,—

domīciūm Rōmae multōs jam annōs habēbat, he had had his residence at Rome for many years (i.e. he had it at this time and had long had it).
Syntax.

Future Indicative.

261. 1. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future than is the English. We say: *If he comes, I shall be glad,* where we really mean: *If he shall come,* etc. In such cases the Latin rarely admits the Present, but generally employs the Future.

2. Sometimes the Future has Imperative force; as, *dico,* say!

Perfect Indicative.

262. A. Present Perfect. Several Present Perfects denote the state resulting from a completed act, and so seem equivalent to the Present; as,—

nōvi, cognōvi, I know (lit. I have become acquainted with);

cōnsuēvi, I am wont (lit. I have become accustomed).

B. Historical Perfect. The Historical Perfect is the tense of narration (as opposed to the Imperfect, the tense of description); as,—

Rēgulus in senātum vēnit, mandāta exposuit, reddī captīvōs
nequāvit esse ūtile, Rēgulus came into the Senate, set forth his commission, and it was useless for captives to be returned.

1. Occasionally the Historical Perfect is used of a general truth ("Gnomic Perfect").

Pluperfect Indicative.

263. The Latin Pluperfect, like the English Past Perfect, denotes an act completed in the past; as,—

Caesār Rhenum trānsīre dēcēverat, sed nāvēs deerrant, Caesar had decided to cross the Rhine, but had no boats.

a. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, A), the Pluperfect has the force of an Imperfect; as,—

nōveram, I knew.

Future Perfect Indicative.

264. The Future Perfect denotes an action completed in future time. Thus:—

scribam epīstulam, oum redīlis, I will write the letter when you have returned (lit. when you shall have returned).

a. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future Perfect than the English, which commonly employs the Present Perfect instead of the Future Perfect.

b. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, A) the Future Perfect has the force of a Future; as,—

nōverō, I shall know.
Epistolary Tenses.

265. In letters the writer often uses tenses which are not appropriate at the time of writing, but which will be so at the time when his letter is received; he thus employs the Imperfect and the Perfect for the Present, and the Pluperfect for the Present Perfect; as, —

nihil habēbam quod scriborem, neque enim novī quidquam audieram et ad tuās omnēs epistolās jam rescriptās, I have nothing to write, for I have heard no news and have already answered all your letters.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

266. A. In Independent Sentences. See §§ 272–280.

B. In Dependent Sentences. In dependent sentences the tenses of the subjunctive usually conform to the so-called

Sequence of Tenses.

267. 1. In the Subjunctive the Present and Perfect are Principal tenses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, Historical.

2. By the Sequence of Tenses Principal tenses are followed by Principal, Historical by Historical. Thus: —

Principal Sequence, —

videō quid faciās, I see what you are doing.
vidēbō quid faciās, I shall see what you are doing.
vidērō quid faciās, I shall have seen what you are doing.
videō quid fēceris, I see what you have done.
vidēbō quid fēceris, I shall see what you have done.
vidērō quid fēceris, I shall have seen what you have done.

Historical Sequence, —

vidēbam quid fācērēs, I saw what you were doing.
vidī fī quid fācērēs, I saw what you were doing.
vidēram quid fācērēs, I had seen what you were doing.
vidēram quid fācēssēs, I saw what you had done.
vidī fī quid fācēssēs, I saw what you had done.
vidī fī quid fācēssēs, I had seen what you had done.

3. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive denote incomplete action, the Perfect and Pluperfect completed action, exactly as in the Indicative.
Peculiarities of Sequence.

268. 1. The Perfect Indicative is usually an historical tense (even when translated in English as a Present Perfect), and so is followed by the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive; as,—

dēnōstrāvi quārē ad causām accēderem, I have shown why I took the case (lit. I showed why, etc.).

2. A dependent Perfect Infinitive is treated as an historical tense wherever, if resolved into an equivalent Indicative, it would be historical; as,—

vīdeo ostendisse quālēs def essent, I seem to have shown of what nature the gods are (ostendisse here corresponds to an Indicative, ostendī, I showed).

3. The Historical Present is sometimes regarded as a principal tense, sometimes as historical. Thus:—

Sulla suōs hortātur ut fortī animō sint, Sulla exhorts his soldiers to be stout-hearted;

Gallōs hortātur ut arma caperent, he exhorted the Gauls to take arms.

4. Conditional sentences of the ‘contrary-to-fact’ type are not affected by the principles for the Sequence of Tenses; as,—

honestum tāle est ut vel īī ignōrārent id hominēs suā tamen pulchritūdīne laudābile esset, virtue is such a thing that even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be worthy of praise for its own loveliness.

5. In conditional sentences of the ‘contrary-to-fact’ type the Imperfect Subjunctive is usually treated as an Historical tense; as,—

sī sōlos eōs dīcērēs miserōs, quibus moriendum esset, nēminem tā quidem cōrum qui vērēnt exciperēs, if you called only those wretched who must die, you would except no one of those who live.

6. In clauses of Result and some others, the Perfect Subjunctive is sometimes used as an historical tense. Thus:—

rēx tantum mōtus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem jūdicārit, the king was so much moved that he adjudged Tissaphernes an enemy.

This construction is rare in Cicero, but frequent in Nepos and subsequent historians. The Perfect Subjunctive in this use represents a
result simply as a fact without reference to the continuance of the act, and therefore corresponds to an Historical Perfect Indicative of direct statement. Thus, judicavit in the above example corresponds to a judicavit, he adjudged. To denote a result as something continuous, all writers use the Imperfect Subjunctive after historical tenses.

7. Sometimes perspicuity demands that the ordinary principles of Sequence be abandoned altogether. Thus:

a) We may have the Present or Perfect Subjunctive after an historical tense; as,—

Verres Siciliam sua perdiderat ut ea restituerit non possis.
Verres so ruined Sicily that it cannot be restored
(Direct statement: non potest restitueri);

ardet Hortensius dicendi cupiditate suo, ut in nullis
flagranti studium viderim, Hortensius burned so
with eagerness to speak that I have seen in no one a
greater desire (Direct statement: in nullis vidi, I have
seen in no one).

Note.—This usage is different from that cited under 6. Here, by neglect of Sequence, the Perfect is used though a principal tense; there the Perfect was used as an historical tense.

b) We may have a principal tense followed by the Perfect Subjunctive used historically; as,—

nescio quid causae fuerit cùr nullas ad me litteras
darès, I do not know what reason there was why you
did not send me a letter.

Here fuerit is historical, as is shown by the following Imperfect Subjunctive.

Method of Expressing Future Time in the Subjunctive.

269. The Future and Future Perfect which are lacking to the Latin Subjunctive are supplied in subordinate clauses as follows:—

1. a) The Future is supplied by the Present after principal tenses, by the Imperfect after historical tenses.

b) The Future Perfect is supplied by the Perfect after principal tenses, by the Pluperfect after historical tenses.

This is especially frequent when the context clearly shows, by the presence of a future tense in the main clause, that the reference is to future time. Thus:
Syntax.

Galli promissa sē factūros, quae Caesar imperet, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar shall order;
Galli promissa sē factūros, quae Caesar imperaret, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should order;
Galli promissa sē factūros quae Caesar imperaverit, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar shall have ordered;
Galli promissa sē factūros quae Caesar imperāvisset, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should have ordered.

2. Even where the context does not contain a Future tense in the main clause, Future time is often expressed in the subordinate clauses by the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. Thus:—
timē nē veniat, I am afraid he will come;
Caesar exspectābat quid cōnsilī hostēs caperent, Caesar was waiting to see what plan the enemy would adopt.

3. Where greater definiteness is necessary the periphrastic forms in sērūs sim and sērūs essem are employed, especially in clauses of Result, Indirect Questions, and after nōn dubitō quīn; as,—
nōn dubitō quīn pater ventūrus sit, I do not doubt that my father will come;
nōn dubitābas quīn pater ventūrus esset, I did not doubt that my father would come.

4. Where the verb has no Future Active Participle, or where it stands in the passive voice, its Future character may be indicated by the use of the particles max, brevī, statim, etc., in connection with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive; as,—
nōn dubitō quīn tē max hōjus rēi pausūtest, I do not doubt that you will soon repent of this thing;
nōn dubitābas quīn haec rēs brevī cōnscīerētur, I did not doubt that this thing would soon be finished.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

270 1. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb on which they depend. Thus:—

a) The Present Infinitive represents an act as contemporaneous with the time of the verb on which it depends; as,—
vidētur honōres adsequi, he seems to be gaining honors;
vidēbātur honōres adsequi, he seemed to be gaining honors.
Tenses of the Infinitive.

1) The Perfect Infinitive represents an act as prior to the time of the verb on which it depends; as,—

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtus esse, he seems to have gained honors;

visus est honōrēs adsecūtus esse, he seemed to have gained honors.

2) The Future Infinitive represents an act as subsequent to that of the verb on which it depends; as,—

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtūrūs esse, he seems to be about to gain honors;

visus est honōrēs adsecūtūrūs esse, he seemed to be about to gain honors.

2. Where the English says 'ought to have done,' 'might have done,' etc., the Latin uses débui, oportuit, potui (dēbēbam, oportēbat, potebam), with the Present Infinitive; as,—

début dicere, he ought to have said (lit. owed it to say);

oportuit venire, he ought to have come;

potuit vidēre, he might have seen.

a. Oportuit, volui, nolui (and in poetry some other verbs), may take a Perfect Infinitive instead of the Present; as,—

hōc jam pridem factum esse oportuit, this ought long ago to have been done.

3. Periphrastic Future Infinitive. Verbs that have no Participial Stem express the Future Infinitive Active and Passive by fore ut or futūrum esse ut, with the Subjunctive; as,—

spērō fore ut tē paciente levitātis, I hope you will repent of your fickleness (lit. hope it will happen that you repent);

spērō futūrum esse ut hostēs aeroantur, I hope that the enemy will be kept off.

a. The Periphrastic Future Infinitive is often used, especially in the Passive, even in case of verbs which have the Participial Stem; as,—

spērō fore ut hostēs vincantur, I hope the enemy will be conquered.

4. Passives and Deponents sometimes form a Future Perfect Infinitive with fore; as,—

spērō epistulam scriptam fore, I hope the letter will have been written;

putō mē omnia adeptum fore, I think that I shall have gained everything.
THE MOODS.

MOODS IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

The Indicative in Independent Sentences.

271. The Indicative is used for the *statement of facts,* the *supposition of facts,* or *inquiry after facts.*

1. Note the following idiomatic uses: —
   a) With *possum; as,* —
      *possum multa dicoere, I might say much;*
      *poteram multa dicoere, I might have said much* (§ 270, 2).
   b) In such expressions as *longum est, aequum est, melius est, difficile est, utilius est,* and some others; as, —
      *longum est ea dicere, it would be tedious to tell that;*
      *difficile est omnia persequei, it would be difficult to enumerate everything.*

The Subjunctive in Independent Sentences.

272. The Subjunctive is used in Independent Sentences to express something —

   1. As *willed — Volitive Subjunctive;*
   2. As *desired — Optative Subjunctive;*
   3. Conceived of as possible — *Potential Subjunctive.*

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

273. The Volitive Subjunctive represents the action *as willed.* It always implies authority on the part of the speaker, and has the following varieties: —

   A. Hortatory Subjunctive.

274. The Hortatory Subjunctive expresses *an exhortation.* This use is confined to the first person plural, of the Present. The negative is *nē.* Thus: —

   *eāmus, let us go;*
   *amēmus patriam, let us love our country;*
   *nē desperēmus, let us not despair.*
B. Jussive Subjunctive.

275. The Jussive Subjunctive expresses a command. The Jussive stands regularly in the Present Tense, and is used—

1. Most frequently in the third singular and third plural; as,—
   dicat, let him tell;
dícant, let them tell;
quǽ ré æscédant improbé, wherefore let the wicked depart!

2. Less frequently in the second person, often with indefinite force; as,—
   istó bonó utáre, use that advantage;
   modesté vivás, live temperately.

C. Prohibitive Subjunctive.

276. The Subjunctive is used in the second and third persons singular and plural, with nē, to express a prohibition. Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning; as,—

nē repugnátis, do not resist!
tú vécó ístam nē relíquérís, don't leave her!
impi nē plácáre audeánt dédós, let not the impious dare to appease the gods!

a. Neither of these constructions is frequent in classical prose.

b. A commoner method of expressing a prohibition in the second person is by the use of nólite (nólte) with a following infinitive, or by cævé or cævé nē with the Subjunctive; as,—
nólte hóc facere, don't do this (lit. be unwilling to do)! nólte mentitís, do not lie!
cævé ignóscás, cævé tē misercrat, do not forgive, do not pity!
cævé nē haec facíás, do not do this (lit. take care lest you do)!

D. Deliberative Subjunctive.

277. The Deliberative Subjunctive is used in questions and exclamations implying dubit, indignation, the impossibility of an act, obligation, or propriety. The Present is
used referring to present time, the Imperfect referring to past. The negative is nōn. Thus:—

quid faciam, what shall I do?
ego redeam, I go back!
hioc oédamus! húius condicionés audiámus! are we to bow to him? are we to listen to his terms?
quid fæcerem, what was I to do?
hunc ego nōn diligam, should I not cherish this man?

a. These Deliberative Questions are usually purely Rhetorical in character, and do not expect an answer.

E. CONCESSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

278. The Subjunctive is used to indicate something as granted or conceded for the sake of argument. The Present is used for present time, the Perfect regularly for past. The negative is nē. Thus:—

sit hóc verum, I grant that this is true (Lit. let this be true);
nē sint in senectute virēs, I grant there is not strength in old age.
fuerit malus civis aliīs; tibi quondam esse coepit. I grant that he was a bad citizen to others; when did he begin to be so toward you?

OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

279. The Optative Subjunctive occurs in expressions of wishing. The negative is regularly nē.

1. The Present Tense, often accompanied by utinam, is used where the wish is conceived of as possible.

di istaec prohibeant, may the gods prevent that!
falsus utinam vētās sim, oh that I may be a false prophet!
nē ventant, may they not come!

2. The Imperfect expresses, in the form of a wish, the regret that something is not so now; the Pluperfect that something was not so in the past. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are regularly accompanied by utinam; as,—

utinam istud ex animō dicerēs, would that you were saying that in earnest, (i.e. I regret that you are not saying it in earnest);
plērōdēs utinam vītāsset Apollinis arcās, would that Achilles had escaped the bow of Apollo;

utinam nē nātus essēs, would that I had not been born.
POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

280. The Potential Subjunctive expresses a possibility. The negative is nōn. The following uses are to be noted:—

1. The 'May' Potential. — The Potential Subjunctive may designate a mere possibility (English auxiliary may). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—

   dicat aliquis, some one may say;
   dixerit aliquis, some one may say.

   a. This construction is by no means frequent, and is confined mainly to a few phrases like those given as examples.

2. 'Should'-'Would' Potential. — The Potential Subjunctive may represent something as depending upon a condition expressed or understood (English auxiliary should, would). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—

   fortūnam cepisse quam retineās, one would more quickly find Fortune than keep it (i.e. if one should make the trial);

   crēdiderim, I should believe.

   a. Here belongs the use of velim, mālim, nōlim, as softened forms of statement for vōlō, māliō, nōliō. Thus:—

   velim mihi ignoscēs, I wish you would forgive me;
   nōlim putēs mē jocāri, I don't want you to think I'm joking.

   b. When the condition is expressed, we get one of the regular types of Conditional Sentences (see § 303); as,—

   dēm dēficiat, at cōner enumerāre causās, time would fail if I should attempt to enumerate the reasons.

3. 'Can'-'Could' Potential. — In the Present and Imperfect the Potential occurs in the second person singular (with indefinite force; § 356, 3) of a few verbs of perceiving, seeing, thinking, and the like; as,—

   videās, cernerās, one can see, one can perceive;
   crēderēs, one could believe;
   vidērēs, cernerēs, one could see, perceive;
   putērēs, one could imagine.

4. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of the contrary-to-fact type (see § 304) are also Potential in character. By omission of the Protasis, such an Apodosis sometimes stands alone, particularly vellem, nōlem, mālem; as,—

   vellem id quidem, I should wish that (i.e. were I bold
The Imperative.

281. The Imperative is used in commands, aamonitions, and entreaties (negative nē); as,—

dēgredīre ex urbe, depart from the city;
mīhi ignōscē, pardon me;
valē, farewell.

1. The Present is the tense of the Imperative most commonly used, but the Future is employed —

a) Where there is a distinct reference to future time, especially in the apodosis of conditional sentences; as,—

rem vōbīs prōpōnam; vōs eam pendītōte. I will lay the
mater before you; do you (then) consider it;
as bene disputābit, tribuitō litteris Graecīs, if he shall
speak well, attribute it to Greek literature.

b) In laws, treaties, wills, maxims, etc.; as,—
cōnsulēs summum jōs habentō, the consuls shall have
supreme power;
hominem mortuōm in urbe nē seπelītō, no one shall bury
a dead body in the city;
amēctā rēgī Antiochō cum populō Rōmānō hīs lēgi-
bus et condiciōnibus estō, let there be friendship be-
tween Antiochus and the Roman people on the follow-
ing terms and conditions;
quārtae estō partis Mārcus hērēs, let Marcus be heir to
a fourth (of the property);
ignōscitō saepe alterī, numquam tībi, forgive your neigh-
bor often, yourself never.

2. Except with the Future Imperative the negative is not used in
classical prose. Prohibitions are regularly expressed in other ways.
See § 276, b.

3. Questions in the Indicative introduced by quīn (why not?) are
often equivalent to an Imperative or to the Hortatory Subjunctive; as,—
quīn abīs, go away! (lit. why don't you go away?);
quīn vōcem continuētis, keep still! (lit. why don't you stop your
voices?);
quīn equōs cōncendimus, let us mount our horses (lit. why do we
not mount our horses?).
MOODS IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Clauses of Purpose.

282. 1. Clauses of Purpose are introduced most commonly by ut (ut), quod (that, in order that), ne (in order that not, lest), and stand in the Subjunctive; as,—

edimus, ut vivamus, we eat that we may live;
adjutā me quod hóc fiat facilius, help me, in order that this may be done more easily;
portās clausit, nē quam oppidānī injūriām acciperent, he closed the gates, lest the townspeople should receive any injury.

a. Quod, as a rule, is employed only when the purpose clause contains a comparative or a comparative idea. Occasional exceptions occur; as,—

haec factūnt quod Chremētem absterreant, they are doing this in order to frighten Chremes.

b. Ut nē is sometimes found instead of nē. Thus:—

ut nē quid neglegentēr agāmus, in order that we may not do anything carelessly.

c. Ut nōn (not nē) is used where the negation belongs to some single word, instead of to the purpose clause as a whole. Thus:—

ut nōn ejectus ad aliēnōs, sed invitātus ad tuōs vidiēre, that you may seem not driven out among strangers, but invited to your own friends.

d. To say ‘and that not’ or ‘or that not,’ the Latin regularly uses nēve (neu); as,—

ut eārum rērum vīs minuerētur, neu pontēf nocērent, that the violence of these things might be lessened, and that they might not harm the bridge;

profēgit, nē caperētur nēve interficētur, he fled, that he might not be captured or killed.

e. But neque (for nēve) is sometimes used in a second Purpose Clause when ut stands in the first, and, after the Augustan era, even when the first clause is introduced by nē.

f. Purpose Clauses sometimes stand in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun; as,—

hāc causā, ut pācem habērent, on this account, that they might have peace.
2. A Relative Pronoun (qui) or Adverb (ubi, unde, quò) is frequently used to introduce a Purpose Clause; as,—

Helvätii légátōs mittunt, qui dicerent, the Helvetii sent envoys to say (lit. who should say);

haec habuimus, dē senectūte quae dicerem, I had these things to say about old age;

non habēbat quō fugeret, he had no place to which to flee (lit. whither he might flee).

a. Qui in such clauses is equivalent to ut ille, ut ego, etc.; ubi to ut ibi; unde to ut inde; quō to ut où.

3. Relative clauses of purpose follow dignus, indignus, and idōneus; as,—

idōneus fuit nēmō quem imitārēre, there was no one suitable for you to imitate (cf. nēmō fuit quem imitārēre, there was no one for you to imitate);

dignus est qui aliquidō imperet, he is worthy to rule sometime.

4. Purpose Clauses often depend upon something to be supplied from the context instead of upon the principal verb of their own sentences; as,—

ut haec omnia omittam, abīmus, to pass over all this, (I will say that) we departed.

Clauses of Characteristic.

283. 1. A relative clause used to express a quality or characteristic of a general or indefinite antecedent is called a Clause of Characteristic, and usually stands in the Subjunctive; as,—

multa sunt, quae mentem acuant, there are many things which sharpen the wits.

Clauses of Characteristic are opposed to those relative clauses which are used merely to state some fact about a definite antecedent, and which therefore take the Indicative; as,—

Cato, senex jucundus, qui Sapiēns appellantūs est, Cato, a delightful old man, who was called 'The Wise.'

The Clause of Characteristic implies 'a person of the sort that does something;' the Indicative relative clause implies 'a particular person who does something.'
2. Clauses of Characteristic are used especially after such expressions as, est qui; sunt qui; nēmō est qui; nūllus est qui; sōlus est qui; quia est qui; is qui; etc. Thus:—

sunt qui dīcant, there are (some) who say;
nēmō est qui putet, there is nobody who thinks;
sapiēntia est sīna quae mæstitiam pellit, philosophy is the only thing that drives away sorrow;
quae civitās est quae nōn ēverti possit, what state is there that cannot be overthrown?
nōn is sum qui improbōs laudem, I am not the sort of man that praises the wicked.

a. Sometimes (very rarely in Cicero and Caesar) the clause of characteristic is used after comparatives; as,—
nōn longius hostēs aberrant quam quō tērum adīgit possent, the enemy were not too far off for a dart to reach them (lit. further off than [a point] to which a dart could be cast).

b. The Clause of Characteristic often conveys an accessory notion of cause (since) or opposition (although). Thus:—

a) Cause. The relative is then frequently accompanied by ut quīppe, ut poterat; as,—

δ fortūnātē adūlscēns, qui tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem invēnerēs, O fortunate man, since you have found a Homer as the herald of your valor;

ut quī optimō jūre eam prōvinciam obtinuerit, since he held that province by excellent right.

b) Opposition:—

egōmen qui sēō Graecās litterās attigitsem, tamen complētēs diēs Athēnēs commorātus sum, I, although I had taken up Greek literature late in life, nevertheless tarried several days at Athens.

4. Clauses of Characteristic may also be introduced by quīn = qui (quae, quod) nōn; as,—
nēmō est quīn sēpe audierit, there is no one who has not often heard;
nēmō fuit mīlitum quīn vulnerārētūr, there was no one of the soldiers who was not wounded.

5. Related to Clauses of Characteristic are also phrases of the type: quod scīam, so far as I know; quod audierim, so far as I have heard.
Clauses of Result.

284. 1. Clauses of Result are usually introduced by *ut* (that, so that), negative *ut nón* (so that not), and take the Subjunctive. The main clause often contains *tantis, tália, tot, is (= tália), tam, ita, sic, adeó*, or some similar word. Thus:—

quís tam dēmēns est *ut suā voluntāte maeret*, who is so senseless as to mourn of his own volition?
Siciliam ita vāstāvit *ut restitūtur in antiquum statum nón possit*,
he has so ravaged Sicily that it cannot be restored to its former condition;
*mós aitiatimus impendēbat, ut facile perpaucī prohibēre pos- sent*, a very high mountain overhangs, so that a very few could easily stop them;
*nón is es ut tē pudor umquam ā turpītūdine avocārit*, you are not so constituted that shame ever called you back from baseness.

2. A Result Clause is often introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb, *qui* (= *ut is*), *quō* (= *ut eō*), etc.; as,—

*némō est tam senex quī sē annum nón putet posse vivere*, nobody is so old as not to think he will live a year;
*habētis eum cōnsulem quī pārēre vestris décrētis nón dubitet*,
you have a counsellor such as does not hesitate to obey your decrees.

a. Those Relative Clauses of Result are closely related to the Clause of Characteristic, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish the two constructions. It is best to classify the relative clause as one of Characteristic, unless the result idea is clear and unmistakable.

3. Result clauses may also be introduced by *quīn = ut nón*; as,—

*nihil tam difficīle est quīn quaerendō īnvestigāri possit*, nothing is so difficult that it cannot be discovered by searching;
*némō est tam fortis quīn reī novitāte perturbētur*, no one is so steadfast as not to be thrown into confusion by a strange occurrence.

4. Note the use of *quam ut* (sometimes *quam* alone) to denote Result after comparatives; as,—

*urbs erat mūniōn quam ut prīmō impētū capī possēt*, the city was too strongly fortified to be taken at the first attack (ut. more strongly fortified than [in] that it could be taken, etc.).
Causal Clauses.

285. Causal clauses are introduced chiefly by the following particles:—
   1. Quod, quia, quoniam.
   2. Cum.
   3. Quandō.

286. The use of moods is as follows:—

1. Quod, quia, quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is that of the writer or speaker; they take the Subjunctive when the reason is viewed as that of another. Thus:—

Parthēs timeō quod diśfīdō cōpīs nostris, I fear the Parthians, because I distrust our troops.
Themistocles, quia nōn tūtus erat, Coreýram dēmigrāvit, Themistocles, since he was not safe, moved to Coreya,
neque mē vīxīse paenītēt, quoniam bene vīxī, I do not regret having lived, since I have lived well.
Socrātēs accusātus est quod corrūmeret juventūtem, Socrates was arraigned on the ground that he was corrupting the young.
(Here the reason is not that of the writer but of the accused.) Hence the Subjunctive.
Haeduī Cæsarī grātiās ēgērunt, quod sē pĕrculōdī liberāvisset, the Haeduini thanked Caesar because he had delivered them from danger. (The reason of the Haeduini.)
quoniam Miltiades dīcere nōn possēt, verba prō eī fēcit Tisagōras, since Miltiades could not speak, Tisagoras spoke for him. (The reason of Tisagoras.)
noctū ambulābat Themistoclēs, quod somnum cāpere nōn possēt, Themistocles used to walk at night because (as he said) he couldn't sleep.
a. Verbs of thinking and saying often stand in the Subjunctive in causal clauses as though the act of thinking or saying, and not the contents of the thought or language, constituted the reason. Thus:—

Bellovaē suum numerum nōn complāvērunt, quod sē suō nōmine cum Rōmānēs bellum gestārēs dīcērunt, the Bellovaci did not furnish their complement,
because they said they were going to wage war with the Romans on their own account.

6. Nōn quod, nōn quō (by attraction for nōn eō quod), nōn quia, not that, not because; and nōn quod nōn, nōn quō nōn, nōn quīn, not that . . . not; not because . . . not; not but that, are usually employed merely to introduce a hypothetical reason, and hence take the Subjunctive; as,—

id fēcī, nōn quod vōs hanc dēfēnsiōnem dēsiderāre arbitrāre, sed ut omnēs intellegērent, hīs I did, not because I thought you needed this defense, but that all might perceive;

Crassō commendātiōnem nōn sum poālicitus, nōn quīn eam vallitūram apud tē arbitrāre, sed egēre mihi commendātiōnē nōn vidēbātur, I did not promise a recommendation to Crassus, not that I did not think it would have weight with you, but because he did not seem to me to need recommendation.

c. But clauses introduced by nōn quod, nōn quīa take the Indicative if they state a fact, even though that fact is denied to be the reason for something; as,—

hōc ita sentīō, nōn quīa sum ipse augur, sed quīa aīo existimāre nōs est necesse, this I think, not because I am myself an augur (which I really am), but because it is necessary for us to think so.

2. Cum causal regularly takes the Subjunctive; as,—

quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
cum sīs mortālis, quae mortālia sunt, cūrā, since you are mortal, care for what is mortal.

c. Note the phrase cum praeōrtim (praeōrtim cum), especially since; as,—

Hāedūnōs accūsat, praeōrtim cum eōrum precibus adductus bellum suōōperīt, he blamed the Hāedūnī, especially since he had undertaken the war at their entreaties.

3. Quandō (less frequent than the other causal particles) governs the Indicative; as,—

id omittō, quandō vōbīs ita placet, I pass over that, since you so wish.
Temporal Clauses Introduced by Postquam, Ut, Ubi, Simul ac, etc.

287. 1. Postquam (posteaquam), after; ut, ubi, when; cum primum, simul, simul ac (simul atque), as soon as, when used to refer to a single past act regularly take the Perfect Indicative; as,—

Epaminondas postquam audivit viocase Boeotidos, 'Satis' inquit 'viXI,' Epaminondas, after he heard that the Boeotians had conquered, said, 'I have lived enough;'

id ut audivit, Corcyram demigravit, when he heard this, he moved to Corcyra;

Caesar cum primum potuit, ad exercitum contendit, Caesar, as soon as he could, hurried to the army;

ubi dē Caesaris adventū certiorēs facti sunt, lēgitōs ad eum mittunt, when they were informed of Caesar's arrival, they sent envoys to him.

a. The Historical Present may take the place of the Perfect in this construction.

2. To denote the repeated occurrence of an act, ut, ubi, simul atque, as often as, when following an historical tense, take the Pluperfect Indicative (compare §§ 288, 3; 302, 3); as,—

ut quisque Veriss animum offenserat, in lauteriā statim coniicitur, whenever anybody had offended Verres's feelings, he was forthwith put in the stone-quarry;

hostēs, ubi alicuōs āgardientes consipserant, adoriabantur, whenever the enemy had seen any men disembarking, they attacked them.

a. In Livy and succeeding historians the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used to denote this repeated occurrence of an act ('Indefinite Frequency'); as,—

id ubi dixisset, hostam mittēbat, whenever he had said that, he hurled a spear.

3. Occasionally the above conjunctions are followed by the Pluperfect Indicative of a single occurrence. This is regularly the case with postquam in expressions denoting a definite interval of time (days, months, years, etc.), such as post tertium annum quam, triennīō postquam. Thus:—

*
quīnque post diēbus quam Lācā diisserat, ad Sardiniam vēnīt,
five days after he had departed from Luca he came to Sardinia;
postquam occupātāe Syrācūsae erant, profectus est Carthā-
gnum, after Syracuse had been seized, he set out for Carthage.

4. The Imperfect Indicative also sometimes occurs to denote a continued
state: as,—
postquam Rōmam adventābant, senātus cōnsultus est, after they were
on the march towards Rome, the Senate was consulted.
postquam strīctī utrīque stābant, after they had been drawn up on both
sides and were in position.

5. Rarely postquam, posteōquam, following the analogy of cum, take
the Subjunctive, but only in the historical tenses: as,—
postēquam sāmpuissa fīori fūnera coeisissent, læge sūbīsta sunt,
after funerals had begun to be elaborate, they were done away with by law.

**Temporal Clauses introduced by Cum.**

**A. Cum referring to the Past.**

288. 1. Cum, when referring to the past, takes——

**A.** The Indicative (Imperfect, Historical Perfect, or
Pluperfect) to denote the point of time at which something
occurs.

**B.** The Subjunctive (Imperfect or Pluperfect) to denote
the situation or circumstances under which something
occurs.

Examples:——

**Indicative.**

an tum erās cōnsul, cum in Palātiō mea domus ārdēbat, or were
you consul at the time when my house burned up on the Palatine?

crēdī tum cum Sicīlia fōrebāt opibus et cōpīs magna artīficīa
fusisse in ea Insulā, I believe that at the time when Sicily was
powerful in riches and resources there were great crafts in that
island;

eō tempore pārūt cum pārēre necesse erat, he obeyed at the time
when it was necessary to obey;

siō diē, cum est lāta lēx dē mē, on that day when the law concern-
ing me was passed.
SUBJUNCTIVE.

Lysander cum vellet Lycurgi légis commütäre, prohibitus est, when Lysander desired to change the laws of Lycurgus, he was prevented;

Pythagóras cum in geometría quidam novi invénisset, Múlas bovem immolasse dicitur, when Pythagoras had discovered something new in geometry, he is said to have sacrificed an ox to the Muses.

a. Note that the Indicative is much less frequent in such clauses than the Subjunctive, and is regularly confined to those cases where the main clause has tum, có diē, có annó, có tempore or some similar correlative of the cum. Sometimes it depends entirely upon the point of view of the writer whether he shall employ the Indicative or Subjunctive.

2. When the logical order of the clauses is inverted, we find cum with the Perfect Indicative or Historical Present, in the sense of when, when suddenly. The main clause in such cases often has jam, vix, aegrè, nónum. As,

jam Galli ex oppidó fugere apparábant, cum mátrés familíae repente prōcurrérunt, the Gauls were already preparing to flee, when suddenly the matrons rushed forth (logically, the matrons rushed forth as the Gauls were preparing to flee);

Tréviri Labiánum adorábant, cum duas légiones vénisse cognóscent, the Treviri were preparing to attack, when (suddenly) they learned that two legions had arrived.

3. To denote a recurring action in the past, cum is followed by the Indicative, particularly of the Pluperfect (compare §§ 287, 2; 302, 3); as,

cum ad aliquam oppidum vénérant, sǽdem lectori ad cubiculum dēferébantur, whenever he had arrived at some town, he was (always) carried in the same litter to his room;

cum equitátibus noster sǽ in agrós ejécerat, esse dérítam ex silvis émitébat, whenever our cavalry had advanced into the fields, he would send his charioteers out from the woods.

a. Sometimes the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is thus used; as,

sǽpe cum aliquam victórum munus bene vestítum, suum amículum dedit, often, whenever he saw some one more poorly clothed, he gave him his own mantle;

cum prōcucurritént, Numídies offulgìbant, as often as they had advanced, the Numidians ran away.

This construction is frequent in Livy and subsequent historians.
B. Cum referring to the Present or Future.

289. When cum refers to the Present or Future it regularly takes the Indicative; as,—

tum tua rēs agitur, pariēs cum proximus ērdet, your own interests are at stake when your neighbor’s house is burning;
cum vidēbis, tum sciēs, when you see, then you will know.

a. The Indicative of the Present or Future may denote also a recurring action; as,—

stabilītās amicitiae cōnfīrmāri potest, cum homīnēs cupīdinibus imperābunt, firm friendship can be established whenever men shall control their desires.

C. Other Uses of Cum.

290. 1. Cum Explicative. Cum, with the Indicative, is sometimes used to indicate the identity of one act with another; as,—
cum tacent, clāmant, their silence is a shout (lit. when they are silent, they shout).

2. Cum ... tum. When cum ... tum mean both ... and, the cum-clause is in the Indicative; but when cum has the force of while, though, it may take the Subjunctive; as,—
cum tē semper dīlēxerim, tum tuis factis incēnsus sum, while I have always loved you, at the same time I am incensed at your conduct.

Clauses introduced by Ante quem and Priusquam.

A. With the Indicative.

291. Ante quem and priusquam (often written ante ...) quam, prius ... quam) take the Indicative to denote an actual fact.

1. Sometimes the Present or Future Perfect; as,—
prius respondēs quam rogō, you answer before I ask;
nihil contra disputābō priusquam dixerit, I will say nothing in opposition, before he speaks.

2. Sometimes the Perfect, especially after negative clauses; as,—

dōn prius jugulāndī finis fuit, quam Sulla omnis saeōs divitiās expēlāvit, there was no end of murder until Sulla satisfied all his henchmen with wealth.
E. With the Subjunctive.

292. Antequam and priusquam take the Subjunctive to denote an act as anticipated.

1. Thus the Subjunctive may denote —

   a) An act in preparation for which the main act takes place; as, —

   priusquam dimicarent, foedus Ictum est, i.e. in anticipation of the fight, a treaty was struck.

   By an extension of this usage, the Subjunctive is sometimes used of general truth, where the anticipatory notion has faded out; as, —

   tempestas minitatur antequam surgat, the tempest threatens before it rises.

   b) An act anticipated and forestalled; as, —

   priusquam telum adici posset, omnis acies terga vertit, before a spear could be hurled, the whole army fled.

   c) An act anticipated and deprecated; as, —

   animum omittunt priusquam loco demigrent, they die rather than quit their post.

2. After historical tenses the Imperfect Subjunctive is used, especially by post-Augustan writers, where the notion of anticipation has practically vanished; as, —

   sol antequam se abderet fugientem vidit Antonium, the sun before it set saw Antony fleeing.

Clauses introduced by Dum, DONEC, QUOD.

293. I. Dum, while, regularly takes the Indicative of the Historical Present; as, —

   Alexander, dum inter praeclara pugnavit, sagittae Ictus est, Alexander, while he was fighting in the van, was struck by an arrow;

   dum haec geruntur, in fines Venetorum pervenit, while these things were being done, he arrived in the territory of the Veneti.

II. Dum, DONEC, and QUOD, as long as, take the Indicative; as, —

   dum anima est, spes est, as long as there is life, there is hope;

   Lacedaemoniorum gens fortis fuit, dum Lycurgi leges vigebant, the race of the Lacedaemonians was powerful, as long as the laws of Lycurgus were in force;

   CATO, quod vixit, virtutum laude oravit, Cato, as long as he lived, increased in the fame of his virtues.
III. Dum, dōnēc, and quoad, until, take:—

1. The Indicative, to denote an actual event; as,—

dōnēc rediit, fuit silenteium, there was silence till he came;
ferrum in corpore retinuit, quoad remuntiātum est Boeōtīōs
vīciās, he kept the iron in his body until word was brought that
the Boeotians had conquered.

   a. In Livy and subsequent historians dūm and dōnēc in this sense often
take the Subjunctive instead of the Indicative; as,—
trepidātiōnis aliquantum sōbant dōnēc timor quiētum
fāciamus, they showed some trepidation, until fear produced quiet.

2. The Subjunctive, to denote anticipation or expectancy; as,—
exspectāvit Caesar dūm nāvēs convenīrent, Caesar waited for the
 ships to assemble;

dūm hostēs veniant, mōrābor, I shall wait for the enemy to come.

Substantive Clauses.

294. A Substantive Clause is one which as a whole
serves as the Subject or Object of a verb, or stands in some
other case relation.

A. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Volitive.

295. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Volitive
are used with the following classes of verbs:—

   a. With verbs signifying to admonish, request, command, urge, per-
      suade, induce, etc. (conjunctions ut, nē, or ut nē); as,—
      postulāt ut fiat, I demand that it be done (dependent form of the
      Jussive fiat, let it be done!);
      ērat, nē abeās, he begs that you will not go away;
      militēs cohortātus est ut hostium impetum sustinērent, he ex-
      horted his soldiers to withstand the attack of the enemy;
      Helvētīs persuāsit ut extīrent, he persuaded the Helvetii to march
      forth.

   a. Jubeō, command, order, regularly takes the Infinitive.

1 Especially: monēō, admonēō; rogō, ērat, petō, postulāt, praecor,
ēratēō; mandō, imperō, praecipiō; suādō, bortor, cottortor; per-
suādō, impellō.
2. With verbs signifying to grant, concede, permit, allow, etc. (conjunction ut); as,—

_huio concedd ut ea prætereat, I allow him to pass that by_ (dependent form of the Jussive _ea prætereat, let him pass that by_!)

_cōnsul permissum est ut duas legiōnes scriberet, the consul was permitted to enroll two legions_.

3. With verbs of _hindering, preventing_ etc. (conjunctions _nē_, _quōminus_, _quin_); as,—

_nē iūstrum perfecteret, mora prohibuit, death prevented him from finishing the lustrum_ (dependent form after past tense of _nē_ _iūstrum perfecterat, let him not finish, etc._);

_prohibuit quōminus in unum coirent, he prevented them from coming together_;

_nec quīn érumperat, prohibērī poterat, nor could he be prevented from rushing forth_.

   a. _Quīn_ is used only when the verb of _hindering_ is accompanied by a negative, or stands in a question implying a negative; it is not necessarily used even then.

4. With verbs of _deciding, resolving_ etc. (conjunctions _ut_, _nē_, or _ut nē_); as,—

_cōstitueram ut priīs Ħūs Aquīnum manārem, I had decided to remain at Aquinum on the 12th_;

_dēcrēvit senātus ut Optīmus vidēret, the Senate decreed that Optīmus should see to it_;

_convēnit ut plās castrīs miscērentur, it was agreed that they should be united in one camp_.

5. With verbs of _striving_ etc. (conjunctions _ut_, _nē_, or _ut nē_); as,—

_fac ut eum exōrēs, see to it that you prevail upon him!_;

_odā ut vir sīs, see to it that you are a man!_;

_labōrēbat ut reliquās civitātēs adjungēret, he was striving to join the remaining states to him_.

   a. _Cōnor_, _tr., always takes the Infinitive_.

**Note.**—Verbs of all the above classes also admit the Infinitive, especially in poetry.

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1 Especially: _permittō, concedō, non patior_.

2 Especially: _prohibē, impedī, dēterreō_.

3 Especially: _cōstituē, dēserus, cōnāe, placuit, convenit_, _pactāre_.

4 Especially: _labōrō, dō operem, id agō, contendō, impetrō_.

6. With a few other expressions, such as necesse est, reliquum est, sequitur, licet, oportet; as,—

reliquum est ut doceam, it remains for me to show;
licet redeäs, you may return;
oportet loquämur, we must speak.
On the absence of ut with licet and oportet, see paragraph 8.

7. Here also belong phrases of the type: nülla causa est cür, quin; nön est cür, etc.; nihil est cür, etc.; as,—

nülla causa est cür timeam, there is no reason why I should fear
(originally Deliberative: why should I fear? There's no reason);
nihil est quin dicoam, there is no reason why I should not say.

8. Many of the above classes of verbs at times take the simple Subjunctive without ut. In such cases we must not recognize any omission of ut, but simply an earlier form of expression which existed before the ut-clause arose. This is regularly the case with necesse est, licet, and oportet; see 6. Other examples are:—
eös moneō désinant, I warn them to stop;
huc imperat adeat civitätēs, he orders him to visit the states.

B. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative.

296. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative occur:—

1. With verbs of wishing, desiring; especially cupidō, optō, volō, mālō (conjunctions ut, nē, ut nē); as,—

optō ut in hōc jūdiciō nēmō improbus reperiātur, I hope that in
this court no bad man may be found (here ut reperiātur repre-
sents a simple optative of direct statement, viz. reperiātur, may
no bad man be found);
cupidō nē veniât, I desire that he may not come.

a. The simple Subjunctive (without ut) sometimes occurs with verbs of
this class. (See 295. 8.) Examples are: veillum scribäs, I wish
you would write; veillum scripsisset, I wish he had written.

2. With expressions of fearing (timeō, metuō, vereor, etc.).
Here nē means that, lest, and ut means that not; as,—

timeō nē veniat, I fear that he will come (originally: may he not come!
I'm afraid [he will]);
timeō ut veniat, I fear that he will not come (originally: may he come!
I'm afraid [he won't]).
C. Substantive Clauses of Result.

297. Substantive Clauses of Result (introduced by ut, ut nōn) are a development of pure Result clauses, and occur with the following classes of words:

1. As object clauses after verbs of doing, accomplishing (especially faciō, efficiō, conāscō). Thus:

   gravitās morbī facit ut medicīnā egoāmus, the severity of disease makes us need medicine.

2. As the subject of several impersonal verbs, particularly fit, efficiitur, accīdit, évēnit, contingit, accēdit, sisti potest, foræ, sequitur, reiōquitur. Thus:

   ex quō efficiitur, ut voluptās nōn sit summum bonum, from which it follows that pleasure is not the greatest good;
   ita fit, ut nēmō esse possit beātus, thus it happens that no one can be happy;
   accēdēbat ut nāvēs deessent, another thing was the lack of ships (lit. it was added that ships were lacking).

3. As predicate or appositive after expressions like fīs est, mōs est, cōnsuētūdō est; also after neuter pronouns, hōc, illud, etc. Thus:

   est mōs hominum ut nōlint eundem plūribus rēbus excellere, it is the way of men not to wish the same person to excel in many things.

D. Substantive Clauses Introduced by Quīn.

298. Substantive Clauses introduced by quīn (used some times as subject, sometimes as object) occur after negative and interrogative expressions of doubt, omission, and the like, particularly after nōn dubitō, I do not doubt; quīs
Syntax.

dubitāt, who doubts? ; nōn (haud) dubium est, there is no doubt. The mood is the Subjunctive. Examples: —

quīs dubitāt quīn in virtūtē divitiae sint, who doubts that in virtue there are riches?

nōn dubium erat quīn ventūrūs esset, there was no doubt that he was about to come.

a. In Nepos, Livy, and post-Augustan writers an Infinitive sometimes takes the place of the quīn-clause after nōn dubitō; as, —

nōn dubitāmus inventōs esse, we do not doubt that men were found.

b. Nōn dubitō, I do not hesitate, is regularly followed by the Infinitive, though sometimes by a quīn-clause.

E. Substantive Clauses Introduced by Quod.

299. 1. Quod, the fact that, that, introduces Substantive Clauses in the Indicative. This construction occurs especially —

a) In apposition with a preceeding demonstrative, as hōc, id, illud, illa, ex eō, inde, etc. Thus: —

illud est admirātiōne dignum, quod captīvōs retinēns, dōs cēnsuit, this is especially worthy of admiration, that he thought the prisoners ought to be kept;

hōc ūnō praestāmus vel maximē fēria, quod colloquēmur inter nōs, in this one respect we are especially superior to the beasts, that we talk with each other.

b) After bene fit, bene accidit, male fit, bene facere, mīror, etc. ; as, —

bene mihi accidit, quod mittor ad mortem, it is well for me that I am sent to death;

bene feci, quod mānisti, you did well in remaining.

2. Quod at the beginning of the sentence sometimes has the force of as regards the fact that. Thus: —

quod multitudinem Germānōrum in Galliam trādō, id mē mānienō causā faciō, as regards the fact that I am transporting a multitude of Germans into Gaul, I am doing it for the sake of strengthening myself;

quod mē Agamemnōna aemulārī putās, fallēris, as regards your thinking that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken.
F. Indirect Questions.

300. 1. Indirect Questions are Substantive Clauses used after verbs of asking, inquiring, telling, and the like. They take their verb in the Subjunctive. Like Direct Questions (see § 162) they may be introduced —

a) By Interrogative Pronouns or Adverbs; as,—

 dúo mihi ubi fueris, quid iuorēris, tell me where you were, what you did;

cuius justiciār non potest in utram partem fluat Arar, it cannot be determined by the eye in which direction the Arar flows;

bis bīna quot essent, nesciēbat, he did not know how many two times two were.

Note. — Care should be taken to distinguish Indirect Questions from Relative Clauses. The difference between the two appears clearly in the following: —

essūgere nēmō id potest quod futūrum est, no one can escape what is destined to come to pass; but

saepe autem ne utile quidem est sofrē quid futūrum sit, but often it is not even useful to know what is coming to pass.

b) By num or -ne, without distinction of meaning; as,—

Epaminondās quaeśīvit num salvus esset cīpeus, or salvusne esset cīpeus, Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe?

disputātur num intertre virtūs in homine possit, the question is raised whether virtue can live in a man;

ex Socrate quaesītum est nōnne Archelāum bēātum putāret, the question was asked of Socrates whether he did not think Archelaius happy.

Note. — Nōnne in Indirect Questions occurs only after quaeśī, as in the last example above,

2. Often the Indirect Question represents a Deliberative Subjunctive of the direct discourse; as,—

nesciō quid faciam, I do not know what to do. (Direct: quid faciam, what shall I do!)

1 Exclamations, also, upon becoming indirect, take the Subjunctive, as omm-

essērē quae variae sint hominum cupidīnās, consider how varied are the desires of men. (Direct: quae variae sunt hominum cupidīnās)
3. After verbs of expectation and endeavor (exspectō, oĕnor, experior, temptō) we sometimes find an Indirect Question introduced by si; as,—

conantur si perrumpere possint, they try whether they can break through.

a. Sometimes the governing verb is omitted; as,—

pergit ad proximum spēluncum si forte eōs vestigia terrrent, he proceeded to the nearest cave (to see) if the tracks led thicker.

4. Indirect Double Questions are introduced in the main by the same particles as direct double questions (§ 162, 4); viz. —

utrum . . . an;
-ne . . . . an;
----- . . . an;
----- . . . ne.

Examples: —

quaerō utrum verum an falsum sit,
quaerō verumne an falsum sit,
quaerō verum an falsum sit,
quaerō verum falsumne sit,

I ask whether it is true or false?

a. ‘Or not’ in the second member of the double question is ordinarily expressed by necne, less frequently by an nōn; as,—

di utrum sit necne, quaeritur, it is asked whether there are gods or not.

5. Haud scio an, nescio an, by omission of the first member of the double question, occur with the Subjunctive in the sense: I am inclined to think, probably, perhaps; as,—

haud scio an hoc verum sit, I am inclined to think this is true.

6. In early Latin and in poetry the Indicative is sometimes used in Indirect Questions.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

301. Conditional Sentences are compound sentences (§ 164) consisting of two parts, the Protasis (or condition), usually introduced by si, nisi, or siē, and the Apodosis (or conclusion). There are the following types of Conditional Sentences: —
Conditional Sentences.

First Type.—Nothing Implied as to the Reality of the Supposed Case.

302. 1. Here we regularly have the Indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis. Any tense may be used; as,—

si hóc crédis, errâs, _if you believe this, you are mistaken;

nátûram si sequámur, numquam aberrábimus, _if we follow Nature, we shall never go astray;

si hóc dixísti, errásti, _if you said this, you were in error._

2. Sometimes the Protasis takes the Indefinite Second Person Singular (§ 356, 3) of the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, with the force of the Indicative; as,—

memoria minuitur, nisi eam exercæs, _memory is impaired unless you exercise it._

3. Here belong also those conditional sentences in which the Protasis denotes a repeated action (compare §§ 287, 2; 288, 3); as,—

si quæ equitum duciâret, peditiæ circumsistēbant, _if any one of the horsemen fell, the foot-soldiers gathered about him._

a. Instead of the Indicative, Livy and subsequent writers employ the Subjunctive of the Historical tenses in the Protasis to denote repeated action; as,—

si discendâœ quis diem exmeret, if (ever) anybody consumed a day in pleasing; si quandâœ adsidüret, if ever he sat by.

4. Where the sense demands it, the Apodosis in conditional sentences of the First Type may be an Imperative or one of the Independent Subjunctives (Hortatory, Deliberative, etc.); as,—

si hóc créditis, tacēte, _if you believe this, be silent;

si hóc crédimus, tacēmus, _if we believe this, let us keep silent._

Second Type.—‘Should’ ‘Would’ Conditions.

303. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive (of the Present or Perfect tense) in both Protasis and Apodosis; as,—

si hóc dicâs, errâs, _if you should say this, you would be mistaken;

si hóc dixerâs, errâvâs, _if you should have said this, you would have been mistaken;_”

si velim Hannibalem proelia omnia describere, dīsē me dēscīcat, _if I should wish to describe all the battles of Hannibal, time would fail me;_
mentiar, sī negem, I should lie, if I should deny it;
haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nōnne impetrāre dēbeat, if your
country should plead thus with you, would she not deserve to
obtain her request?

a. The Subjunctive in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of this type
is of the Potential variety.

b. Sometimes we find the Indicative in the Apodosis of sentences of the
Second Type, where the writer wishes to assert the accomplishment of
a result more positively; as,—

alter sī faciat, nūllum habet auctōritātem, if he should do
otherwise, he has no authority.

Third Type.—Supposed Case Represented as Contrary to
Fact.

304. 1. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive in both
Protasis and Apodosis, the Imperfect referring to present
time, and the Pluperfect referring to past; as,—
sī amīci meī adessent, opīs nōn indigērem, if my friends were here,
I should not lack assistance;
sī hōc dixissent, errāssēs, if you had said this, you would have
erred;
sapientia nōn expeterētur, sī nihil efficēret, philosophy would not
be desired, if it accomplished nothing;
cōnsilium, ratiō, sententia nisi essent in senibus, nōn summum
cōnsilium majōrēs nostri appellāssent senātum, unless del-
liberation, reason, and wisdom existed in old men, our ances-
tors would not have called their highest deliberative body a
senate.

2. Sometimes the Imperfect Subjunctive is found referring to the
past, especially to denote a continued act, or a state of things still exist-
ing; as,—

Laelius, Pūrius, Catō, sī nihil litterās adjuvārentur, numquam sē
ad sērum studium contulissent, Laelius, Pūrius, and Cato
would never have devoted themselves to the study of letters,
unless they had been (constantly) helped by them;
num igitur sī ad centēsimum annum vixisset, senectūtās eum
suæ paenitēret, if he had lived to his hundredth year,
would he have regretted (and now be regretting) his old
age?
3. The Apodosis in conditional sentences of this type sometimes stands in the Indicative (Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect), viz. —
   a) Frequently in expressions of ability, obligation, or necessity; as, —
      nisi feliicitas in accordiam vertisset, exuere jugum
      potuissent, unless their prosperity had turned to folly,
      they could have thrown off the yoke;
      
      NOTE. — In sentences of this type, however, it is not the possibility that is represented as contrary-to-fact, but something to be supplied in thought from the context. Thus in the foregoing sentence the logical apodosis is et exuisse understood (and they would have shaken it off). When the possibility itself is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used.

      eum patris loco cole redhibas, si filla in te pietas
      esset, you ought to revere him as a father, if you had
      any sense of devotion.

      b) With both the Periphrastic Conjugations; as, —
      si Pompejus oculus esset, fuissete ad arma itur, if
      Pompey had been slain, would you have proceeded to
      arms?
      si unum diem morarit essetis, moriendum omnis
      fuit, if you had delayed one day, you would all have
      had to die.

   Protasis expressed without Si.

305. 1. The Protasis is not always expressed by a clause with si, but may be implied in a word, a phrase, or merely by the context; as, —

      aliqvi haec non scriberentur, otherwise (i.e. if matters were other-
      wise) these things would not be written;
      
      non potestis, volupta omnia dirigentis, retinere virtutem, you
      cannot retain virtue, if you direct everything with reference to
      pleasure.

2. Sometimes an Imperative, or a Jussive Subjunctive, serves as Protasis. Thus: —

      ora petitis, dabitur, if you ask to-morrow, it shall be given you (lit.
      ask to-morrow, etc.);
      
      haec reputent, videtur, if they consider this, they will see (lit. let
      them consider, etc.);
      
      rogatis Aristonem, respondeat, if you should ask Ariston, he would
      answer.
Use of *Nisi, Sì Nòn, Sìn.*

308. 1. *Nisi,* *unless,* negativeds the entire protasis; *sì nòn* negatived a single word. ; as, —

ferreus essem, nisi tè amàrem, I should be hard-hearted unless I loved you; but —

ferreus essem, sì tè nòn amàrem, I should be hard-hearted if I did not love you.

In the first example, it is the notion of *loving you* that is negatived, in the second, the notion of *loving.*

2. *Sì nòn (sì minus)* is regularly employed: —

a) When an apodosis with *at. tamen, certè* follows; as, —

*dolorem sì nòn potuerò frangere, tamen occultabò,* if
I cannot crush my sorrow, yet I will hide it.

b) When an affirmative protasis is repeated in negative form;

as, —

*sì feceris, magnam habèbò gratiam; sì nòn feceris,
ignòscam, if you do it, I shall be deeply grateful; if you
do not do it, I shall pardon you.*

a. But if the verb is omitted in the repetition, only *sì minus* or *sì minus* is admissible; as, —

*hóc sì essectus sum, gaudeò; sì minus, mè cónsolor, if I
have attained this, I am glad; if not, I console myself.*

3. *Sìn.* Where one protasis is followed by another opposed in

meaning, but affirmative in form, the second is introduced by *sìn*; as, —

*hunc mili timòrem èripe; sì vèrus est, nè opprimar, sìn fálèsus,
ut timère désínam, relíque me of this fear; if it is well
founded, that I may not be destroyed; but if it is groundless,
that I may cease to fear.*

4. *Nisi* has a fondness for combining with negatives (*nòu, nèmò, nihil*); as, —

*nihil cògitavít nisi caedam, he had no thought but murder.*

a. *Nòn* and *nisi* are always separated in the best Latinity.

5. *Nisi forte,* *nisi vèrò,* *nisi sì,* *unless perchance,* *unless indeed* (often with ironical force), take the Indicative; as, —

*nisi vèrò, quia perfecta rést nòn est, nòn vidètur púnienda,*

*unless indeed, because an act is not consummated, it does not
seem to merit punishment.*
Clauses of Comparison. — Adversative Clauses. 203

Conditional Clauses of Comparison.

307. 1. Conditional Clauses of Comparison are introduced by the particles, ac si, ut si, quasi, quam si, tamquam si, velut si, or simply by velut or tamquam. They stand in the Subjunctive mood and regularly involve an ellipsis (see § 374, 1), as indicated in the following examples:—

tantus patrēs metus ēsprit, velut si jam ad portās hostis esset, as great fear seized the senators as (would have seized them) if the enemy were already at the gates;

sed quid ego hīs testibus āitor quasi rēs dubia aut obscura sit, but why do I use these witnesses, as (I should do) if the matter were doubtful or obscure;

serviam tibi tamquam si ēmerīs mē argentō, I will serve you as though you had bought me for money.

2. Note that in sentences of this kind the Latin observes the regular principles for the Sequence of Tenses. Thus after principal tenses the Latin uses the Present and Perfect (as in the second and third examples), where the English uses the Past and the Past Perfect.

Concessive Clauses.

308. The term 'Concessive' is best restricted to those clauses developed from the Jussive Subjunctive which have the force of granted that, etc.; as,—

sit fūr, sit sacrilegus, at est bonus imperātor, granted that he is a thief and a robber, yet he is a good commander;

ut hōc vērum sit, granted that this is true;

nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, granted that pain is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil.

Adversative Clauses with Quamvīs, Quamquam, etc.

309. Clauses introduced by quamvīs, quamquam, etc., tametēs, cum, although, while often classed as 'Concessive,' are yet essentially different from genuine Concessive clauses. As a rule, they do not grant or concede anything, but rather state that something is true in spite of
something else. They accordingly emphasize the adversative idea, and are properly Subordinate Adversative Clauses. The different particles used to introduce these clauses have different meanings and take different constructions, as follows:

1. Quamvis, however much, although, does not introduce a statement of fact, but represents an act merely as conceived. It is followed by the Subjunctive, usually of the present tense; as,

hominēs quamvis in turbidīs rēbus sint, tamen interdum animīs relaxantur, in however stirring events men may engage, yet at times they relax their energies;
nōn est potestās opitulandī reī publicae quamvis ea premātur periculīs, there is no opportunity to succor the state, though it be beset by dangers.

2. Quamquam, etā, tamētā, although, introduce a statement of fact, and are followed by the Indicative (of any tense); as,

quamquam omnīs virtūs nōs allicēt, tamen jūstitia id maxīmē efficīt, although all virtue attracts us, yet justice does so especially;
Caesar, etā nōndum cōnsiliīm hostium cognōverat, tamen id quod accīdit suspicābātur, Caesar, though he did not yet know the plans of the enemy, yet was suspecting what actually occurred

3. Cum, although, is followed by the Subjunctive; as,

Attīnus honōrēs nōn petīt, cum cēlī patrēnt, Atticus did not seek honors, though they were open to him.

4. Licet sometimes loses its verbal force (see § 295, 6) and sinks to the level of a conjunction with the force of although. It takes the Subjunctive, Present or Perfect; as,

licet omnēs terrōrēs impendēnt, succurrām, though all terrors hang over me, (yet) I will lend aid.

5. Quamquam, with the force and yet, is often used to introduce principal clauses; as,

quamquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak?
Clauses of Proviso.—Relative Clauses.

6. In post-Augustan writers quamquam is freely construed with the Subjunctive, while quamvis is often used to introduce statements of fact, and takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Thus:—

quamquam moveretur his vocibus, although he was moved by these words;
quamvis multi opinarentur, though many thought;
quamvis infestum animo perveneras, though you had come with hostile intent.

Clauses with Dum, Modo, Dummodo, denoting a Wish or a Proviso.

310. These particles are followed by the Subjunctive (negative ne) and have two distinct uses:—

I. They are used to introduce clauses embodying a wish entertained by the subject of the leading verb; as,—

multorum honesta neglegunt dummodo potentiæ consequuntur,
many neglect honor in their desire to obtain power (if only they may attain);
omnia postposui, dum praecipient patræ precor, I made everything else secondary, in my desire to obey the injunctions of my father;
nihil obstat tibi, dum ne sit ditor alter, nothing hinders you in your desire that your neighbor may not be richer than you.

II. They are used to express a proviso (‘provided that’); as,—

udderint, dum metuant, let them hate, provided they fear;
manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria,
old men retain their faculties, provided only they retain their interest and vigor;
nubiant, dum ne dōs flat comes, let them marry, provided no dowry goes with it.

Relative Clauses.

311. Relative Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns, Adjectives, or Adverbs.

312. 1. Relative clauses usually stand in the Indicative Mood, especially clauses introduced by those General Relatives which are doubled or have the suffix -cunque; as,—
206 Syntax.

quidquid id est, timeō Danaōs et dōna ferentēs, whatever it is, I fear the Greeks even when they offer gifts;
quidquid oritur, quālecunque est, causam ā nātūrā habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever sort it is, has its primal cause in Nature.

2. Any simple Relative may introduce a conditional sentence of any of the three types mentioned in §§ 302–304; as,—
quī hōc dīcit, errat, he who says this is mistaken (First Type);
quī hōc dīcat, errat, he would be mistaken who should say this (Second Type);
quī hōc dixisset, errāset, the man who had said this would have been mistaken.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE (Ōrātiō Oblīqua).

313. When the language or thought of any person is reproduced without change, that is called Direct Discourse (Ōrātiō Rēcta); as, Caesar said, 'The die is cast.' When, on the other hand, one's language or thought is made to depend upon a verb of saying, thinking, etc., that is called Indirect Discourse (Ōrātiō Oblīqua); as, Caesar said that the die was cast; Caesar thought that his troops were victorious.

a. For the verbs most frequently employed to introduce Indirect Discourse, see § 331.

MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Declarative Sentences.

314. 1. Declarative Sentences upon becoming Indirect change their main clause to the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, while all subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive; as,—

Regulus dixit quam diē jūrāndō hostium tenērētur nōn esse sē senātōrem, Regulus said that as long as he was held by his pledge to the enemy he was not a senator. (Direct: quam diē teneor nōn sum senātor.)
2. The verb of saying, thinking, etc., is sometimes to be inferred from the context; as,—

tum Römulus légátiōs circā vicīnīs gentēs mīlit qui societātem cōnūbiuμque pēterant: urbēs quoque, ut cītera, ex infimō nāscī, then Römulus sent envoys around among the neighboring tribes, to ask for alliance and the right of inter-marriage, (saying that) cities, like everything else, start from a modest beginning.

7. Subordinate clauses which contain an explanatory statement of the writer and so are not properly a part of the Indirect Discourse, or which emphasize the fact stated, take the Indicative; as,—

nūntiātum est Ariovistum ad occupandum Vesontiōnem, quod est oppidum maximum Sēquanōrum, contendere, it was reported that Ariovistus was hastening to seize Vesontio, which is the largest town of the Sequani.

4. Sometimes a subordinate clause is such only in its external form, and in sense is principal. It then takes the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. This occurs especially in case of relative clauses, where qui is equivalent to et hic, nam hic, etc.; as,—

dīxit urbem Athēnīsium prōpunīcūlum opposītum esse barbarīs, apud quam jam bis classēs rēgūs fēcisse naufragium, he said the city of the Athenians had been set against the barbarians like a bulwark, near which (= and near it) the fleets of the King had twice met disaster.

5. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is sometimes omitted when it refers to the same person as the subject of the leading verb, or can easily be supplied from the context; as,—

cum id nesīcre Māgō dīceret, when Mago said he did not know this (for sī nesīcre).

Interrogative Sentences.

315. 1. Real questions of the Direct Discourse, upon becoming indirect, are regularly put in the Subjunctive; as,—

Ariovistus Cæsārī respondit: sō prius in Galliān vēnīrēs quàm populum Rōmānum. Quid sībī vēlēt? Cūr in sūs pos-
sēsaiōnēs venīrēt, Ariovistus replied to Cæsar that he
had come into Gaul before the Roman people. What did he 
(Cæsar) mean? Why did he come into his domain? (Direct: 
quid tibi vis? car in meâ possessione venis?)

Rhetorical questions, on the other hand, being asked 
merely for effect, and being equivalent in force to emphatic 
statements, regularly stand in the Infinitive in Indirect 
Discourse. Thus:—

quid est levius (lit. what is more trivial, = nothing is more trivial) 
of the Direct Discourse becomes quid esse levius in the In- 
direct.

3. Deliberative Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse remain un-
changed in mood in the Indirect; as,—

quid facerent, what was he to do? (Direct: quid faciat?)

Imperative Sentences.

316. All Imperatives or Jussive Subjunctives of the 
Direct Discourse appear as Subjunctives in the In-
direct; as,—

milités certioré fécit paulisper intermittent proelium, he 
told the soldiers to stop the battle for a little. (Direct: 
intermittite.)

a. The Negative in such sentences is nē; as,—

nē sœc virtūt tribueret, let him not attribute it to his own 
valor!

TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

A. Tenses of the Infinitive.

317. These are used in accordance with the regular 
principles for the use of the Infinitive as given in § 270.

a. The Perfect Infinitive may represent any past tense of the 
Indicative of Direct Discourse. Thus:—

sciô tē haec agisse may mean —
I know you were doing this. (Direct: haec aebâ.)
I know you did this. (Direct: haec agist.)
I know you had done this. (Direct: haec aegerâ.)
B. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

318. These follow the regular principle for the Sequence of Tenses, being Principal if the verb of saying is Principal; Historical if it is Historical. Yet for the sake of vividness, we often find the Present Subjunctive used after an historical tense (Repraesentātiō); as,—

Caesar respondit, si obсидēs dentur, ēsecē pācem esse factūrum,
Caesar replied that, if hostages be given, he would make peace.

a. For the sequence after the Perfect Infinitive, see § 268, 2.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Conditional Sentences of the First Type.

319. A. The Apodosis. Any tense of the Indicative is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive (§§ 270; 317, a).

B. The Protasis. The protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive which are required by the Sequence of Tenses.

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIRECT</th>
<th>INDIRECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>si hoc crēdis, errās,</td>
<td>dīcō, si hoc crēdis, tē errāre;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dixi, si hoc crēdis, tē errāre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>si hoc crēdēs, errābis,</td>
<td>dīcō, si hoc crēdēs, tē errāturum esse;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dixi, si hoc crēdēs, tē errāturum esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>si hoc crēdideris, errābis,</td>
<td>dīcō, si hoc crēdideris, tē errāturum esse;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dixi, si hoc crēdideris, tē errāturum esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>si hoc crēdēbatis, errāvisti,</td>
<td>dīcō, si hoc crēdēbatis, tē errāvisse;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dixi, si hoc crēdēbatis, tē errāvisse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Note that a Future Perfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse regularly appears in the Indirect as a Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and as a Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense.
Conditional Sentences of the Second Type.


B. The Protasis. The Protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive demanded by the sequence of tenses.

Examples:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{sì hóc crēdās, errēs,} & \quad \text{dicō, sì hóc crēdās, tē errātūrum esse;} \\
\text{dixi, sì hóc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse.}
\end{align*}
\]

Conditional Sentences of the Third Type.

321. A. The Apodosis.

1. The Imperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes the Future Infinitive.

   a. But this construction is rare, being represented in the classical Latinity by a single example (Caesar, V. 29. 2). Some scholars question the correctness of this passage.

2. The Pluperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes:

   a) In the Active Voice the Infinitive in -ūrus fuisset.

   b) In the Passive Voice it takes the form futūrum fuisset ut with the Imperfect Subjunctive.

B. The Protasis. The protasis in Conditional Sentences of this type always remains unchanged.

Examples:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{sì hóc crēderēs, errārēs,} & \quad \text{dicō (dixi), sì hóc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse;} \\
\text{sì hóc crēdidissēs, errāvissēs,} & \quad \text{dicō (dixi), sì hóc crēdidissēs, tē errātūrum fuisset;} \\
\text{sì hóc dixissēs, pānitus essēs,} & \quad \text{dicō (dixi), sì hóc dixissēs futūrum fuisset ut pānīrēris.}
\end{align*}
\]

322. When an apodosis of a conditional sentence of the Third Type referring to the past is at the same time a Result clause, or a
quīn-clause (after nōn dubitātō, etc.), it stands in the Perfect Sub-
juunctive in the form -ārus fuerim; as, —

īta terrī sunt, ut arma trādītūrī fuerint,1 nīs Caesar subītō
advēninse, they were so frightened that they would have given
up their arms, had not Caesar suddenly arrived;
nōn dubitāt quīn, sī hōc dīxisseā, errātūrus fuerit,2 I do not doubt
that, if you had said this, you would have made a mistake.

a. This peculiarity is confined to the Active Voice. In the
Passive, such sentences, when they become dependent,
remain unchanged; as, —
nōn dubitāt quīn, sī hōc dīxisseā, vituperātus essēs, I
do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have
been blamed.

b. When an Indirect Question becomes an apodosis in a con-
ditional sentence of the Third Type, -ārus fuerim (rarely
-ārus fuisset) is used; as, —
quaerō, num, sī hōc dīxisseās, errātūrus fuerit (or
fuisset).

c. Potuī, when it becomes a dependent apodosis in sentences of this
Type, usually changes to the Perfect Subjunctive; as, —
concurreā tōtius cívītātis défensā sunt, ut frigidissimōs
quoque grātorā populi studia excitāre potuerint,
they were defended before a gathering of all the citizens, so that the
interest of the people would have been enough to excite even the
most apathetic orators.

IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

323. The Subjunctive is often used in subordinate clauses whose
Indirect character is merely implied by the context; as, —
dēmōnstrābatur mihi praeterēta, quae Socratēs dē immortali-
tāte animōrum disseruisset, there were explained to me be-
sides, the arguments which Socrates had set forth concerning the
immortality of the soul (i.e. the arguments which, it was said,
Socrates had set forth);
Paeus omnēs librorēs quōs pater suus relquīasset mihi dōnāvit,
Paeus gave me all the books which (as he said) his father had left.

1 Trādītūrī fuerint and errātūrus fuerit are to be regarded as repre-
senting trādītūrī fuissent and errātūrus fuisset of Direct Discourse. (See
§ 304 § 8.)
SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION.

324. 1. Subordinate clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive are frequently attracted into the same mood, especially when they do not express a fact, but constitute an essential part of one complex idea; as,—

nēmō avārus adhūc inventus est, cui, quod habēret, esset satis, no miser has yet been found who was satisfied with what he had;

cum diversās causās afferrent, dum fōrman suī quisque et animī et ingenī redferrent, as they brought forward different arguments, while each mirrored his own individual type of mind and natural bent;

quod ego fater, pudēat? should I be ashamed of a thing which I admit?

2. Similarly a subordinate clause dependent upon an Infinitive is put in the Subjunctive when the two form one closely united whole; as,—

mōs est Atheniēs quotannis in cōntigē laudārī eōs qui sint in proelīs interflecti, it is the custom at Athens every year for those to be publicly eulogized who have been killed in battle.

(Here the notion of ‘praising those who fell in battle’ forms an inseparable whole.)

NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

325. These are the Infinitive, Participle, Gerund, and Supine. All of these partake of the nature of the Verb, on one hand, and of the Noun or Adjective, on the other. Thus:—

As Verbs,—

a) They may be limited by adverbs;
b) They admit an object;
c) They have the properties of voice and tense.

As Nouns or Adjectives,—

a) They are declined;
b) They take Noun or Adjective constructions.

THE INFINITIVE.

Infinitive without Subject Accusative.

326. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also as Predicate or Appositive.

Note. — The Infinitive was originally a Dative, and traces of this are still to be seen in the poetical use of the Infinitive to express purpose; as, nec dulcis occurring oscula nati praeripere, and no sweet children will run to snatch kisses.

A. As Subject.

327. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Subject of esse and various impersonal verbs, particularly opus est, necesse est, oportet, iuvat, deflectat, placet, libet, licet, praestat, decet, pudet, interest, etc.; as, —

dulce et decorum est pro patria mori, it is sweet and noble to die for one's country;

 virorum est fortium toleranter dolorem pati, it is the part of brave men to endure pain with patience;

senatus placuit legatos mittere, the Senate decided (lit. it pleased the Senate) to send envoys.

2. Even though the Infinitive itself appears without Subject, it may take a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the Accusative; as, —

aliud est Iracundum esse, aliud Iratum, it is one thing to be irascible, another to be angry;

impune quaelibet facere, id est regem esse, to do whatever you please with impunity, that is to be a king.

4. But when licet is followed by a Dative of the person, a Predicate Noun or Adjective with esse is attracted into the same case; as,

Illicit esse diisse Themistocles, lit. it was permitted to Themistocles to be at leisure. So sometimes with other Impersonals.

B. As Object.

328. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Object of many verbs, to denote another action of the same subject, particularly after —

volu, cupit, malo, nolo;

debet, ought;

statu, constitute, decide;

congit, medit, purpose, intend;

egecit, neglect;
Syntax.

audeō, dare; mātūrō, festīnō, properō, contendō, hasten;
studeō, contendō, strive;
parō, preparē (so parātus);
incipiō, coepi, instituō, begin;
pergō, continue;
dāsīnō, dāsīstō, cease;
possum, can;
ćiō, try;

tu hōs intuēris audēs, do you dare to look on these men?

Dēmosthenēsc ad flōtās maris déclāmēre solēbat, Demosthenes
used to declaim by the waves of the sea.

2. A Predicate Noun or Adjective with these Infinitives is attracted
into the Nominative; as, —

beātus esse sine virtūte nēmō potest, no one can be happy without
virtue;
Catō esse quam vidērī bonus mālēbat, Cato preferred to be good
rather than to seem so.

Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

329. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also
as Predicate or Appositive.

A. As Subject.

330. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative (like the
simple Infinitive) is used as Subject with esse and Imper-
sonal verbs, particularly with aequum est, ütile est, turpe
est, fāna est, spēs est, fātum est, nefās est, opus est, nec esse
est, oportet, cōnstat, praestat, licet, etc.; as, —
nihil in bellō oportet contemnī, nothing ought to be despised in war;
apertum est sibi quemque nātūrā esse ċārum, it is manifest that
by nature everybody is dear to himself.

B. As Object.

331. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used as
Object after the following classes of verbs: —

I. Most frequently after verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, per-
ceiving; and the like (Verba Sentiendi et Déclarandī). This is the
Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb. 215

regular construction of Principal Clauses of Indirect Discourse. Verbs that take this construction are, among others, the following: sentiō, audiō, videō, cognōscō; putō, jūdicō, spērō, cōnfidō; sciō, meminī; dicō, affirmō, negō (say that . . . not), trādō, nārō, fateor, respondō, scribō, prōmittō, gloriō. Also the phrases: certōrem faciō (inform), memoriā teneō (remember), etc.

Examplós: —

Epicūrēi putant cum corporibus simul animōs interire, the Epicureans think that the soul perishes with the body;

Thalēs dixit aquam esse initium rērum, Thales said that water was the first principle of the universe;

Démocritos negat quicquid esse sempiternum, Democritus says nothing is everlasting;

spērō cūm ventūrum esse, I hope that he will come.

II. With jubeō, order, and vetō, forbid; as,—

Caesar mīlitēs pontem facere jussit, Caesar ordered the soldiers to make a bridge.

a. When the name of the person who is ordered or forbidden to do something is omitted, the Infinitive with jubeō and vetō is put in the Passive; as, Caesar pontem fieri jussit.

III. With patior and sīnō, permit, allow; as,—

nullō sē implicārī negōtiō pausus est, he did not permit himself to be involved in any difficulty.

IV. With volō, nōlō, mālō, cupō, when the Subject of the Infinitive is different from that of the governing verb; as,—

nec mīhi hunc errorem extorquērī volō, nor do I wish this error to be wrested from me;

ēsā rēs iactārī nōlēbat, he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed;

tē tuis diuītis fruī cupimus, we desire that you enjoy your wealth.

a. When the Subject of both verbs is the same, the simple Infinitive is regularly used in accordance with § 328. 1. But exceptions occur, especially in case of esse and Passive Infinitives; as,—

cupō mō esse clēmentem, I desire to be lenient;

Timotheōn māluit sē diisī quām metuī, Timotheon preferred to be loved rather than feared.

5. Volō also admits the Subjunctive, with or without ut; nōlō the Subjunctive alone. (See § 326, 1. 4.)
V. With Verbs of emotion (joy, sorrow, regret, etc.), especially gaudeó, laetor, doleó; aegré feró, molesté feró, graviter feró, am annoyed, distressed; míror, queror, indignor; as, —

gaudeó té salvm advenfre, I rejoice that you arrive safely;
nón molesté ferunt sé libitínum vinculis laxátos esse, they are not troubled at being released from the bonds of passion;
míror té ad mé nihil scribere, I wonder that you write me nothing.

a. Instead of an Infinitive these verbs also sometimes admit a quod-clause as Object. (See § 299.) Thus: —
míror quod nón loqueris, I wonder that you do not speak.

VI. Some verbs which take two Accusatives, one of the Person and the other of the Thing (§ 175, 1), may substitute an Infinitive for the second Accusative; as, —

cógó té hóc facere, I compel you to do this (cf. té hóc cógó);
docui té contentum esse, I taught you to be content (cf. té modo
tiam docui, I taught you temperance).

Passive Construction of the Foregoing Verbs.

332. Those verbs which in the Active are followed by the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, usually admit the personal construction in the Passive. This is true of the following and of some others: —

a) jubeor, vetor, sinor; as, —
mílités pontem facere jussi sunt, the soldiers were ordered to build a bridge;
póns fieri jussus est, a bridge was ordered built;
mílités castra exire vetitá sunt, the troops were forbidden to go out of the camp;
Séstitus Clódium accúsáre nón est sitús, Sestius was not allowed to accuse Clodius.

b) videor, I am seen, I seem; as, —
viditúr commísisse, he seems to have discovered.

c) dicior, putor, exístimos, judicor (in all persons); as, —
dicitur in Italiam vénisse, he is said to have come into Italy;
Rómulus prímus séx Rómanórum fuisses putátur, Romulus is thought to have been the first king of the Romans.
Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb.

333. The Infinitive with Adjectives (except parātus, assumētus, etc.; see § 282, 1) occurs only in poetry and post-Augustan prose writers; as,—

contentus dēmōnstrāsse, contented to have proved;

audāx omnia perpetī, bold for enduring everything.

Infinitive in Exclamations.

334. The Infinitive is used in Exclamations implying scorn, indignation, or regret. An intensive -ne is often attached to some word in the clause. Examples:—

huncī solēm tam nigrum surrēxe mihi, to think that to-day’s sun rose with such evil omen for me!
sedēre tōtēs diēs in villā, to stay whole days at the villa!

Historical Infinitive.

335. The Infinitive is often used in historical narrative instead of the Imperfect Indicative. The Subject stands in the Nominative; as,—

interim cottīdēs Caesar Haeduōs frumentum flāgitāre, meanwhile Caesar was daily demanding grain of the Haeduī.

PARTICIPLES.

Tenses of the Participle.

336. 1. The tenses of the Participle, like those of the Infinitive (see § 270), express time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb upon which the Participle depends.
2. The Present Participle denotes action *contemporary with* that of the verb. Thus:—

audīō *tē loquentem* = *you are* speaking and I hear you;

audīēbam *tē loquentem* = *you were* speaking and I heard you;

audīam *tē loquentem* = *you will be* speaking and I shall hear you.

a. The Present Participle is sometimes employed with Conative force; as,—

assurgentem *rēgem resupina*at, *as the king was trying to* 

rise, he threw him down.

3. The Perfect Passive Participle denotes action *prior to* that of the verb. Thus:—

locūtus tacēbō = *I have spoken and am silent*;

locūtus tacui = *I had spoken and then was silent*;

locūtus tacēbō = *I shall speak and then shall be silent*.

4. The absolute time of the action of a participle, therefore, is determined entirely by the finite verb with which it is connected.

5. Certain Perfect Passive Participles of Deponent and Semi-Deponent Verbs are used as Presents, viz. arbitrantus, ausus, ratus, gavisus, solitus, ësus, confusus, diffusus, sectus, veritus.

### Use of Participles

337. As an Adjective the Participle may be used either as an attributive or predicate modifier of a Substantive.

1. Attributive Use. This presents no special peculiarities. Examples are:—

glória est cōnsentiēns laus bonōrum, glory is the unanimous praise of the good;

Condō mūros Výsandō drutōs reficit, Conon restored the walls destroyed by Lysander.

2. Predicate Use. Here the Participle is often equivalent to a subordinate clause. Thus the Participle may denote:—

a) Time; as,—

omne malum nāscēns facile opprimitur, *every evil is* 

easily crushed at birth.

b) A Condition; as,—

mente āti nōn possumus cibō et pōtiōne complēti, *if* 

gorged with food and drink, we cannot use our intellects.
Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb. 219

c) Manner; as,—

Solon sediscere aedificavit multa in dies addiscendum,
Solon said he grew old learning many new things daily.

d) Means; as,—

sol oriens diem contigit, the sun, by its rising, makes the
day.

e) Opposition (‘though’); as,—

menda virum quidem dicent creamus,
we do not believe a liar, though he speaks the truth.

f) Cause; as,—

perfidiam veritus ad suos recusavit, since he feared
treachery, he returned to his own troops.

3. videō and audiō, besides the Infinitive, take the Present Participle in the Predicate use; as,—

videō tē fugientem, I see you fleeing.

a. So frequently fació, fingó, indúco, etc.; as,—

cató nem respondentem facimus, we represent Cato replying
to them;

Homerus Larrem colorem agrum facit, Homer represents
Lauros tilling the field.

4. The Future Active Participle (except futūrus) is regularly con-

fined to its use in the Periphrastic Conjugation, but in poets and later
writers it is used independently, especially to denote purpose; as,—

veniunt castra oppugnátūrī, they came to assault the camp.

5. The Perfect Passive Participle is often equivalent to a coordi-
nate clause; as,—

urbem captam aedificavit, he captured and destroyed the city (lit. he
destroyed the city captured).

6. The Perfect Passive Participle in combination with a noun is

sometimes equivalent to an abstract noun with a dependent Genitive;

as,—

post urbem conditam, after the founding of the city;
Quinctius défensus, the defense of Quinctius;
quibus animus occupátus, the preoccupation of the mind with which.

7. Habeō sometimes takes a Perfect Passive Participle in the Predi-
cate construction with a force not far removed from that of the Perfect
or Pluperfect Indicative; as,—

cōpiás quaēs occupatam habēbat, the forces which he had collected.
8. The Gerundive denotes obligation, necessity, etc. Like other Participles it may be used either as Attributive or Predicate.

a) Less frequently as Attributive. Thus:
- *liber legendus*, a book worth reading;
- *lēgēs observandae*, laws deserving of observance.

b) More frequently as Predicate.

1) In the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (*amandus est, etc.*). In this use Intransitive Verbs can be used only impersonally, but admit their ordinary case-construction (Gen., Dat., Abl.); as,—
- *veniendum est, it is necessary to come*;
- *obliviscendum est infiuriārum*, one must forget injuries;
- *numquam prōditōr crēdendum est*, you must never trust a traitor;
- *suō cuique ētendum est jūdiciō*, every man must use his own judgment.

2) After *cūrō*, provide for; *dō*, trādō, give over; *relinquō*, leave; *concedō*, hand over; and some other verbs, instead of an object clause or to denote purpose; as,—
- *Caesar pōntem in Ararī factendum cūrāvit*, Caesar provided for the construction of a bridge over the Arar;
- *imperator urbem militibus dīrīplendam concessit*, the general handed over the city to the soldiers to plunder.

9. For the Gerundive as the equivalent of the Gerund, see § 339, 1.

THE GERUND.

338. As a verbal noun the Gerund admits noun constructions as follows:

1. Genitive. The Genitive of the Gerund is used—

a) With Nouns, as Objective or Appositional Genitive (see §§ 200, 202); as,—
- *cupiditās dominandi*, desire of ruling;
- *ars scribendi*, the art of writing.

b) With Adjectives; as,—
- *cupidus audīendi*, desire of hearing.

c) With *causā, grātiā*; as,—
- *discedendi causā*, for the sake of learning.
2. **Dative.** The Dative of the Gerund is used —

a) With Adjectives; as, —

*qua utilis est bibendō, water is useful for drinking.*

b) With Verbs (rarely); as, —

*aedulis scribendō, I was present at the writing.*

3. **Accusative.** The Accusative of the Gerund is used only with Prepositions, chiefly *ad* and *in* to denote purpose; as, —

*homō ad agendum nātus est, man is born for action.*

4. **Ablative.** The Ablative of the Gerund is used —

a) Without a Preposition, as an Ablative of Means, Cause, etc. (see §§ 218, 219); as, —

*māns discendō altur et cogitandō, the mind is nourished by learning and reflection.*

*Themistocles maritimēs praedōnēs consoctandō mare tūtum reddidit, Themistocles made the sea safe by following up the pirates.*

b) After the prepositions *ā, dē, ex, in*; as, —

*summa voluptās ex discendō capitur, the keenest pleasure is derived from learning.*

*multa dē bene beātēque vivendō a Platōne disputāta sunt, there was much discussion by Plato on the subject of living well and happily.*

5. As a rule, only the Genitive of the Gerund and the Ablative (without a preposition) admit a Direct Object.

---

**Gerundive Construction instead of the Gerund.**

**339.** Instead of the Genitive or Ablative of the Gerund with a Direct Object, another construction *may be, and very often is, used.* This consists in putting the Direct Object in the case of the Gerund (Gen. or Abl.) and using the Gerundive in agreement with it. This is called the Gerundive Construction. Thus: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GERUND CONSTRUCTION.</th>
<th>GERUNDIVE CONSTRUCTION.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cupidūs urbem videndī, <em>desirous of seeing the city;</em></td>
<td>cupidūs urbis videndae;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēlector orātōrēs legendō, <em>I am charmed with reading the orators;</em></td>
<td>dēlector orātōribus legendae.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. The Gerundive Construction must be used to avoid a Direct Object with the Dative of the Gerund, or with a case dependent upon a Preposition; as,—

locus castrum munientis aptus, a place adapted to fortifying a camp;
ad pæcem petendum vénèrent, they came to ask peace;
multum temporis cónsu mó in legenda poëtís, I spend much time in reading the poets.

3. In order to avoid ambiguity (see § 236, 2), the Gerundive Construction must not be employed in case of Neuter Adjectives used substantively. Thus regularly—

philosophí cupídí sunt vērūm invēstigándī, philosophers are eager for discovering truth (rarely vērī invēstigándī);
studīum plūra cognōscendī, a desire of knowing more (not plūrīm cognōscendōrum).

4. From the nature of the case only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Gerundive Construction; but stor, fruor, fungor, potior (originally transitive) regularly admit it; as,—

hostēs in spem potiundōrum castrōrum vēnerant, the enemy had conceived the hope of gaining possession of the camp.

5. The Genitives mef, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, when used in the Gerundive Construction, are regularly employed without reference to Gender or Number, since they were originally Neuter Singular Adjectives used substantively. Thus:—

mulier suæ servandī causā auffīgit, the woman fled for the sake of saving herself;
légātī in castra vēnerunt suæ pūrgandī causā, the envoys came into camp for the purpose of clearing themselves.
So nostri servandī causā, for the sake of saving ourselves.

6. Occasionally the Genitive of the Gerundive Construction is used to denote purpose; as,—

quaes illustré lēgum ac lībertātis subvertundae, which he undertook for the purpose of overthrowing the laws and liberty.

7. The Dative of the Gerundive Construction occurs in some expressions which have the character of formulas; as,—

decemvīrī lēgibus scribēndī, decemvirs for codifying the laws;
quīdecemvīrī sacrīs faciūndī, quīdecemvirs for performing the sacrifices.
THE SUPINE.

340. 1. The Supine in -um is used after Verbs of motion to express

purpose; as,—

lēgātī ad Caesarem grātulātum convēnērunt, envoys came to Cae-
sar to congratulate him.

a. The Supine in -um may take an Object; as,—

pācem petītum ērātōrēs Rōmam mittunt, they send en-
voys to Rome to ask for peace.

b. Note the phrase: —

dō (collocō) filiam nūptum, I give my daughter in mar-
riage.

2. The Supine in -ā is used as an Ablative of Specification with

faciils, difficilis, incrēdibilis, jācundus, optimus, etc.; also with

fās est, nefās est, opus est; as,—

haec rēs est faciils cognītū, this thing is easy to learn;

hōō est optimum factū, this is best to do.

a. Only a few Supines in -ā are in common use, chiefly audītū,
cognītū, dīctū, factū, vīsū.

b. The Supine in -ā never takes an Object.

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CHAPTER VI. — Particles.

COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

341. Copulative Conjunctions. These join one word,

phrase, or clause to another.

1. a) et simply connects.

b) que joins more closely than et, and is used especially where

the two members have an internal connection with each
other; as,—

parentēs liberique, parents and children;
cum hominēs aedēs fabrique jactantur, when people are
tossed about with heat and fever.
c) atque (ac) usually emphasizes the second of the two things connected; — and also, and indeed, and in fact. After words of likeness and difference atque (ac) has the force of at, than. Thus:

ego idem sentio ac tū, I think the same as you;
haud aliter ac, not otherwise than.

d) neque (nec) means and not, neither, nor.

2. a) -que is an enclitic, and is appended always to the second of two words connected. Where it connects phrases or clauses it is appended to the first word of the second clause; but when the first word of the second clause is a Preposition, -que is regularly appended to the next following word; as,—
ob eamque rem, and on account of that thing.

b) atque is used before vowels and consonants; ac never before vowels, and seldom before e, g, qu.

c) et nōn is used for neque when the emphasis of the negative rests upon a special word; as,—
vetus et nōn ignōbilis orātor, an old and not ignoble orator.

d) For and nowhere, and never, and none, the Latin regularly said neō fasquam, nec unquam, nec illius, etc.

3. Correlatives. Copulative Conjunctions are frequently used correlativecally; as,—
et ... et, both ... and;
neque (nec) ... neque (nec), neither ... nor;
cum ... tum, while ... at the same time;
tum ... tum, not only ... but also.

Less frequently;—
et ... neque;  neque ... et.

a. Note that the Latin, with its tendency to emphasize antithetical relations, often uses correlatives, especially et ... et, et ... neque, neque ... et, where the English employs but a single connective.

4. In enumerations —

a) The different members of a series may follow one another without connectives (Asyndeton; see § 346). Thus;—
ex cupiditātibus odia, discidia, discordiae, sāditiōnēs,
bella nāscuntur, from covetous desires spring up hatred, dissensions, discord, sedition, wars.
Coordinate Conjunctions.

§ 342. Disjunctive Conjunctions indicate an alternative.
1. a) ut must be used when the alternatives are mutually exclusive; as,—
cita mors venit aut victoria laeta, (either) swift death or glad victory comes.

{\(\delta\) vel, -ve (enclitic) imply a choice between the alternatives; as,—
quid aether vel caelum nominatur, which is called aether or heaven.

2. Correlatives. Disjunctive Conjunctions are often used correlatively; as,—
aut . . . aut, either . . . or;
vel . . . vel, either . . . or;
sive . . . sive, if . . . . . . or if.

343. Adversative Conjunctions. These denote opposition.
1. a) sed, but, merely denotes opposition.
2. b) verum, but, is stronger than sed, but is less frequently used.
3. c) autem, but on the other hand, however, marks a transition.
   It is always post-positive.

Definition. A post-positive word is one that cannot begin a sentence, but is placed after one or more words.

4. d) at, but, is used especially in disputation, to introduce an opposing argument.
5. e) aequi means but yet.
6. f) tamen, yet, usually stands after the emphatic word, but not always.
7. g) vero, however, indeed, in truth, is always post-positive.
2. Note the correlative expressions:—
non solum (non modo) . . . sed etiam, not only . . . but also;
non modo non . . . sed ne . . . quidem, not only not, but not
even; as,—
non modo tibi non trascor, sed ne reprehendo quidem factum
tuum, I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even blames your action.

a. But when the sentence has but one verb, and this stands with the second
number, non modo may be used for non modo non; as,—
adsentistio non modo amici sed ne liber quidem digna
est. fatality is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a
free man.

344. Illative Conjunctions. These represent the statement which they introduce as following from or as in conformity with what has preceded.

1. a) itaque = and so, accordingly.

b) ergo = therefore, accordingly.

c) igitur (regularly post-positive) = therefore, accordingly.

2. Igitur is never combined with et, atque, -que, or neque.

345. Causal Conjunctions. These denote cause, or give an explanation. They are nam, namque, enim (post-positive), etenim, for.

346. Asyndeton. The conjunction is sometimes omitted between coordinate members, particularly in lively or impassioned narration. Thus:—

a) A Copulative Conjunction is omitted; as,—
avaritia infirma insatiabils est, avarice is boundless (and) insatiatile;

Cn. Pompejus, M. Crassus consulibus, in the consulship of
Gnaeus Pompey (and) Marcus Crassus.

The conjunction is regularly omitted between the names of
consuls when the praenomen (Marcus, Gaius, etc.) is expressed.

b) An Adversative Conjunction may be omitted; as,—
rationes defuereunt, ubertiis orationis non defuit, arguments were lacking, (but) abundance of words was not.

3 Except in Sallust and Silver Latin.
ADVERBS.

347. 1. The following particles, sometimes classed as Conjunctions, are more properly Adverbs:—

etiam, also, even.
quoque (always post-positive), also.
quidem (always post-positive) lays stress upon the preceding word.
   It is sometimes equivalent to the English *indeed, in fact,* but
   more frequently cannot be rendered, except by vocal emphasis.
nē ... quidem means *not even*; the emphatic word or phrase always
   stands between; as, nē ille quidem, *not even he.*
tamen and véro, in addition to their use as Conjunctions, are often
   employed as Adverbs.

2. Negatives. Two Negatives are regularly equivalent to an
   affirmative as in English, as nōn nānil, *some;* but when nōn, nāmō,
   nihil, numquam, *etc.,* are accompanied by nēque ... nēque, nōn
   ... nōn, nōn modo, or nē ... quidem, the latter particles simply
   take up the negation and emphasize it; as,—

   habeō hici nānil nēque amīcum nēque cognōntūm, *I have here
   no one, neither friend nor relative.*
nōn enim praetereaundum est nē id quidem, *for not even that must
   be passed by.*

   a. Haud in Cicero and Caesar occurs almost exclusively as a modifier
      of Adjectives and Adverbs, and in the phrase haud scīō an. Later
      writers use it freely with verbs.

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CHAPTER VII. — Word-Order and Sentence-Structure.

A. WORD-ORDER.

348. In the normal arrangement of the Latin sentence the
Subject stands at the beginning of the sentence, the
Predicate at the end; as,—

Dārus classem quingentārum nāvium comparāvit, *Darius got
ready a fleet of five hundred ships.*
349. But for the sake of emphasis the normal arrangement is often abandoned, and the emphatic word is put at the beginning, less frequently at the end of the sentence; as,—

magnus in hōc beliō Themistoclēs fuit, great was Themistocles in this war;
allud iter habēmus nūllum, other course we have none.

SPECIAL PRINCIPLES.

350. 1. Nouns. A Genitive or other oblique case regularly follows the word upon which it depends. Thus:—

a) Depending upon a Noun:—

tribūnus plēbis, tribune of the plebs;
filius rēgis, son of the king;
vīr magnī animī, a man of noble spirit.
Yet always senātūs consūltum, plēbis soūltum.

b) Depending upon an Adjective:—

ignārus rērum, ignorant of affairs;
dignī amīcitīō, worthy of friendship;
plūs aequō, more than (what is) fair.

2. Appositives. An Appositive regularly follows its Subject; as,—

Philippus, rēx Macedōnum, Philip, king of the Macedonians;
adsentōtīō, vītiōrum adjōtīō, flattery, promoter of evils.
Yet flōman Rīnōs, the River Rine; and always in good prose
urbs Rōmā, the city Rome.

3. The Vocative usually follows one or more words; as,—

audī, Caesar, hear, Caesar!

4. Adjectives. No general law can be laid down for the position of Adjectives. On the whole they precede the noun oftener than they follow it.

a. Adjectives of quantity (including numerals) regularly precede their noun; as,—

omnīs homīnēs, all men;
septingentae nāvēs, seven hundred vessels.
6. Note the force of position in the following:

media urbs, the middle of the city;
urbs media, the middle city;
extremum bellum, the end of the war;
bellum extremum, the last war.

c. Römānus and Latīnus regularly follow; as,—

senātus populusque Römānus, the Roman Senate and
People;
lūdi Römānī, the Roman games;
fēriae Latīnae, the Latin holidays.

d. When a Noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, a favorite order is: Adjective, Genitive, Noun; as,—

summa omnium rērum abundantia, the greatest abundance of all things.

5. Pronouns.

a. The Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns regularly precede the Noun; as,—

hic homō, this man;
ille homō, that man;
erant duo itineria, quibus itineribus, etc., there were two
routes, by which, etc.

quī homō? what sort of a man?

b. But ille in the sense of ‘that well known, ‘that famous,’ usually stands after its Noun; as,—

testula illa, that well-known custom of ostracism;
Mēdēs illa, that famous Medea.

c. Possessive and Indefinite Pronouns usually follow their
Noun; as,—

pater meus, my father;
homō quidam, a certain man;
mulier aliqua, some woman.

But for purposes of contrast the Possessive often precedes
its Noun; as,—

meus pater, my father (i.e. as opposed to yours, his, etc.).

d. Where two or more Pronouns occur in the same sentence, the Latin is fond of putting them in close proximity; as,—

nisi forte ego vōbis cessāre vīdeo, unless perchance I
seem to you to be doing nothing.
6. Adverbs and Adverbial phrases regularly precede the word they modify; as, —

\begin{itemize}
\item valde diligens, extremely diligent;
\item saepe dixi, I have often said;
\item tē jam diū hortāmur, we have long been urging you;
\item paulō post, a little after.
\end{itemize}

7. Prepositions regularly precede the words they govern.

a. But limiting words often intervene between the Preposition and its case; as, —

\begin{itemize}
\item dē commūnī hominum memorīā, concerning the common memory of men;
\item ad beātī vivendum, for living happily.
\end{itemize}

b. When a noun is modified by an Adjective, the Adjective is often placed before the preposition; as, —

\begin{itemize}
\item magnō in dolōre, in great grief;
\item summā cum laude, with the highest credit;
\item quā dē causā, for which cause;
\item hanc ob rem, on account of this thing.
\end{itemize}

c. For Anastrophe, by which a Preposition is put after its case, see § 144, 3.

8. Conjunctions. Autem, enim, and igitur regularly stand in the second place in the sentence, but when combined with est or sunt they often stand third; as, —

\begin{itemize}
\item ita est enim, for so it is.
\end{itemize}

9. Words or Phrases referring to the preceding sentence or to some part of it, regularly stand first; as, —

\begin{itemize}
\item id ut audīvit, Cōrcyrcām dēmigrāvit, when he heard that (referring to the contents of the preceding sentence), he moved to Cōrcyrcā;
\item eō cum Cæsar vēnisset, timentēs cōnfirmat, when Caesar had come thither (i.e. to the place just mentioned), he encouraged the timid.
\end{itemize}

10. The Latin has a fondness for putting side by side words which are etymologically related; as, —

\begin{itemize}
\item ut ad senem senex dē senectūte, sic hōo librō ad amīcōm amicissīmus dē amīcitātī scripsī, as I, an old man, wrote to an old man, on old age, so in this book, as a fond friend, I have written to a friend concerning friendship.
\end{itemize}
11. Special rhetorical devices for indicating emphasis are the following:—

a) **Hypérbaton**, which consists in the separation of words that regularly stand together; as,—

    septimus mihi *Origines* liber est in manibus, *the seventh book of my *Origines* is under way;*
    receptó Caesar *Öricó profìcìscitur*, *having recovered Öricus, Caesar set out.*

b) **Anáphora**, which consists in the repetition of the same word or the same word-order in successive phrases; as,—

    sed pléni omnēs sunt libri, plénæ sapientium vōcēs, 
    plénæ exemplōrum vetustōs, *but all books are full of it, the voices of sages are full of it, antiquity is full of examples of it.*

c) **Chiásme**¹, which consists in changing the relative order of words in two antithetical phrases; as,—

    multōs dēfēndi, laesi nēminem, *many have I defended, I have injured no one;*
    horribilēs illum diēm aliēs, nōbēs faustum, *that day dreadful to others, for us fortunate.*

d) **Synchérisis**, or the interlocked arrangement. This is mostly confined to poetry, yet occurs in rhetorical prose, especially that of the Imperial Period; as,—

    simulātam Pompejanārum grātiam partium, *pretended interest in the Pompeian party.*

12. **Metrical Close.** At the end of a sentence certain cadences were avoided; others were much employed. Thus:—

a) Cadences avoided.

    — ∴ ∴ ∴ ; as, *esse vīdētur* (close of hexameter).
    — ∴ ∴ ∴ ; as, *esse pōtest* (close of pentameter).

b) Cadences frequently employed.

    — ∴ ; as, *auxerant.*
    — ∴ — ∴ ; as, *comprobāvit.*
    — ∴ ∴ ∴ — ∴ ; as, *esse vīdētur.*
    ∴ — — ∴ ; as, *rogātā tuō.*

¹ So named from a fancied analogy to the strokes of the Greek letter X (Ϙ).
B. SENTENCE-STRUCTURE.

351. 1. Unity of Subject. — In complex sentences the Latin regularly holds to unity of Subject in the different members; as,—

Caesar primum suō, deinde omnium ex oculos cœli remōtīs equire, ut sequestrō periculō spera fugae tolleret, cohor-
tātus suōs proelium committit, Caesar having first removed his own horse from sight, then the horses of all, in order, by making the danger equal, to take away hope of flight, encouraged his men and joined battle.

2. A word serving as the common Subject or Object of the main clause and a subordinate one, stands before both; as,—

Haedui cum sē défendere nōn possent, légātōs ad Caesarem mittunt, since the Haedui could not defend themselves, they sent envoys to Caesar;

ille etiam flagrābat bollandī cupiditāte, tamen pācī servendum putāvit, although he was burning with a desire to fight, yet he thought he ought to aim at peace.

a. The same is true also

1) When the Subject of the main clause is Object (Direct or Indirect) of a subordinate clause; as,—

Caesar, cum hōc eī nūntiatum esset, mātīrāt ab urbe proficiscītur, when this had been reported to Caesar he hastened to set out from the city.

2) When the Subject of a subordinate clause is at the same time the Object (Direct or Indirect) of the main clause; as,—

L. Māniūs, cum dictātor fuisse, M. Pomponius tribūnus pābli diem dīxit, M. Pomponius, tribune of the people, instituted proceedings against Lucius Mānius though he had been dictator.

3. Of subordinate clauses, temporal, conditional, and adversative clauses more commonly precede the main clause; indirect questions and clauses of purpose or result more commonly follow; as,—

postquam hāc dīxit, profectus est, after he said this, he set out;
śī quis ita agat, imprudēns sit, if any one should act so, he would be devoid of foresight;
accidit ut unā nocte omnēs Hermae dēcœrentur, it happened that in a single night all the Hermae were thrown down.
4. Sometimes in Latin the main verb is placed within the subordinate clause; as,—

sī quid est in mē ingenī, quod sentiē quam sit exiguum, if there
is any talent in me, and I know how little it is.

5. The Latin Period. The term Period, when strictly used, designates a compound sentence in which the subordinate clauses are inserted within the main clause; as,—

Caesar estā intellegēbat quā dē causā ea dēcerentur, tamen, nē
aestātem in Trēverīs oōsāmero oōgerētur, Indutiamarum
ad sē venir jussit, though Caesar perceived why this was
said, yet, lest he should be forced to spend the summer among
the Trēverī, he ordered Indutiamarus to come to him.

In the Periodic structure the thought is suspended until the end of
the sentence is reached. Many Roman writers were extremely fond of
this sentence-structure, and it was well adapted to the inflectional
character of their language; in English we generally avoid it.

6. When there are several subordinate clauses in one Period, the
Latin so arranges them as to avoid a succession of verbs. Thus:—

At hostēs cum mēsēnt, quē, quae in castrēs gērentur, cog-
νεcerent, ubi sē dēcēptōs intellēxerent, omnibus cópiis
subsecūt ad flūmen contendunt, but the enemy when they
had sent men to learn what was going on in camp, after dis-
covering that they had been outwitted, followed with all their
forces and hurried to the river.

—

Chapter VIII.—Hints on Latin Style.

352. In this chapter brief consideration is given to
a few features of Latin diction which belong rather to
style than to formal grammar.

Nouns.

353. 1. Where a distinct reference to several persons or things is
involved, the Latin is frequently much more exact in the use of the
Plural than is the English; as,—
234

Syntax.

domōs eunt, *they go home* (*i.e. to their homes*);
Germānī corpora cūrant, *the Germans care for the body*;
animōs militum recreat, *he renew the courage of the soldiers*;
dieā noctēsque timēre, *to be in a state of fear day and night*.

2. In case of Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively
the Latin often employs the Plural where the English uses the Singu-
lar; as,—

omnia sunt perdita, *everything is lost*;
quaes cum ita sint, *since this is so*;
haec omni bus pervulgāta sunt, *this is very well known to all*.

3. The Latin is usually more concrete than the English, and espe-
sially less bold in the personification of abstract qualities. Thus:—

ā puero, *a youth*; a puérīs, *from boyhood*;
Sullā dictātōre, *in Sulla’s dictatorship*;
me duce, *under my leadership*;
Rōmānī cum Carthagīniēnsibus pācem fācērunt = *Rome made peace with Carthage*;
liber doctrinae plēnus = *a learned book*;
prāedentīs Themistoclis Graecia servāta est = *Themistocles’ foresight saved Greece*.

4. The Nouns of Agency in *-tor* and *-tor* (see § 147. 1) denote a
permanent or characteristic activity; as,—

acūsātōrēs (professional) accusers;
ōrātōrēs, *pleaders*;
cantōrēs, *singers*;
Arminius, Germānīae liberātor, *Arminius, liberator of Germany*.

a. To denote single instances of an action, other expressions are
commonly employed; as,—

Numa, qui Rōmulō successit, *Numa, successor of Romulus*;
qui mea legunt, *my readers*;
qui me audiant, *my auditors*.

5. The Latin avoids the use of prepositional phrases as modifiers of
a Noun. In English we say: *The war against Carthage*; *a journey
through Gaul*; *cities on the sea*; *the book in my hands*; *the fight
at Salamis*; etc. The Latin in such cases usually employs another
mode of expression. Thus:—

a) A Genitive; as,—
dolor injūriārum, *resentment at injuries*.
Hints on Style.

b) An Adjective; as,—
urbâs maritimae, cities on the sea;
pugna Salamãnia, the fight at Salamis.
c) A Participle; as,—
pugna ad Cannãs facta, the battle at Cannae.
d) A Relative clause; as,—
liber quip in meis manibus est, the book in my hands.

NOTE.—Yet within certain limits the Latin does employ Prepositional phrases as Noun modifiers. This is particularly frequent when the governing noun is derived from a verb. The following are typical examples:

transitus in Britanniam, the passage to Britain;
excessus e vitâ, departure from life;
odium ergã Rômânâs, hatred of the Romans;
liber dô senectûris, the book on old age;
amor in patriam, love for one's country.

ADJECTIVES.

354. 1. Special Latin Equivalents for English Adjectives are—

a) A Genitive; as,—
virtûs animi = moral virtues;
dolores corporis = bodily ills.

b) An Abstract Noun; as,—
novitãs rel = the strange circumstance;
asperitãs viárûm = rough roads.

c) Hendiadys (see § 374. 4); as,—
ratio et ordine = systematic order;
ardor et impetus = eager onset.

d) Sometimes an Adverb; as,—
omnes circã populî, all the surrounding tribes;
s Greeks semper hostem, their perpetual foes.

2. Often a Latin Noun is equivalent to an English Noun modified by an Adjective; as,—
doctrina, theoretical knowledge;
prudencia, practical knowledge;
oppidum, walled town;
libella, little book.
3. Adjectives are not used in immediate agreement with proper names; but an Adjective may limit *vir*, *homō*, *ille*, or some other word used as an Appositive of a proper name; as,—

Socratēs, homō sapiēns = the wise Socrates;
Sciāpō, vir fortissimus = the doughty Scipio;
Syrαcūsa, urbs praecellissima = famous Syracuse.

4. An Adjective may be equivalent to a Possessive or Subjective Genitive; as—
pāstor rēgii, the shepherd of the king;
tumultus servilis, the uprising of the slaves.

PRONOUNS.

355. In Compound Sentences the Relative Pronoun has a fondness for connecting itself with the subordinate clause rather than the main one; as,—

a quō cum quaeraserētur, quid maximē expediēret, respondit, *when it was asked of him what was best, he replied*. (Less commonly, quī, cum ab eō quaeraserētur, respondit.)

2. Uterque, ambō. Uterque means *each of two*; ambō means *both*; as,—

uterque frāter abīvit, *each of the two brothers departed* (*i.e.* separately);
ambō frātres abīrunt, *i.e.* the two brothers departed together.

a. The Plural of uterque occurs —

1) With Nouns used only in the Plural (see § 36); as,—
in utriquē castrīs, *in each camp*.

2) Where there is a distinct reference to two groups of persons or things; as,—

utriquē ducēs clārī fuērunt, *the generals on each side (several in number) were famous*.

VERBS.

356. 1. In case of Defective and Deponent Verbs, a Passive is supplied;—

a) By the corresponding verbal Nouns in combination with *esse*, etc.; as,—
in odio sumus, *we are hated*;
in invidiā sum, *I am envied*;
admirationem est, he is admired;
oblivione obruitur, he is forgotten (lit. is overwhelmed by
oblivion);

in falsa esse, to be used.

b) By the Passive of Verbs of related meaning. Thus: —
agitari as Passive of persequī;
temptari as Passive of adoriri.

2. The lack of the Perfect Active Participle in Latin is supplied —

a) Sometimes by the Perfect Passive Participle of the Depo-
nent; as,—
adhortatus, having exhorted;
veritus, having feared.

b) By the Ablative Absolute; as,—
hostium agris vástati Caesar exercitum reductit, hav-
ing ravaged the country of the enemy, Caesar led back
his army.

c) By subordinate clauses; as,—

'se cum adversisset, castra posuit, having arrived there,
he pitched a camp;

hostes quī in urbem irrupterant, the enemy having burst
into the city.

3. The Latin agrees with English in the stylistic employment of
the Second Person Singular in an indefinite sense (= 'one'). Cf.
the English 'You can drive a horse to water, but you can't make him
drink.' But in Latin this use is mainly confined to certain varieties of
the Subjunctive, especially the Potential (§ 280), Jussive (§ 275), De-
liberative (§ 277), and the Subjunctive in conditional sentences of the
sort included under § 302, 2, and 303. Examples: —

vidēre, you could see;
ūtāre viribus, use your strength;
quid hōc homine faciēs, what are you to do with this man?
mēns quoque et animus, nisi tamquam āminō oleum instillēs,
exstinguntur senectūte, the intellect and mind too are ex-
tinguished by old age, unless, so to speak, you keep pouring oil
into the lamp;

tantō amore possessionēs suas amplexi tenēbant, ut ab ęs
membra divellērī citius posse dicērēs, they clung to their pos-
sessions with such an affectionate embrace, that you would have
said their limbs could sooner be torn from their bodies.
PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.

357. 1. To denote 'so many years, etc., afterwards or before' the Latin employs not merely the Ablative of Degree of Difference with post and ante (see § 223), but has other forms of expression. Thus: —

post quinque annos, five years afterward;
paucos ante dies, a few days before;
ante quadriennium, four years before;
post diem quattuor quam ab urbe discesseramus, four days after
we had left the city;
ante tertium annum quam dixerat, three years before he had
died.

2. The Latin seldom combines both Subject and Object with the same Infinitive; as, —

Römänös Hannibalem vicisse constat.

Such a sentence would be ambiguous, and might mean either that the Romans had conquered Hannibal, or that Hannibal had conquered the Romans. Perspicuity was gained by the use of the Passive Infinitive; as, —

Römänös ab Hannibale victós esse constat, it is well established
that the Romans were defeated by Hannibal.

PECULIARITIES IN CONNECTION WITH THE USE OF THE DATIVE.

358. 1. The English for does not always correspond to a Dative notion in Latin, but is often the equivalent of pró with the Ablative, viz. in the senses —

a) In defense of; as, —

pró patriâ mori, to die for one's country.

b) Instead of, in behalf of; as, —

úsus pró omnibus dixit, one spoke for all;
haec pró légis dicta sunt, these things were said for the
law.

c) In proportion to; as, —

pró multitūdine hominum eōrum fines erant angustī,
for the population, their territory was small.
2. Similarly, English to when it indicates motion is rendered in Latin by ad.

   a. Note, however, that the Latin may say either sorber ad aliquem, or sorber alii, according as the idea of motion is or is not predominant. So in several similar expressions.

3. In the poets, verbs of mingling with, contending with, joining, clinging to, etc., sometimes take the Dative. This construction is a Grecism. Thus:

   aē misceτ virs, he mingles with the men;
   contendis Homārō, you contend with Homer;
   dextrae dextram jungere, to clasp hand with hand.

PECULARITIES IN THE USE OF THE GENITIVE

359. 1. The Possessive Genitive gives emphasis to the possessor, the Dative of Possessor emphasizes the fact of possession; as, —

   hortus patris est, the garden is my father's;
   mihi hortus est, I possess a garden.

2. The Latin can say either stultif or stultum est dicere, it is foolish to say; but Adjectives of one ending permit only the Genitive; as, —

   sapientis est haec aœcum reputāre, it is the part of a wise man to consider this.
PART VI.

PROSODY.

360. Prosody treats of metres and versification.

361. Latin Verse. Latin Poetry was essentially different in character from English. In our own language, poetry is based upon accent, and poetical form consists essentially in a certain succession of accented and unaccented syllables. Latin poetry, on the other hand, was based not upon accent, but upon quantity, so that with the Romans poetical form consisted in a certain succession of long and short syllables, i.e. of long and short intervals of time.

This fundamental difference in the character of English and Latin poetry is a natural result of the difference in character of the two languages. English is a strongly accented language, in which quantity is relatively subordinate. Latin, on the other hand, was a quantitative language, in which accent was relatively subordinate.

QUANTITY OF VOWELS AND SYLLABLES.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

362. The general principles for the quantity of vowels and syllables have been given above in § 5. The following peculiarities are to be noted here:—

1. A vowel is usually short when followed by another vowel (§ 5, A. 2), but the following exceptions occur:—
Quantity of Vowels and Syllables.

241

a) In the Genitive termination -us (except alterius); as, illius, tòtius. Yet the i may be short in poetry; as, illius, tòtius.

b) In the Genitive and Dative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diēf, acīf. But fidōf, rēf, spēf (§ 52, 1).

c) In plō, excepting fit and forms where i is followed by er. Thus: glōbam, flōt, flōnt; but flōr, flōren.

d) In a few other words, especially words derived from the Greek; as, dīus, Aeneās, Dārius, hērōes, etc.

2. A diphthong is usually long (§ 5. B. 2), but the preposition prae in composition is often shortened before a vowel; as, præsæcütus.

3. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants (§ 5. B. 2) is long, even when one of the consonants is in the following word; as, terret populum. Occasionally the syllable is long when both consonants are in the following word; as, prō segētē sploās.

4. Compounds of jacō, though written incitāt, acīcāt, etc., have the first syllable long, as though written inj-, adj-.

5. Before i, ā and ē made a long syllable, e.g. in major, pejor, ejus, ejusdom, Pompejus, rejēcit, etc. These were pronounced, mai-jor, pei-jor, ei-jus, Pompej-jus, rejēc-it, etc. So also sometimes before i, e.g. Pompe-i, pronounced Pompe-i; re-iciō, pronounced re-iciō.

Quantity of Final Syllables.

A. Final Syllables ending in a Vowel.

363. 1. Final a is mostly short, but is long:

a) In the Ablative Singular of the First Declension; as, portā.

b) In the Imperative; as, laudā.

c) In indeclinable words (except itā, quiā); as, trīgīntā, contra, postēa, interēa, etc.

2. Final e is usually short, but is long:

a) In the Ablative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diēs, rēs; hence hodīs, quārēs. Here belongs also famē (§ 59. 2. b).

b) In the Imperative of the Second Conjugation; as, monē, habē, etc.; yet occasionally cavē, valē.

c) In Adverbs derived from Adjectives of the Second Declension, along with ferē and fermē. Bonē, melē, temerē, saepē have e.

d) In dēs, mēs, tēs, sēs, nē (not, lest), nē (verily).
Prosody.

3. Final i is usually long, but is short in nial and quasi. Mibi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi, have regularly i, but sometimes ī; yet always ibīdem, ibīque, ubīque.

4. Final o is regularly long, but is short —
   a) In egō, duō, modō (only), citō.
   b) Rarely in the First Person Singular of the Verb, and in Nominatives of the Third Declension; as, amō, iēō.
   c) In a few compounds beginning with the Preposition pro, especially before f; as prōfundere, prōficisci, prōfugere.

5. Final u is always long.

B. Final Syllables ending in a Consonant.

364. 1. Final syllables ending in any other consonant than s are short. The following words, however, have a long vowel: sāi, sōl, Lār, pār, vēr, fūr, dūc, dūc, ēn, nōn, quīn, sīn, sīc, cūr, hīc
   (thīr). Also adverbs in e; as, hīc, hūc, iātō, iliūc, etc.

2. Final syllables in -as are long; as, terrās, amās.

3. Final syllables in -es are regularly long; but are short —
   a) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of dental stems (§ 33) of the Third Declension which have a short penult in the Genitive; as, segēs (segetis), obsēs (obsidis), mīlēs, dīvēs. But a few have -ēs; vēr, pōs, ariēs, abīēs, parīēs.
   b) In ēs (thou art), penēs.

4. Final -os is usually long, but short in ōs (oasis), compōs.

impōs.

5. Final -is is usually short, but is long —
   a) In Plurals; as, portīs, hortīs, nōbīs, vōbīs, nōbīs (Acc.).
   b) In the Second Person Singular Perfect Subjunctive Active, as amāverīs, monuerīs, audīverīs, etc. Yet occasional exceptions occur.
   c) In the Second Person Singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation; as, audīs.
   d) In vīs, force; īs, thou goest; sīs; sēs; vēlīs; nōlīs; vīs, thou wilt (māvīs, quamvīs, quīvīs, etc.).

6. Final -us is usually short, but is long —
   a) In the Genitive Singular and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural of the Fourth Declension; as, frūctūs.

1 Rarely hīc.
0) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of those nouns of the Third Declension in which the u belongs to the stem; as, 
palus (-ūdis), servitūs (-ūtis), tellūs (-ūris).

365. Greek Nouns retain in Latin their original quantity; as, 
Aenēs, epítomē, Délos, Pallas, Simōs, Salamis, Dídǐs, Parīs, 
Ær, æther, orātor, hērōs. Yet Greek nouns in -op regularly 
shorten the vowel of the final syllable; as, rhōsōr, Hēctōr.

VERSE-STRUCTURE.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

366. 1. The metrical unit in versification is a short syllable, techn- 
cically called a mora (☉). A long syllable (☉) is regarded as equiva-
 lent to two morae.

2. A Foot is a group of syllables. The following are the most 
important kinds of fundamental feet:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feet of Three Morae</th>
<th>Feet of Four Morae</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>☉ ☉ Trochee.</td>
<td>☉ ☉ ☉ Dactyl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☉ Iambus.</td>
<td>☉ ☉ ☉ Anapaest.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. A Verse is a succession of feet.

4. The different kinds of verses are named Trochaic, Iambic, Dac-
tylic, Anapaestic, according to the foot which forms the basis of their 
structure.

5. Ictus. In every fundamental foot the long syllable naturally re-
ceives the greater prominence. This prominence is called iictus. It is 
denoted thus: ☉ ☉ ☉ ☉ ☉.

6. Thesis and Arsia. The syllable which receives the Ictus is 
called the thesis; the rest of the foot is called the arsia.

7. Elision. Final syllables ending in a vowel, a diphthong, or -m 
are regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or h. In 
reading, we ordinarily omit the elided syllable entirely. Probably the 
ancients slurred the words together in some way. This may be indi-
cated as follows: corpore in iūs; mūltum ille et; mūnstrum hor-
rendum; causae īrārum.

a. Omission of elision is called Hiatus. It occurs especially before and 
after monosyllabic Interjections; as, Ī et præsidium.

---

1 Ictus was not accent,—neither stress accent nor musical accent,—but was 
simply the quantitative prominence inherent in a long syllable.
8. The ending of a word within a foot is called a Caesura (cutting). Every verse usually has one prominent caesura. The ending of a word and foot together within the verse is called a diaeresis.

9. Verses are distinguished as Catalectic or Acatalectic. A Catalectic verse is one in which the last foot is not complete, but lacks one or more syllables; an Acatalectic verse has its last foot complete.

10. At the end of a verse a slight pause occurred. Hence the final syllable may be either long or short (syllaba anceps), and may terminate in a vowel or m, even though the next verse begins with a vowel.

11. Iambic, Trochaic, and Anapaestic verses are further designated as dimeter, trimeter, tetrameter, according to the number of dipodies (pairs of feet) which they contain. Dactylic verses are measured by single feet, and are designated as tetrameter, pentameter, hexameter, accordingly.

SPECIAL PECULIARITIES.

387. 1. Synizesis (Synaeresis). Two successive vowels in the interior of a word are often united into a long syllable; as, —

aureis, deinde, anteire, decepe.

2. Diastole. A syllable usually short is sometimes long; as, —

vidit, audit.

3. Santono. A syllable usually long is sometimes short; as, —

stetetitur.

a. Diastole and Systole are not mere arbitrary processes. They usually represent an earlier pronunciation which had passed out of vogue in the ordinary speech.

4. After a consonant, t and u sometimes become j and v. The preceding syllable then becomes long; as, —

abjete for abiete; genua for genua.

5. Sometimes v becomes u; as, —

silva for silva; dissolvit for dissolvit.

6. Sometimes a verse has an extra syllable. Such a verse is called an Hyporhyme. The extra syllable ends in a vowel or -m, and is united with the initial vowel or h of the next verse by Synpbéia. Thus: —

. . . . . . . . . . iguari hominumque locorumque e~

erramus.
7. **Tmesis** (cutting). Compound words are occasionally separated into their elements; as,—

quō mē cunque rapiit tempestās, for quēsouque, etc.

8. **Syncope.** A short vowel is sometimes dropped between two consonants; as,—

repōstus for repōsitus.

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**THE DACTYLC HEXAMETER.**

388. 1. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. But in all the feet except the fifth, a spondee (—) may take the place of the dactyl. The sixth foot may be either a spondee or a trochee, since the final syllable of a verse may be either long or short (syllaba anepæ). The following represents the scheme of the verse:

\[ \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\]  

2. Sometimes we find a spondee in the fifth foot. Such verses are called Spondaic. A dactyl usually stands in the fourth place, and the fifth and sixth feet are generally made up of a quadrasyllable; as,—

arma virumque canō circumpcēt Ὅρηνα

cāra deum subolās, magnum Jovis incrēmentum.

3. **Caesura.**

a) The favorite position of the caesura in the Dactylic Hexameter is after the thesis of the third foot; as,—

arma virumque canō || Trōjae qui prīmus ab ōrōs.

b) Less frequently the caesura occurs after the thesis of the fourth foot, usually accompanied by another in the second foot; as,—

inde torō || pater Aenēs || aōs ōrōs ab altō est.

c) Sometimes the caesura occurs between the two short syllables of the third foot; as,—

ō pass ī graviōra || dabit deus hīs quoque finem.

This caesura is called Feminine, as opposed to the caesura after a long syllable, which is called Masculine (as under a and b).
d) A pause sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot. This is called the Bucolic Diacesis, as it was borrowed by the Romans from the Bucolic poetry of the Greeks. Thus:—
\[
\text{silatitium pecorí défendite; } \| \text{ jam venit aestás.}
\]

**DACTYLIC PENTAMETER.**

369. 1. The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts, each of which contains two dactyls, followed by a long syllable. Spondees may take the place of the dactyls in the first part, but not in the second. The long syllable at the close of the first half of the verse always ends a word. The scheme is the following:—

\[
\underbrace{\big/ \big/} \big/ \big/ \big/ \big/ \big/
\]

2. The Pentameter is never used alone, but only in connection with the Hexameter. The two arranged alternately form the so-called Elegiac Distich. Thus:—

\[
\text{Vergilium vidít tautum, nec amárä Tibulló}
\]

\[
\text{Tempus amicitiae fátæ dedere meae.}
\]

**IAMBIC MEASURES.**

370. 1. The most important Iambic verse is the *Iambic Triometer* (§ 366. 11), called also *Senarius.* This is an accented verse. It consists of six Iambi. Its pure form is:—

\[
\big/ \big/ \big/ \big/ \big/ \big/
\]

\[
\text{Beátus ille qui procul négátis.}
\]

The Caesura usually occurs in the third foot; less frequently in the fourth.

2. In place of the Iambus, a *Tribrach* \((\big/ \big/ \big/\big/ \big/ \big/)\) may stand in any foot but the last. In the odd feet (first, third, and fifth) may stand a Spondee, Dactyl, or Anapaest, though the last two are less frequent. Sometimes a *Proceleusmatic* \((\big/ \big/ \big/)\) occurs.

3. In the Latin comic writers, Plautus and Terence, great freedom is permitted, and the various equivalents of the Iambus, *vit.* the Dactyl, Anapaest, Spondee, Tribrach, Proceleusmatic, are freely admitted in any foot except the last.
SUPPLEMENTS TO THE GRAMMAR.

I. JULIAN CALENDAR.

371. 1. The names of the Roman months are: Januarius, Februarius, Martius, Aprilis, Majus, Iunius, Julius (Quintilia1 prior to 46 B.C.), Augustus (Sextilia1 before the Empire), September, October, November, December. These words are properly Adjectives in agreement with mensis understood.

2. Dates were reckoned from three points in the month: —
   a) The Calends, the first of the month.
   b) The Nones, usually the fifth of the month, but the seventh
      in March, May, July, and October.
   c) The Ides, usually the thirteenth of the month, but the fifteenth
      in March, May, July, and October.

3. From these points dates were reckoned backward; consequently all days after the Ides of any month were reckoned as so many days before the Calends of the month next following.

4. The day before the Calends, Nones, or Ides of any month is designated as pridi Kalendae, Nonae, Idae. The second day before was designated as die tertio ante Kalendae, Nonae, etc. Similarly the third day before was designated as die quartio, and so on. These designations are arithmetically inaccurate, but the Romans reckoned both ends of the series. The Roman numeral indicating the date is therefore always larger by one than the actual number of days before Nones, Ides, or Calends.

5. In indicating dates, the name of the month is added in the form of an Adjective agreeing with Kalendae, Nonae, Idae. Various forms of expression occur, of which that given under 4) is most common: —
   a) die quinto ante Idae Martiae;
   b) quinto ante Idae Martiae;
   c) quinto (V) Idae Martiae;
   d) ante diem quintum Idae Martiae.

1 Originally the Roman year began with March. This explains the names Quintilia, Sextilia, September, etc., fifth month, sixth month, etc.
Supplements to the Grammar.

6. These designations may be treated as nouns and combined with the prepositions in, ad, ex; as,—

ad ante diem IV Kalendās Octōbrēs, up to the 28th of September.

ex ante diem quintum Ídūs Octōbrēs, from the 11th of October.

7. In leap year the 25th was reckoned as the extra day in February. The 24th was designated as ante diem VI Kalendās Mártiās, and the 25th as ante diem bis VI Kal. Márt.

372.

## CALENDAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days of the Month</th>
<th>March, May, July, October</th>
<th>January, August, December</th>
<th>April, June, September, November</th>
<th>February</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>KALENDIUS</td>
<td>KALENDIUS</td>
<td>KALENDIUS</td>
<td>KALENDIUS</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>VI. Nōnās</td>
<td>IV. Nōnās</td>
<td>IV. Nōnās</td>
<td>IV. Nōnās</td>
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<td>III. &quot;</td>
<td>III. &quot;</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>IV. &quot;</td>
<td>Prīdiē Nōnās</td>
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<td>Prīdiē Nōnās</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>Nōnās</td>
<td>Nōnās</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Prīdiē Nōnās</td>
<td>VIII. Ídūs</td>
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<td>VIII. Ídūs</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<td>VII. &quot;</td>
<td>VII. &quot;</td>
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<td>VIII. Ídūs</td>
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<td>ÍMbris</td>
<td>ÍMbris</td>
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<td>XIX. Kalend.</td>
<td>XVIII. Kalend.</td>
<td>XVI. Kalend.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>ÍMbris</td>
<td>XV. &quot;</td>
<td>XVII. &quot;</td>
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<td>X. &quot;</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>XVI. &quot;</td>
<td>IX. &quot;</td>
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<td>XI. &quot;</td>
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<td>23</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>IX. &quot;</td>
<td>III. &quot;</td>
<td>III. &quot;</td>
<td>III. &quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>VIII. &quot;</td>
<td>Prīdiē Kalend.</td>
<td>(Enclosed forms are for leap-year.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
II. PROPER NAMES.

373. 1. The name of a Roman citizen regularly consisted of three parts: the praenōmen (or given name), the nōmen (name of the gens or clan), and the cognōmen (family name). Such a typical name is exemplified by Mārcus Tullius Cioerō, in which Mārcus is the praenōmen, Tullius the nōmen, and Cioerō the cognōmen. Sometimes a second cognōmen (in later Latin called an agnōmen) is added—especially in honor of military achievements; as,—

Gāius Cornēlius Scipió Áfricānus.

2. ABBREVIATIONS OF PROPER NAMES.

C. = Gāius.  P. = Pāblius.
Cn. = Gnaeus.  Q. = Quintus.
D. = Decimus.  Sex. = Sextus.
M. = Mārcus.  T. = Titus.
M'. = Mānius.  Ti. = Tiberius.

III. FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC.

A. Figures of Syntax.

374. 1. Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words; as,—

quid multa, why (should I say) much?

2. Brachylogy is a brief or condensed form of expression; as,—

ut aegre cultūra fructus esse nōn potest, aēre aēre doc-
trīnā animus, as a field cannot be productive without cultiva-
tion, so the mind (cannot be productive) without learning.

Special varieties of Brachylogy are—

a) Zeugma, in which one verb is made to stand for two; as,—

minūs aut blandimenta corrupta = (terrified) by threats
or corrupted by flattery.

b) Compendiary Comparison, by which a modifier of an
object is mentioned instead of the object itself; as,—

dissimilē erat Charēs eōrum et factūs et mōribus, lit.
Charēs was different from their conduct and character;
ī.e. Charēs’s conduct and character were different, etc.
3. Pléonasms is an unnecessary fullness of expression; as, —
    prius praedcam, lit. I will first say in advance.

4. Hendadys (ἐν δύο ὀνόματι, one through two) is the use of two
nouns joined by a conjunction, in the sense of a noun modified by a
Genitive or an Adjective; as,—
    febris et aestus, the heat of fever;
    celeritatis cursaque, by swift running.

5. Prolépsis, or Anticipation, is the introduction of an epithet
in advance of the action which makes it appropriate; as,—
    submersa orbis puppes, lit. overwhelm their submerged ships,
    i.e. overwhelm and sink their ships.
    a. The name Prolépsis is also applied to the introduction of a noun
or pronoun as object of the main clause where we should expect
it to stand as subject of a subordinate clause. Thus: —
    noster Marcellum quam tardus sit, you know how slow
    Marcellus is (lit. you know Marcellus, how slow he is).
Both varieties of Prolépsis are chiefly confined to poetry.

6. Anacoluthon is a lack of grammatical consistency in the con-
struction of the sentence; as,—
    tum Anul fill . . . impensius est indignitas crescere, then the sons
    of Ansus . . . their indignation increased all the more.

7. Býsteron Próteron consists in the inversion of the natural
order of two words or phrases; as,—
    moriamur et in media arma raímus = let us rush into the midst of
    arms and die.

B. Figures of Rhetoric.

375. 1. Idotes (literally softening) is the expression of an idea
by the denial of its opposite; as,—
    haud parum labóris, no little toil (i.e. much toil);
    nōn ignōrō, I am not ignorant (i.e. I am well aware).

2. Oxynóron is the combination of contradictory conceptions;
    as,—
    sāpiēns insānius, wise folly.

3. Alliteratio is the employment of a succession of words
presenting frequent repetition of the same letter (mostly initial);
    as, sānsim sine sānsū aetās senēcit.

4. Onomatopēsia is the simulating of sound to sense; as,—
    quadrupedante putrem sonitus quatit uggula campum, 'And shake
    with horny hoofs the solid ground.'
INDEX TO THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS.

Notes. — Compounds are not given unless they present some special irregularity. The references are to sections.

A.
ascendō, 122, 1, 4.
ascendiō, 122, III.
assenior, 123, VII.
assuefactō, 122, III.
assuētūdō, 122, III.
assūlō, 122, I, 4.
attribute, 121, III.
attulus, 125.
ācedō, 125.
ācēcō, 123, I, 4.
ācēdā, 123, I, 4.
āccidō, 121, I, 8.
āccipium, 122, III.
ācquirō, 122, I, 6.
ācuit, 122, II.
ādīō, 122, I, 2.
adidentem, 122, IV, 2.
adimino, 122, V.
adīnēscō, 122, IV, 1.
adsum, 125.
adversō, 123, IV.
affertō, 120.
afficēs, 122, III.
affligō, 122, I, 1, 2.
aginosco, 122, IV, 1.
aggiō, 122, I, 5.
agō, 122, I, 5.
alignō, 122, III.
ālō, 122, I, 5.
alērō, 123, III.
alērō, 120, I.
amō, 120, I.
amplificō, 122, V.
angō, 122, I, 7.
aperitō, 123, II.
apīēscō, 122, I, 6.
ārēscō, 122, I, 6.
ārēsō, 121, III.
ārēsō, 122, IV, 2.
arguēs, 122, II.

B.
ascendō, 122, I, 4.
aspicō, 122, III.
assentō, 123, VII.
assuefactō, 122, III.
assuētūdō, 122, III.
assūlō, 122, I, 4.
āsīcrēscō, 120.
āugeō, 121, III.
avēō, 121, II, 4, N, 2.

C.
cado, 122, I, 2.
cæcodō, 122, I, 2.
caelefactō, 122, III.
caelestō, 122, III.
caēsō, 121, I, 4.
calēscō, 122, IV, 2.
camō, 122, I, 2.
capessō, 122, I, 6.
capiō, 122, III.
careō, 121, II, a.
carpō, 122, I, 1, 4.
caveō, 121, V.
cedeō, 122, I, 1, 4.
cēnscō, 121, II, 4.
cēnscō, 121, II, 6.
cēnscō, 121, II, 6.
cēsō, 122, I, 6.
cēsō, 121, I.
ċīngō, 122, I, 1, 2.
circumscindō, 122, I, 2.
cludō, 122, I, 1, 4.
cludō, 122, I, 7.
cludō, 122, I, 7.
cōnscō, 122, I, 3.
cōncrēscō, 122, I, 2.
cognōscō, 122, IV, 1.
cōgō, 122, I, 3.
cō岭ō, 122, I, 3.
comō, 122, I, 5.
comminuēscō, 122, V.
comperīō, 123, V.
compleō, 121, I.
concussō, 122, III.
condisō, 122, I, 2.
cōnferō, 129.
cōnfinō, 121, VII.
cōnfrēscō, 122, IV, 2.
cōnservō, 122, I, 5.
cōnservō, 122, I, 6 (plant).
cōnsīdō, 129, I, 4.
cōnsulō, 122, I, 2.
cōnsipō, 122, III.
cōnsulat, 130, III.
cōstituō, 122, II.
cōnsuēscō, 122, IV, 1.
cōnsulō, 122, I, 5.
cōnspicō, 121, II, 4.
cōntingit, 130, III.
cōquō, 122, I, 1, a.
crepō, 120, II.
crēscō, 122, IV, 1.
cubō, 120, II.
cupio, 122, III.
curtō, 122, I, 2.

dēbere, 121, II, a.
dēcernō, 122, I, 6.
decret, 123, II.
dēdecet, 128, II.
dēdō, 122, I, 2.
dēfendō, 122, I, 4.
dēlēō, 121, I.
dēligō, 122, I, 3.
The references are to sections.

fero, 122, VI.
figo, 122, I, 1, 8.
findo, 122, I, 5.
finig, 122, I, 1, a.
flato, 131.
flecto, 122, I, 7, 8.
floco, 122, I.
floco, 122, II, a, N, 1.
fleco, 122, II.
flecio, 122, IV, 2.
folio, 122, III.
foveo, 122, V.
frango, 122, I, 9.
frumo, 122, I, 5.
frico, 122, II.
frigeo, 122, II, a, N, 1.
fruor, 122, V.
frigo, 122, III.
fucio, 123, III.
fugio, 122, III.
fugio, 122, III.
fugio, 122, I, 3.
fugio, 122, I, 5.
fugio, 122, V.
funro, 122, II, 1.

H.
habeo, 122, II, a.
hardeo, 121, III.
haedro, 121, III.
horreo, 121, II, a, N, 1.

I.
ignoscio, 123, IV, 1.
ilicio, 122, II, 5.
imunic, 122, II, 5.
iminico, 122, II, a, N, 2.
implico, 121, I, 8.
implico, 122, II.
incipio, 122, II, 5.
incumbio, 122, I, 5.
indulgeo, 122, II.
induo, 122, II.
infiero, 122.

L.
Elhor, 122, V.
jaecio, 122, I, 6.
lado, 122, I, 7.
lambo, 122, I, 7.
lango, 123, VII.
laoro, 122, II, a, N, 1.
lavo, 122, III.
legio, 122, I, 3.
ilo, 123, II.
ilbico, 122, II, 9.
linio, 122, I, 9.
loquio, 122, V.
lucio, 122, II, 1.
ludio, 122, III.
ludo, 122, II.

M.
maecio, 122, II, a, N, 2.
malo, 130.
mane, 121, III.
materioso, 122, IV, 3.
mademo, 121, VII.
memoni, 133.
merio, 121, II, a.
mereo, 121, VII.
mergo, 122, I, 1, a.
metio, 123, VII.
metudo, 122, II.
mido, 120, II.
minuo, 122, II.
imicio, 122, II.

J.
jaeco, 121, II, a.
jaeco, 121, III.
jubeo, 121, III.
junto, 122, I, 7.
juno, 120, III.

E.
xiolo, 122, I, 2.
edo, 122, I, 3.
esoro, 129.
eflugo, 122, III.
egno, 121, II, a, N, 1.
etino, 122, IIII.
actino, 121, II, a, N, 1.
eto, 122, I, 3.
eto, 130.
emolo, 123, VI.
emulo, p, 87, footnote.
evironco, 122, IV, 3.
exculo, 122, I, 5.
exculo, 122, I, 4.
excerio, 121, II, a.
experio, 123, VII.
explico, 121, I, N.
exnisco, 120, I.
exnisco, p, 87, footnote.
exnisco, 122, IV, 2.

F.
flexo, 122, III.
fulo, 122, I, 2.
fato, 121, VII.
favio, 121, V.
fero, 123, VI.
fero, 129.

In.
ingisco, 122, IV, 2.
insumo, 125.
interlego, 122, I, 3.
interfisco, 122, 111.
temisum, 122.
invanso, p, 87, footnote.
invento, 123, IV.
Irascor, 122, V.

I.
jaeco, 121, II, a.
jaeco, 121, III.
juco, 122, III.
juco, 121, III.
junto, 122, I, 7.
juno, 120, III.

L.
Elhor, 122, V.
jaeco, 122, I, 6.
lado, 122, I, 7.
lalo, 122, I, 7.
lango, 123, VII.
laro, 122, II, a, N, 1.
lavo, 122, III.
legio, 122, I, 3.
ilo, 123, II.
ilbico, 122, II, 9.
linio, 122, I, 9.
loquio, 122, V.
lucio, 122, II, 1.
ludo, 122, II.

M.
maecio, 122, II, a, N, 2.
malo, 130.
mane, 121, III.
materioso, 122, IV, 3.
mademo, 121, VII.
memoni, 133.
merio, 121, II, a.
mereo, 121, VII.
mergo, 122, I, 1, a.
metio, 123, VII.
metudo, 122, II.
mido, 120, II.
minuo, 122, II.
imicio, 122, II.
of the Most Important Verbs.

The references are to sections.

miséręt, 138, II.
miseror, 121, VII.
minős, 122, I, 1, a.
molų, 122, I, 5.
moneō, 121, II, a.
mordō, 121, IV.
movior, 122, V.
movō, 121, V.

N.
nanciscor, 122, V.
nascor, 122, V.
nectō, 122, I, 1, a.
neglegō, 122, I, 3.
ningō, 138, I.
nincō, 121, II, a, N, I.
nitor, 122, V.
nescō, 121, II, a.
nōō, 130.
nūscō, 122, IV, I.
nūbō, 122, I, 1, a.

O.
obdūnēscō, 122, IV, 3.
obinō, 122, I, 6.
obivisscor, 122, V.
obivitisescō, 122, IV, 3.
oblīrō, 122, II.
obluisciscō, 122, IV, 1.
obūm, 125.
obūmēscō, 121, II, à.
obītō, 133.
offerō, 129.
oleō, 121, II, a, N, 1.
opereō, 121, II.
oportēt, 128, II.
opperilōr, 123, VII.
oeirō, 123, VII.

P.
pacenēt, 138, II.
pacēt, 121, II, a, N, 1.
pandō, 122, I, 4.
parēscō, 122, I, 2.
pārē, 121, II, a.
pārō, 122, III.
pāsē, 122, IV, 1.
pāsēscō, 122, IV, 1.

Q.
quaeō, 122, I, 6.
quaētō, 122, II, 1.
queror, 122, V.
quīēscō, 122, IV, 1.

R.
rādō, 122, I, 1, a.
rapīō, 122, III.
reclō, 122, I, a.
redimō, 120, I, 3.
referō, 123, III.
referō, 129.
refrēt, 138, I.
refō, 122, I, 1, a.
relinquō, 122, 1, 3.
rememiscor, 122, V.
remō, 121, VII.
reperīō, 121, V.
rēpū, 122, I, 1, a.
residō, 122, 1, 2.
respuō, 122, II.
resignāvī, p. 87, footnote.
resingē, 121, II, à.

S.
saeptō, 123, III.
sālō, 123, II.
sanciō, 123, III.
sapiō, 122, II.
sācās, 123, III.
scindō, 122, I, 2, N.
scribes, 122, IV, 2.
scribō, 122, I, 1, a.
sculpō, 122, I, 1, a.
sectō, 120, II.

seē, 121, V.
seinō, 123, III.
sepēriō, 123, V.
sequor, 122, V.
sectō, 122, I, 6.
serīō, 122, I, 1, a.
sīsē, 121, II, a, N.
sīscō, 122, I, 6.
solvō, 122, I, 4.
sōnō, 120, II.
sponō, 122, I, 1, à.
spremō, 122, I, 6.
spēndētō, 121, II, a, N, 1.
spondēs, 121, IV.
stanō, 122, II.
sterō, 122, I, 6.

stingē, 122, I, 1, a.
Index to the Most Important Verbs.

The references are to sections.

vūdō, 122, I, 1, 6.
valō, 121, II, i.
vulō, 122, I, 1, a.
veiō, 122, I, 4.
vereō, 123, IV.
vercōr, 121, VII.
vergō, 122, I, 7.
verēō, 122, I, 4.
vereō, 122, I, 4.
vescō, 122, V.
verō, 120, II.
videō, 121, V.
vigeō, 121, II, a, N. 1.
vincō, 123, III.
vincō, 122, I, 3.
vincō, 121, II, a, N. 1.
vibō, 122, I, 4.
vibō, 122, I, 4.
voiō, 130.
voiō, 122, I, 4.
vomō, 122, I, 5.
vocō, 121, V.

vexō, 122, I, 5.
tincō, 121, II, a.
tincēt, 138, II.
tullō, 122, I, 2, N.
tonāt, 138, I.
tondeō, 121, IV.
toneō, 120, II.
toneō, 121, II, a, N. 1.
toneō, 121, II, a.
tūdō, 122, I, 2.
tūdō, 122, I, 1, a.
tūnō, 122, I, 5.
tūbō, 122, II.
tūbō, 122, I, 1, a.
tucōr, 121, VII.
tunō, 122, I, 2.

u, utiō, 122, V.
tinguō, 122, I, 1, a.
tinguō, 121, III.
tōdō, 122, I, 1, a.
ubōr, 122, V.

stādō, 120, IV.
strepō, 122, I, 5.
stridō, 121, VI.
stringō, 122, I, a.
strīō, 122, II.
strēdō, 121, II, a.
strīdō, 121, III.
strīgō, 122, I, 3.
strīsum, 125.
strīm, 100.
strīō, 122, I, 3.
suō, 122, II.
supersum, 125.
sustāneō, 121, II, a.

T,
tiēō, 121, II, a.
tiēt, 138, II.
tingō, 122, I, 2.
tego, 122, I, 1, a.
tennaō, 122, I, 1, a.
tennaō, 122, I, 2.
tenō, 121, II, a.
terō, 122, I, 6.
terēō, 121, II, a.
GENERAL INDEX.

The references are to sections and paragraphs.

ABBREVIATIONS. — Abi., ablative; acc., accusative; adj., adjective; adv., adverb, adver-
tial, or adverbially: cf., compare; comp., comparison or comparative; conj., conjunction or conjunction; const., constitute; construction; dat., dative; decl., declension; gen., genitive; ind., indicative; indir. disc., indirect discourse; loc., locative; n., note; nom., nominative; pla., plural; prep., preposition; pron., pronoun or pronunciation; sing., singular; subj., subject; subjv., subjunctive; voc., vocative; w., with.

A.

-reply, 2, 1; pronunciation, 3, 1; development of ᾱ before a single consonant, 7, 1, a; before two consonants, 7, 1, b; ᾱ as ending of nom. sing. of 1st decl., 20; in voc. sing. of Greek nouns in -ᾱ of 1st decl., 22; in nom. sing. of Greek nouns in -α of 1st decl., 22, 31; termination of nom. and acc. plu. of neuters, 23: 35: 48; termination of nom. sing. of nouns of 3d decl., 28; gender of nouns in -ᾱ of 3d decl., 43: 51; ending of acc. sing. of Greek nouns of 3d decl., 47, 1; regular quantity of final α, 363, 1; exceptions to quantity of final ᾱ, 363, 1, 4-v.

ᾱ pronunciation, 3, 1; arising by contraction, 7, 2; as ending of stem in 1st decl., 18; α-stems inflected, 20; in voc. sing. of Greek nouns of 1st decl., 22; in voc. sing. of Greek nouns in -ᾱ of 3d decl., 47, 4; distinguishing vowel of 1st conjugation, 98; ending of imperative act. of 1st conj., 101; final a long by exception, 363, 1, 4-v.

ᾱ, ab, abis, usw., 142, 1; with town names, 220, 2.

ᾱ to denote agency, 216.

—to denote separation, 214.

—place from which, 229.

—with town names, 229, 2.

—with abl. of gerund, 338, 4, ᾱ.


Abbreviations of proper names, 373.

Ablative case, 17: 213 f.

—in -ᾱτο, 21, 2, r.


—formation of sing. of adj. of 3d decl., 67, 4: 70, 1-5.

—of 3-stems, 37: 38.

—geminini abl. usw., 214 f.

—absolute, 227.

—of agent, 216.

—of accomplishment, 222.

—of acconss, 220, 3.

—of association, 222, 1.

—of attendant circumstance, 221: 227, 2, r.

—of cause, 219.

—of comparison, 217.

—of degree of difference, 223.

—of fine or penalty, 208, 2, s.

—of manner, 210.

—of material, 224, 3.

—of means, 218.

—of penalty, 208, 2, s.

—of place where, 228.

—of place whence, 229.

—of price, 225.

—of quality, 224.

—of separation, 214: with compounds of δι- and ἐπ, 214, 3.

—of source, 215.

—of specification, 226.

—of time at which, 230.

—of time during which, 231, 1.

—of time within which, 231.
The references are to sections and paragraphs

Ablative case, of way by which, 213, 9.
— with céntére, consísere, consífiere, 218, 4.
— with special phrases, 218, 7.
— with jungerre, meniércre, miúfere, etc., 222, A.
— with facíô, fìô, 218, 6.
— with prepositions, 141; 213 f.
— with verbs of killing, 218, 8.
— with verbs and adj. of freeing, 214, 1, a, and N. 1.
— with adj. of plenty, 218, 8.
— with òner, òner, junger, potior, ves-
cor, 218, 1.
— with opér and iús, 218, 2.
— with níor, òntius, and òntius, 218, 3.
abl., 142, 1.
abínter, 135.

Absolute, ablative, 227.
— time, of participles, 336, 4.
— use of verbs, 174, a.

Abstract nouns, 12, 2, 4; plural of, 55, 4, c.
— òntus, 21, 2, c.
ac. 341, 2, b; i.e. as, than, 341, 1, c.

Accusative versus, 366, 9.
accusat us, 207, 2.

Accent, 6; in gen. of nouns in -ius and
-ium, 25, 1 and 2.
accusat us, 207.
acquit us, 299, 1, b.
Accompaniment, abl. of, 222.

Accordance, abl. of, 220, 3.

Accusative case, 17; in -i, and -ii, of
Greek nouns, 22; in -io in abl. decl.,
-3; in sing. of Greek nouns, 47, 11;
in -3 in plu., 47, 31; in -i and -ii
in -i, and -ii in -i, etc.; 37, 28; acc. sing. neut. as
adv., 77, 3; 176, 3; 172 f.
— of duration of time, 181.
— of result produced, 173, B; 176.
— of extent of space, 181.
— of limit of motion, 182 f.
— of neut. prons. or adj., 176, 2.
— of person or thing affected, 173, a;
175.
— in exclamations, 183.
— as subj. of inf., 184.
— with adverbi, communiter, etc., 207.
— with adv. force, 176, 3.
— with compounds, 173, 2.
— with impersonal verbs, 175, 2, c.
— with intransitive verbs, 175, 2, a.
— with passive used as middle, 175, 2, d.
— with verbs of remembering and for-
getting (memini, obliviscor, remini-
cor), 306, 1, 2.
— with verbs expressing emotion, 175, 2, a.
— with verbs of testing and snuggling,
176, 5.
— with verbs of making, choosing,
calling, regarding, etc., 177.
— with verbs of asking, requesting,
demanding, teaching, concealing, 178,
1, 5.
— with adj. (propior, proximus), 141,
3.
— with adverbs (propior, proximus),
141, 3; clam, pridi, 144, 2.

Genus ad oppressum, 182, 2, a.

cognate acc., 170, 4.

Greek acc., 180.

Synecdochical acc., 180.
— two accs., direct obj. and pred. acc.,
178; person affected and result pro-
duced, 178; with compounds of trius,
178; with other compounds, 179, 2.
— with prepositions, 141; 179 f.
retained in pass., 178, 2.

Accusing, verbs of, constr., 208 f.
acquit us, constr., 178, 1, d.

Alius, decl., 68; compared, 71, 3.

Accusing, verbs of, constr., 208 f.
— in it. with subj. 329, 1.
— 'toward,' in vicinity of,' 182, 3; ad
with acc. alternating with dat., 338, 3.
— compounds of ad governing dat.,
187, 111; 188, 2, d.
— with gerund denoting purpose, 338,
3.
— abd, patronymic ending, 148, 6, a.

Adjective, 62 f.; 354; derivation of,
150 f.
— of 1st and 2d decl., 63 ff.
— in -i, gen. sing., 63, a.
— of 2d decl., 67 ff.; in abl., 70, 5.
— comparison of adj., 71 f.; in -er,
71, 3; in -iur, 71, 4; comparative
lacking, 73, 3; defective comparison,
73; not admitting comparison, 75;
The references are to sections and paragraphs.

comparaison by magis and maximis, 74.

— numerals, 78 f.
— syntax, 233 f.; attributive and predicate adj., 233. 2.
— agreement, 234 f.
— used substantively, 234 f.
— denoting part of an object, 241. 1.
— with force of adverbs, 239.
— force of comp. and superl., 240. 1.
— not followed by infinitive, 333.
— not used with proper names, 354. 3.
— equivalent to a poss. gen., 354. 4.
— special Latin equivalents of Eng. adj., 354. 1.

equiv. to rel. clause, 241. 2.
— as pred. acc., 177. 2.
— position of adj., 350. 4.
— pronominal adj., 92.
— governing gen., 294.
— governing dat., 192.
— governing acc., 141. 3.
— construed with abl., 214. 1, d; 217. 1; 218. 8; 223; 226. 2; 227. 1.
— with supine in -e, 340. 2.
adj.- = all-, 9. 2.
adv., constr., 207.
Adverbs, const. of verbs, 207.
adv.- = arr-, 9. 2.
adj.- = ati-, 9. 2.

ad+Of+Spelling, 9. 2.
adulator, decl., 23. 2.
adulter, force, 114. 2.
Adverbs, defined, 140; formation and comparison, 76 f.; 149. 157.
— in -oster from adj. in -st, 77. 4.
— in -est and -ést, 77. 5.
— in and -vs, 77. 2.
— in plural, 79.
— as prep., 144. 2.
— derivation of, 157.
— with gen., 201. 2; 31 and 2.
— special meanings, 247.
— position, 350. 6.

Adversative clauses, 309.
— conjunctions, 343.
adversus, prep. with acc., 141.
and, how pronounced, 3. 2; phonetic changes, 7. 1, d.
aedéli, plu., 61.
aequus, abl. sing. of, 70. 5, 2; as subst., 238.
aequus, decl., 34.
aequus est eaequam sit, 271. 1, 8.
aer, in plu., 55. 4; 6; lacks gen. plu., 57. 2.
aeris, decl., 40. 1, c.
-aeus, suffix, 153. 3.
aerum, decl., 34.
Affixed, acc. of person or thing, 175.
Agency, dat. of, 189; abl. 216.
Agent, abl., 216; with names of animals, 216. 2.
ager, decl., 23.
Agreement, nouns, 166; 168; 169. 2; 34.
— adjs., 234; in gender, 235. 1; in number, 235. 1; prons., 230; verbs, with one subj., 254. 1; with two or more subj., 255. 1.
—i, case-ending, gen. sing., 1st decl., poet., 21, 2, 8.
aiz, 135.
mot is, 135.
物品, quantity of first syllable, 362. 5.
-af, declension of nouns in, 39.
alaq, decl., 68. 1; comp., 73. 4.
aliquis, 91.
aliqui, 91.
aliquis, 91; 232.
aliquis, 232; 2; aliquis distinct referent, 280. 1.
-ális, suffix, 153. 2.
aliter, 341. 1, c.
alitis, 69.
— used correlative, 253. 1.
alit ac, 'other than,' 341. 1, c.
Aedic, gender of, 15. 3.
alliciē, conj. 100. 2, 6.
Alliteration, 375. 3.
Alphabet, 1.
alter, decl., 66; 92. 1; used correlative, 253. 1.
Alternative questions, 162. 4; indirect, 160. 4.
alternator, decl., 92. 2.
aluis, gender of, 26. 1, 8.
amandus sum, conj. 115.
amaturus sum, conj., 115.
am = amēr-(amēr)-, 139. 3.
amē, 80. 2, 8; usage, 355. 2.
amē, conj., 110.
amius = amplius quam, 217. 3.
amuss, -um, 38. 1.
The references are to sections and paragraphs.

an, 162, 4, and d); 300-4; hand xid an,
nebo an, 300-5.
Anacreon, 334-6.
Anaxarchus, 330, 11, 12.
Anastrophe of prep., 141, 22; 142, 3.
144, 3.
accept (yclaboa accept), defined, 366, 10.
Androcles, decl., 29.
animal, decl., 39.
Animals, as agents, 216, 2.
animal, locative, 232, 3.
anno, in double questions, 162, 4.
Answers, 162, 5.
ante, prep. w. acc. 141; as adv., 141, 1.
dat. w. verb compounded w. ante.
187, III; in expressions of time, 337, 1.
1; 371, 5; ante disc, 371, 51, 6.
Antecedent of rel., 291.
— in conditional sent., of 293, 4.
— incorporated with rel., 293, 4.
— omitted in decl., 291, 1.
— repeated with rel., 293, 3.
Antiquarius, 6, 2.
antequam, with dat., 187, III, 2.
antiquum, with ind., 291; with subj.,
292.
Antiquation, denoted by subj., w.
antiquus and praestans, 292; by
subj., with subm. dimes, quad., 292.
III, 2; 374, 5.
—ante, suffixes, 151, 2; 152, 11, 3.
Aorist tense, see Historical past.
Apodosis, 301 ff.
— in conditional sent., of 1st type, 352.
4; result clauses as apodoses, 322; cause
clauses as apodoses, 322; ind.
questions as apodoses, 322, 4; daturum in
apodosis, 322, 7; apodosis in indic.
clauses, 329-321; in expressions of obligation,
ability, etc., 304, 3, 21; with periphrastic
conjugations, 321, 3, 6.
Apposition, 169; agreement, 169, 2;
partitive, 169, 5; with voc. in nom.,
171, 2; genitive w. force of appositive,
202; id as appositive of clause, 247,
1, 2; inf. as appositive, 326; 329;
subst. clauses as appositives, 283, 1;
2, 247, 2.
Appositive of locative, 169, 4; with acc.
limit of motion, 182, 2, a; with town
names, in abl. of place whence, 229,
2.
— position of, 330, 2.
apex, w. dat., 199, 2.
aper, prep. w. acc., 131.
architec, declension of, 22.
artic, declension of nouns in.
argw, constr., 179, 1, d.
— 3rd, suffix, 151, 2.
— 3rd, suffix, 151, 2.
— 3rd, suffix, 151, 2.
artem, decl., 29, 2.
Arrangement of words, 348-359; of
clauses, 357.
Asis, defined, 366, 6.
asis, dat. and abl. plu. of, 49, 3.
arse, decl., 40.
— 3rd, acc. plu. of in Greek nouns, 47, 3.
— 3rd, old gen. sing., 1st decl., case-end.
ing, 21, 2, a).
— ending of Greek nouns, nom.
sing. in, 22.
— gender of nouns in —, 13, 2; 45, 1.
— voc. of Greek nouns in —, 2nd, 1.
— 3rd, abl. of patriae in, 70, 5, e.
Asking, case found, with verbs of, 178, 1.
2; subst. classics w., 293, 1; ind.
questions, 300, 1.
Aspirates, 2, 3, 6.
Assimilation of consonants, 8, 4 f; 9, 2.
Association, abl. of, 222, A.
Assonaton, 54, 4, 2; 356.
att, 543, 1, d.
— 3rd, suffix, 157, 2.
— 3rd, decl., 47, 4.
— 3rd, gender of, 26, 1, e.
— 3rd, decl., 544, 2, 1; = abl. 341, 1, e.
— 3rd, 333, 1, c.
Attestant circumstance, abl. of, 221;
222, 2, e.
Attraction of demonstratives, 346.
5; of
— 3rd, 292, 2, a; 328, 3.
Attributive adjs., 223, 2.
— id as its force as suffix, 155, 4.
— substant, formation and comparison,
76, 2.
subst., conj., 114, 1.
— 3rd, conj., 107, with pres. partic.
337, 2.
The references are to sections and paragraphs.

-axil, archaic gen., 21, 2, 3.
-axius, force as participle, 326, 5.
-aui, 324, 1, 4.
-axi, 343, 1, c; 350, 8.
Auxiliary omitted in infinit., 116, 5; in finite forms, 166, 3.
auxili, auxilia, 61.
-ār, suffix, 150, 2.

B.

baileum, baileae, 60, 2.
baileum, decld., 29.
Believing, verbs of, with dat., 187, 11.
bellum, locative, 232, 2.
bellum, decld., 23.
beo, comparison, 37.
Benefiting, verbs of, w. dat., 187, 11.
beneficium, comparison, 71, 5, 6.
-ēr, declension of month names in, 68, 1.
-bētis, suffix, 150, 4.
beo, decld., 63; comparison, 72.
beo, decld., 41.
brachylogy, 374, 2.
Brucic, declension, 368, 3, 4.
-busum, suffix, 117, 4.
-bundus, suffix, 150, 1.
būtis, decld., 38, 1.

C.

Cal. for G. as abbreviation of Gaius, 373.
carō, decld., 40.
Castra, 366, 8; in dactylic hexameter, 368, 3.
catēr, decld., 39.
Calend. 371: 372.
Calendar, 371, 2, 3.
cempeter, decld., 68, 1.
cēn, decld., 38, 2.
cēp, conj., 110.
cēr, genitive of, 26, 1, 3.
cerēr, cereris, 61.
Cardinals, defined, 78, 1; list of, 79; decld., 80; with and without et, 81, 1; 31; expressed by subtraction, 81, 2; replaced by distributives in poetry, 81, 4, d.
cēvē, comparison, 76, 2.
cēvō, decld., 42.
cērus, cērum, 60, 1.
Cases, 17; alike in form, 19; 170 ff.
Case-endings, 17, 3.
cēstrum, cēstra, 61.

Catalectic verses, 366, 9.
causa, with gen., 198, 1; nōlla causa est cūr, with subj., 295, 7.
Causal clauses, 285; causae; clause of characteristic with accessory notion of cause, 283, 3.
— conjunctions, 345.
Cause, abl. of, 219; 227, 2, d.
causa, 353, 2, 4.
cērē, cērē in prohibitions, 256, 3.
— et, 6, 3 f; 87, footnote 2.
cētis, cēte, 137, 3.
cētis, with dat., 187, 11.
cēterē, decld., 68, 1.
cēterē, decld., 68, 2.
cētē, constr., 178, 1, e).
cētina, force, 114, 2.
cētēa, adverbial acc., 185, 2.
cētī, use, 253, 4.
Characteristic, clauses of, 283; denoting cause or opposition ("although"), 283, 3; gen. of, 203, 1; abl., 224.
Charge, gen. of, 208, 1; 2.
Chiasmus, 350, 11, c.
Choosing, const. w. verbs of, 177, 1-3.
circa, circiter, circum, prep., w. acc., 141.
circa, compounds of, w. dat., 187, 111.
circumdrō, const., 187, 1, a.
Circumstance, abl. of attendant, 221.
cit, prep. w. acc., 141.
citer, comparison, 73, 1.
citō, 77, 2, a.
citō, prep. w. acc., 141.
citālis, decld., 40, 1, e.
citās, with acc., 144, 2.
Clauses, coord. and subord., 164, 165.
Clauses of characteristic, 283; purpose, 284; result, 284; causal, 285; temporal with postquam, ut, ab, simul ac, etc., 287; with cum, 288; substantiative clauses, 294 f; condition, 301 f; conditional comparison, 307; concessive, 308; adverbative, 309; wish or proviso, 310; relative, 311 f; 283 f.
clausis, decld., 38, 1.
Clinging, construction of verbs of, 358, 3.
clipen, clipēan, 60, 1.
Close of sentences, cadences used, 350, 12.
cōspi, conj., 133; cōstus est, 133, 1.
Cognate acc., 179, 4.
cognomin, 373.
cognit, w. acc., 173, 1, d; w. infin., 331, VI.

Collective nouns, 12, 2, a; w. plu.

- colus, gender of, 26, 1, δ.
- conj., compounds of, w. dat., 187, 111.
- connect, conj., 328, 2.
- contingent, w. abl., 228, a.
- conjunctive, as time expression, 230, 1.

Commanding, dat. w. verbs of, 187, 11;
- subj. clause w. verbs of, 295, 1;
- commonly expressed by jussive subj., 275; by imperative, 281.

Common gender, 15, 1, N. 1.

- nouns, 12, 1.
- syllables, 5, 7, 1.
- compounds, w. gen. and acc., 207.
- connect, w. gen. and acc., 207.
- communis, w. gen., 204, 2; with dat.,
- 204, 2, a.
- connect, w. abl., 222, A.

Comparative, decl., 69; w. abl., 217;
- w. quam, 217, 2; occasional meaning,
- 240.
- two required in Latin, 240, 4.

Comparison of adj., 71 f.; of adverbs,
- 76, 77.
- participles as adj., 71, 2.
- adjectives, 50, 5.
- defective, 73.
- abl. of, 217.

Comparison, conditional, 307.
- comparatives, w. compar., 374, 2, δ.
- w. result clauses, 284, 1; w. clauses of
- characteristic, 283, 2, a.

Completed action, tenses expressing,
- 264-265; 269, 1.

Compounds, 135 f.; spelling of, 9, 2.

Compound sentences, 164.

- verbs governing acc., 175, 2, a; govern-
- ing dat., 187, 111; 188, 2, δ.
- constitutive uses of pres., 209, 2; of imper-
- perf., 396, 3; of pres. partic., 336, 2, a.

Concessive clauses, 398; 'although' as
- accessory idea to clause of character-
- istics, 283, 4.
- subjunctive, 278.

Conclusion, see Apodosis.

Concrete nouns, 12, 2, a.

Condensing, verbs of, constr., 208 f.

Conditional clauses of comparison, 307.

- sentences, 141 type (nothing im-
- piled), 302; in indir. disc., 319; 2d
- type ('should'-would'), 303; in indir.
- disc., 330; 3d type (contrary to fact),
- 304; in indir. disc., 321; abl. abs,
- equivalent to, 227, 2, δ; introduced
- by relative pronouns, 312; general
- conditions, 302, 2, 3; indicative in con-
- trary-to-fact conditions, 391, 2, 3; pro-
The references are to sections and paragraphs.

Coordinate clauses, 165.
  — conjunctions, 341 f.
  — eipia, eipias, 61.
Copulative conjunctions, 341.
  — cor, lacks gen. plu., 57, 7.
  — conus, decl. 48.
Correlative conjunctions, 341. 31 342. 2.
  — adverbs, 140.
  — cettula, spelling, 9, 2.
Countries, gender of, 26, 1, a.
Crime, gen. of, 268, 11, 2.
  — crum, suffix, 147. 4.
  — culum, suffix, 147. 4.
  — culus (a. unc.), suffix, 148. 1.
  — cum, appended, 142. 4.
  — cum (conj.), 'when,' 288-290; 'whenever,' 288, 3.
  — adversative, 390, 3.
  — causal, 288, 2.
  — explicative, 290.
  — to denote a recurring action, 288, 3.
  — 'when suddenly,' 288, 2.
  — cum . . . tam, 290, 2.
  — cum primum, 287, 1.
  — cum, spelling of, 9, 1.
  — cum (prep.), with abl. of manner, 290; with abl. of accompaniment, 222; appended to prons., 142, 4.
  — undans, suffix, 150, 1.
  — divitum, conj., 195, 2, a; with subst. clause developed from optative, 296; w. inf., 331, IV, and a.
  — vir, uilla causa est car, w. subjv., 295, 7.
  — cest, with gerundive const. as obj., 337, 8, 3, 2.
Custody action, 295, 1; 200, 2.

D.
D, changed to r, 8, 2; d final omitted, 8, 3; assimilated, 8, 4.
Dactyli, 356, 2.
Dactylic hexameter, 358.
  — penultimate, 358.
  — apes, defective, 57, 6.
Dating, verbs of, with subj. inf., 328, 1.
Dates, 371, a-2; as indeclinable nouns, 371, 6; in leap year, 371, 7.
Datas, 17; irregular, 1st decl., 21, 2, c; 3d decl., 47, 5; 4th decl., 49, 21, 3; 5th decl., 52, 1 and 3; 188 ff.
  — in the gerundive const., 339, 7.
  — of agency, 189.
  — of direction and limit of motion, 193.
  — of indir. obj., 187.
  — of advantage or disadvantage, so called, 188, 1.
  — of local standpoint, 188, a, 2.
  — of person judging, 188, 2, e.
  — of possession, 190, 2, 3.
  — of purpose or tendency, 191, 339, 7.
  — of reference, 188.
  — of separation, 188, 2, d.
  — of the gerund, 338, 2.
  — with adj., 172; with proprium, communis, 204, 2; similis, 204, 3.
  — with compound verbs, 187, 111.
  — with intrans. verbs, 187, 11.
  — with nomen est, 190, 1.
  — with impersonal pass. verbs, 187, 11, 8.
  — with trans. verbs, 187, 1.
  — with verbs of mingling, 338, 3.
  — ethinc dat., 188, 2, f.
  — subj. inf., 296, 1, a; with abl. instead of gen. of whole, 201, 1, a; with verbs of reminding, 207, 2; compounds of de governing dat., 188, 2, d; de in, with verbs of accounting and concluding, 108, 3; with gerund and gerundive, 338, 4, 6.
  — dec/st, dec/stus, 21, 2, e.
  — defere, deferi, 207, 2; governing subj. inf., 328, 1.
  — defere, with prns. inf., 296, 2.
  — decrease, gen. plu. of, 25, 6, d.
  — derivus, w. subst. clause developed from volitive, 295, 4.
  — decet, w. acc., 175, 2, c.
Declarative sentences, defined, 161, 1; in indir. disc., 314.
Declination, 11; heteroclines, 59.
  —, stems and gen. terminations, 16.
  —, 1st decl., 20-22; 2d decl., 23-27; 3d decl., 28-47; 4th decl., 48-50; 5th decl., 51-53; of Greek nouns, 28; 97; 47; of adj., 92-94; of prons., 84-90.
Decreasing verbs, of w. subj., 305, 4.
  — deoct, 175, 2, c.
Defensive verbs, 133 f.; nouns, 54 f.; 72, 4; 57; comparison, 73.
Definite perfect, see Present perfect.
Degree of difference, abl. of, 243.
Degrees of comparison, 71 ff.
The references are to sections and paragraphs.

définitive, w. inf. as subj., 327, 1.

déleter, w. aul. oce cause, 210.

Deliberative subj., 277; in indir. questions, 300, 2; in indir. disc., 315, 3.

Demanding, verbs of, w two sons, 176, 1; w. subj. clause, 205, 1.

Demonstrative pronouns, 67; 246; of 1st, 2d, and 3d person, 187; position of demonstratives, 359, 5, 4.

Demonstrative verbs, 156.

Dental suffixes, 2, 4.

— stem, 33.

Dependent clauses, 262 ff.

Dependent verbs, 112; forms with passive meanings, 112, 8; semi-deponents, 114.

Depraising, verbs of, w abl., 214, 1, 6.

Derivatives, 147 ff.

— dēr, patronymica in, 148, 6.

Description, imperfect tense of, 260, 1, 4.

Desideratives, 153, 3.

Desire, adj. of, w. gen., 204, 1; verbs of, w. subj. clauses, 298, 1.

dérior, 73, 1.

dens, decl., 13, 4.

dérior, 114, 3.

dexter, decl., 65, 1.

dver, 159, 3, N.

Diaseresis, 366, 8; buccali d., 368, 3, d.

Dissimule, 367, 2.

dver, 116, 3.

dusur, dictum est, w. inf., 332, note.

divō, accent of compounds of, in imperative, 116, 3.

— dicur, composition of adj. in, 71, 5.

Divō, decl., 47, 8.

divō, decl., 51; gender, 53.

Difference, abl. of degree of, 225.

difficile est — Eng. potential, 271, 1, 4.

difficultī, comp., 71, 4.

dignō, with abl., 226, 2.

Dignus, 226, 2; in rel. clauses of purpose, 282, 4.

Dioctetic verses, 366, 11.

Diminutives, 148, 1.

Diphthongs, 2, 1; 3, 2; diphthongs, shortened, 366, 8.

diphthongus, gender of, 26, 1, 21.

Dipollies, 366, 11.

Direct reflexives, 244, 1.

— object, 172.

— quotation, 373.

— discussion, 313.

— questions, 102.

dir, in compounds, 159, 3, N.

Disjunctive conjunctions, 342.

dissociati, comp., 71, 4.

Distributives, 63, 2; 78, 1; 79: 84.

diō, compared, 77, 1.

diōr, decl., 70, 1; compared, 71, 6.

diīe, 116, 4, 7.

diē, conj., 127.

diōs, with acc., 178, 1, 8; with inf., 331, VI.

dinē, passive, 232, 2.

dōmō, 299, 1, 8.

dōmit, 182, 1, 6.

dōnum, 182, 1, 6; house, in acc., 162.

— domus, decl., 49, 4; gender, 50.

— dōxō, with ind., 203; with subj., 203.

III, 2.

dōnō, contr., 187, 1, 6.

dōs, gender, 44, 3.

Double consonants, 2, 9.

— questions, 162, 4; indirect, 300, 4.

Doubling, verbs of, w. pain, 296.

Dullative subjunctive, see Declarative, dubie, dubium est, nū dubite, nū dubium est, w. pain, 296; nū dubite w. inf., 296, 4.

dubiet, 116, 3.

dubiet, accent of compounds of, in imperative, 116, 3.

dum, dīm, 127, 2.

— dum, 6, 3.

dum, temporal with ind., 203; with subj., 303, III, 21; in wishes and prayers, 310.

dummodo, 310.

dum, decl., 90, 2.

Duration of time, 181, 2.

Duty, expressed by gerundive, 189.

— 331, 8; verbs of duty in conclusion of cond. sentences contrary-to-fact, 304, 3, 8; subst. clauses dependent on verbs of, 205, 6; inf. w. verbs of duty, 337, 1: 328, 11; 330; 'it is the duty of,' 198, 3; 'I perform a duty,' 218, 1.

dummodo, gen. plu. of, 25, 6, 3.

dum, decl., 32.
General Index.

The references are to sections and paragraphs.

E.

1, as vowel, 2, 1; as second member of diphthongs, 2, 1; sound of, 3, 1; change to i, 7, 1, a; for a, 7, 1, c; in voc. sing. of 2d decl., 23; in abl. sing. of 3d decl., 31; dropped in nom. of masters of 3d decl., 39; for a in abl. of maro, 39; alternating w. i in abl. sing. of i-stems, 37, 38; for c in gen. sing. of 9th decl., 52, 1; in abl. sing. of adj., 3d of 3d decl., 79, 11, 3; in bed and middle, 77, 11; distinguishing vowel of 3d conj., 98; before j, 39, 5, for t in imperative, 39, 2, 2; in temere and sati, 39, 2, c.

Ex, pronunciation, 3, 1; by contraction, 2, 2; as ending of Greek nouns, 22; i-stems, 52; ending of dat. of 9th decl., 52, 3; distinguishing vowel of 2d conj., 98; i in famc, 39, 2, 2; i in adverbs, 39, 3, 2, c.

Ex, use, 142, 2; see ex.

Exequies, 91, 6.


Editorial use of 'we,' 242, 3.


Effort, or subj. w. verbs of, 295, 5.

Ego, w. abl., 214, 1, c.

Ego, 84, 2.

Elephant, 2, 1; 3, 2.

Elevated, 148, 3, 3.

Elegiac diction, 369, 2.

Emission, 366, 7.

Ellipsis, 374, 1.

-Elia (a, anus), 148, 1.

Emphasis, 349.

Enclitics, accent of preceding syllable, 6, 3.

Eter, 81, 3; ete, 86, 3; en as enclitic, 142, 4.

End of motion, see Limit.

Endings, case endings, 19, 3; personal of verb, 99; in formation of words, 147.

-Enimus (-iusmus), 79, 9.

-Ennis, 151, 2; 153, 3.

Envoy, verbs of, with dat., 187, 11.

Epistula, spelling, 9, 2.

Equi, decl., 22.

Equi, spelling, 60, 2.

Equi, 21, 2, c.

Equitrix, decl., 68, 1.

Equus, decl., 24.

Equus, decl., 24.

Equus, adj., 63, 64; 65, 68; adj. in -er compared, 71, 3.

Er, prep. w. acc., 141.

Ero, 344, 1, 6.

Error, suffix, 151.

Es, gender of nouns in, 43, 1; exception, 44, 5; in nom. plu. of Greek nouns of 3d decl., 47, 2.

Et, ending of Greek nouns, nom. sing.

 oro, 40, 1, a).

Ethical dative, 183, 2, 3.

Ethnium, in answers, 123, 5.

Ev, 341, 2, c.

Ev, 'although,' 309, 2; 311, 'even if,' 300, 2, 2.

Ev, suffix, 148, 3.

Ev, inflection of Greek nouns in, 47, 6.

Ev, adj. suffix, 151, 1.

Ev, 242, 2; with abl., instead of gen. of whole, 201, 1, a; compounds of, with dat., 188, 2, a; with abl. of source, 215, 1.

Ev, verbs of, with abl. of association, 222, 1.

Ev, 143, 2; with abl., instead of gen. of whole, 201, 1, a; compounds of, with dat., 188, 2, d; with abl. of source, 215, 1.

Ev, verbs of, with abl. of association, 222, 1.

Ev, acc. of, 183.

Ev, expectant sentences, 161, 3.

Ev, clauses denoting, in subj., 292, 1, 2; 293, 111, 2.

Ev, constr. 178, 1, a.

Ev, spelling, 9, 2.

Ev, spelling, 9, 2.

Ev, exterior, 73, 2.

Ev, use, 241, 1.

Ev, w. abl., 214, 1, 8.
The references are to sections and paragraphs.

F.

F, pronunciation, 3, 4, 367, quantity of vowel before, 5, 1, 268.

fae, 116, 3; with subj., 205, 5.

facet, 77, 3.

facit, comp., 71, 4.

facit, 109, 2, 4; pass. of, 131.

—, in imper., 115, 3.

fals, comparison, 73, 3.

fan, 52, 2, 6.

Familiarity, adj., w. gen., 204, 1.

familiaris, 42, 1, a.

fair, 136.

fai, indeclinable, 58.

faits, decl., 40, 1, d.

Favor, verbs signifying, with dat., 187, II.

Fearing, verbs of, constr., 206, 2.

febris, decl., 33, 1.

felix, 70.

Female, see Gender.

Feminine case, 366, 1.

femur, decl., 42, 4.

fer, decl. of nouns in, 23, 2, adj., 65, 1, fere, and its compounds, 120.

fer, comparison of adj.s, 71, 5.

fidelis, 51.

fidelis, 114, 1; with abl., 219, 4, 4.

fidelis, compared, 123.

ferre, feri, 301, 1, c.; feri potest at, 298, 3.

Fifth decl., 51.

Figures of rhetoric, 375.

—, of syntax, 374.

fit, 25, 3.

fita, fitis, 21, 1, e.

Filling, verbs of, w. abl., 218, 8.

Final clauses, see Purpose clauses.

Final consonant omitted, 8, 3.

Final syllables, quantity, 363, 364.

finite, infinitive.

Finite verb, 65.

fit, conj., 131.

fit, with abl., 218, 6.

First conj., 101; principal parts of verbs of, 120; deponents of 1st conj., 113.

First decl., 20, 1; peculiarities, 21; Greek nouns of 1st decl., 22.

fit in, 207, 2.

fagio, constr., 178, 1, a.

fide, conj., 109, 2, a.

Foot, in verse, 356, 2.

'For,' its Latin equivalents, 358, 1.

fore, page 57, footnote 3.

fore ut, 209, 3; 207, 2.

forem, foris, etc., page 57, footnote 2.

foris, 281, 1, c.

Formation of words, 146 f.

fors, foris, 57, 2, a.

foris, decl., 69.

fortis, decl., 69.

fortunis, fortunar, 61.

Fourth conj., 107.

Fourth decl., 48; dat. in -a, 49, 2; in -i, 49, 1; dat. abl. plu. in -abui, 49, 3.

fraud, abl. of manner, 220, 2.

Free, abl. w. adj.s signifying, 214, 1, d.

Freed, abl. w. verbs of, 214, 1, a.

frequenter, 60, 2.

Frequentatives, 155, 2.

freques, w. abl., 218, 3.

Fricatives, 2, 7.

Friendly, dat. w. adj.s signifying, 192, 1.

fractus, decl., 48.

fragil, compared, 72, 6.

fragilis, 57, 6.

fras, with abl., 218, 1; in gerundive constr., 339, 4.

fregi, conj., 109, 2, a.

fres, fures, etc., for sum et, etc., in compound tenses, p. 60, footnote; p. 61, footnote.

Fullness, adj.s of, w. abl., 218, 8; w. gen., 204, 1.

fugio, w. abl., 218, 2; in gerundive constr., 339, 4.

fur, decl., 40, 1, d.

furios, abl. of manner, 220, 2.

Future tense, 201; w. imperative force, 261, 3.

—, time in the subj., 269.

—, perfect, 264; with future meaning, 133, 2; inf., 270, 4.

—, imperative, 281, 1.

—, infinitive, 270, 1, c.; periphrastic fut. inf., 270, 3, and a.

—, participles, 337, 4.

futurum esse ut, with subj. 270, 2.

G.

gauze, semi-deponent, 114, 1.

grom, w. acc., 175, 2, 6.

Gender, 13-15; in 1st decl., 20, 21; in 2d decl., 21; exceptions, 26, in 3d.
General Index.

The references are to sections and paragraphs.

dec., 43 f.; in 4th decl., 301; in 5th decl., 53; determined by endings, 14; by signification, 15, A; heterogeneous nouns, 60.

gener, decl., 23, 2.

General relatives, 313, 1; general truths, 299, 11; 262, 61, 1; 'general' conditions, 302, 21, 3.

Geminate, 17; in -i for -ii, 25, 1 and 2; of 4th decl., in -i, 49, 1; of 5th decl. in -i, 52, 1; of 5th decl. in -ii, 53, 1; in -ii, 52, 3; of 1st decl. in -ia, 21, 2, b); of 1st decl. in -is, 21, 2, a); gen. plu. -um for -um, 21, 2, a); -am for -um, 25, 6; 63, 2; -um for -iun, 70, 7; gen. plu. lacking, 57, 7; syntax of, 194 f.

— of characteristic, 203, 1.
— of change with judicial verbs, 208.
— of indeterminate price, 203, 4.
— of indefinite value, 203, 3.
— of material, 197.
— of measure, 203, 2.
— of origin, 199.
— of possession, 198.
— of quality, 203.
— of the whole, 201.
— appositional, 202.
— objective, 200.
— of separation, 216, 3.
— subjective, 199.
— with adjs., 204; with participles, 204, 1, 1.
— with causæ, gratiæ, 198, 1.
— with verbs, 205 f.; of plenty and want, 212; with impers. verbs, 209.

— position of gen., 305, 1.

genus, decl., 36; id genus, 182, 1.
gem, decl. of nouns in, 23, 2; adjs., 65, 1.

Gerund, 95, 1; 1st conj., 101; 2nd conj., 103; 3rd conj., 103; 4th conj., 107; syntax, 338; with object, 336, 5.

Gerundive, 95, 1; 1st conj., 102; 2nd conj., 104; 3rd conj., 106; 4th conj., 108; in periphrastic conj., 115, 339, 9.


gratia, not compared, 75, 2.

Gnomic present, 259, 1; perfect, 262, 1.
gratio, conj., 100, 2, 6.

Grammatical gender, 15.

gratia, with gen., 198, 7; gratia, gratiae, 61.

Greek nouns, 1st decl., 22; 2nd decl., 27; exceptions in gender, 26, 1, d); 3rd decl., 47; Greek acc., 180; Greek nouns in verse, 326.

gud, decl., 41, 2.

Gutural mutes, 2, 4.

— stems, 32.

H.

A, pron., 3, 3; ph, ch, th, 2, 4; a, 3, 3.
habeo, with perf. pass. partic., 337, 6.

Hadius, gender, 21, 1.

Happening, verbs of, w. ind., 209, 1, 2; w. subj., 297, 3.

Hard consonants, 2, 3, 9, footnote 2.

Hardening, 377, 4.

Haud, use, 347, 9, a; haud sic aut, 300, 5.

Hab., 137, 5.

Help, verbs signifying, w. dat., 187.

Hendiadys, 374, 4.

Herl, locative, 232, 2.

Heteroclitic, 59.

Heterogeneous nouns, 60.

Hexameter, dactylic, 368.

Hiatus, 366, 7, a.

Hic, 87; 246, 1; 246, 2; hic, 264, footnote.

hier, 35, footnote.

Hindering, verbs of, w. subj., 205, 3.

Historical tenses, 388; historical present, 259, 3; 268, 3; historical perfect, 262, 8; historical infinitive, 335.

Honor, decl., 36.

Hoping, verbs of, w. inf., 331, 1.

Hortatory subj., 274.

Horus, decl., 23.

Hortae, 87, footnote 1.

Hortis, decl., 36.

Hortius, 87, footnote 1.

Hortu, locative, 232, 2.

Humilis, comp., 71, 4.

Humus, gender of, 26, 1, d).

Huncius, 87, footnote 1.

Hyperbaton, 350, 11, a.

Hypermeter, 367, 5.

Hysterion proetrom, 374, 7.
General Index.

The references are to sections and paragraphs.

1.

i, i, i; in diphthongs, 2, 1; pron. 3, 1.

*is, 7, 1, 4; from 2, 7, 1, 6; dropped by syncope, 7, 1; for 8 in some words, 9, 1; changes to 8, 12; dropped, 12.

final i short, 139, 3; becomes j, 139, 4.

d-stems, 37, 39; not always ending in -iss, 38, 3.

i-gen. and voc. of 2d decl. nouns in -iis and -iium in, 29, 1 and 2.

— gen. of 6th decl. nouns in -iis, 49, 1.

— gen. of 6th decl. nouns in -iis, 52, 1.

i-stem, 36, 41.

i in abl. 36, 1, 39; in adjs., 67, 3, 4; 70, 5; participles, 90, 3; patres, 70, 5, 6; noun, patres, 67, 1; as characteristic of 4th conj., 98.

tsi, 149.

Italian, 366, 5.

ramber measure, 370.

trimeter, 370.

i-stems, suffix, 152, 1.

i-stem, suffix, 152, 1.

i-stem, suffix, 152, 1.

id est, 185, 2.

id genus, 185, 1.

id idem, 241, 1, 6.

id tempus, 185, 2.

I say 'you’; see Indefinite second person.

ide, 87, 248.

idem ac, 248, 2.

idem, 371, 2.

idem, suffix, 148, 6, 4.

ident, suffix, 148, 6, 4.

ident, suffix, 147, 3.

identia, not compared, 74, 2; w. dat., 192, 2; w. ad and acc., 192, 2 and 4; w. rel. clause of purpose, 282, 3.

ident, suffix, 150, 3.

ident, by exception, 30.

-er in voc. sing. of arts. in -iis, 63, 1.

ent, pres. part. from es, 132.

-er, as ending of numeral adverbs, 79.

-ier, inf. ending, 166, 4, 2.

-ier nouns in, 51.

-ier, 341, 1, 7.
Indicative, equivalent to Eng. subj., 271.
— in apodosis of conditional sen. of 3d type, 304, 3, 4, and 5.

indiget, const., 214, 1, 2.

indoctus, w. abl., 216, 3.

inde, decl., 70, 2.

iniquam, conj., 134.

Inseparable prepositions, 159, 3, N.

insecat., plu., only, 55, 3.

iniquus, with gen., 198, 2.

Instrumental use of abl., 213, 218 ff.

Intensive pron., 88.

Intensive verbs (verbs), 155, 2.

inter, prep. w. acc., 141; compounded w. verbs, governing abl. 187, 111; to express reciprocal relation, 245.

inter, const., 188, 1, 2.

interest, const., 210, 211.

interior, comp., 23, 1.

Interjections, 145.

Interlocked order, 350, 11, 2.

Interrogative pronouns, 90.

— sentences, 162; particles, 162, 21;

omitted, 162, 2, 3.

in other disc., 315.

Intr., prep. w. acc., 141.

Intensive verbs, with cognate acc., 176, 4; in passive, 256, 3; 187, 3, 8; impersonal intransitives, 136, IV.

-inter, suffix, 151, 2; 154, 1; 155, 2.

— verbs of 3d conj., 109.

— erro, inter., comparative ending, 71.

ipsum, 88, 249; as indir. reflexive, 249, 3.

ipsus and ipsum, with possessive pronouns, 243, 3.

—, deel. of nouns in, 23.

Irregular comparison, 72 ff.; nouns, 42.

verbs, 124 ff.

is, 67; 247; as personal pron., 247, 2.

—, as patronymic ending, 148, 6, 8; nouns in -is of 3d decl., 37 f.; adj. in -is, 69.

—is, acc. plu., 3d decl., 37; 40.

—, -itis, abl. of patrialis in, 70, 5, 6.

ittae, 87, footnote 2.

ite, 67, 4.

ittae, 1.

ita, in answers, 152, 5.

itae, 344, 1, 2.

iter, 48, 1.

itit, 149.

—, frequentatives in, 135, 2, 2.

—, gen. of nouns in, 25, 2; ending of gen. plu., 3d decl., 37 f.; 391, 40; 147, 3, 4; 148, 2.
The references are to sections and paragraphs.

-ia, gen. and voc. sing. of nouns in 25; 1 and 2; of adj. 13: 4; 151: 2; 152: 2; 153: 1. -ius is for -ia, 392: 1, 2, 3.
-ius, suffix, 151: 2.

J.

f. 1, 2; jacul, conj., 109: 2, 2; compounds of 9, 3; 302: 5.
jum, etc., with present tense, 259: 4; with imperfect, 256: 4.
jus, decl., 42: 3.
jus, abl., of manner, 220: 2.
jux, plu. of 60, 2.
Joining verbs of construction, 358: 3.
just, conj., 295: 1, 4; 331: II.
judic, w. inf., 226: 2.
judicior, 39: 1.
Julian calendar, 371.
jungo, w. abl., 222: A.
juppiter, decl., 41.
jus digni, 114: 1.
jus, abl., of manner, 220: 2.
jus est, with substantive clause, 297: 3.
jus, 57: 1: the abl., 210: 2.
Justus subj., 375: 3; equivalent to a prosaistic, 355: 2.
jus, w. acc., 175: 2, 4; w. inf., 337: 1.
jusve naves, abl., 70: 3, 4.
jusve, a cons. stem, 38: 2; comparison, 73: 4.
jus, w. acc., 187: II, N.
jus, prep. w. acc., 141.

K.

a, 1, 1.
Knowing, verbs of, w. inf., 331: 1.
Knowledgy, adj. of w. gen., 204.

L.

I, pron., 3: 3.
Labial mutes, 2: 4.
jus, decl., 65: 1.
jus, decl., 49: 3.
justus, w. acc., 187: II, N.
justa, w. adversative force, 299.
justis, decl., 33.
jus, inf., 113.
Latin period, 351: 5.
Length of syllables, 5: B.
Length of vowels, 5: A.
denius, suffix, 151: 3.
General Index.

The references are to sections and paragraphs.

Manner, abl. of, 220.

mari, decl., 39, 2; māri, 228, 1, c.

māt, decl., 40, 1, 2.

Masculine, see Gender.

Masculine caseura, 368, 3, c.

Material, abl. of, 221, 3.

matéria, matèra, 39, 3, a.

matérii, compared, 77, 1.

mastrum, compared, 71, 3.

maximo, adj., compared with, 74.

maximi, as gen. of value, 203, 3.

maximus, 91, 1.

Means, abl. of, 218, abl. abs., denoting, 227, 2; denoted by partic., 337, 2, d.

medio, for mit, 84, 3.

Medium (consistens), 2, 3, a, footnote 2.

medie, 'middle of,' 241, 1.

mei, as objective gen., 242, 2.

mei, comparison, 72.

melius est = Eng. potential, 271, 1, d.

memini, 133; constr., 206, 1, a; 2, a.

memor, decl., 70, 2.

memori, comparison, 72.

memori, locative, 232, 2.

mit, w. subj., 256, 2.

mit, dat., 84, 1.

mit, voc. of meru, 86, 2.

Middle voice, verbs in, 175, 2, d.

miles, decl., 49.

milites, locative, 232, 2.

nil, nihil, decl., 86, 5.

minior, comparison, 77, 1; in answers, 162, 5, d.

minimus, comparison, 72.

minor, comparison, 72.

minores, gen. of value, 203, 3; of price, 203, 4.

minus, comparison, 77, 1; = minus quam, 217, 3; quá minus, 295, 3; 1 minus, note, 2 and 4.

minus, conj., 113.

minus, comparison, 75, 2.

miscere, with abl., 222, A; with dat., 358, 3.

miseremur, with gen., 209, 2.

misereris, with gen., 209, 2.

miseret, constr., 209.

Mixed stems, 40.

modum, gen. plu., 25, 6, a.

mode, in wishes and provisos, 310.

modo, 103; constr., 178, 1, d.

months, gender of names of, 15, 1; decl., 68, 1; abl. of month names, 70, 5, a; names, 371, 1.

Moons, 94, 2.

— in independent sentences, 271 f.

— in dependent clauses, 282 f.

Mora, 356, 1.

mora, conj., 109, 2, c.

mos, decl., 36; mōreī, 81.

nōs, with subj., clause, 297, 3.

nullia, soec, constr., 185, 1.

Multiplication, distributive used to indicate, 84, 4, 4.

nullum, 77, 31; compared, 77, 1.

nullus, compared, 72; with another adj., 241, 3.

nūs, decl., 80, 1, d.

nullus, with abl., 222, A.

Mux, 2, 3.

Mute stems, 30.

N.

n, pronunciation, 3, 3; n-stems, 35.

adullerium, 2, 6.

nam, appended to qui, 90, 2, d.

Names, Roman, 373.

Naming verbs of, w. two accusatives, 177, 1.

Nasal, 2, 6.

Nasal stems, 25.

nās, 57, 1; maximus nās, minimus nās, 73, 3, footnotes, 4, 5; 286, 1.

Natural gender, 14.

nās, constr., 215.

nās, decl., 41, 4.

nd, vowel short before, 5, 2, a.

ne, 6, 3 f.; 162, 2, c.; 300, 1, d.; ne...

ne, 152, 4; in indir. double questions, 300, 4.

nē, in prohibitions, 276; with horat. subj., 274; with jussive, 275; with concessive, 278; with optative, 279; in purpose clauses, 282; in substant. clauses, 295 f., 296; in provisos, 310.

nē, 'lest,' 282, 1; 296, 2.

nē nōn for nō after verbs of fearing, 296, 2, a.

nē...quidem, 347, 1, 2.

Nearness, adj. of, w. dat., 192, 1.

nēc, 341, 1, d.; nec igitur, 341, 2, d.)
General Index.

The references are to sections and paragraphs.

neceiste et, w. subj., 295. 8.
nece, in double questions, 162. 4.
nefii, Indecl. Infinitive; 58.
Negative, 347. 2; two negatives strengthening the negation, 357. 2.
nefii, defective, 57. 3; use, 252. 6.
nequum, indecl. Infinitive, 70. 6; compared, 72.
nequer, 341. 1, d); neque in purpose clauses, 282. 1, e.
nequeo, coni., 137. 1.
ne qui, use, 91. 5.
nequiter, compared, 277. 1.
eesicur am, 300. 5.
eesicur qui, as indef. pron., 253. 6.
Neuter, see Gender.
neuter, decl., 60.; use, 92. 1.
neutre (new), in purpose clauses, 282. 1, d.
nt, quantity of vowel before, 51. 1, a.
neutri, indecl. Infinitive, 58.
neul et ci, quin, 295. 7.
eunuit, 'it snows,' 138. 1.
nue, 306. 1 and 4.
nue forte, 306. 5.
nu, 306. 5.
nue verb, 306. 5.
nut, constr., 218. 3.
nut, deci., 40. 1, d.
No, in answers, 162. 2, a.
-ndo class of verbs, 117. 4.
nei, with inf., in proclamations, 276. 6.
nolim, potential subj., 280. 7, a.
nolim, potential subj., 280. 4.
nol, 130; with inf., 331. 1V and a; 276.
2 a; with subj., 296. 1, a.
nomen, decl., 35; nomen est, constr., 190.
1; nomen, as part of Roman name, 373.
Nominative, 170; used for voc., 171.
1; nom. sing. lacking, 57. 6; pred.
nom., 168.
Nom. est, 317. 2, d.
nom, in answers, 162. 5, b.
with poten.
subj., 280; with delectative, 277.
nom dubii qui, with subj., 298; nomen dubii. w. inf., 298. a.
nom modo for nomen modo, 343. 2, a.
winner, 162, 2, a); 300. 1, d., N.
nom qui, with ind., 286. 1, e; with subj.
280. 1, a.
nom qui, with subj., 286. 1, b.
nom qui, with subj., 286. 1, c; with subj.
280. 1, b.
<snips>

Notes = 360, 243. 3.
nusters, as objective gen., 242. 2.
nustri, as gen. of whole, 242. 2; as possessive gen., 242. 2, a.
Nouns, 12 ff.; 363; derivation of, 147 f.
--- in -is not always f-stems, 38. 1.
--- of agency, force, 333. 4.
--- used in plu. only, 96.
--- used in sing. only, 52.
--- used only in certain cases, 57.
--- indecl. Infinitive, 58.
--- with change of meaning in plural, 61.
--- suffix, 163 f.
--- predicated of agreement of, etc., 167 f.
--- appositive of, agreement of, etc., 167 f.
Noun and adj. forms of the verb, 95. 2.
miui, as pres., 262. 4.
modus, compared, 73. 3.
mt, quantity of vowel before, 51. 1, a.
mt, quantity of vowel before, 51. 2, a.
modi, decl., 40. 1, a.
nulla causa est ci, quin, 295. 7.
nullus, decl., 65.; use, 92. 1.
nun, 162. 2, e): 300. 1, d.
Number, 16: 94. 4.
Numerals, 78; f; peculiarities in use of, 81.
numquam, decl., 91. 5.
numper, compared, 77. 1.
~num, subj., 151. 2.
O.
O, vowel, 2, 1; as element in diphthongs.
O, 2. 1; pron., 3. 1; alternating w. i
in certain classes of words, 9. 1; 2. 4.
O-stems, 23; 24; in sflh., 77. 2, a; in
O, 20; 21; in spec., 84.; 363. 4.
O-stems, 363. 4, a; in compounds of pre-
363. 4, a; in compounds of pre-
363. 4, c; in and, led, etc., 363. 4, b.
O, of, 1. 1; in au., 7. 1, e; by contraction.
O, 7. 9; in abl. sing. of 2d decl., 23.
O, in nom. sing. of 3d decl., 35; in Greek
O, 47. 8; in adverb, 77. 2; in
O, 80. 2; 2; in personal endings, 96.
oh, prep., w., acc., 141; verbs compounded
w. governing dat., 187; III.
Observing verbs of, w., dat., 187. 11.
Object direct, 172 f.; two objects w. same
verb, 171; 178; indirect, 187 f.; inf. as
obj., 366; 398; 397; 331.
Objective gen., 200.
General Index.

The references are to sections and paragraphs.

Obligation, verb in expression of, 304, 3. a; see also Duty.

Oblique cases, 17, 2.

obliviscor, const., 206, 1, b; 2.

octodecim (for undecim), 81, 2.

oxl, 135.

or, a, i. pron., 3. 2.

Old forms, familiar, 21, 2, a; auloi, 21, 2, b; servus, acumen, equus, etc., 24; mid., inf., 64, 3; inf., 93, 3.

dol, archaic for tile, 87.

-oslus (a., um.), 148, 1.

-osum, later -osum in 2d decl., 23.

- α, Greek nouns 2d decl. in, 27.

Onomasticon, 375, 4.

opera, opere, 61.

Operations of nature, impersonal verbs expressing, 138, 1.

optimus with comparatives, 217, 4.

open, 57, 6; open, 61.

operculi, 138, 11; w. subj., 295, 6; 8; w. inf., 327, 330.

operculi, with pres. inf. 'ought to have,' 320, 1; with perf. inf., 320, 2, 4.

operculum (Gerund ad opferandum), 182, 2, a.

Optative subj., 272; 275; substantive clauses developed from, 256.

optimus, decl., 40, 1, d.

optimus, comp., 72.

open, w. subst., cl. developed from optative, 296.

operaus, spelling, 9, 1.

opus est, w. aitl., 218, 2; w. partic., 218, 2, 2.

-or, nouns in, 34; 36; -or for -os, 36; gender of nouns in, 43, 11; exceptions in gender, 44, 2; as suffix, 147, 2.

Oratio Obliqua, 313 f.

Order of words, 348 f.

Ordinals, 58, 17; 79.

orior, conjugation, 123, VII.

orundum, const., 215, 9.

or, with acc., 178, 1, 2.

Oppressus, decl., 47, 1.

Orthography, peculiarities, 9.

ortus, const., 215.

ost, decl., 57, 7.

ot, decl., 49.

-or, later -or in 2d decl., 23.

-os, later -or in 3d decl., 30, 1.

--os, Greek nouns, 2d decl. in, 27.

-stat, form of suffix, 151, 3.

stat, decl., 58, 1.

Oxymoron, 375, 2.

P.

p. pron., 3, 3; by assimilation, 8, 4; by partial assimilation, 8, 5.

perteil, 138, 11; w. gen., 209.

palam, as prep., 206, 214, 2.

Palatal mates, 2, 4.

paluster, decl., 68, 1.

Parasitic vowels, 7, 3.

pariter, with infinit., 333.

Pardon, verbs signifying, w. dat., 127, 11.

parto, 109, 2, 2.

pars, partis, 61.

partic., abl. of place, 228, 1, b.

partem, adverbially used, 185, 1.

Participation, subj. of, w. gen., 244, 1.

Participial stem, 97, 111; formation, 119.

Participles, in -osus and -onsus, 70, 3; gen. plu. of in-, 70, 7; pres. act., partic., 97, 1, 5; 103; 105; 107; 110; 113.

fut. act. partic., 97, 111; as one of the principal parts of the verb, p. 55, footnote; 100; 103; 105; 107; 110; 113.

perf. pass. partic., 97, 111; 102; 104; 106; 108; 111; 113; gerundive, see Gerundive; fut. act., peculiar formation of, 119, 4; perf. pass., w. act. or neuter meaning, 114, 2; of deponents, 112, 6; syntax, 336 ff.

Participles, fut. act., 119, 4; denoting purpose, 337.

— perf. act., how supplied, 336, 2.

— perf. pass., 336, 3; as pres., 336, 5.

— pres. partic., 336, 2; with conative force, 336, 9, 9.

— perf. pass., with active meaning, 114, 2; pres. use of partic., 337, 2; participles equivalent to subordinate clauses, 337, 2; to coordinate clauses, 337, 5; w. opus est, 218, 2, e1; w. noun equivalent to abstract noun, 337, 6; with habet, 337, 7.

— with verba, audito, facito, etc., 337, 3.

Particles, 139, 1; 341 f.

Partitive apposition, 169, 5.

Partitive gen., so called, 201.

Parts of speech, 10.
The references are to sections and paragraphs.

Persons, 95, 4; 2d sing. of indefinite subject, 356, 3.
Persons pronouns, 84; 249; as subject, omission of, 166, 2; as objective genitives, 243, 2.

endings, 96.

Persweden, with dat., 187, 11, a; with subj., 295, 1.

Persuading, verbs of, w. dat., 187, 11.

ph, 2, 3, 4; 2, 4; 3, 3.

pig, gen. gen. 209.

Ply, verbs of, w. gen., 209, 1 and 2.

Place to which, 184; whence, 299; place where, 289.

Placitis, force, 114, 2.

Pleasing, verbs of, w. dat., 187, 11, a; w. acc., 187, 11, a, n.

plèô, heteroclitic, 59, 2, d.

plèî, gen., 52, a.

Plenty and Want, verbs of, constr., 212; cf. 218, 8.

plēsni, w. gen., 218, 8, a.

Plocam, 374, 3.

Plocampe, 6, 5.

plum, 138, 1.

Pluperfect tense, formation, 100; syntax, 203; 205; 287, 2; 288, 3; with imperfect meaning, 173, 2.

Plural, 10; in 5th decl., 52, 4; of proper names, 52, 4, 4); of abstract nouns, 52, 4, 4); nouns used in, only, 50; with change of meaning, 61; stylistic use, 333, 1; 2.

Plocatiaum, 50; 81, 4, d.

plòtis, gen. of value, 203, 3.

plot, decl., 70; 70; 4; = plot quadam, 217, 3.

plôma, decl., 47, 5.

Plosyndation, 341, 4, b.

pôc-, inseparable prep., 159, 3, e.

Portica, gender, 50.

portus, decl., 49, 3.

poss, contr., 179, 1, b.

Position of clauses, 351, 3.

of words, 348; 350: 351.

Possessive dat., 100; gen., 198; contracted with dat. of pass., 359, 1.

Possessive pronouns, 86; 243; objective gen., 243, 2; position of, 243, 1, a.

Possibility, verbs of, put in indir. in cond. sentences, 304, 3, a.
possum, 126; with present infn., 'I might,' 291, 1, a; in cond. sentences, 304, 3, a.
post, prep., w. acc., 144, 1; in expressions
of time, 257, 1. 
Poss-posit. words, 345, 1, c.
postquam, 287, 1, 4.
potestatem, comp. 73, 2.
potestatum, separated, 287, 3; with imper.
ind., 287, 4; w. pluperf. ind., 287, 3; with subj., 287, 5.
potestas, use, 241, a.
potestas, with gen., 201, 3, a.
potestas, constr., 178, 1, a.
Potential subj., 292; 280.
potior, with gen., 212, 2; with abl., 212, 1; in gerundive constr., 339, 4.
......, 255, 73, 1.
potius, compared, 77, 1.
potius, in apodosis of conditional
sent. of 3d type, 304, 3, a; in indir.
disc., 322, a.
potuit, with pres. inf. = 'could have,' 
270, a.
potuit, in dependent apodosis, 322, e.
potuit, force, 142, 2.
prae, prep., w. abl., 142; verb compounded
with governing dat., 187, 111; short in praeceditus, etc., 364, 2.

Praedomen, 373.
praeintus, 135.
praeintus, w. dat., 187, 111.
praeintus, force, 142, 2.
præc. -rem, -re, 37, 5, a.
Predicant, 162.
......, gen., 198, 3; 203, 5.
Predicative nouns, 167; 168; In acc., 177;
prepositional nouns or adj., attracted to
dat., 327, 4, 5; 10 nom., 328, a.
......, adjectives, 232, a; 177, 2.
Prepositions, assimilation of, in comp.
ounds, 8, 4; 9, 2; with acc., 141; with
abl., 142; as adverbs, 144; inseparable
prepositions, 145, 2, 3; position, 350, 7; prepositional phrases as attributive
modifiers, 353, 5; anastrophe of, 144,
3; 141, 2; 141, 3, 1, 2; usage with abl. of
sep., 214, 1; with abl. of source, 215.
Present tense, 259; gnomic, 259, 1; co-
native, 259, 2; historical, 259, 3; with
jum, jum, jum, etc., 259, 4; with
dum, 'while,' 293, 1; in Representamenta, 
317; pres. subj., in -im, 127, 2; pres.
partic., see Participle.
......, stem, 97; 1; formation, 117.
......, perfect, 257, 1 and 2.
Preventing, verbs of, w. subj., clause, 
255, 3.
Price, indefinite, special words in gen., 
203, 4; also 203, 1.
......, abl. of, 295.
praeclarus, with gen., 201, 3, a; with acc., 
144, 2.
Primary tenses, see Principal tenses.
præm., 'first who,' 241, 2.
præcepta, decl., 31.
Principal parts, 99; list, p. 251.
......, tenses, 258 f.
prior, compared, 73, 1.
prior, compared, 77, 1.
præsquam, with ind., 294, 4; with subj., 
297; separated, 297.
Privation, verbs of, w. abl., 214, 1, 2 and 6.
præp. prep., w. abl., 142.
præcipit, as prep., w. abl., 142, 2.
præcipuius, w. abl., 214, 2; w. subj., 
clause, 295, 3.
Prohibitions, method of expressing, 276.
Prohibitive subj., 276.
Prolepsis, 374, 5.
Pronominal adj., 253.
Pronouns, defined, 82; classes, 83; personal, 83; reflexive, 83; possessive, 
86; demonstrative, 87; intensive, 88; 
relative, 89; interrogative, 90; indefinite, 91; pronominal adj., 91; personal, 
omission of, as subject, 166, 2; 
syntax, 242 f.; personal, 242 f.; 
possess., 243 f.; reflex., 244 f.; reciprocal, 
245 f.; demonstrative, 246 f.; 
relative, 250 f.; indef., 251 f.; position 
350, 5; 355.
Pronunciation, Roman, 3.
prope, compared, 77, 1.
Proper names, abbreviated, 373.
......, nouns, 12, 1.
proper, compared, 73, 1; with gen., 144, 
3.
proprius, with dat., 204, 2, 2; with gen., 
204, 2.
proper, prep. w. acc., 141.
Prosody, 300 f.
proser, decl., 65, 1.
praed, conj., 109, 2, a.
pre, accent of word preceding, 6, 3; 6, 5; 8, 1, b; 2, a; 4, e.
qua, 137, 1.
Questions, word, sentence, 162 f.; rhetorical, 162, 3; double (alternative), 102, 4; indirect, 302; questions in indir. disc., 315.
qui, rel., 88; interrr., 90; indef., 91; for qui in indir. questions, 90, 2, b: with nē, si, nisi, quod, 91, 5; in purpose clauses, 282, 2: abl., 90, 2, a.
quid, in causal clauses, 286, 1.
quidam, 89.
quidamque, decl., 91, 6.
quidam, decl., 91; syntax, 252, 3.
quidem, post-negative, 317, 1.
quidlibet, decl., 91.
quidam, in enclitic clauses, 282, 3; in substantival clauses, 295, 3: quod est qui in clauses of characteristic, 283, 1; with ind., 292, 3; in indir. disc., 322 and a; nullo causa est qui, 295, 7.
quidam, 93, 2, d.
quodcumque (as quodcumque), 317.
quidque qui, in clauses of characteristic, 283, 1.
quodcumque, decl., 90, 1, 4.
quid, indef., 91; interrr., 90; 90, 2, b; 252, 1; necesse est qui, 253, 6; with nē, si, nisi, nee, 91, 5.
quid est qui, 283, 2.
quid est, indir. question, 90, 2, d.
quidsem, inflection, 90, 2, d.
quidsem, inflection, 91.
quidsem, inflection, 91; usage, 252, 4.
quidque, inflection, 91; usage, 252, 5.
quidquid, inflection, 91, 8.
quid, inflection, 91.
quid, in purpose clauses, 282, 2, a.
quid, with ind., 292: with subj., 203, 3; III, 2.
quid, in causal clauses, 286, 1; in substantival clauses, 295, 3: V, a: lex regards the fact, 292, 2.
quid audieram, 283, 5; quid sciam, 283, 5.
quid (si), adverbial acc., 182, 2.
quid, est form of cum, 9, 1.
quid minus, after verb of hinder, 203, 5.
General Index.

The references are to sections and paragraphs.

guam, in causal clauses, 286, 1.
guainque, post-positive, 347.
-quad, decl. of nouns in, 66.

R.

r, pron., 3, 3: for i between vowels ('Rhematics'), 8, 1.
rapio, conj., 109, 4, a.
ristrum, plurals of, 60, 2.

tata, "thinking," 336, 5.

Reciprocal pronouns, 85, 2; 245; cf. 253, 3.
Reduplication in perf., 218, 4, a): in pers., 117, 7.
Reference, dat. of, 188.

reficere, constr., 210; 211, 4.

Reflexive pronouns, 85; 244; 249, 3.
regi, conj., 206.

Regular verbs, 101-113.
re, 362, 1, 8.
recid, quantity, 362, 5.

Relative adverbs, in rel. clauses of purp., 282, 2.

— clauses, of purp., 282, 2; v. dignat, 282, 3: of characteristic, 283; denoting cause or opposition, 283, 3; restrictive, 283, 5; introduced by quin, 283, 4; 284, 3: conditional rel. clauses, 311; 312, 1 and 2; relative as subj. of inf., 314, 4; rel. clause standing first, 251, 4, a.

— pronouns, inflection, 89; use, 290 ff.; = Eng. demonstrative, 251, 6; agreement, 290; not omitted as in Eng., 251, 5; fondness for subordinate clauses, 255.

reincipitur uxor, 297, a.
relegi, use, 253, 5.
reliquum est, with subj., 295, 6.

rimus, decl., 30.

Remembering, verbs of, cases used w., 306.
Reminding, verbs of, const., 297.
remiser, const., 206, 2.
removing verbs of, w. abl., 214, a.
responder, const., 178, 1, a.

responderet, 318.
respecet, requiem, requiлем, 59, 2, 3.
rest, decl., 51.

Resisting, verbs of, w. dat. 187, 11.

Restrictive clauses, 283, 5.

Result, acc. of, 173, 8; 176; clauses of, 284; 297; in dependent apodosis, 322, and a; sequence of tense in, 258, 6.

reverter, semi-deponent, 114, 3.

Rhetorical questions, 162, 31; 277, a; in indir. disc., 315, 2.

Rhetoric, 8, 1; 56, 1.

Rivers, gender of names of, 15, 4, 1.

rogulā, abl. of cause, 219, 2.
rogū, const., 178, 1, c); 178, 1, a).

Roman pronunciation, 3.

Rood, 17, 3, footnote 1.

— r, decl. of nouns in, 40, 1, c.

rūre, abl. place from which, 299, 1, b.

rūri, abl. place in which, 226, 1, e.

rūs, 57, 7; acc. limit of motion, 182, 1, a.

S.

s, pron., 3, 3: changed to r between vowels, s, t, t, t, from 3, 3, 3, 3.

sē, 3, 8.

— decl. of monosyllables in, preceded by one or more consonants, 40, 1, b.

S.-stems, 26.
sacer, decl., 65; comparison, 73, 3.
sacre, compared, 77, 1.
sēl, 57, 7; sālēs, 61.
salārius, dec., 68, 3.
salārius, comp., 73, 4.
salāre, salūtāre, 139, 4.

samnitès, decl., 40, 1, d.
sapere, in answers, 160, 5.
sapere, conj., 100, 2, a.
satur, decl., 65, 2.

Saying, verbs of, w. infinit. of ind. disc., 321, 1.
sē, quod seām, 263, 5.

—sē- class of verbs, 117, 6; 155.
scribere ad aliquem, 328, 2.

sē, use, 244.
sē, compounds of, 159, 3, 3.

Second conj., 210; decl., 23; peculiarities, 25; second person indefinite, 280, 3; 256, 3; 292, 2.

Secondary tenses, see Historical tenses secondum, prep. w. acc., 141

sect, decl., 38, r.
secus, compared, 77, 1.
sectus, (scil. sectus), 185, 1; 58.
sectus, 'following,' 336, 5.
sectur, decl., 85, 3.
sē, compounds of, 159, 3, 3.
General Index.

The references are to sections and paragraphs.

Socrates, decl., 39, 2.
Sounds, classification, 2.
— of the letters, 3.
Source, abl., 215.
Space, extent of, 187.
Sparing, verbs of, w. dat., 187, II.
Specification, abl. of, 220.
sēpī, quantity, 362, 1, 6.
Spelling, see Orthography.
Springs, 2, 7.
Spondiac verses, 358, 2.
Spondeo, 328, 1.
sponde swab, abl. accordance, 220, 3.
spondeo, -e, defective, 57, 2, 8.
Statutes, fut. imperative used in, 281, 1, 8.
Stem, 17, 3.
—, verb, 97, 117.
Structure of sentences, see Sentences.
Style, hints on, 354 f.
sw = sw, 3, 3.
sub, prep. with acc. and abl., 143; compounds of, w. dat., 187, III.
Subject, 153; nom., 160; acc., 184; subject acc. of inf., 184; omitted, 314, 5; clauses as subject, 294; 295, 6; inf. as subj., 327; 330.
Subjective gen., 169.
Subjunctive, tenses in, 94, 3.
— in independent sentences, 272; by attraction, 324; tenses of, 266 f.; method of expressing future time in, 269; volitive (hortatory, prohibitive, deliberative, concessive), 273 f.; optative (wishes), 276; potential, 287; in clauses of purpose, 282; of character, 283; of result, 284; of cause, 286; temporal clauses with postquam, primumquam, 287, 5; temporal clauses with cum, 288-290; with antequam and primumquam, 291; with dum, donec, quoad, 293, III, 2; substantive clauses, 294 f.; indirect questions, 300; in apodosis of first type conditions, 302, 4; jussive subjunctive as protasis of condition, 305, 2; with velut, tamquam, etc., 307; with necesse est, oportet, etc., 305, 6 and 8; with licet, 309, 4; with quamvis, quamquam, et, cum, ‘although,’ 320 f.
substantious, p. 99, footnote.
subm. = summ., 9, 2.
Subordinate clauses, 165.
General Index.

Substantive clauses, 294 f.; developed from the volitive, 295, 1-3; developed from the optative, 296; with wim dubiō, 298; indir. questions, 300; without w/ 295, 8; of result, 297; introduced by quod, 295.

— use of adj., 236-8.
subier, prep. w. acc., 143, 3.
Suffixes, 17, 3, footnote 1; 147.
sw, 85, as objective gen., 244, 2; as possessive gen., 244, 2.
sum, conj., 100; omitted when auxiliary, 166, 3.
summar, 'top of,' 241, 1.
sunt gen., with subj., 283, 2.
supet, suppl., 85, 3.
supet, decl., 42, 2.
supr, prep. w. acc., 243, 1.
superus, compared, 78, 2.
Superlative degree; of adj., 71, 1; 2: in -imur, 91, 3; in -istant, 71, 4; irregular superl., 72; lacking, 73, 4; formed w. maximus, 74; of adverb, 76, 21; irregular, 77, 4; force of, 240, 2.
Supine, 340.
supfl, prep. w. acc., 141.

-urus, suffix, 147, 3, a.
Surd consonants, 2, 3, a, i, footnote 1.
ści, decl., 41.
sustella, p. 99, footnote.
sus, decl., 88, 1; 244; sus quisquam, 244.
4, a.
Syllaba accēpt, 356, 10.
Syllables, division, 4; quantity of, 5, B.
Synapheis, 359, 6.
Synaeiosis, 357, 1.
Synchysis, 350, 11, d.
Syncope, 4: 357, 8.
Synchronical acc., 189.
Synizesis, 356, 1.
Syntax, 166 f.
Systole, 357, 3.
T.
T., pron., 3, 3; th, 2, 3; c, 3; changes, 8, 2; dropped, 8, 3.
Tesser, 138, 11; w. gen., 299.
Taking away, verbs of, w. dat., 188, 2, d, tempus, gen. plu., 356, 3, 6, 4, a.
mam, 343, 1, f.
mamol, 359, 2.
Saum, Saum, Saum 11, w. subj., 301.
tam, 6, 4.
—iat, 149, gen. —ītum, decl. of nouns in, 40, 1, 2.
Tasting, verbs of, constr., 176, 5.
Teaching, verbs of, constr., 176, 1, 6.
T et, f. 84, 3.
Temporal clauses, w. postquam, w. ubi, simul ac, 287; w. cum, 288; 289; w. antequam and praediam, 291; 292; w. cum, dūtum, quando, 293.
Témporis (id temporis), 185, 2.
Tendency, dat. of, 191.
tener, decl., 64.
Tenses, 94, 3; 297 ff.; of inf., 291; of inf. in inid. disc., 317; of participles, 336; of subject, 206; sequence of, 266-258; in inid. disc., 317; 318.
Tenues (consonants), 2, 3, a, footnote 7.
Tenus, position, 142, 3.
Terminations, 17, 3.
terri, how used, 81, 4, 6.
terrari, 154.
terrā maris, 298, 1, 4.
terrestre, 68, 3.
Tetramerter verses, 366, 11.
Thematic verbs, 101-113.
— vowels, 117, footnote.
Third conj., 105; 109; decl., 28 f.; gender in, 43 f.
Threatening, verbs of, 187, 11.
-MUS, aversio in, 157, 2.
Time, at which, 230; during which, 231; 1; within which, 231.
timōr ut us us, 297, 2.
-Tavi, suffix, 154.
-TAV, suffix, 154.
Tues, 359, 7.
—v as suffix of verbs, 155, 2.
—or, use of nouns in, 353, 4.
lōtus, 66; preposition absent w. in expression of place relations, 228, 1, 8.
Towns, gender of names of, 15, 2; names of, denoting limit of motion, 182, 1, 2; denoting place where, 228, 1, 2; place from which, 229, 1, 2; appositive of town names, 159, 4; 299, 2.
Translation, 332, N.
Tres, prep. w. acc., 141; constr. of verbs compounded with, 179.
Transitive verbs, 174.
Trees, gender of names of, 15, 2.
The General Index.

The references are to sections and paragraphs.

très, decl., 80, 3.
Tribhach, 370, 2.
tribut, decl., 49, 3; gender, 50.
Trimeter verses, 366, 11.
tria, use, 81, 4, 8.
trivium, gen. plu. of, 25, 6, 8.
-ter, suffix, 147, 1.
Trotcher, 366, 2.
-tem, suffix, 147, 4.
Trusting, a, use of, w. dat., 187, 11.
-tus, decl., 81.
-tènē, suffix, 149.
tui, as objective gen., 242, 9.
-tura, suffix, 147, 3, 4.
tur, decl., 57, 7.
tur, suffix, 171, 2; 131, 4.
-tusis, decl., 38.
tutel, tutelis, tutelum, 84, 2.
Two accusatives, 177; 178.
Two datives, 191, 2.

U.

u, instead of ū in some words, 9, 1; instead of a, 9, 1; 9, 4.
ū, becomes ū, 367, 4.
-ū stems, 48.
-ū stems, 48.
ūber, decl., 70, 1.
ubris, with ind., 287, 1; 2; with gen., 201, 2.
-ūbus, dat. plu., 4th decl., 49, 3.
ūlīus, decl., 66.
ulterior, compared, 73, 1.
ulterior, usc., 241, 2.
ultrā, prep. w. acc., 141.
-ūs, diminutive ending, 150, 2; (d, um), 140, 1.
-ūs, 1st decl., gen. plu. in, 21, 2, 4; 2d decl., 25, 6; for -īum, 70, 7.
-ūsus, -ēndi, in gerund and gerundive, 116, 2.
ūsus, decl., 66; 92, 1; 89 est qui, with subj., 283, 2.
-ūtū, ending of desiderative verbs, 155, 3.
-ūtus, ending of lat. art. partic., 103, 103 ff.; -ūtus fuit in apodosis of conditional sentences contrary-to-fact, in indir. disc., 321, 2; -ūtus fuerim in indir. questions serving as apodosis, 321, 2.

-w, neuter nouns of 2d decl. in, 26, 2; nom. in 3d decl., in -wi, 36; gender of nouns in -wi of 3d decl., 43, 3; exceptions in gender, 46, 4.
-wi, nouns of 3d decl. in, 43, 2.
-ūnius, w. acc., 141, 1.
ūnus est, with alt., 218, 2.
w, temporal, 287, 1; 2; et, 287, in purpose clauses, 282, in result clauses, 284; in substantive clauses, 285, 1; substantive clauses without, 285, 2; with verbs of being, 286, 2.
-ūnus, w., 282, 1, 2; 295, 1, 4, 5.
ūnus instead of w, 282, 1, 2; in clauses of result, 284, 287.
ūnus, introducing clauses of characteristic, 283, 3.
ūnus, w. subjunctivus, 307, 1.
ūnter, decl., 66; 92, 1.
ūnter, decl., 40, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, usc., 241, 2.
ūnter, usc., 241, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, usc., 241, 2.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, usc., 241, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
ūnter, decl., 92, 1; usc., 355, 2.
ūnter, decl., 66.
General Index.

Verbal adj., 150, 1-4.
Verbs, 94 f.; personal endings, 96; deponent, 112; archaic and poetic forms, 116, 4.; irregular, 124; defective, 133; impersonal, 158; with substantival clauses of result, 297, 2; omission of, 166, 3.; transitive, 174; used absolutely, 174, 4.; passives used as middles, 177, 2, d.; of smelling and seeing, 176, 5; not used in passive, 177, 3, a.; intransitives impersonal in passive, 187, 11, 6; 255, 3; compounded with prep., constr., 187, 111; of judicial action, constr., 208; derivation of, 155 f.; inceptive or inchoative, 155, 1; frequentative or intensive, 155, 2; desiderative, 155, 3; denominative, 156; agreement of, 254 f.

Verbs, 97; formation of, 117 f.

Verbs, conj., 113; with subst. clause in subj., 256, 2.

Verbs, gen. of, 25, 1.

Verbs, with present force, 336, 5.

Verbs, with inf., 331, 11.

Verse, 356, 3.

Verse-structure, 356 f.

Versification, 361.

Verse, prep. w. acc., 141; follows its case, 141, 2.

Verse, 343, 1, 4, 6.

Verse, with abl., 218, 1.

Verse, decl., 23, 2.

Verse, locative, 236, 2.

Verse, as obj. gen., 242, 2.

Verse, as gen. of whole, 242, 2; as possessive gen., 242, 2, a.

Verse, with inf., 331, 11.

Verse, dec., 70; compared, 73, 3.

Verse, decl., 290, 2.

Verse, used adverbially, 185, 2; vice, 290, 5, 8.

Verse, dec., 34.

Verse, acc., 50, 4.

Verse, with prep. partl., 337, 3.

Verse, dec., 34.

Verse, formation, 277, 4, a.

Verse, decl., 23.

—gen. plu. of nouns compounded with, 25, 6, 8.

Verse, constr., 185, 1.

Verse, gender of, 26, 2.

VI, decl., 41.

Vivere, used in plu. only, 56, 3.

Vocative case, 17; 19, 1; of Greek proper names in -di, 47, 4; of adj. in -eri, 63; 1; 177; in -i for -i, 25, 1; position of, 250, 3.

Voiced sounds, 3, 3, a.

Voiced consonants, 3, 3, 4.

Voiceless consonants, 3, 3, 4.

Voices, 256; middle voice, 256, 1.

Voltive subjunctive, 274 f.

Volutus, spelling, 9, 1.

Volutus, 130; with inf., 331, 1, IV and a; 270 2, a; with subj., 296, 1, a.

Volutus, spelling, 9, 1.

Volutus, decl., 68, 1.

Voluntary, 220, 2.

Voluntation, 220, 2.

W.

Want, verbs and adj. of, w. abl., 214, 1.

Want, verbs and adj. of, w. abl., 214, 1.

Want, 91, 4.

Want, by which, abl. of, 218, 9.

Wish, editorial, 242, 3.

Whole, gen. of, 201.

Whole, use of fut. imperative in, 281, 1, 5.

Winds, gender of names of, 25, 1.

Wish, clauses with dum, etc., expressing a, 310.

Wishes, subjunctive in, 279; see Optative subjunctive.

Wishing, verbs of, with subj. clause, 296, 1; with obj. inf., 331, IV.

Word-formation, 146 f.

Word-order, 248 f.

Word questions, 162, 1.

X.

X, 2, 9; 27, 49, et 49.

X, decl. of monosyllables in, preceded by one or more cons. 40, 1, 6; gender of nouns in -x of 3d decl., 43, 2; except items 45, 4.
General Index.

The references are to sections and paragraphs.

Y.

Y, 1, 11.

Yes, how expressed, 162, 5.

‘You,’ indefinite, 355, 31; 280, 31; 302, 2.

Z.

Z, 1, 1; 2, 9.

Zeugma, 374, 2, a).