NEW LATIN GRAMMAR

ALLEN AND GREENOUGH

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NEW

LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

FOUNDED ON COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR

EDITED BY

J. B. GREENOUGH  G. L. KITTREDGE
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PREFACE

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

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

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

September 1, 1903.
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LATIN GRAMMAR

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

PART FIRST—WORDS AND FORMS

THE ALPHABET

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>LABIALS</th>
<th>DENTALS</th>
<th>PALATALS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mutes</strong></td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voiced (mediae)</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>c (k, q)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voiceless (tenues)</td>
<td>ph</td>
<td>th</td>
<td>ch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspirates</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n (before c, g, q)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nasals</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquida</td>
<td>l, r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricatives (Spirants)</td>
<td>f¹</td>
<td>s, z</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sibilants</td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semivowels</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>consonant i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

¹ Strictly a labio-dental, pronounced with the under lip touching the upper teeth.

² The aspirates are almost wholly confined to words borrowed from the Greek. In early Latin such borrowed sounds lost their aspiration and became simply p, t, c.

³ Palatal sounds are often classed as (1) velars, pronounced with the tongue touching or rising toward the soft palate (in the back part of the mouth), and (2) palatals, in which the tongue touches or rises toward the hard palate (farther forward in the mouth). Compare the initial consonants in *key* and *cool*, whispering the two words, and it will be observed that before e and i the k is sounded farther forward in the mouth than before a, o, or u.
§§ 5, 6) ORTHOGRAPHY

5. The vowels i and u serve as consonants when pronounced rapidly before a vowel so as to stand in the same syllable.¹ Consonant i has the sound of English consonant y; consonant u (v) that of English consonant w.

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

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

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

ORTHOGRAPHY

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

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

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

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

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

cum, older quem;³ equos, ecus, laterequus; sequuntur, secuntur, latersequuntur; similarly exstinguunt, exstinguunt, later exstinguunt.

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

c. Between consonant i and a preceding a, e, o, or u, an i was developed as a transient sound, thus producing a diphthong ai, ei, etc., before the consonant i. In such cases but one i was written: as, aiō (for ∧ai-īō), máius (for ∧mai-iuus), péius (for ∧pei-iuus).

¹ Compare the English word Indian as pronounced in two syllables or in three.
² In such words it is possible that the preceding consonant was labialized and that no distinct and separate consonant u was heard.
³ The spelling quum is very late and without authority.
a. Similarly in compounds of iacīō but one i was written (as, con-iciō, not con-iciō); but the usual pronunciation probably showed consonant i followed by vowel i (see § 11. e).

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

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

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

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

Syllables

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


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

pa-ter, mi-li-tēs, in-ū-ri-a, di-vi-dō; mi-tō, tol-lō.

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

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

b. In compounds the parts are separated: —

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

Pronunciation

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

Vowels: ă as in father; ă as in idea.
ē as eh? (prolonged), or a in date; ē as eh? (clipped) or e in net.
ī as in machine; ī as in holiest or sit.
ō as in holy; ō as in obey.
ū as oo in boot; ū as oo in foot.

y between u and i (French u or German ü).

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

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

Quantity

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

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

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

a. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as in via, nihil.
b. A diphthong is long: as in ae-dēs, fōē dus. So, also, a vowel derived from a diphthong: as in excū-dō (from ex-claudō).
c. A vowel formed by contraction is long: as in nil (from nihil).
d. A vowel before ns, nf, gn, is long: as in cōnstāns, inferō, māgnus.

Note. — But the quantity of the vowel before gn is not certain in all cases.
e. A vowel before nd, nt, is regularly short: as in amandus, amant.

In this book all vowels known to be long are marked (ā, ē, etc.), and short vowels are left unmarked (a, e, etc.). Vowels marked with both signs at once (ā, ē, etc.) occur sometimes as long and sometimes as short.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

12. Words of two syllables are accented on the first syllable: as, Rō'ma, fi'dēs, tan'gō.

Words of more than two syllables are accented on the Penult if that is long (as, amī'cus, monē'tur, contin'git); otherwise on the Antepenult (as, do'mīνus, a'lācris, disso'ciā'bilis).

α. When an enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether long or short: as, dē'que, āmārē've, tībī'ne, iū'que (and . . . so), as distinguished from iū'que (therefore). So (according to some) ex'inde, cc'quandō, etc.

Exceptions: 1. Certain apparent compounds of faciō retain the accent of the simple verb: as, benefā'cit, caelefā'cit (see § 206. α).

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

2. In the second declension the genitive and vocative of nouns in -ius and the genitive of those in -ium retain the accent of the nominative: as, Cornē'li, Vergī'li, inge'ni (see § 49. c).

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

Combinations

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

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

Note. — Sometimes a slight change in pronunciation resulted, as, especially in the old poets, before est in homōst (homō est), periculumst (periculum est), austom (austus est), quālist (quālis est). Similarly there occur vin', scīn' for visne, scīsne, sīs (sī vis), sōdēs (sī audēs), sūltis (sī vultis). Compare in English somebody, to breakfast; he's, I've, thou'rt.

Phonetic Changes

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

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

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

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

**Vowel Changes**

1. The old diphthong *ai* became the classical *ae* (*aedēlis* for old *aidēlis*), old *oi* became *oe* or *ū* (*ūnus* for old *einos*), and old *ou* became *ū* (*dūcō* for old *doucō*).

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

   - *faciō*, *factum*, but *conficiō*, *confectum*; *caedē*, but *occidē*, and similarly *cecīdi*, perfect of *caedē* (cf. *cadē*, *occidē*; *cecidī*, perfect of *cadē*).

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

3. Two vowels coming together are often contracted:—

   - *cōgō* for *tō-agō*; *prōmō* for *tpro-emō*; *nil dōr* nihil; *dēbeō* for *tde-hibeō* (*tde-habeō*).

**Consonant Changes**

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

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

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

5. A dental (*t, d*) often became *s*, especially when standing next to *t, d,* or *s*: as, *aestāris* for *aestētris*, *cāsus* for *cādūs* (cf. 6, below).

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

   - *cessā* for *tced-sī*; *summūs* for *tsummūs*; *scribētūs* for *scribētus* (*b* unvoicing to *p* before the voiceless *t*); and in compound verbs (see § 16).

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

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

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

Note.—Traces of this pronunciation existed in Cicero’s time. He speaks of the omission of final s before a word beginning with a consonant as “counterfied” (subrāsticum).

8. A final consonant often disappears: as, virōgō for †virōgō; lac for †lact; cor for †cord.

9. G, c, and h unite with a following s to form x: as, rēx for †rēgs; dux for †ducis; trāxi for †trahsī.¹

10. G and h before t become c: as, rēctum for †regtum; āctum for †agtum; trāctum for †trahtum.²

11. Between m and s or m and t, a p is often developed: as, sūnsī for †sūmsī; ēptum for †ēmtum.

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

There is good authority for many complete or partial assimilations; as, for ad, acc-, agg-, app-, att-, instead of add-, add-, etc. Before a labial consonant we find com- (comb-, comp-, comm-), but com- is the form before c, d, t, g, cons. i, q, s, t, cons. v; we find con- or call-, cen- or corr-; cē- in cēnectō, cēnīvō, cēnitō, cēnūbium. In usually changes to im- before p, b, m. Ob and sub may assimilate b to a following c, t, g, or p; before s and t the pronunciation of prepositions ending in b doubtless had p; surr. summ-, occur for subr-, summ-. The inseparable amb.- loses b before a consonant. Circum often loses its m before i. The s of dis becomes r before a vowel and is assimilated to a following f; sometimes this prefix appears as dr-. Instead of ex we find ef- before f (also cef). The d of red and sēd is generally lost before a consonant. The preposition is better left unchanged in most other cases.

Vowel Variations

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

a. This variation is often called by the German name Ablaut. It has left considerable traces in the forms of Latin words, appearing sometimes as a difference of quantity in the same vowel (as, u, ū; e, ē), sometimes as a difference in the vowel itself (as, e, o; i, ae):⁴—

tēgō, I cover, toga, a robe; pendō, I weigh, pondus, weight; fāēs, fātū, fidūs, faithful, foodus, a treaty; miser, wretched, maestus, sad; dare, to give, dōnum, a gift; regō, I rule, rēx, a king; dux, a leader, dūcō (for older doceō), I lead. Compare English drive, drove (drave), driven; bind, bound, band; sing, song, sung; etc.

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p: pater</td>
<td>f: father, earlier fader²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f from bh: ferō, frätēr</td>
<td>b: to bear, brother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b &quot; &quot; lubet, libet</td>
<td>v, f: love, lief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t: tū, teniūs</td>
<td>th: thou, thin³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d: duo, dent-</td>
<td>t: two, tooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f from dh: faciō</td>
<td>d: do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d &quot; &quot; medius</td>
<td>d: mid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b &quot; &quot; ruber</td>
<td>d: red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c: cord-, cornū</td>
<td>h: heart, horn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qu: quod</td>
<td>wh: what</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g: genus, gustūs</td>
<td>c, k, ch: kin, choose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h (from gh): hortus, haeduus</td>
<td>y, g: yard, goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cons. i: iugum</td>
<td>y: yoke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v: ventus, ovis</td>
<td>w: wind, ewe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v from gv: vivus (for t gvivos), veniō (for t gvemīō)</td>
<td>qu, c, k: quick, come</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note 1.** — Sometimes a consonant lost in Latin is still represented in English: as, niv. (for fniv.), Eng. snow; änsər (for fänser), Eng. goose.

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

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

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

3 But to the group st of Latin corresponds also English st; as in Latin stō, English stand.
20. Words are divided into eight Parts of Speech: Nouns, Adjectives (including Participles), Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Nouns and pronouns are often called Substantives.

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

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

e. An Adverb is a word used to express the time, place, or manner of an assertion or attribute: as, splendidē mendāx, gloriously false; hodiē nātus est, he was born to-day.

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

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

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

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

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

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

INFLECTION

21. Latin is an inflected language.
Inflection is a change made in the form of a word to show its grammatical relations.

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

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

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

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

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

frangit, he breaks or is breaking; frēgit, he broke or has broken; mordet, he bites; memordit, he bit.¹

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

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

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

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

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

Root, Stem, and Base

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

1. By changing or lengthening its vowel: as in **scob-s**, **sardust** (**scaeb, shave**); **rēgis**, of a king (**reg, direct**); **vōcis**, of a voice (**voc, call**).

2. By the addition of a simple suffix (originally another root): as in **fugā-**, stem of fugā, flight (**fug + ā-**); **regi-s**, you rule (**reg + stem-ending **ˈo**ˈ**); **sini-t**, he allows (**sin + n̥o̞ˈo**).¹

3. By two or more of these methods: as in **düci-t**, he leads (**duc + stem-ending **ˈo**ˈ**).

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

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

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

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

**GENDER**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

   **Note 3.**—Names of classes or collections of persons may be of any gender: as, **exercitus** (m.), **aciēs** (f.), and **agmen** (n.), army; **operae** (f. plur.), workmen; **cōpiae** (v. plur.), troops; **senātus** (m.), senate; **cohors** (v.), cohort; **concilium** (n.), council.

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

General Rules of Gender

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

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

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

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

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

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

māter, mother; Lālia, Julia; Rōmā, Rome; Itālia, Italy; rosa, rose; pīilus, pine; sapphirus, sapphire; anas, duck; vēritās, truth.

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

b. A few names of Plants and Gems follow the gender of their termination: as, centaurēum (n.), centaur; acanthus (m.), bear’s foot; opalus (m.), opal.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

f. The Vocative is the case of Direct Address.

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

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

Note.—Still another case, the Instrumental, appears in a few adverbs (§ 215. 4).

DECLENSION OF NOUNS

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decl.</th>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Gen. Sing.</th>
<th>ae</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ō</td>
<td>ũ</td>
<td>ēi</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ī or a Consonant</td>
<td>īs</td>
<td>ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>ū</td>
<td>ūs</td>
<td>ḗ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>ē</td>
<td>ḗ</td>
<td>ḗ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

- The Vocative is always the same as the Nominative, except in the singular of nouns and adjectives in -us of the second declension, which have -e in the vocative. It is not included in the paradigms, unless it differs from the nominative.
- In neuters the Nominative and Accusative are always alike, and in the plural end in -ā.
- The Accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in -m; the Accusative plural in -s.
- In the last three declensions (and in a few cases in the others) the Dative singular ends in -ī.
- The Dative and Ablative plural are always alike.
- The Genitive plural always ends in -um.
- Final -ī, -ō, -u of inflection are always long; final -a is short, except in the Ablative singular of the first declension; final -e is long in the first and fifth declensions, short in the second and third. Final -is and -us are long in plural cases.

Case-endings of the Five Declensions

39. The regular Case-endings of the several declensions are the following:—¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decl. I</th>
<th>Decl. II</th>
<th>Decl. III</th>
<th>Decl. IV</th>
<th>Decl. V</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.</td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>N.</td>
<td>M., F.</td>
<td>N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>-a</td>
<td>(modified stem)</td>
<td>-us</td>
<td>-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>-ae</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>-īa</td>
<td>-ūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>-ae</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>-uf (-ū)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>-am</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>-um (-im)</td>
<td>(like nom.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>-a</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>-e (-ī)</td>
<td>-ū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>-a</td>
<td>-e</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>(like nom.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Plural** | | | | |
| N.V. | -ae | -ī | -a | -ēs | -a | -ia | -ūs | -ua | -ēs |
| Gen. | -ārum | -ōrum | -um | -ium | -uum | -ērum | | | |
| D.Ab. | -is | -īs | -ibus | -ibus (-ibus) | -ēbus | | | | |
| Acc. | -ās | -ōs | -a | -ēs (-īs) | -a | -ia | -ūs | -ua | -ēs |

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

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

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

stella, f., star
STEM stellā-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>stella</td>
<td>stellae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>stellae</td>
<td>stellārum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>stellae</td>
<td>stellās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>stellam</td>
<td>stellīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>stellā</td>
<td>stellīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

case-endings: -a, -ae, -am, -ā

PLURAL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>stellae</td>
<td>stars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>stellārum</td>
<td>of stars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>stellīs</td>
<td>to or for stars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>stellās</td>
<td>stars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>stellīs</td>
<td>with, from, by, etc. stars</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

-ae, -ārum, -īs, -ās

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

Gender in the First Declension

42. Nouns of the first declension are Feminine.

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

Case-Forms in the First Declension

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

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

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

d. The genitive plural is sometimes found in -um instead of -árum, espe-
sially in Greek patronymics, as, Aeneádum, sons of Æneas, and in compounds
with -cōla and -gēna, signifying dwelling and descent: as, caelicolum, celestials;
Tróiaugenum, sons of Troy; so also in the Greek nouns amphora and
drachma.

e. The dative and ablative plural of déa, goddess, filia, daughter, end in
an older form -ábus (déabus, fíliábus) to distinguish them from the corre-
sponding cases of déus, god, and filius, son (deís, fíliís). So rarely with other
words, as, liberta, freed-woman; múla, she-mule; equa, mare. But, except
when the two sexes are mentioned together (as in formulas, documents,
etc.), the form in -ís is preferred in all but déa and filia.

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

Note 2.—In the dative and ablative plural -eis for -ís is sometimes found, and -ís
(as in taénís) is occasionally contracted to -ís (taemís); so regularly in words in -ái (as,
Bális from Báiae).

Greek Nouns of the First Declension

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Andromache, v.</th>
<th>Æneas, m.</th>
<th>Persian, m.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. Andromachē (-a)</td>
<td>Aenēáas</td>
<td>Persēs (-a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. Andromachēs (-ae)</td>
<td>Aenēae</td>
<td>Persae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. Andromachae</td>
<td>Aenēae</td>
<td>Persae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. Andromachēn (-am)</td>
<td>Aenēān (-am)</td>
<td>Persēn (-am)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. Andromachē (-ā)</td>
<td>Aenēā</td>
<td>Persē (-ā)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. Andromachē (-a)</td>
<td>Aenēā (-a)</td>
<td>Persa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Declension of Nouns

**Anchises, m.**  
**Nom.** Anchises  
**Gen.** Anchisae  
**Dat.** Anchisae  
**Acc.** Anchisēn (-am)  
**AbL.** Anchisē (-ā)  
**Voc.** Anchisē (-ā, -a)

**Son of Aeneas, m.**  
**Nom.** Aeneadēs (-a)  
**Gen.** Aeneadae  
**Dat.** Aeneadae  
**Acc.** Aeneadēn  
**AbL.** Aeneadē (-ā)  
**Voc.** Aeneadē (-a)

**Comet, m.**  
**Nom.** Comētēs (-a)  
**Gen.** Comētae  
**Dat.** Comētēs (-a)  
**Acc.** Comētēn (-am)  
**AbL.** Comētā (-ē)  
**Voc.** Comēta

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

- **a.** Greek forms are found only in the singular; the plural, when it occurs, is regular: **as, comētae, -ārum, etc.**
- **b.** Many Greek nouns vary between the first, the second, and the third declensions: **as, Boētae (genitive of Boētēs, -is), Thūcýdidās (accusative plural of Thūcýdidēs, -is).** See § 52. a and § 81.

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

### Second Declension (o-Stems)

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

- **a.** The Nominative is formed from the stem by adding **s** in masculines and feminines, and **m** in neuters, the vowel **ō** being weakened to **ū** (see §§ 6. a, 46. n.1).
- **b.** In most nouns whose stem ends in **rō-** the **s** is not added in the Nominative, but **ō** is lost, and **e** intrudes before **r,** if not already present: **as, ager, stem agrē-; cf. puer, stem puero.**

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

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

**Note.** — In composition this **ō** appears as **i**. Thus, **belli-ger,** warlike (from bene-**o**-stem of bellum, war).

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

---

1 Compare the English chamber from French chambre.
2 Compare Greek ἄγρα, which shows the original **o** of the stem.
3 By so-called **Ablaut** (see § 17. a).
§§ 46, 47]  SECOND DECLENSION (O-STEMS)  21

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>servus, m., slave</th>
<th>bellum, n., war</th>
<th>Pompēius, m., Pompey</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. servus (-os)</td>
<td>case-endings</td>
<td>case-endings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. servī</td>
<td>-ī (-os)</td>
<td>bellī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. servō</td>
<td>-ō (-um)</td>
<td>bellō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. servum (-om)</td>
<td>-um (-um)</td>
<td>bellum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. servā</td>
<td>-ē (-ēs)</td>
<td>bellī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. serve</td>
<td>-e (-ēs)</td>
<td>bellum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pompēius (-um)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. servī</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. servōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. servīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. servōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. servās</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-ī (-ēs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ī (-īs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ō (-ēs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ē (-ēs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-um (-ōrum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ā (-a)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**NOTE 2.**—Stems in -uo-, like equo-, change qu to c before u. Thus, -ecus (earlier equos), equi, equō, ecum (earlier equom), equē. Modern editions disregard this principle.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>puer, m., boy</th>
<th>ager, m., field</th>
<th>vir, m., man</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. puer</td>
<td>ager</td>
<td>vir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. puerī</td>
<td>agrī</td>
<td>virī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. puerō</td>
<td>agrō</td>
<td>virō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. puerum</td>
<td>agrōrum</td>
<td>virūm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. puerō</td>
<td>agrō</td>
<td>virō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>case-endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Puerōrum (-um)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. puerī</th>
<th>agrī</th>
<th>virī</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. puerōrum</td>
<td>agrōrum</td>
<td>virūrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. puerīs</td>
<td>agrīs</td>
<td>virīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. puerōs</td>
<td>agrōs</td>
<td>virōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. puerīs</td>
<td>agrīs</td>
<td>virīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

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

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

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

Case-Forms in the Second Declension

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

b. The genitive of nouns in -ius or -ium ended, until the Augustan Age, in a single -ī: as, filī, of a son; Pompēii, of Pompey (Pompēius); but the accent of the nominative is retained: as, ingēnīi, of genius.⁠¹

c. Proper names in -ius have -ī in the vocative, retaining the accent of the nominative: as, Vergīlii. So also, filius, son; genius, divine guardian: as, audī, mi filī, hear, my son.

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

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

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

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

f. Proper names in -āius, -ēius, -ēius (as, Aurunculēius, Bōi), are declined like Pompēius.

¹ The genitive in -ī occurs once in Virgil, and constantly in Ovid, but was probably unknown to Cicero.
SECOND DECENSION (O-STEMS)

§ 49-52. Deus (m.), god, is thus declined:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. deus</td>
<td>deī (āī), dī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. deī</td>
<td>deōrum, deum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. deō</td>
<td>deīs (diās), diā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. deum</td>
<td>deōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. deō</td>
<td>deīs (diās), diā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

50. The following stems in ero-, in which e belongs to the stem, retain the e throughout and are declined like puer (§ 47):

- adulter, adulterer;
- gener, son-in-law;
- socier, father-in-law;
- vesper, evening;
- Liber, Bacchus.

Also, the adjective liber, free, of which liberī, children, is the plural (§ 111. a), and compounds in -er and -ger (stem fero-, gero-): as, lūcer, morning star; armiger, squire.

a. An old nominative socierus occurs. So vocative puere, boy, as if from tpuerus (regularly puer).

b. Vir, man, has genitive virī; the adjective satur, sated, has saturī; vespere, evening, has ablative vesperī (locative vesperē, in the evening).

c. Muciber, Vulcan, has -berī and -brī in the genitive. The barbaric names Hibēr and Celtīber retain ē throughout.

51. The following, not having e in the stem, insert it in the nominative singular and are declined like ager (§ 47):

- ager, field, stem agro-;
- aper, boar;
- arētēr, judge;
- auster, south, wind;
- cancer, crab;
- caper, goat;
- coluber, snake;
- conger, sea eel;
- culter, knife;
- faber, smith;
- fiber, beaver;
- īber, book;
- magister, master;
- minister, servant;
- oleaster, wild olive;
- onager (-grus), wild ass;
- scomber (-brus), mackerel.

Greek Nouns of the Second Declension

52. Greek nouns of the Second Declension end in -os, -os, masculine or feminine, and in -on neuter.

They are mostly proper names and are declined as follows in the Singular, the Plural, when found, being regular:
mýthos, m. 

Athós, m. 

Dēlos, r. 

Ilion, n. 

Athos 

Delos 

Ilion 

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>mýthos</th>
<th>Athós (-ō)</th>
<th>Dēlos</th>
<th>Ilion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>mýthos</td>
<td>Athós (-ō)</td>
<td>Dēlos</td>
<td>Ilion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>mýthi</td>
<td>Athō (-i)</td>
<td>Dēlō</td>
<td>Ilē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>mýthō</td>
<td>Athō (-i)</td>
<td>Dēlō</td>
<td>Ilō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>mýthon</td>
<td>Athōn (-um)</td>
<td>Dēlon (-um)</td>
<td>Ilion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>mýthō</td>
<td>Athōs</td>
<td>Dēle</td>
<td>Ilion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>mýthe</td>
<td>Athōs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

I. Consonant Stems

   a. Mute stems.

   b. Liquid and Nasal stems.

II. i-Stems

   a. Pure i-stems.

   b. Mixed i-stems.

55. The Nominative is always derived from the stem.

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

1. Combination of final consonants: as of c (or g) and s to form x; dux, ductis, stem duct-; réx, régis, stem rēg-.

2. Omission of a final consonant: as of a final nasal; leō, leōnis, stem leōn-; orātiō, orātionis, stem orātiōn-.

3. Omission of a final vowel: as of final i; calcar, calcāris, stem calcāri.

4. Change of vowel in the final syllable: as of a to e; princeps (for -caps), principis, stem princip- (for -cap-).
CONSONANT STEMS

Mute Stems

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

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

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

57. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

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

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>princeps</th>
<th>radix</th>
<th>miles</th>
<th>case-endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>princeps</td>
<td>radix</td>
<td>miles</td>
<td>-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>princips</td>
<td>radicis</td>
<td>militis</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>principi</td>
<td>radici</td>
<td>militi</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>principem</td>
<td>radicem</td>
<td>militem</td>
<td>-em</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>princepe</td>
<td>radice</td>
<td>milite</td>
<td>-e</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>princeps</th>
<th>radicēs</th>
<th>militēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>principēs</td>
<td>radicēs</td>
<td>militēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>principum</td>
<td>radicum</td>
<td>militum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>principibus</td>
<td>radicibus</td>
<td>militibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>principēs</td>
<td>radicēs</td>
<td>militēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>principibus</td>
<td>radicibus</td>
<td>militibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>custos, c., guard</th>
<th>dux, c., leader</th>
<th>rex, m., king</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STEM custōd-</td>
<td>STEM duc-</td>
<td>STEM rēg-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>custōs</th>
<th>dux</th>
<th>rex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>custōs</td>
<td>dux</td>
<td>rex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>custōdis</td>
<td>ducis</td>
<td>régis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>custōdi</td>
<td>duci</td>
<td>régí</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>custōdem</td>
<td>ducem</td>
<td>régem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>custōde</td>
<td>duce</td>
<td>rége</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>case-endings</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-em</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-e</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PLURAL

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

a. In like manner are declined —
ariēs, -ētis (m.), ram; comes, -ētis (c.), companion; lapis, -idis (m.), stone; index, -idis (m.), judge; cornix, -icers (v.), raven, and many other nouns.

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

a. Lingual Stems (t, d) ending in two consonants drop the final mute: as, cor (stem cord-), lac (stem lact-). So also stems in ãt- from the Greek: as, poēma (stem poēmat-).
b. The stem capit- shows u in the nominative (caput for †capot).

59. Nouns of this class are declined as follows: —
cor, n., heart
caput, n., head
poēma, n., poem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>cor</th>
<th>caput</th>
<th>poēma</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cordis</td>
<td>capitēs</td>
<td>poēmatēs</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cordī</td>
<td>capitī</td>
<td>poēmatī</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>cor</td>
<td>caput</td>
<td>poēma</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>corde</td>
<td>capite</td>
<td>poēmate</td>
<td>-ē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SINGULAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>corda</th>
<th>capita</th>
<th>poēmata</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>——</td>
<td>capitum</td>
<td>poēmatum</td>
<td>-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cordibus</td>
<td>capitibus</td>
<td>poēmatibus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>corda</td>
<td>capita</td>
<td>poēmata</td>
<td>-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>cordibus</td>
<td>capitibus</td>
<td>poēmatibus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

60. The following irregularities require notice: —
a. Greek neuters with nominative singular in -a (as poēma) frequently end in -is in the dative and ablative plural, and rarely in -orum in the genitive plural; as, poēmatīs (for poēmatibus), poēmatōrum (for poēmatum).
b. A number of monosyllabic nouns with mute stems want the genitive plural (like cor). See § 103: g. 2.
Liquid and Nasal Stems \( (l, n, r) \)

61. In Masculine and Feminine nouns with liquid and nasal stems the Nominative is the same as the stem. Exceptions are the following: —

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Case-Endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. cōnsul</td>
<td>leōn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. cōnsulīs</td>
<td>leōnis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. cōnsulī</td>
<td>leōni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. cōnsulem</td>
<td>leōnem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABL. cōnsule</td>
<td>leōne</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. cōnsulēs</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>virginēs</td>
<td>patrēs</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. cōnsulum</td>
<td>leōnum</td>
<td>virgīnum</td>
<td>patrum</td>
<td>-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. cōnsulibus</td>
<td>leōnibus</td>
<td>virgīnibus</td>
<td>patribus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. cōnsulēs</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>virginēs</td>
<td>patrēs</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABL. cōnsulibus</td>
<td>leōnibus</td>
<td>virgīnibus</td>
<td>patribus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1. — Stems in \( n, rr \)- (\( n \)) lose one of their liquids in the nominative: as, fār, farrīs; mel, mellīs.

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

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

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

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

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

64. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>nomen, n., name</th>
<th>genus, n., race</th>
<th>corpus, n., body</th>
<th>aequor, n., sea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>nōmen</td>
<td>genus</td>
<td>corpus</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>nōminis</td>
<td>generis</td>
<td>corporis</td>
<td>aequoris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>nōmini</td>
<td>generī</td>
<td>corporī</td>
<td>aequorī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>nōmen</td>
<td>genus</td>
<td>corpus</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>nōmine</td>
<td>genere</td>
<td>corpore</td>
<td>aequore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>nōmina</th>
<th>genera</th>
<th>corpora</th>
<th>aequora</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>nōminum</td>
<td>generum</td>
<td>corporum</td>
<td>aequorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>nōminibus</td>
<td>generibus</td>
<td>corporibus</td>
<td>aequoribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>nōminibus</td>
<td>genera</td>
<td>corpora</td>
<td>aequora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>nōmina</td>
<td>generibus</td>
<td>corporibus</td>
<td>aequoribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>nōminibus</td>
<td>genera</td>
<td>corpora</td>
<td>aequora</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Note.—The following real or apparent liquid and nasal stems have the genitive plural in -um, and are to be classed with the i-stems: imber, linter, ēter, venter; gūs, mās, mūs, [trēn]; also virēs (plural of vis: see §79).

65. Nouns of this class include:

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

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

---

1 These were originally s-stems (cf. §15.4).
2 I.e. having the same number of syllables in the nominative and genitive singular.
Pure i-Stems

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

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

67. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>sitis, f., thirst</th>
<th>turris, f., tower</th>
<th>ignis, m., fire</th>
<th>imber, m., rain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>sitis</td>
<td>turris</td>
<td>ignis</td>
<td>imber</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>sitis</td>
<td>turris</td>
<td>ignis</td>
<td>imbris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>siti</td>
<td>turri</td>
<td>ígni</td>
<td>imbri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sitim</td>
<td>turrim (-em)</td>
<td>ígnem</td>
<td>imbrem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>siti</td>
<td>turri (-e)</td>
<td>ígni (-e)</td>
<td>imbri (-e)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Singular

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>turrés</th>
<th>ígnês</th>
<th>imbrēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>turrum</td>
<td>ignium</td>
<td>imbrium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>turribus</td>
<td>ignibus</td>
<td>imbribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>turris (-ēs)</td>
<td>ignīs (-ēs)</td>
<td>imbrīs (-ēs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>turribus</td>
<td>ignibus</td>
<td>imbribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>turribus</td>
<td>ignibus</td>
<td>imbribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural

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

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

1 Such are animal, bacchānal, bidental, capital, cervical, cubital, lupercal, minūtal, puteal, quadrantal, toral, tribūnal, vectīgal; calcar, cochlear, exemplar, lacūnar, laquear, lūcar, lūminar, lūpānar, pālear, pulvinar, torcular. Cf. the plurals dentālia, frontālia, genuālia, spōsālia; altāria, plantāria, speculāria, tālāria; also many names of festivals, as, Sāturnālia.

2 Exceptions are augūrale, collāre, fōcāle, nāvāle, penetrāle, rāmāle, scūtāle, tibiāle; alveāre, capillāre, cochlōre.
69. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sedile</td>
<td>sedilis</td>
<td>sedili</td>
<td>sedile</td>
<td>sedili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>animal</td>
<td>animális</td>
<td>animálí</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>animálí</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calcar</td>
<td>calcāris</td>
<td>calcāri</td>
<td>calcar</td>
<td>calcāri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e or</td>
<td>-is</td>
<td>-i</td>
<td>e or</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sedilia</td>
<td>sedilium</td>
<td>sedilibus</td>
<td>sedilia</td>
<td>sedilibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>animália</td>
<td>animálium</td>
<td>animálibus</td>
<td>animália</td>
<td>animálibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calcāria</td>
<td>calcārium</td>
<td>calcāribus</td>
<td>calcāria</td>
<td>calcāribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ia</td>
<td>-ium</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
<td>-ia</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural**

**Mixed ᵃ-Stems**

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

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

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

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

---

1 There is much variety in the practice of the ancients, some of these words having -ium, some -um, and some both.
2 These are acīnāces, aedēs, alōes, caedēs, cautēs, clādēs, compāgēs, contāgēs, famēs, fēlēs, fidēs (plural), inundēs, lābēs, lūes, mēles, mōlēs, nūbēs, palumbēs, prōlēs, propāgēs, pūbēs, sedēs, saepēs, serēs, strāgēs, strōvēs, subolēs, tābēs, torquēs, vadēs, vātēs, vehēs, veprēs, verrēs, vulpēs; aedēs has also nominative aedīs.
§72. Nouns of this class are thus declined: —

\[
\begin{array}{llllllll}
nūbēs, v., cloud & urbs, v., city & nox, v., night & cliēns, m., client & aetās, f., age \\
\text{Nom.} & nūbēs & urbs & nox & cliēns & aetās \\
\text{Gen.} & nūbīs & urbīs & noctīs & clientīs & aetātīs \\
\text{Dat.} & nūbī & urbī & noctē & clientē & aetātē \\
\text{Acc.} & nūbem & urbem & noctem & clientem & aetātem \\
\text{Abl.} & nūbe & urbe & noctē & cliente & aetāte \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text{Nom.} & nūbēs & urbēs & noctēs & clientēs & aetātēs \\
\text{Gen.} & nūbium & urbium & noctium & clientium \text{¹} & aetātium \text{²} \\
\text{Dat.} & nūbībus & urbībus & noctībus & clientībus & aetātibus \\
\text{Acc.} & nūbās(-ēs) & urbās(-ēs) & noctīs(-ēs) & clientīs(-ēs) & aetātīs(-ēs) \\
\text{Abl.} & nūbībus & urbībus & noctībus & clientībus & aetātibus \\
\end{array}
\]

Summary of i-Stems

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

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

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

\text{b.} All neuters have the nominative and accusative plural in -ia.

\text{c.} The accusative plural (m. or f.) is regularly -is.

\text{d.} The accusative singular (m. or f.) of a few ends in -im (§ 75).

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

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

\text{¹} Rarely clientium. \text{²} Also aetātium. Cf. § 74. 4.

\text{³} An old, though not the original, ending (see p. 32, footnote 2).
a. The accusative in -im is found exclusively —

1. In Greek nouns and in names of rivers.
2. In būris, cucumis, rāvis, sitis, tussis, vis.
3. In adverbs in -tim (being accusative of nouns in -tis), as, partim; and in amussim.

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

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

a. The ablative in -i is found exclusively —

1. In nouns having the accusative in -im (§ 75); also secūris.
2. In the following adjectives used as nouns: aequālis, annālis, aqūalis, consalāris, gentilis, molāris, primipilāris, tribālis.
3. In neuters in -e, -al, -ar: except baccar, iubar, rēte, and sometimes mare.

b. The ablative in -i is found sometimes —

1. In avis, clāvis, febris, finis, ignis,1 imber, lūx, nāvis, ovis, pelvis, puppis, sēmentis, strīgilis, turris, and occasionally in other words.
2. In the following adjectives used as nouns: affinis, bipennis, canālis, familiāris, nātālis, rīvālis, sapiens, trīdens, trīrēmis, vōcālis.

Note 1.—The ablative of famēs is always famē (§ 105. c). The defective māne has sometimes māni (§ 103. b. n.) as ablative.

Note 2.—Most names of towns in -e (as, Praeneste, Tergeste) and Sōracte, a mountain, have the ablative in -e. Caerēs has Caerēte.

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

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

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

1. Always, — canis, iuvenis,3 ambāgēs, mare (once only, otherwise wanting), volucris; regularly, sēdēs, vātēs.
2. Sometimes, — apīs, caedēs, clādēs, mēnīs, strūēs, subolēs.
3. Very rarely, — patria in -ēs, -ātis; -is, -iūtis; as, Arpīnās, Arpinātūm; Samnīs, Samnītūm.

1 Always in the formula aquā et ignī interdīcī (§ 401).
2 The Indo-European ending of the nominative plural, -ēs (preserved in Greek in consonant stems, as ὃρυξ, ὃρυγ-ēs), contracts with a stem-vowel and gives -ēs in the Latin i-declension (cf. the Greek plural ὅς). This -ēs was extended to consonant stems in Latin.
3 Canis and iuvenis are really n-stems.
**Irregular Nouns of the Third Declension**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bōs, c.</td>
<td>sūs, c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex, cow</td>
<td>swine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>senex, n.</td>
<td>Iuppiter, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old man</td>
<td>Jupiter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carō, r.</td>
<td>nix, r.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flesh</td>
<td>snow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>os, n.</td>
<td>iter, n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bone</td>
<td>macth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vis, f.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. bōs</td>
<td>Nom. bōves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. bōvis</td>
<td>Gen. bōum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. bōvī</td>
<td>Dat. bōbus (būbus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. bovem</td>
<td>Acc. bovēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. bove</td>
<td>Abl. bōbus (būbus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SINGULAR</td>
<td>PLURAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>senēx</td>
<td>senēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carōs</td>
<td>carnēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>os</td>
<td>osse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vis</td>
<td>virēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ossis</td>
<td>ossa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vis (rare)</td>
<td>virēm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi (rare)</td>
<td>virībus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carnīs</td>
<td>carnibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ossīs</td>
<td>ossibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi (rare)</td>
<td>virībus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

In nāv- (nau-) an i is added (nāvis, -is), and it is declined like turris (§ 67).
In lōv- (= Zeūs) the diphthong (ou) becomes ū in lū-piter (for -pater), genitive lōvis, etc.; but the form Iuppiter is preferred.

c. In iter, itineris (n.), iexur, iecinoris (iecoris) (n.), supellēx, suppellēctilis (v.), the nominative has been formed from a shorter stem; in senex, senis, from a longer; so that these words show a combination of forms from two distinct stems.

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

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

The Locative Case

80. The Locative form for nouns of the third declension ends in the singular in -i or -e, in the plural in -ibus: as, rūri, in the country; Carthaginī or Carthaginē, at Carthage; Trallibus, at Tralles.¹

Greek Nouns of the Third Declension

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

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>hērōs</th>
<th>lampas</th>
<th>basis</th>
<th>tigris</th>
<th>nāis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hērōis</td>
<td>lampados</td>
<td>baseōs</td>
<td>tigris(-idos)</td>
<td>nāidos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>hērōi</td>
<td>lampadī</td>
<td>basī</td>
<td>tigrī</td>
<td>nāidī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hērōa</td>
<td>lampada</td>
<td>basīn</td>
<td>tigrīn(-ida)</td>
<td>nāida</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>hērōe</td>
<td>lampade</td>
<td>basī</td>
<td>tigrī(-ide)</td>
<td>nāide</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>hērōēs</th>
<th>lampadēs</th>
<th>basēs</th>
<th>tigrēs</th>
<th>nāidēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hērōum</td>
<td>lampadum</td>
<td>basium(-eōn)</td>
<td>tigrium</td>
<td>nāidum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D., A.¹</td>
<td>hērōibus</td>
<td>lampadibus</td>
<td>basiēbus</td>
<td>tigrībus</td>
<td>nāidībus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hērōās</td>
<td>lampadās</td>
<td>basīs(-ēs)</td>
<td>tigrīs(-idās)</td>
<td>nāidās</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proper Names

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Didō</th>
<th>Simois</th>
<th>Capys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Didōnīs(Didūs)</td>
<td>Simoentīs</td>
<td>Capyos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Didōnī(Didō)</td>
<td>Simoentī</td>
<td>Capyī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>Didōnēm(-ō)</td>
<td>Simoenta</td>
<td>Capyn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>Didōne(-ō)</td>
<td>Simoente</td>
<td>Capyē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>Didō</td>
<td>Simōis</td>
<td>Capy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Orpheus</td>
<td>Periclēs</td>
<td>Paris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Orpheī(-ēs)</td>
<td>Perichî(-i)</td>
<td>Paridis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Orpheī(-ēō)</td>
<td>Perichî(-i)</td>
<td>Paridī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>Orpheā(-um)</td>
<td>Periclēm(-ea, -ēn)</td>
<td>Paridem, (Parī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>Orpheō</td>
<td>Pericle</td>
<td>Paride, Parī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>Orpheu</td>
<td>Periclēss(-ē)</td>
<td>Parī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

83. Other peculiarities are the following: —

a. Delphinus, -i (m.), has also the form delphīn, -inis; Salamis, -is (f.), has acc. Salāmina.

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

¹ Dative, hēroōsin (once only).
c. Stems in on- sometimes retain -n in the nominative: as, Agamemnón (or Agamemnō), genitive -ōnis, accusative -ōna.

d. Stems in ont- form the nominative in -ōn: as, horizōn, Xenophōn; but a few are occasionally Latinized into ōn- (nom. -ē): as, Dracō, -ōnis; Antiphō, -ōnis.

e. Like Simois are declined stems in ant-, ent-, and a few in ūnt- (nominative in -ās, -ēs, -ūs): as, Atlās, -antis; Trapezūs, -ūntis.

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

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

Gender in the Third Declension

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

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

Exceptions are the following: —

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

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

86. Feminine are nouns in -ō, -ās, -ēs, -is, -ūs, -x, and in -s preceded by a consonant: as, legiō, civitās, nūbēs, avis, virtūs, arx, urbs. The nouns in -ō are mostly those in -ād and -āgō, and abstract and collective nouns in -īō.

Exceptions are the following: —

a. Masculine are leō, leōnis; itō, ōnis; sermō, -ōnis; also carō, harpago, margō, ārdō, turbō; and concrete nouns in -īō: as, pugiō, ūnō, papiliō; 2 acinacēs, ariēs, celēs, lebēs, pariēs, pēs;

1 Some nouns of doubtful or variable gender are omitted.
2 Many nouns in -ō (gen. -ōnis) are masculine by signification: as, gerō, carrier; restō, ropemaker; and family names (originally nicknames): as, Cicerō, Nāsō. See §§ 236. c., 255.
Nouns in -nis and -guis: as, ignis, sanguis; also axis, caulis, collis, cucumis, 
ensis, fascis, folis, fustis, lapsis, menis, orbis, piscis, postis, pulvis, vomis;
mus;
calix, fornix, grex, phoenix, and nouns in -ex (gen. -icus) (§ 85);
denis, fons, mons, pons.

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

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

87. Neuter are nouns in -a, -e, -l, -n, -ar, -ur, -ūs: as, poēma, mare,
animal, nōmen, calcār, rōbur, corpus; also lac and caput.
Exceptions are the following:——

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

FOURTH DECLENSION

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

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

\[ \text{manus, pl. hand} \quad \text{lacus, m., lake} \quad \text{genū, n., knee} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STEM</th>
<th>manu-</th>
<th>lacu-</th>
<th>genu-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>manus</td>
<td>lacus</td>
<td>genū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>manūs</td>
<td>lacūs</td>
<td>genūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>manūi(-ū)</td>
<td>lacūi(-ū)</td>
<td>genū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>manum</td>
<td>lacum</td>
<td>genū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>manū</td>
<td>lacū</td>
<td>genū</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SINGULAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CASE-ENDINGS</th>
<th>CASE-ENDINGS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-us</td>
<td>-ū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ūs</td>
<td>-ūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-u(-ū)</td>
<td>-ū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-um</td>
<td>-ū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ū</td>
<td>-ū</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLURAL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CASE-ENDINGS</th>
<th>CASE-ENDINGS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ūs</td>
<td>genua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-uum</td>
<td>genuum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ibus(-ibus)</td>
<td>genibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ūs</td>
<td>genua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ibus(-ibus)</td>
<td>genibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gender in the Fourth Declension

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

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

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

Case-Forms in the Fourth Declension

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

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

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

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

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

e. An old genitive singular in -uis or -uos and an old genitive plural in -uom occur rarely: as, senātuis, senātuos; fluctuom.

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. domus</td>
<td>domūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. domūs</td>
<td>domuum (domōrum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. domūi</td>
<td>domibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. domūm</td>
<td>domōs (domūs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. domō</td>
<td>domibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

¹ A few other neuters of this declension are mentioned by the ancient grammarians as occurring in certain cases.
§ 94. Most nouns of the Fourth Declension are formed from verb-stems, or roots, by means of the suffix -tus (-sus) (§ 238. b):
cantus, song, can, canō, sing; cāsus (for cād-tus), chance, cad, cadē, fall;
exsulātus, exile, from exsulō, to be an exile (exsul).

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

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

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

### FIFTH DECLENSION (ē-STEMS)

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>rēs, f., thing</th>
<th>diēs, m., day</th>
<th>fidēs, f., faith</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stem</td>
<td>rē-</td>
<td>diē-</td>
<td>fidē-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>rēs</td>
<td>diēs</td>
<td>fidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>rēī</td>
<td>diēī (diē)</td>
<td>fidēī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>rēī</td>
<td>diēī (diē)</td>
<td>fidēī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>rem</td>
<td>diem</td>
<td>fidem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>rē</td>
<td>diē</td>
<td>fidē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>rēs</th>
<th>diēs</th>
<th>-ēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>rērum</td>
<td>diērum</td>
<td>-ērum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>rēbus</td>
<td>diēbus</td>
<td>-ēbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>rēs</td>
<td>diē</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>rēbus</td>
<td>diēbus</td>
<td>-ēbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Gender in the Fifth Declension

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

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

Case-Forms in the Fifth Declension

98. The following peculiarities require notice: —

a. Of nouns of the fifth declension, only diēs and rēs are declined throughout. Most want the plural, which is, however, found in the nominative or accusative in acīēs, effigīēs, ēlūīēs, facīēs, glaciēs, serīēs, specīēs, spēs.¹

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

hodiē, to-day;
diē quārtī (old, quārtī), the fourth day;
perendīē, day after to-morrow;
pridiē, the day before.

c. The fifth declension is closely related to the first, and several nouns have forms of both: as, māterīa, -īēs; saevītia, -īēs. The genitive and dative in -ēī are rarely found in these words.

d. Some nouns vary between the fifth and the third declension: as, requīēs, satīēs (also satīās, genitive -ātīs), plēbēs (also plēbs, genitive plēbis), famēs, genitive famīs, ablative famē.

Note. — In the genitive and dative -āī (-ēī) was sometimes contracted into -ē: as, tribūnus plēbēi, trūbūnus of the people (plēbēs). Genitives in -ē and -ē also occur: as, dīii (Aen. i. 633), plēbii-sēctum, acīi (B. G. ii. 23). A few examples of the old genitive in -ēs are found (cf. -ās in the first declension, § 43. b). The dative has rarely -ē, and a form in -ī is cited.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS

Nouns wanting in the Plural

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

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

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

a. The plural of a proper name may be applied to two or more persons or places, or even things, and so become strictly common: —

quattuor Caesarès, the twelve Caesars.
Galliae, the two Gauls (Cis- and Transalpine).
Castores, Castor and Pollux; Iovès, images of Jupiter.

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

c. The plural of abstract nouns denotes occasions or instances of the quality, or the like: —

quaeædam excellentiae, some cases of superiority; òtia, periods of rest; calóres, frigores, times of heat and cold.

Nouns wanting in the Singular

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

1. Many names of towns: as, Athènæ (Athens), Thúrīi, Philippī, Vēii.
2. Names of festivals and games: as, Olympia, the Olympic Games; Bacchānālia, feast of Bacchus; Quinquâtrūs, festival of Minerva; lādī Rōmānī, the Roman Games.
3. Names of classes: as, optimātēs, the upper classes; májōres, ancestors; liberī, children; penētēs, household gods; Quirītēs, citizens (of Rome).
4. Words plural by signification: as, arma, weapons; artūs, joints; divītiae, riches; scālæ, stairs; valvae, folding-doors; forēs, double-doors; angustiae, a narrow pass (narrrows); moenia, city walls.

Note 1. — Some words, plural by signification in Latin, are translated by English nouns in the singular number: as, dēiciae, delight, darling; faucēs, throat; ãedes, lyre (also singular in poetry); insidiae, ambush; cervīcēs, neck; viscera, flesh.

Note 2. — The poets often use the plural number for the singular, sometimes for metrical reasons, sometimes from a mere fashion: as, òra (for òs), the face; scēpta (for scēptrum), sceptre; silenīa (for silenium), silence.

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

1. As noun, to denote a single object: as, Bacchānal, a spot sacred to Bacchus; optimās, an aristocrat.
2. As adjective: as, Cato Máior, Cato the Elder.
3. In a sense rare, or found only in early Latin: as, scāla, a ladder; valva, a door; artus, a joint.
Nouns Defective in Certain Cases

103. Many nouns are defective in case-forms: 1 —

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

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

β. Nouns found in one case only (monoptotes): —

1. In the nominative singular: glōs (f.).
2. In the genitive singular: dicēs, nauci (n.).
3. In the dative singular: divīsī (m.) (cf. § 94. c).
4. In the accusative singular: amussīm (m.); vēsum (dative vēnō in Tacitus).
5. In the ablative singular: pondō (n.); māne (n.); astū (m.), by craft; iussū, iniussū, nātū, and many other verbal nouns in -us (m.) (§ 94. c).

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

6. In the accusative plural: inātīs.

γ. Nouns found in two cases only (diptotes): —

1. In the nominative and ablative singular: fors, forte (f.).
2. In the genitive and ablative singular: spontis (rare), sponte (f.).
3. In the accusative singular and plural: dicam, dicās (f.).
4. In the accusative and ablative plural: forās, foris (f.) (cf. forēs), used as adverbs.

δ. Nouns found in three cases only (triptotes): —

1. In the nominative, accusative, and ablative singular: impetus, -um, -ū (m.).
2. In the nominative; accusative, and dative or ablative plural: grātēs, -ibus (f.).
3. In the nominative, genitive, and dative or ablative plural: iūgera, -um, -ibus (n.).; but iūgerum, etc., in the singular (cf. § 105, b).

ε. Nouns found in four cases only (tetraphtotes): —

In the genitive, dative, accusative, ablative singular: dicionis, -i, -em, -e (f.).

ζ. Nouns declined regularly in the plural, but defective in the singular: —

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

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

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

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

2. calx, cor, cōs, crux, fax, faex, lanx, lūx, nex, òs (òris),\(^1\) os (ossip),\(^2\) pāx, pīx, rōs, sāl, sōl, vās (vadis), want the genitive plural.

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

h. Nouns defective in both singular and plural: —

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

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

VARIABLE NOUNS

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

105. Nouns that vary in Declension are called heteroclites.\(^4\)

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

b. Some nouns vary between the Second and Third: as, iūgerum, -i, -ō, ablative -ē or -e, plural -a, -um, -ibus; Mulciber, genitive -berī and -beris; sequester, genitive -tréi and -trís; vēs, vāsis, and (old) vāsūm, -i (§ 79. c).

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

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

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

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

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

\(^1\) The ablative plural ōrium is rare, the classical idiom being in ōre omnium, in everybody’s mouth, etc., not in ōribus omnium.

\(^2\) The genitive plural ossium is late; ossuum (from ossua, plural of a neuter u-stem) is early and late.

\(^3\) An old nominative daps is cited.

\(^4\) That is, “nouns of different inflections” (προς, another, and κλίνω, to incline).
106. Nouns that vary in Gender are said to be heterogeneous.¹

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

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

- balneum (n.), bath;
- cælum (n.), heaven;
- carbasus (f.), a sail;
- dēlicium (n.), pleasure;
- epulum (n.), feast;
- frēnum (n.), a bit;
- iōcus (m.), a jest;
- locum (m.), place;
- rāstrum (n.), a rake;

balneae (f.), baths (an establishment).
cælos (m. acc., Lurc.).
carbasae (n.) (ōrum), sails.
dēliciae (f.), pet.
epulae (f.), feast.
frēnī (m.) or frēna (n.), a bridle.
iōca (n.), iōci (m.), jests.
loci (n.), loci (m.), usually topics, passages in books.
rāstrī (m.), rāstra (n.), rakes.

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

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

- aedēs, -is (f.), temple;
- aqua (f.), water;
- auxilium (n.), help;
- bonum (n.), a good;
- carcer (m.), dungeon;
- castrum (n.), fort;
- comitium (n.), place of assembly;
- cōpia (f.), plenty;
- fidēs (f.), harp-string;
- finis (m.), end;
- fortūna (f.), fortune;
- grātia (f.), favor (rarely, thanks);
- hortus (m.), a garden;
- impedimentum (n.) hindrance;
- littera (f.), letter (of alphabet);
- locum (m.), place [plural loca (n.)];
- ludus (m.), sport;
- mōs (m.), habit, custom;
- nātālis (m.), birthday;
- opera (f.), work;
- [ops.,] opis (f.), help (§ 103, f. 1);
- pars (f.), part;
- rōstrum (n.), beak of a ship;
- sāl (m. or n.), salt;
- tabella (f.), tablet;

aedēs, -ium, house.
aquae, mineral springs, a watering-place.
auxilia, auxiliaries.
bona, goods, property.
carcerēs, barriers (of race-course).
castra, camp.
comitia, an election (town-meeting).
cōpiae, stores, troops.
fidēs, lyre.
finēs, bounds, territories.
fūrōnae, possessors.
grātiae, thanks (also, the Graces).
hortī, pleasure-gounds.
impedimenta, baggaye.
litterae, epistle, literature.
loci,² topics, places in books.
lūdī, public games.
mōrēs, character.
nātālēs, descent, origin.
operae, day-laborers ("hands").
opus, resources, wealth.
partēs, part (on the stage), party.
rōstra, speaker's platform.
salēs, witicisms.
tabellae, documents, records.

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

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

Thus in Mārcus Tullius Cicerō we have —

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

c. The commonest pronouns are thus abbreviated: —


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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MASCULINE</th>
<th>FEMININE</th>
<th>NEUTER</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SINGULAR</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>bonus</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>bonī</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bonī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>bonō</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bonō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>bonum</td>
<td>bonam</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>bonō</td>
<td>bone</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>bone</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|       |          |          |        |
| PLURAL |           |          |        |
| Nom.  | bonī     | bonae    | bona   |
| Gen.  | bonōrum  | bonārum  | bonōrum|
| Dat.  | bonīs    | bonīs    | bonīs  |
| Acc.  | bonōs    | bonās    | bona   |
| Abl.  | bonīs    | bonīs    | bonīs  |
§§ 110, 111]. FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS 47

Note. — Stems in quo- have nominative -cus (-quos), -qua, -cum (-quom), accusative -cum (-quom), -qua, -cum (-quom), to avoid qui- (see §§ 6. b and 46. n. 2). Thus,—

Nom. propincus (-quos) propinqua propinicum (-quom)
Gen. propinqui propinquae propinquī, etc.

But most modern editions disregard this principle.

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

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

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

miser, misera, miserum, wretched

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<th>MASCULINE</th>
<th>FEMININE</th>
<th>NEUTER</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stem miser-</td>
<td>Stem miserā-</td>
<td>Stem miser-</td>
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<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. miser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. miserī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. miserō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. miserum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. miserō</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. miserī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. miserīrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. miserīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. miserōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. miserīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

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

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stem nigrō-</td>
<td>Stem nigrā-</td>
<td>Stem nigrō-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>niger</td>
<td>nigra</td>
<td>nigrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>nigrī</td>
<td>nigrae</td>
<td>nigrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>nigrō</td>
<td>nigrae</td>
<td>nigrō</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>nigrum</td>
<td>nigram</td>
<td>nigrum</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>nigrō</td>
<td>nigrā</td>
<td>nigrō</td>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Stem nigrō-</td>
<td>Stem nigrō-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>nigrī</td>
<td>nigrae</td>
<td>nigrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>nigrōrum</td>
<td>nigrārum</td>
<td>nigrōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>nigrīs</td>
<td>nigrīs</td>
<td>nigrīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>nigrōs</td>
<td>nigrās</td>
<td>nigrā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>nigrīs</td>
<td>nigrīs</td>
<td>nigrīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

*nullus, no, none.*
*stōlus, alone.*

Of these the singular is thus declined:—

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
<td>N.</td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
<td>N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ünus</td>
<td>una</td>
<td>umum</td>
<td>uter</td>
<td>utra</td>
<td>utrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ūnīs</td>
<td>ūnīs</td>
<td>ūnīs</td>
<td>utrius</td>
<td>utrius</td>
<td>utrius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ūnī</td>
<td>ūnī</td>
<td>ūnī</td>
<td>utri</td>
<td>utri</td>
<td>utri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ūnum</td>
<td>ūnum</td>
<td>ūnum</td>
<td>utrum</td>
<td>utram</td>
<td>utrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ūnō</td>
<td>ūnā</td>
<td>ūnō</td>
<td>utrō</td>
<td>utrā</td>
<td>utrō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>alius</td>
<td>alia</td>
<td>alīud</td>
<td>alter</td>
<td>altera</td>
<td>alterum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>alīus</td>
<td>alīus</td>
<td>alīus</td>
<td>alterīs</td>
<td>alterīs</td>
<td>alterīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>alīī</td>
<td>alīī</td>
<td>alīī</td>
<td>alterī</td>
<td>alterī</td>
<td>alterī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>alīum</td>
<td>aliam</td>
<td>alīud</td>
<td>alterum</td>
<td>alteram</td>
<td>alterum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>alīō</td>
<td>alīā</td>
<td>alīō</td>
<td>alterō</td>
<td>alterā</td>
<td>alterō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
§§ 113-115] ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION 49

a. The plural of these words is regular, like that of bonus (§ 110).
b. The genitive in -ius, dative in -i, and neuter in -d are pronominal in origin (cf. illius, illi, illud, and § 146).
c. The i of the genitive ending -ius, though originally long, may be made short in verse; so often in alterius and regularly in utriusque.
d. Instead of alius, alterius is commonly used, or in the possessive sense the adjective aliēnus, belonging to another, another’s.

e. In compounds—as alterutre—sometimes both parts are declined, sometimes only the latter. Thus, alterī utrī or alterutrī, to one of the two.

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

THIRD DECLENSION (CONSONANT AND Į-STEMS)

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

1. Adjectives of Three Terminations in the nominative singular,—one for each gender: as, ācer, ācris, ācre.
2. Adjectives of Two Terminations,—masculine and feminine the same: as, levis (m., f.), leve (n.).
3. Adjectives of One Termination,—the same for all three genders: as, atrōx.

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

Adjectives of Three and of Two Terminations

115. Adjectives of Three Terminations are thus declined:—

ācer, ācris, ācre, keen, stem ācri-

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

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

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

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

116. Adjectives of Two Terminations are thus declined: —
   levis, leve. light, stem levi-

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

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

Adjectives of One Termination

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

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

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

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. atrōx</td>
<td>atrōx</td>
<td>atrōx</td>
<td>egēns</td>
<td>egēns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. atrōcis</td>
<td>atrōcis</td>
<td>atrōcis</td>
<td>egentis</td>
<td>egentis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. atrōcī</td>
<td>atrōcī</td>
<td>atrōx</td>
<td>egentī</td>
<td>egentī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. atrōcem</td>
<td>atrōx</td>
<td>atrōcī (-e)</td>
<td>egentem</td>
<td>egēns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. atrōcī (-e)</td>
<td>atrōcī</td>
<td>atrōcī (-e)</td>
<td>egentī (-e)</td>
<td>egentī (-e)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. atrōcēs</td>
<td>atrōcia</td>
<td>egentēs</td>
<td>egentia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. atrōcium</td>
<td>atrōcium</td>
<td>egentium</td>
<td>egentium</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. atrōcibus</td>
<td>atrōcibus</td>
<td>egentibus</td>
<td>egentibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. atrōcis (-ēs)</td>
<td>atrōcia</td>
<td>egentis (-ēs)</td>
<td>egentia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. atrōcibus</td>
<td>atrōcibus</td>
<td>egentibus</td>
<td>egentibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

119. Other examples are the following:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>concors, harmonious</th>
<th>Stem concord-</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. concors</td>
<td>concors</td>
<td>praeceps</td>
<td>praeceps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. concordis</td>
<td>concordis</td>
<td>praecipitis</td>
<td>praecipitis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. concordī</td>
<td>concordī</td>
<td>praecipitī</td>
<td>praecipitī</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. concordem</td>
<td>concors</td>
<td>praecipitem</td>
<td>praeceps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. concordī</td>
<td>concordī</td>
<td>praecipitī</td>
<td>praecipitī</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>praeceps, headlong</th>
<th>Stem praecipit-</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. concordēs</td>
<td>concordia</td>
<td>praecipitēs</td>
<td>praecipitia</td>
<td>praecipitēs</td>
<td>praecipitia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. concordium</td>
<td>concordium</td>
<td>praecipitēs</td>
<td>praecipitēs</td>
<td>praecipitēs</td>
<td>praecipitēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. concordibus</td>
<td>concordibus</td>
<td>praecipitibus</td>
<td>praecipitibus</td>
<td>praecipitibus</td>
<td>praecipitibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. concordīs (-ēs)</td>
<td>concordia</td>
<td>praecipitēs (-ēs)</td>
<td>praecipitēs</td>
<td>praecipitēs</td>
<td>praecipitēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. concordibus</td>
<td>concordibus</td>
<td>praecipitibus</td>
<td>praecipitibus</td>
<td>praecipitibus</td>
<td>praecipitibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

#### Singular

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>iēns</td>
<td>iēns</td>
<td>pār</td>
<td>pār</td>
<td>dives</td>
<td>dives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>euntīs</td>
<td>euntīs</td>
<td>paris</td>
<td>paris</td>
<td>divitīs</td>
<td>divitīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>euntī</td>
<td>euntī</td>
<td>parī</td>
<td>parī</td>
<td>divitū</td>
<td>divitū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>euntem</td>
<td>iēns</td>
<td>parēm</td>
<td>pār</td>
<td>divitem</td>
<td>dives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>eunte (-ī)</td>
<td>eunte (-ī)</td>
<td>parī</td>
<td>parī</td>
<td>divite</td>
<td>divite</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>euntēs</td>
<td>euntia</td>
<td>parēs</td>
<td>paria</td>
<td>divitēs</td>
<td>[ditia]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>euntium</td>
<td>euntium</td>
<td>parium</td>
<td>parium</td>
<td>divitium</td>
<td>divitium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>euntibus</td>
<td>euntibus</td>
<td>paribus</td>
<td>paribus</td>
<td>divitibus</td>
<td>divitibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>euntēs (-ēs)</td>
<td>euntia</td>
<td>parēs (-ēs)</td>
<td>paria</td>
<td>divitēs (-ēs)</td>
<td>[ditia]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>euntibus</td>
<td>euntibus</td>
<td>paribus</td>
<td>paribus</td>
<td>divitibus</td>
<td>divitibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

### über, Fertile

**Stem über-**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>über</td>
<td>über</td>
<td>vētus</td>
<td>vētus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>überis</td>
<td>überis</td>
<td>vēteris</td>
<td>vēteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>überī</td>
<td>überī</td>
<td>vēteri</td>
<td>vēteri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>überem</td>
<td>über</td>
<td>vētere (-ī)</td>
<td>vētere (-ī)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>überī́⁴</td>
<td>überī́⁴</td>
<td>vētere</td>
<td>vētere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>überēs</td>
<td>übera</td>
<td>vēterēs</td>
<td>vētera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>überum</td>
<td>überum</td>
<td>vēterum</td>
<td>vēterum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>überibus</td>
<td>überibus</td>
<td>vēteribus</td>
<td>vēteribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>überēs</td>
<td>übera</td>
<td>vēterēs</td>
<td>vētera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>überibus</td>
<td>überibus</td>
<td>vēteribus</td>
<td>vēteribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** — Of these vētus is originally an s-stem. In most s-stems the r has intruded itself into the nominative also, as bi-corpor (for bi-corpos), dēgēner (for dē-genes).

---

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

120. Comparatives are declined as follows: —

\[
\text{mélior, better} \quad \text{plús, more}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>mélior</td>
<td>mélius</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>plús</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>méliórís</td>
<td>mélíórís</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>plúris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>mélióri</td>
<td>mélíóri</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>mélíórem</td>
<td>mélius</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>plús</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>mélíóre (-í)</td>
<td>mélíóre (-í)</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>plúre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| PLURAL   | | | | |
|----------| | | | |
| Nom.     | mélíórés | mélíóra | plúréés | plúra |
| Gen.     | mélíórüm | mélíórum | plúrium | plúrium |
| Dat.     | mélíóribus | mélíóribus | plúribus | plúribus |
| Acc.     | mélíórés (-ís) | mélíóra | plúrés (-ís) | plúra |
| Abl.     | mélíóribus | mélíóribus | plúribus | plúribus |

\a. All comparatives except plús are declined like mélior.
\b. The stem of comparatives properly ended in ōs-; but this became or
   in the nominative masculine and feminine, and ēr- in all other cases except
   the nominative and accusative singular neuter, where s is retained and ō is
   changed to ē (cf. honér, -órís; corpus, -órís). Thus comparatives appear to
   have two terminations.
\c. The neuter singular plús is used only as a noun. The genitive (rarely
   the ablative) is used only as an expression of value (cf. § 417). The dative
   is not found in classic use. The compound complúrés, several, has sometimes
   neuter plural complúria.

Case-Forms of Consonant Stems

121. In adjectives of Consonant stems —

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Irregularities and Special Uses of Adjectives

122. The following special points require notice: —

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

123. In Latin, as in English, there are three degrees of comparison: the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.
124. The Comparative is regularly formed by adding -ior (neuter -ius),\(^1\) the Superlative by adding -issimus (-a, -um), to the stem of the Positive, which loses its final vowel: —

cārus, dear (stem cāro-); cārior, dearer; cārissimus, dearest.
levis, light (stem levi-); levisor, lighter; levissimus, lightest.
felix, happy (stem fēlic-); fēlicior, happier; fēlicissimus, happiest.
hebes, dull (stem hebet-); hebetior, dullest; hebetissimus, dullest.

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

\(\alpha\). Particiles when used as adjectives are regularly compared: —
patiēns, patient; patientior, patientissimus.
apertus, open; apertior, apertissimus.

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

ācer, keen; acērior, acērissimus.
miser, wretched; misertor, misertissimus.

\(\alpha\). So vetus (gen. veteris) has superlative veterrimus, from the old form veter; and mātūrus, besides its regular superlative (mātrīssimus), has a rare form mātrīrīmus.

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

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

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

127. Compounds in -dīcus (saying) and -volus (willing) take in their comparison the forms of the corresponding participles dicēns and volēns, which were anciently used as adjectives: —
maleādicus, slanderous; maledicentior, maledicentissimus.
malevolus, spiteful; malevolentior, malevolentissimus.

\(^1\) The comparative suffix (earlier -īs) is akin to the Greek -iōn, or the Sanskrit -īyas. That of the superlative (-issimus) is a double form of uncertain origin. It appears to contain the is- of the old suffix -is-to-s (seen in ἄγραστo-s and English sweetest) and also the old -mo-s (seen in pri-mus, mini-mus, etc.). The endings -imus and -issimus are formed by assimilation (§ 15. 6) from -simus. The comparative and superlative are really new stems, and are not strictly to be regarded as forms of inflection.
a. So, by analogy, compounds in -ficus:—
magnificus, grand; magnificenter, magnificissimus.

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

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

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

Irregular Comparison

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

bonus, good; melior, better; optimus, best.
malus, bad; peior, worse; pessimus, worst.
magnus, great; maior, greater; maximus, greatest.
parvus, small; minor, less; minimus, least.
multus, much; plius (x.), § 120, more; plurimus, most.
multip, many; plures, more; plurimi, most.
negquam (indecl., § 122. b), worthless; nequior; nequissimus.
frugi (indecl., § 122. b), useful, worthy; frugaliour; frugaliissimus.
dexter, on the right, handy; dexterior; dextimus.

Note.—These irregularities arise from the use of different stems (cf. § 127). Thus frugaliour and frugaliissimus are formed from the stem frugali-, but are used as the comparative and superlative of the indeclinable frugi.

Defective Comparison

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

ocior, swifter; ocissimus, swiftest.
potior, preferable; potissimus, most important.

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

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

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

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

exterus, outward; exterior, outer; extrēmus (extimus), utmost.
inferus, below (see § 111. b); inferior, lower; infimus (īmus), lowest.
posterus, following; posterior, latter; postrēmus (postimus), last.
superus, above; superior, higher; suprēmus or suprāmus, highest.

But the plura.ś, exterī, foreigner; inferi, the gods below; posteri, posterity; superi, the heavenly gods, are common.

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

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

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

bellus, inclutus (or inclitus), novus,
ciaesius, invictus, pius,
falsus, invitus, sacer,
 fidus (with its compounds), meritus, vaier.

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

āctūōsus exilis prōclivis surdas
agrētis ingēns propiaquus taciturnus
 alacer iēānus satur tempestivus
arcānus longinquus sēgnis teres
caecus obliquus sérus vicinus
dītūrnus opimus supinus

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

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

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

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

Note. — But each language has its own usage in this respect. Thus, niger, glossy black, and candidus, shining white, are compared; but not āter or ālbus, meaning absolute dead black or white (except that Plautus once has ātōri).
NUMERALS

132. The Latin Numerals may be classified as follows: —

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

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

Cardinals and Ordinals

133. These two series are as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CARDINAL</th>
<th>ORDINAL</th>
<th>ROMAN NUMERALS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>unus, una, unusus, one</td>
<td>primus, -a, -um, first</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duo, duae, duo, two</td>
<td>secundus (alter), second</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tres, tria, three</td>
<td>tertius, third</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quattuor</td>
<td>quartus</td>
<td>III/IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quinque</td>
<td>quintus</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>sextus</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>septem</td>
<td>septimus</td>
<td>VII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>octo</td>
<td>octavus</td>
<td>VIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>novem</td>
<td>nonus</td>
<td>VIII/IX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decem</td>
<td>decimus</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>undecim</td>
<td>undecimus</td>
<td>XI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duodecim</td>
<td>duodecimus</td>
<td>XI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tredecim (deceim et tres)</td>
<td>tertius decimus (decimus (et) tertius)</td>
<td>XIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quattuordecim</td>
<td>quartus decimus</td>
<td>XIII/IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quindecim</td>
<td>quintus decimus</td>
<td>XV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sedecim</td>
<td>sextus decimus</td>
<td>XVI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>septendecim</td>
<td>septimus decimus</td>
<td>XVII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duodëviginti (octodecim)</td>
<td>dnodëveicënsimus (octavus decimus)</td>
<td>XVIII</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The Ordinals (except secundus, tertius, octavus, nonus) are formed by means of suffixes related to those used in the superlative and in part identical with them. Thus, decimus (compare the form in instant) may be regarded as the last of a series of ten; primus is a superlative of a stem akin to pró; the forms in -tus (quartus, quintus, sextus) may be compared with the corresponding Greek forms in τος, and with superlatives in ὁ-τος, while the others have the superlative ending -timus (changed to -simus). Of the exceptions, secundus is a participle of sequor; alter is a comparative form (compare τερησ in Greek), and nonus is contracted from novenés. The cardinal multiples of ten are compounds of -gint- 'ten' (a fragment of a derivative from decem).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cardinal</th>
<th>Ordinal</th>
<th>Roman Numerals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19. ündëviginti (novendecim)</td>
<td>ündëvicënsimus (novusdecimus)</td>
<td>XVIII or XIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. viginti</td>
<td>vicënsimus (vigënsimus)</td>
<td>XX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. viginti unus</td>
<td>vicënsimus primus</td>
<td>XXI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(or unus et viginti, etc.) (unus et vicënsimus, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. trigintä</td>
<td>tricënsimus</td>
<td>XXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. quadrægintä</td>
<td>quadrægënsimus</td>
<td>XXXX or XL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. quinquagintä</td>
<td>quinquagënsimus</td>
<td>L or L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. sexagintä</td>
<td>sexagënsimus</td>
<td>I.X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70. septuagintä</td>
<td>septuagënsimus</td>
<td>LXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80. octogintä</td>
<td>octogënsimus</td>
<td>LXXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90. nóagintä</td>
<td>nóagënsimus</td>
<td>LXXX or XC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100. centum</td>
<td>centënsimus</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101. centum (et) unus, etc.</td>
<td>centënsimus primus, etc.</td>
<td>CI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200. ducenti, -æ, -a</td>
<td>ducentënsimus</td>
<td>CCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300. trecenti</td>
<td>trecentënsimus</td>
<td>CCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400. quadringenti</td>
<td>quadringentënsimus</td>
<td>CCCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500. quingenti</td>
<td>quingentënsimus</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600. sescenti</td>
<td>sescentënsimus</td>
<td>DC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700. septingenti</td>
<td>septingentënsimus</td>
<td>DCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800. octingenti</td>
<td>octingentënsimus</td>
<td>DCCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900. nongenti</td>
<td>nongentënsimus</td>
<td>DCCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000. mille</td>
<td>millënsimus</td>
<td>C (CIX) or M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000. quinque mília (milla)</td>
<td>quinquëns millënsimus</td>
<td>CCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000. decem mília (milla)</td>
<td>decëns millënsimus</td>
<td>CCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000. centum mília (milla)</td>
<td>centëns millënsimus</td>
<td>CCC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

Declension of Cardinals and Ordinals

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

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

b. Dúo,¹ two, and trës, three, are thus declined:

¹ The form in -o is a remnant of the dual number, which was lost in Latin, but is found in cognate languages. So in ambë, both, which preserves -ë (cf. ámbë and § 629. b).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. duo</td>
<td>duae</td>
<td>dao</td>
<td>tres</td>
<td>tria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. duōrum</td>
<td>duārum</td>
<td>duōrum</td>
<td>trium</td>
<td>trium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. duōbus</td>
<td>duābus</td>
<td>duōbus</td>
<td>tribus</td>
<td>tribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. duōs (duo)</td>
<td>duās</td>
<td>duo</td>
<td>tres (trīs)</td>
<td>tria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. duōbus</td>
<td>duābus</td>
<td>duōbus</td>
<td>tribus</td>
<td>tribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

- *mille modis, in a thousand ways.*
- *cum mille hominibus, with a thousand men.*
- *mille trahéntis variós colorés,* (Aen. iv. 701), *drawing out a thousand various colors.*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- *únus et vigintī milites,* or *vigintī milites (et) únus,* 27 *soldiers.*
- *duo milia quingenti milites,* or *duo milia milium et quingenti,* 2500 *soldiers.*
- *milites milie ducenti trigintā únus,* 1231 *soldiers.*

c. After *milia* the name of the objects enumerated is in the genitive:

- *duo milia hominum,* *two thousand men.*
- *cum tribus milibus milium,* *with three thousand soldiers.*
- *milia passuum tria,* *three thousand paces* (three miles).

d. For *milliōn, billiōn, trilliōn,* etc., the Romans had no special words, but these numbers were expressed by multiplication (cf. § 138. a).

1 Or, *in poetry, bis mille hominēs, twice a thousand men.*
**e.** Fractions are expressed, as in English, by cardinals in the numerator and ordinals in the denominator. The feminine gender is used to agree with pars expressed or understood: *two-sevenths, duae septimae* (sc. partēs); *three-eighths, trēs octēvae* (sc. partēs).

One-half is *dīmidia pars* or *dīmidium*.

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

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

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

### Distributives

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

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

| 1. singuli, *one by one* | 18. octōnī dēni or duo-devīcēni | 100. centēnī |
| 2. bīni, *two by two* | 19. novēnī dēni or un-devīcēni | 200. ducentēnī |
| 3. ternī, *three* | 20. viēnī | 300. trecentēnī |
| 4. quaterni | 21. viēnī singuli, *etc.* | 400. quadrangēnī |
| 5. quīnī | 30. triēnī | 500. quingēnī |
| 6. sexī | 40. quaedrāgēnī | 600. sescentēnī |
| 7. septēnī | 50. quinquagēnī | 700. septingēnī |
| 8. octōnī | 60. sexāgēnī | 800. octingēnī |
| 9. novēnī | 70. septuagēnī | 900. nonāgēnī |
| 10. dēni | 80. octāgēnī | 1000. milēnī |
| 11. undēni | 90. nōnāgēnī | 2000. bina milia |
| 12. duodēni | 100. centēna milia |
| 13. ternī dēni, *etc.* | | |

137. Distributives are used as follows: —

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

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

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

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

§§ 138, 139

Numeral Adverbs

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

1. semel, once
2. bis, twice
3. ter, thrice
4. quater
5. quinquies (-ēs)¹
6. sexies
7. septies
8. octies
9. novies
10. decies
11. undecies
12. duodecies
13. tredecies
14. quaterdecies
15. quindecies
16. sèdecies
17. septiesdecies
18. duodevices
19. andevices
20. vicies
21. semel viciëns,² etc.
22. decies milies
30. trices
40. quadrages
50. quinquagenes
60. sexages
70. septuages
80. octogones
90. nonages
100. centes
200. ducentes
300. trecentes
1000. milies
10,000. decies milies

α. Numeral Adverbs are used with mille to express the higher numbers:
   ter et tricies (centena milia) sestertium, 3,300,000 sestercies (three and thirty times a hundred thousand sestercies).
   viciies ac septies milies (centena milia) sestertium, 2,700,000,000 sestercies (twenty-seven thousand times a hundred thousand).

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

Other Numerals

139. The following adjectives are called Multiplicatives: —

simplex, single; duplex, double, twofold; triplex, triple, threefold; quadruplex, quinquiplex, septempplex, decemplex, centuplex, sesquiplex (1½), multiplex (manifold).

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

β. Temporals: bimum, trimum, of two or three years' age; biennis, triennis, lasting two or three years; bimestris, trimestris, of two or three months; biduum, a period of two days; biennium, a period of two years.

γ. Partitives: binarius, ternarius, of two or three parts.

δ. Other derivatives are: uniō, unity; binō, the two (of dice); primarius, of the first legio; primarius, of the first rank; dénarius, a sum of 10 asses; bimus (distributive), double, etc.

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

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

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

141. Pronouns have special forms of declension.

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

Personal Pronouns

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

143. Ego and tū are declined as follows: —

First Person

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ego, I</td>
<td>nōs, we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>mē, of me</td>
<td>nostrum, nostrī, of us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>mihi (mī), to me</td>
<td>nōbis, to us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>mē, me</td>
<td>nōs, us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>mē, by me</td>
<td>nōbis, by us</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Second Person

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>tū, thou or you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tui, of thee or you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tibi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>tē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

_b._ The forms nostrum, vestrum, etc., are used _partitively:_

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

Note.—The forms of the genitive of the personal pronouns are really the genitives of the possessives: _mēi, tuī, sūi, nostri, vestri_, genitive singular _neuter: nostrum, vestrum_, genitive plural masculine or _neuter._ So in early and later Latin we find _una_ vestrārum, _one of you (women)._ 

c. The genitives _mēi, tuī, sūi, nostri, vestri_, are chiefly used _objectively (_§ 347_):—

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

d. Emphatic forms of _tū_ are _tāte_ and _tūtemet_ (_tūtimet_). The other cases of the personal pronouns, excepting the genitive plural, are made emphatic by adding _-met_: as, _egomet, vōsmet._

Note.—Early emphatic forms are _mēpte_ and _tēpte._

e. Reduplicated forms are found in the _accusative_ and _ablative_ singular: as, _mēmē, tētē._

f. The preposition _cum_, _with_, is joined enclitically with the ablative: as, _tēcum loquitur_, he talks with you.

Reflexive Pronouns

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

_a._ In the _first_ and _second_ persons the oblique cases of the Personal pronouns are used as Reflexives: as, _mē videō_, I see myself; _tē laudās_, you praise yourself; _nōbis persuādēmus_, we persuade ourselves.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meanings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>suī, of <em>himself, herself, itself, themselves</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>sībī, to <em>himself, herself, itself, themselves</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sē (<em>sēsē</em>), _himself, herself, <em>itself, themselves</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>sē (<em>sēsē</em>), <em>by</em> _himself, herself, <em>itself, themselves</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1.—Emphatic and reduplicated forms of _sē_ are made as in the personals (see § 143, _d, e._). The preposition _cum_ is added enclitically: as, _sēcum, with himself, etc._

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

145. The Possessive pronouns are: —

First Person.  meus, my   noster, our
Second Person. tuus, thy, your   vester, your
Third Person.  suus, his, her, its   suus, their

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

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

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

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

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

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

Demonstrative Pronouns

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hūius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>huc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hunc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>hōc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th></th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
<td>N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>is</td>
<td>ea</td>
<td>ìd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ēius</td>
<td>ēius</td>
<td>ēius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>eī</td>
<td>ei</td>
<td>ei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>eum</td>
<td>eām</td>
<td>id</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>eō</td>
<td>eā</td>
<td>eō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 3.—Obsolete forms are cāe (dat. fem.), and cābus or ībus (dat. plur.). For dative eī are found also ēī and ēī (monosyllabic); ēī, ēōs, etc., also occur in the plural.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th></th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
<td>N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ille</td>
<td>īlla</td>
<td>illud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>illius</td>
<td>illius</td>
<td>illius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>illi</td>
<td>illi</td>
<td>illi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>illum</td>
<td>illam</td>
<td>illud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>illō</td>
<td>illā</td>
<td>illō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ille, that

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

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

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

Note 6.—The forms illi,isti (gen.), and illicae, istae (dat.), are sometimes found; also the nominative plural istacee, illiceae (for istac, illac). See a, p. 67.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th></th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
<td>N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ipse</td>
<td>ipsa</td>
<td>ipsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ipsius</td>
<td>ipsīus</td>
<td>ipsius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ipsī</td>
<td>ipsī</td>
<td>ipsī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ipsum</td>
<td>ipsam</td>
<td>ipsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ipsō</td>
<td>ipsā</td>
<td>ipsō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
§ 146] DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS 67

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

Note 8. — The intensive -pse is found in the forms eápsé (nominative), eámpse, eámpse, eópsé, eápsé (ablative).

idem, the same

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>idem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>éiusdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>eídem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>eándem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>eódem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 9. — Idem is the demonstrative is with the indeclinable suffix -dem. The masculine idem is for ędem; the neuter idem, however, is not for ędem, but is a relic of an older formation. A final m of is is changed to n before d: as, eánde for eándem, etc. The plural forms idem, ędem, are often written iđem, ędem.

a. Ile and istic appear in combination with the demonstrative particle -c, shortened from -ce, in the following forms:

SINGULAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>illíc</td>
<td>illáec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>illunc</td>
<td>illanc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>illóc</td>
<td>illác</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural

N., Acc. --- --- illáec --- --- istic (istoc)

Note 1. — The appended -ce is also found with pronouns in numerous combinations: as, háiusce, huncé, béruncé, béruncé, bósce, hisce (cf. § 146. N. 1), illiusce, isce; also with the interrogative -ne, in hócine, hósceine, isticine, illicine, etc.

Note 2. — By composition with ecce or em. behold! are formed ecceum (for ecce cum), eccam, eccós, eccás; eccillum (for ecce illum); ellum (for em illum), ellám, ellós, ellás; eccistam. These forms are dramatic and colloquial.

b. The combinations háiusmodi (háiuscemodi), éiusmodi, etc., are used as indeclinable adjectives, equivalent to tális, such: as, rés éiasmódi, such a thing (a thing of that sort: cf. § 345. a).

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th></th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
<td>N.</td>
<td>M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>qui</td>
<td>quae</td>
<td>quod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cuius</td>
<td>cuius</td>
<td>cuius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cui</td>
<td>quem</td>
<td>cuius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>quem</td>
<td>quam</td>
<td>quod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>quo</td>
<td>qua</td>
<td>quod</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns

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

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

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SUBSTANTIVE</th>
<th>ADJECTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quis vocat, who calls?</td>
<td>qui homō vocat, what man calls?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quid vidēs, what do you see?</td>
<td>quod templum vidēs, what temple do you see?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

Substantive: quis, any one; quid, anything.

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

a. The feminine forms qua and quae are sometimes used substantively.

b. The indefinites quis and qui are rare except after si, nisi, ne, and num, and in compounds (see § 310. a, b).

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

Case-Forms of qui and quis

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

a. Old forms for the genitive and dative singular are quóius, quoi.

b. The form qui is used for the ablative of both numbers and all genders; but especially as an adverb (how, by which way, in any way), and in the combination quicum, with whom, as an interrogative or an indefinite relative.

c. A nominative plural quês (stem qui-) is found in early Latin. A dative and ablative quis (stem quo-) is not infrequent, even in classic Latin.

d. The preposition cum is joined enclitically to all forms of the ablative, as with the personal pronouns (§ 143, f): as, quócum, quicum, quibuscum.

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

Compounds of quis and qui

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

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

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

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>aliquis (aliqui)</td>
<td>aliqua</td>
<td>aliquid (aliquod)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>aliquius</td>
<td>alcius</td>
<td>aliquus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>aliquem</td>
<td>aliquam</td>
<td>aliquam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>aliquo</td>
<td>aliqua</td>
<td>aliquo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

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

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

nē in ānō quidem quōque (Lael. 92), not even in a single one.

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

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

Correlatives

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>is</td>
<td>qui</td>
<td>quis ?</td>
<td>quisquis</td>
<td>aliquis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that</td>
<td>who</td>
<td>who ?</td>
<td>whoever</td>
<td>some one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tantus</td>
<td>quantus</td>
<td>quantus ?</td>
<td>quantuscumque</td>
<td>aliquantus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so great</td>
<td>how (as) great</td>
<td>how great?</td>
<td>however great</td>
<td>some</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tālis</td>
<td>quālis</td>
<td>quālis ?</td>
<td>quāliscumque</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>such</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>of what sort?</td>
<td>of whatever kind</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibi</td>
<td>ubi</td>
<td>ubi ?</td>
<td>ubiubi</td>
<td>alicubi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>there</td>
<td>where</td>
<td>where ?</td>
<td>wherever</td>
<td>somewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eō</td>
<td>quō</td>
<td>quō ?</td>
<td>quōquō</td>
<td>aliqūō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thither</td>
<td>whither</td>
<td>whither ?</td>
<td>whithersover</td>
<td>(to) somewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eā</td>
<td>quā</td>
<td>quā ?</td>
<td>quāqā</td>
<td>aliqūā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that way</td>
<td>which way</td>
<td>which way ?</td>
<td>whithersover</td>
<td>(to) anywhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unde</td>
<td>unde ?</td>
<td>unde ?</td>
<td>undiscumque</td>
<td>alicunde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thence</td>
<td>whence</td>
<td>whence ?</td>
<td>whencesoever</td>
<td>from somewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cum</td>
<td>quandō ?</td>
<td>whenever</td>
<td>quandōcumque</td>
<td>aliquando</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>then</td>
<td>when</td>
<td>when ?</td>
<td>whenever</td>
<td>at some time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tot</td>
<td>quot</td>
<td>quot ?</td>
<td>quotquot</td>
<td>aliquot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so many</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>how many ?</td>
<td>however many</td>
<td>some, several</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>totiēns</td>
<td>quotiēns</td>
<td>quotiēns ?</td>
<td>quotiēnscumque</td>
<td>aliquotiēns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so often</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>how often ?</td>
<td>however often</td>
<td>at several times</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

VERBS

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

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

Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, Number

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

a. The Voices are two: Active and Passive.

b. The Moods are four: Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.¹

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

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

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

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

e. The Numbers are two: Singular and Plural.

Noun and Adjective Forms

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

a. Four Participles,² viz.: —
Active: the Present and Future Participles.
Passive: the Perfect Participle and the Gerundive.³

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

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

¹ The Infinitive is strictly the locative case of an abstract noun, expressing the action of the verb (§ 451).
² The Participles are adjectives in inflection and meaning, but have the power of verbs in construction and in distinguishing time.
³ The Gerundive is also used as an adjective of necessity, duty, etc. (§ 158. d). In late use it became a Future Passive Participle.
⁴ Originally locative.
SIGNIFICATION OF THE FORMS OF THE VERB

Voices

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

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

ferrō accingō, I gird myself with my sword.

Turnus vertitur, Turnus turns (himself).

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

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

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

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

Moods

157. The Moods are used as follows:—

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

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

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

¹ That is, verbs which have laid aside (déponente) the passive meaning.
² The Latin uses the subjunctive in many cases where we use the indicative; and we use a colorless auxiliary in many cases where the Latin employs a separate verb with more definite meaning. Thus, I may write is often not scribam (subjunctive), but licet mihi scribere; I can write is possum scribere; I would write is scribam, scriberem, or scribere velim (vellem); I should write, (if, etc.), scriberem (si) . . . , or (implying duty) oportet mē scribere.
c. The Imperative is used for exhortation, entreaty, or command; but the Subjunctive is often used instead (§§ 439, 450):

liber estō, he shall be free.
ne ossa legitō, do not gather the bones.

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

Note.—For the Syntax of the Moods, see § 436 ff.

Participles

158. The Participles are used as follows: —

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

b. The Future Participle (ending in -ūrus) is oftenest used to express what is likely or about to happen: as, rēctūrus, about to rule; auditūrus, about to hear.

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

c. The Perfect Participle (ending in -tus, -sus) has two uses: —

1. It is sometimes equivalent to the English perfect passive participle: as, tēctus, sheltered; acceptūs, accepted; ictus, having been struck; and often has simply an adjective meaning: as, acceptūs, acceptable.

2. It is used with the verb to be (esse) to form certain tenses of the passive: as, vocātus est, he was (has been) called.

Note.—There is no Perfect Active or Present Passive Participle in Latin. For substitutes see §§ 492, 493.

d. The Gerundive (ending in -ndus), has two uses: —

1. It is often used as an adjective implying obligation, necessity, or propriety (ought or must): as, audiendus est, he must be heard.

Note.—When thus used with the tenses of the verb to be (esse) it forms the Second Periphrastic Conjugation: aēligendus erat, he ought to have been chosen (§ 196).

2. In the oblique cases the Gerundive commonly has the same meaning as the Gerund (cf. § 159. a), though its construction is different. (For examples, see § 508 ff.)
Gerund and Supine

159. The Gerund and Supine are used as follows:—

_a._ The Gerund is a verbal noun, corresponding in meaning to the English verbal noun in _-ing_ (§ 502): as, loquendi _causā_, for the sake of speaking.

Note.—The Gerund is found only in the oblique cases. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive: thus, _scribere est ūtile_, writing (to write) is useful; but, _ars scribendi_, the art of writing.

_b._ The Supine is in form a noun of the fourth declension (§ 94. _b_), found only in the accusative ending in _-tum_, _-sum_, and the dative or ablative ending in _-tū_, _-sū_.

The Supine in _-tum_ is used after verbs and the Supine in _-ū_ after adjectives (§§ 509, 510):—

ventus _spectātum_, he came to see; _mirābile dictū_, wonderful to tell.

Tenses of the Finite Verb

160. The Tenses of the Indicative have, in general, the same meaning as the corresponding tenses in English:—

_a._ Of continued action,
1. **Present** : _scribō_, I write, I am writing, I do write.
2. **Imperfect** : _scribēbam_, I wrote, I was writing, I did write.
3. **Future** : _scribam_, I shall write.

_b._ Of completed action,
4. **Perfect** : _scripsī_, I have written, I wrote.
5. **Pluperfect** : _scripsīram_, I had written.
6. **Future Perfect** : _scripsītā_, I shall have written.

161. The Perfect Indicative has two separate uses, —the Perfect Definite and the Perfect Historical (or Indefinite).

1. The Perfect Definite represents the action of the verb as completed in present time, and corresponds to the English perfect with _have_: as, _scripsī_, I have written.

2. The Perfect Historical _narrates_ a simple act or state in past time without representing it as in progress or continuing. It corresponds to the English past or preterite and the Greek _aorist_: as, _scripsit_, he wrote.

162. The Tenses of the Subjunctive are chiefly used in dependent clauses, following the rule for the Sequence of Tenses; but have also special idiomatic uses (see Syntax).

For the use of Tenses in the Imperative, see §§ 448, 449.
Personal Endings

163. Verbs have regular terminations¹ for each of the three Persons, both singular and plural, active and passive.² These are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVE</th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PASSIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. -m (-ō)</td>
<td>amā-ō, I love.</td>
<td>-r (-or)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -s</td>
<td>amā-s, thou lovest.</td>
<td>-ris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -t</td>
<td>amā-t, he loves.</td>
<td>-tur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. -mus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -tis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -nt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. The Perfect Indicative active has the special terminations³:

| SING. | 1. -i | amāv-i, I loved. |
| 2. -is-tī | amāv-is-tī, thou lovedst. |
| 3. -i-t | amāv-i-t, he loved. |
| PLUR. | 1. -i-mus | amāv-i-mus, we loved. |
| 2. -is-tīs | amāv-is-tīs, you loved. |
| 3. -ērunt (-ēre) | amāv-ērunt (-ēre), they loved. |

b. The Imperative has the following terminations:

Present Active

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. -ē</td>
<td>amā, love thou.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future Active

| 2. -tō | amā-tō, thou shalt love. | -tōte | amā-tōte, ye shall love. |
| 3. -tō | amā-tō, he shall love. | -ntō | amā-ntō, they shall love. |

¹ Most of these seem to be fragments of old pronouns, whose signification is thus added to that of the verb-stem (cf. § 36). But the ending -minē in the second person plural of the passive is perhaps a remnant of the participial form found in the Greek -μένος, and has supplanted the proper form, which does not appear in Latin. The personal ending -nt is probably connected with the participial nt- (nominative -ns).
² The Passive is an old Middle Voice, peculiar to the Italic and Celtic languages, and of uncertain origin.
³ Of these terminations -i is not a personal ending, but appears to represent an Indo-European tense-suffix of the Perfect Middle. In -is-tī and -is-tīs, -tī and -tīs are personal endings; for -is-, see § 169, c. n. In -i-t and -i-mus, -t and -mus are personal endings, and -i is of uncertain origin. Both -ērunt and -ēre are also of doubtful origin, but the former contains the personal ending -nt.
Forms of the Verb

The Three Stems

164. The forms of the verb may be referred to three stems, called (1) the Present, (2) the Perfect, and (3) the Supine stem.

1. On the Present stem are formed —

The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative, Active and Passive.
The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive, Active and Passive.
The Imperative, Active and Passive.
The Present Infinitive, Active and Passive.
The Present Participle, the Gerundive, and the Gerund.

2. On the Perfect stem are formed —

The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative Active.
The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive Active.
The Perfect Infinitive Active.

3. On the Supine stem are formed 1 —

a. The Perfect Passive Participle, which combines with the forms of the verb sum, be, to make —

The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative Passive.
The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive Passive.
The Perfect Infinitive Passive.

b. The Future Active Participle, which combines with esse to make the Future Active Infinitive.

c. The Supine in -um and -ē. The Supine in -um combines with ērī to make the Future Passive Infinitive (§ 203. a).

Note. — The Perfect Participle with fore also makes a Future Passive Infinitive (as, amātus fore). For fore (futūrum esse) ut with the subjunctive, see § 569. 3. a.

1 The Perfect Passive and Future Active Participles and the Supine, though strictly noun-forms, each with its own suffix, agree in having the first letter of the suffix (t) the same and in suffering the same phonetic change (t to s, see § 15. 5). Hence these forms, along with several sets of derivatives (in -tor, -tūra, etc., see § 238. b. n.), were felt by the Romans as belonging to one system, and are conveniently associated with the Supine Stem. Thus, from pingō, we have pictum, pictus, pictūrus, pictor, pictūra; from rideō, risum (for ērid-tum), risus (part.), risus (noun), risūrus, risīō, risōr, risībils.
### VERB-ENDINGS

165. Every form of the finite verb is made up of two parts:
1. The Stem (see § 24). This is either the root or a modification or development of it.
2. The Ending, consisting of —
   1. the Signs of Mood and Tense (see §§ 168, 169).
   2. the Personal Ending (see § 163).

Thus in the verb vocā-bā-s, *you were calling*, the root is voc, modified into the verb-stem vocā-, which by the addition of the ending -bās becomes the imperfect tense vocābās; and this ending consists of the tense-sign bā- and the personal ending (-s) of the second person singular.

166. The Verb-endings, as they are formed by the signs for mood and tense combined with personal endings, are —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVE (INDICATIVE)</th>
<th>ACTIVE (SUBJUNCTIVE)</th>
<th>PASSIVE (INDICATIVE)</th>
<th>PASSIVE (SUBJUNCTIVE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PRESENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>PRESENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. -ō</td>
<td></td>
<td>-m</td>
<td>-or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -s</td>
<td></td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>-ris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -t</td>
<td></td>
<td>-t</td>
<td>-tur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -mus</td>
<td></td>
<td>-mus</td>
<td>-mur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -tis</td>
<td></td>
<td>-tis</td>
<td>-mini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -nt</td>
<td></td>
<td>-nt</td>
<td>-ntur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMPERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>IMPERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. -ba-m</td>
<td></td>
<td>-re-m</td>
<td>-ba-r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -bā-s</td>
<td></td>
<td>-re-s</td>
<td>-bā-ris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -ba-t</td>
<td></td>
<td>-re-t</td>
<td>-bā-tur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -bā-mus</td>
<td></td>
<td>-re-mus</td>
<td>-bā-mur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -bā-tis</td>
<td></td>
<td>-re-tis</td>
<td>-bā-mini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -bā-nt</td>
<td></td>
<td>-re-nt</td>
<td>-bā-ntur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE FUTURE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE FUTURE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. -b-ō</td>
<td></td>
<td>-a-m</td>
<td>-be-r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -bī-s</td>
<td></td>
<td>-e-s</td>
<td>-be-ris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -bī-t</td>
<td></td>
<td>-e-t</td>
<td>-bī-tur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -bī-mus</td>
<td></td>
<td>-e-mus</td>
<td>-bī-mur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -bī-tis</td>
<td></td>
<td>-e-tis</td>
<td>-bī-mini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -bī-nt</td>
<td></td>
<td>-e-nt</td>
<td>-bī-ntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past-Changes:</th>
<th>Past-Changes:</th>
<th>Past-Changes:</th>
<th>Past-Changes:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. -b-ō</td>
<td></td>
<td>-a-m</td>
<td>-be-r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -bī-s</td>
<td></td>
<td>-e-s</td>
<td>-be-ris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -bī-t</td>
<td></td>
<td>-e-t</td>
<td>-bī-tur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -bī-mus</td>
<td></td>
<td>-e-mus</td>
<td>-bī-mur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -bī-tis</td>
<td></td>
<td>-e-tis</td>
<td>-bī-mini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -bī-nt</td>
<td></td>
<td>-e-nt</td>
<td>-bī-ntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 These numerals refer to the four conjugations given later (see § 171).
### Active

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. -ē</td>
<td>-ēri-m</td>
<td>-tus(-ta, -tum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -is-tī</td>
<td>-ēri-s</td>
<td>{sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -i-t</td>
<td>-ēri-t</td>
<td>sis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -mus</td>
<td>-ēri-mus</td>
<td>-tī (-tae, -ta)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -is-tis</td>
<td>-ēri-tis</td>
<td>{sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -ēru-nt (-ēre)</td>
<td>-ēri-nt</td>
<td>sis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pluperfect</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. -era-m</td>
<td>-isse-m</td>
<td>-tus(-ta, -tum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -erā-s</td>
<td>-isse-s</td>
<td>{eram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -era-t</td>
<td>-isse-t</td>
<td>essem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -era-mus</td>
<td>-isse-mus</td>
<td>-tī (-tae, -ta)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -erā-tis</td>
<td>-isse-tis</td>
<td>{erāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -era-nt</td>
<td>-isse-nt</td>
<td>essēmus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1.</td>
<td>-ēri-m</td>
<td>-tus(-ta, -tum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -is-tī</td>
<td>-ēri-s</td>
<td>{sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -i-t</td>
<td>-ēri-t</td>
<td>sis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -mus</td>
<td>-ēri-mus</td>
<td>-tī (-tae, -ta)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -is-tis</td>
<td>-ēri-tis</td>
<td>{sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -ēru-nt (-ēre)</td>
<td>-ēri-nt</td>
<td>sis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Future Perfect

| Sing. 1. -erō | -tus(-ta, -tum) |
| 2. -eris | erō |
| 3. -erit | eris |
| Plur. 1. -erōmus | -tī(-tae, -ta) |
| 2. -erōtis | erōmus |
| 3. -erōnt | erōtis |

### Present

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing. 2. -tō</th>
<th>Plur. 2. -tē</th>
<th>Sing. 2. -tō</th>
<th>Plur. 2. -tō</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. -tō</td>
<td>2. -tōte</td>
<td>2. -tō</td>
<td>2. -tō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing. 2.</th>
<th>Plur. 2.</th>
<th>Sing. 2.</th>
<th>Plur. 2.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-tō</td>
<td>-tōte</td>
<td>-tō</td>
<td>-tō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For convenience a table of the Noun and Adjective forms of the verb is here added.

### Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>-re (Pres. stem)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>-isse (Perf. stem)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>-tūrus (-a, -um) esse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Participles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>-ns, -ntis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>-tus, -ta, -tum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ger.</td>
<td>-ndus, -nda, -ndum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Gerund

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-ndī, -nō, -nōum, -nō</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Supine

| -tum, -tū |
167. A long vowel is shortened before the personal endings -m (-r), -t, -nt (-ntur): as, ame-t (for older amē-t), habe-t (for habē-t), mone-nt, mone-ntur.

168. The tenses of the Present System are made from the Present Stem as follows: —

a. In the Present Indicative the personal endings are added directly to the present stem. Thus, — present stem arā-: arā-s, arā-mus, arā-tis.

b. In the Imperfect Indicative the suffix -bam, -bās, etc. (originally a complete verb) is added to the present stem: as, arā-bam, arā-bās, arā-bāmus.

Note.—The form ḫbam was apparently an aorist of the Indo-European root bhu (cf. fui, futūrus, φήσα, English be, been), and meant I was. This was added to a complete word, originally a case of a verbal noun, as in I was a-seeing; hence vidē-bam. The form probably began in the Second or Third Conjugation and was extended to the others. The a was at first long, but was shortened in certain forms (§ 167).

c. In the Future Indicative of the First and Second Conjugations a similar suffix, -bō, -bis, etc., is added to the present stem: as, arā-bō, arā-bis, monē-bō.

Note.—The form ḫbō was probably a present tense of the root bhu, with a future meaning, and was affixed to a noun-form as described in b. n.

d. In the Future Indicative of the Third and Fourth Conjugations the terminations -am, -ēs, etc. (as, teg-am, teg-ēs, audi-am, audi-ēs) are really subjunctive endings used in a future sense (see e). The vowel was originally long throughout. For shortening, see § 167.

e. In the Present Subjunctive the personal endings were added to a form of the present stem ending in ē- or ā-, which was shortened in certain forms (§ 167). Thus, ame-m, amē-s, tegā-mus, tega-nt.

Note 1.—The vowel ē (scēn in the First Conjugation: as, amē-s) is an inherited subjunctive mood-sign. It appears to be the thematic vowel e (§ 174.1) lengthened. The ā of the other conjugations (mone-ā-s, regā-s, audi-ā-s) is of uncertain origin.

Note 2.—In a few irregular verbs a Present Subjunctive in -im, -is, etc. occurs: as, sim, sis, simus, velim, vēlis, etc. This is an old optative, ī being a form of the Indo-European optative mood-sign ye- (cf. stem, siēs, sīct, § 170. b. n.). The vowel has been shortened in the first and third persons singular and the third person plural.

f. In the Imperfect Subjunctive the suffix -rem, -rēs, etc. is added to the present stem: as, amā-rem, amā-rēs, monē-rem, tegē-rem, audi-rem.

Note.—The stem element -rem is of uncertain origin and is not found outside of Italic. The r is doubtless the aorist sign s (cf. essē-s-m, essē-s-sē-s) changed to r between two vowels (§ 15.4). The ē is probably the subjunctive mood-sign (see e).

1 The conjugation of a verb consists of separate formations from a root, gradually grouped together, systematized, and supplemented by new formations made on old lines to supply deficiencies. Some of the forms were inherited from the parent speech; others were developed in the course of the history of the Italic dialects or of the Latin language itself.
169. The tenses of the Perfect System in the active voice are made from the Perfect Stem as follows:

a. In the Perfect Indicative the endings -i, -istî, etc. are added directly to the perfect stem: as, amāv-istî, tēx-istis.

b. In the Pluperfect Indicative the suffix -eram, -erás, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amāv-eram, monu-eram, tēx-erat.

Note.—This seems to represent an older t-is-ām etc. formed on the analogy of the Future Perfect in -ērō (older t-is-ō: see c below) and influenced by eram (imperfect of sum) in comparison with erō (future of sum).

c. In the Future Perfect the suffix -erō, -eris, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amāv-erō, monu-eris, tēx-erit.

Note.—This formation was originally a subjunctive of the s-aorist, ending probably in t-is-ō. The -is- is doubtless the same as that seen in the second person singular of the perfect indicative (vid-is-tī), in the perfect infinitive (vid-is-se), and in the pluperfect subjunctive (vid-is-sem), s being the aorist sign and i probably an old stem vowel.

d. In the Perfect Subjunctive the suffix -erim, -eris, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amāv-erim, monu-eris, tēx-erit.

Note.—This formation was originally an optative of the s-aorist (-er- for older -is-, as in the future perfect, see e above). The i after r is the optative mood-sign i shortened (see § 108. 3. n. 2). Forms in -is, -it, -imus, -itis, are sometimes found. The shortening in -is, -imus, -itis, is due to confusion with the future perfect.

e. In the Pluperfect Subjunctive the suffix -issem, -issēs, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amāv-issem, monu-issēs, tēx-issēt.

Note.—Apparently this tense was formed on the analogy of the pluperfect indicative in t-is-ām (later -er-am, see b), and influenced by essem (earlier ṭessēm) in its relation to eram (earlier ṭēsām).\(^1\)

The Verb Sum

170. The verb sum, be, is both irregular and defective, having no gerund or supine, and no participle but the future.

Its conjugation is given at the outset, on account of its importance for the inflection of other verbs.

\(^1\) The signs of mood and tense are often said to be inserted between the root (or verb-stem) and the personal ending. No such insertion is possible in a language developed like the Latin. All true verb-forms are the result, as shown above, of composition; that is, of adding to the root or the stem either personal endings or fully developed auxiliaries (themselves containing the personal terminations), or of imitation of such processes. Thus vidēbāmus is made by adding to vidē-, originally a significant word or a form conceived as such, a full verbal form ēbāmus, not by inserting -bā- between vidē- and -mus (§ 108. 6).
Principal Parts: Present Indicative sum, Present Infinitive esse, Perfect Indicative fui, Future Participle futurus.

| Present Stem es- | Perfect Stem fu- | Supine Stem fut-
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDICATIVE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIng. 1. sum, I am</td>
<td>Perfect Present</td>
<td>Subjunctive Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. es, thou art (you are)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. est, he (she, it) is</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. sumus, we are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. estis, you are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. sunt, they are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPERFECT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIng. 1. eram, I was</td>
<td>Perfect Present</td>
<td>Subjunctive Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. eras, you were</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. erat, he (she, it) was</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. eramus, we were</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. eratis, you were</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. erant, they were</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUTURE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIng. 1. ero, I shall be</td>
<td>Perfect Present</td>
<td>Subjunctive Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. eris, you will be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. erit, he will be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. erimus, we shall be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. eritis, you will be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. erunt, they will be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERFECT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIng. 1. fui, I was (have been)</td>
<td>Perfect Present</td>
<td>Subjunctive Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. fuisti, you were</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. fuit, he was</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. fuitus, we were</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. fuistis, you were</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. fuérunt, fuère, they were</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLUPERFECT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIng. 1. fueram, I had been</td>
<td>Perfect Present</td>
<td>Subjunctive Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. fueras, you had been</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. fuerat, he had been</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 All translations of the Subjunctive are misleading, and hence none is given; see § 157. b.
§ 170] THE VERB SUM 83

Plur. 1. fuerāmus, we had been  fuissēmus
2. fuerātis, you had been  fuissētis
3. fuerant, they had been  fuissent

Future Perfect
Sing. 1. fuerō, I shall have been  Plur. 1. fuerimus, we shall have been
2. fueris, you will have been  2. fueritis, you will have been
3. fuerit, he will have been  3. fuerint, they will have been

Imperative
Present  Sing. 2. ēs, be thou  Plur. 2. este, be ye
Future  2. estō, thou shalt be  2. estōte, ye shall be
  3. estō, he shall be  3. suntō, they shall be

Infinitive
Present esse, to be
Perfect fuisse, to have been
Future futūrus esse or fore, to be about to be

Participle
Future futūrus, -a, -um, about to be

a. For essem, essēs, etc., forem, forēs, foret, forest, are often used; so fore for futūrus esse.

b. The Present Participle, which would regularly be ṣōns, appears in
the adjective in-śōns, innocent, and in a modified form in ab-śōns, praec-śōns.
The simple form ēns is sometimes found in late or philosophical Latin as a
participle or abstract noun, in the forms ēns, being; entia, things which are.

Note.—Old forms are: — Indicative: Future, escit, escunt (strictly an inchoa-
tive present, see § 263, 1).
 Subjunctive: Present, siem, sīēs, sīet, sīent; faum, fūās, fuat, fuant; Perfect, fūvi-
mus; Fluperfect, fūvisset.
The root of the verb sum is ēs, which in the imperfect is changed to er (see § 15. 4),
and in many forms is shortened to s. Some of its modifications, as found in several
languages more or less closely related to Latin, may be seen in the following table,—
the Sanskrit syām corresponding to the Latin sim (siem):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sanskrit</th>
<th>Greek</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Lithuanian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as-mi</td>
<td>syām</td>
<td>ἑσσυμ 2</td>
<td>s-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as-i</td>
<td>syas</td>
<td>ἑστι 2</td>
<td>es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as-ti</td>
<td>syāt</td>
<td>ἑστι 2</td>
<td>es-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s-mas</td>
<td>syāma</td>
<td>ἑσμύεν</td>
<td>s-umus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s-tha</td>
<td>syāta</td>
<td>ἑστέ</td>
<td>ces-tis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s-anti</td>
<td>syus</td>
<td>ἑστὶ 2</td>
<td>s-unt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Perfect and Supine stems, fu-, fut-, are kindred with the Greek ἐφυ, and with
the English be.

1 Compare Sankrit sant, Greek ἑφυ.  2 Old form.
CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

§§ 171-173

The Four Conjugations

171. Verbs are classed in Four Regular Conjugations, distinguished by the stem-vowel which appears before -re in the Present Infinitive Active:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONJUGATION</th>
<th>INFINITIVE ENDING</th>
<th>STEM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>-äre (amāre)</td>
<td>ā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>-ēre (monēre)</td>
<td>ē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>-ēre (regēre)</td>
<td>ē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>-īre (audīre)</td>
<td>ī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Principal Parts

172. The Principal Parts of a verb, showing the three stems which determine its conjugation throughout, are:

1. The Present Indicative (as, amō)
2. The Present Infinitive (as, amā-re)
3. The Perfect Indicative (as, amāv-ī), showing the Present Stem.
4. The neuter of the Perfect Participle (as, amāt-um), or, if that form is not in use, the Future Active Participle (amāt-ūrus), showing the Supine Stem.

173. The regular forms of the Four Conjugations are seen in the following:

First Conjugation:

Active, amō, amāre, amāvi, amātum. *love.*
Passive, amor, amāri, amātus.
Present Stem amā-, Perfect Stem amāv-, Supine Stem amāt-.

Second Conjugation:

Active, dēleō, dēlēre, dēlevī, dēlētum, *blot out.*
Passive, dēleor, dēlēri, dēletus.
Present Stem dēlē-, Perfect Stem dēlev-, Supine Stem dēlēt-.

In the Second conjugation, however, the characteristic ē- rarely appears in the perfect and perfect participle. The common type is, therefore:

Active, moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum, *warn.*
Passive, moneor, monēri, monitus.
Present Stem monē-, Perfect Stem monu-, Supine Stem monit-.


Third Conjugation:

Active, tegō, tegēre, téxi, tectum, cover.
Passive, tegor, tegi, tectus.
Present Stem tegē-, Perfect Stem tēx-, Supine Stem tēct-.

Fourth Conjugation:

Active, audiō, audire, audivi, auditum, hear.
Passive, audior, audiri, auditus.
Present Stem audi-, Perfect Stem audiv-, Supine Stem audit-.

α. In many verbs the principal parts take forms belonging to two or more different conjugations (cf. § 189):

1, 2, domō, domāre, domui, domitum, subduē.
2, 3, manō, manēre, mānsi, mānsum, remain.
3, 4, petō, petēre, petivi, petitum, seek.
4, 3, vincō, vincire, vinxi, vincatum, bind.

Such verbs are referred to the conjugation to which the Present stem conforms.

Present Stem

174. The parent (Indo-European) speech from which Latin comes had two main classes of verbs:

1. Thematic Verbs, in which a so-called thematic vowel (% in Latin i%0) appeared between the root and the personal ending: as, leg-i-tis (for *lēg-e-tēs), leg-u-nnt (for *lēg-o-nti).1

2. A thematic Verbs, in which the personal endings were added directly to the root: as, es-t, es-tis (root es)2, dā-mus (dō, root dā), fer-t (ferō, root fer).

Of the thematic Verbs few survive in Latin, and these are counted as irregular, except such as have been forced into one of the four "regular" conjugations. Even the irregular verbs have admitted many forms of the thematic type.

Of the thematic Verbs a large number remain. These may be divided into two classes:

1. Verbs which preserve the thematic vowel e or o (in Latin i or u) before the personal endings. These make up the Third Conjugation. The present stem is formed in various ways (§ 176), but always ends in a short vowel i% (Latin i%0). Examples are tegō (stem teg%e-), sternimus (stem stern%e-) for *ster-no-mose, plectunt (stem plect%e-) for *plect-o-nti. So nōscō (stem gnōsc%e-) for gnō-sc-ō. Verbs like nōscō became the type for a large number of verbs in -scō, called inceptives (§ 263, 1).

2. Verbs which form the present stem by means of the suffix y%e-, which already contained the thematic vowel i%. — Verbs of this class in which any vowel (except u) came in contact with the suffix y%0 suffered contraction so as to present a long vowel ā-, ē-, ī-, at the end of the stem. In this contraction the thematic %e disappeared. These became the types of the First, Second, and Fourth conjugations respectively. In imitation of these long vowel-stems numerous verbs were formed by the Romans themselves (after the mode of formation had been entirely forgotten) from nouns and

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1 Cf. λέγ-ε-τε, λέγ-ο-μεν; Doric λέγ-ο-ντι.
2 Cf. ēσ-τί, ēσ-τέ (see p. 83, note).
adjective-stems. This came to be the regular way of forming new verbs, just as in English the borrowed suffix -ize can be added to nouns and adjectives to make verbs: as, macadamize, modernize.

Thematic verbs of the second class in which a consonant or u came into contact with the suffix y\textsuperscript{e} suffered various phonetic changes. Such verbs fall partly into the Third Conjugation, giving rise to an irregular form of it, and partly into the Fourth, and some have forms of both. Examples are: — (cōn)spiciō (spicēre) for \textipa{spēkỹō}; veniō (venēre) for \textipa{f(\textgraves})(g)erm-y̞ō; cupiō, cupēre, but cupivī; orīor, orītur, but orīnī. Note, however, plūō (plūere) for \textipa{fplu-y̞ō}; and hence, by analogy, acūō (acuēre) for \textipa{pacu-y̞ō}.

In all these cases many cross-analogies and errors as well as phonetic changes have been at work to produce irregularities. Hence has arisen the traditional system which is practically represented in §§ 175, 176.

175. The Present Stem may be found by dropping -re in the Present Infinitive: —

amā-re, stem amā-; monē-re, stem monē-; tegē-re, stem tegē-; audī-re, stem audī-.

176. The Present Stem is formed from the Root in all regular verbs in one of the following ways: —

a. In the First, Second, and Fourth conjugations, by adding a long vowel (ā, ē, ĭ) to the root, whose vowel is sometimes changed: as, vocā-re (voc), monē-re (men, cf. memīnī), sopī-re (sopī).

Note.—Verb-stems of these conjugations are almost all really formed from noun-stems on the pattern of older formations (see § 174).

b. In the Third Conjugation, by adding a short vowel \textipa{ɪ̞} to the root. In Latin this \textipa{ɪ̞} usually appears as \textipa{i₄}, but e is preserved in some forms. Thus, tegi-s (root teg), all-tis (al), regu-nt (reg); but tegē-ris (tegē-re), alē-ris.

1. The stem-vowel \textipa{ɪ̞} may be preceded by n, t, or sc: 3 as, tem-ni-tis, tem-nu-nt, tem-nē-ris (tem); plec-ti-s (plec); crē-sci-tis (cret).

2. Verbs in -iō of the Third Conjugation (as, capiō, capēre) show in some forms an i before the final vowel of the stem: as, cap-i-unt (cap), fug-i-unt (fug).

c. The root may be changed —

1. By the repetition of a part of it (reduplication): as, gi-gn-e-re (gen).

2. By the insertion of a nasal (m or n): as, find-e-re (fid), tang-e-re (tag).

1 Most verbs of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations form the present stem by adding the suffix \textipa{-y̞e} to a noun-stem. The ā of the First Conjugation is the stem-ending of the noun (as, plantā-re, from plantā-, stem of planta). The ē of the Second and the i of the Fourth Conjugation are due to contraction of the short vowel of the noun-stem with the ending \textipa{-y̞e}. Thus albēre is from albē-re, stem of albus; finiēre is from fini-, stem of finis. Some verbs of these classes, however, come from roots ending in a vowel.

2 This is the so-called "thematic vowel."

3 In these verbs the stem-ending added to the root is respectively \textipa{-nē,-tē,-scē.}
In some verbs the present stem is formed from a noun-stem in -us: as, *statu-ere* (statu-s), *aestu-āre* (aestu-s); cf. acuō, acuere.1

Note 1.—A few isolated forms use the simple root as a present stem: as, *fer-re*, *fer-t*; *es-se*, *vele-le*, *vul-t*. These are counted as irregular.

Note 2.—In some verbs the final consonant of the root is doubled before the stem-vowel: as, *pel-ti-tis* (pel), *mit-ti-tis* (mit).

c. Some verbs have roots ending in a vowel. In these the present stem is generally identical with the root: as, *da-mus* (da), *fiē-mus* (stem fiē-, root form unknown).2 But others, as *ruī-mus* (ru), are formed with an additional vowel according to the analogy of the verbs described in d.

Note.—Some verbs of this class reduplicate the root: as, *si-st-e-re* (sta, cf. stāre).

177. The Perfect Stem is formed as follows:—

a. The suffix *v* (u) is added to the verb-stem: as, *vocā-v-i*, *audī-v-i*; or to the root: as, *son-u-i* (sonā-re, root son), *mon-u-i* (monē-re, mon treated as a root).3

Note.—In a few verbs the vowel of the root is transposed and lengthened: as, *strā-v-i* (sternē, stern), *spra-v-i* (spernō, spern).

b. The suffix *s* is added to the root: as, *carp-s-i* (carp), *tēx-i* (for tēg-s-i, teg).4

Note.—The modifications of the present stem sometimes appear in the perfect: as, *finx-i* (fic, present stem finge), *sānx-i* (sac, present stem sanci).

c. The root is reduplicated by prefixing the first consonant—generally with ē, sometimes with the root-vowel: as, *ce-cid-i* (cadō, cad), *to-tond-i* (tondeō, tond).

Note.—In *fā-i* (for fē-fā-i, findō), *scid-i* (for sci-scid-i, scindō), the reduplication has been lost, leaving merely the root.


e. Sometimes the perfect stem has the same formation that appears in the present tense: as, *vert-i* (vert-ō), *solv-i* (solv-ō).

f. Sometimes the perfect is formed from a lost or imaginary stem: as, *pet-i-v-i* (as if from *tēpet-i-ō*, *tēpet-e-re*, *vet*).

1 These are either old formations in -yō- in which the y has disappeared after the u (as, statuā for *statu-yō*) or later imitations of such forms.

2 In some of the verbs of this class the present stem was originally identical with the root; in others the ending -yō- was added, but has been absorbed by contraction.

3 The v-perfect is a form of uncertain origin peculiar to the Latin.

4 The s-perfect is in origin an aorist. Thus, *dīx-i* (for *dēc-i-s-i*) corresponds to the Greek aorist *ἐ-δεικ-α* (for *ἐ-δεικσ-α*).
Supine Stem

178. The Supine Stem may be found by dropping -um from the Supine. It is formed by adding t (or, by a phonetic change, s)—

a. To the present stem: as, amā-tum, dēlē-tum, audī-tum.

b. To the root, with or without ī: as, cap-tum (capiō, cap), moni-tum (moneō, mon used as root), cās-um (for ĭcād-tum, cad), lēc-tum (leg).

Note 1.—By phonetic change ĭt and ĭt become s (dēfēnsum, versus for ĭdē-ĭtum, ĭvert-ĭtum); ĭt becomes pt (scrip-ĭtum for ĭscrib-ĭtum); ĭt becomes ct (rēc-ĭtum for ĭreg-ĭtum). 1

Note 2.—The modifications of the present stem sometimes appear in the supine: as, tīc-tum (tīgō, tīg), tēn-s-um (for ĭtēnd-ĭtum (tēn-dō, tēn).

Note 3.—The supine is sometimes from a lost or imaginary verb-stem: as, petī-tum (as ĭf from ĭpetī-ō, ĭpetī-re, ĭpetī).

Note 4.—A few verbs form the supine stem in ĭ after the analogy of verbs in ĭ and ĭ: as, fal-s-um (fallō), pul-s-um (pellō).

Forms of Conjugation

179. The forms of the several conjugations from which, by adding the verb-endings in § 166, all the moods and tenses can be made are as follows:—

a. The First Conjugation includes all verbs which add ā- to the root to form the present stem: 2 as, amā-re; with a few whose root ends in ā (äftor, fā-rī; fīō, flā-re; nō, nā-re; stō, stā-re).

1. The stem-vowel ā- is lost before ĕ: as, amō = ĭamā-(y)ĕ; and in the present subjunctive it is changed to ē: as, amē-s, amē-mus.

2. The perfect stem regularly adds ĕ, the supine stem t, to the present stem: as, amā-ĕ-i, amā-t-um. For exceptions, see § 209. ā.

b. The Second Conjugation includes all verbs which add ē- to the root to form the present stem: as, mone-ĕ-re; with a few whose root ends in ē; as, fle-ĕ, flē-re; ne-ĕ, ne-ĕ-re; re-ĕr, rē-ĕr (cf. § 176. ē).

1. In the present subjunctive ā is added to the verb-stem: as, mone-ā-s, mone-ā-mus (cf. § 168. ē).

2. A few verbs form the perfect stem by adding ĭ (u), and the supine stem by adding t, to the present stem: as, dēlē-ĕ-i, dēlē-t-um. But most form the perfect stem by adding ĭ (u) to the root, and the supine stem by adding t to a weaker form of the present stem, ending in ĭ: as, mon-ĭ-i, moni-t-um. For lists, see § 210.

1 For these modifications of the supine stem, see § 15. 5, 6, 10.
2 The present stem is thus the verb-stem. For exceptions, see § 209. ā.
c. The Third Conjugation includes all verbs (not irregular, see § 197) which add ē- to the root to form the present stem: as, tegē-re, capē-re; with a few whose root ends in e: as, se-rē-re for ēse-se-re (reduplicated from se, cf. sātum).

1. The stem-vowel ē is regularly lost before -ō, and becomes u1 before -nt and ĭ before the other endings of the indicative and imperative: as, tegō, tegīt, tegunnt; in the imperfect indicative it becomes ē: as, tegō-bam, tegē-bās, etc.; in the future, ē: as, tegē-s (except in the first person singular, tega-m, tega-r); in the present subjunctive, ā: as, tegā-s.

Verbs in -iō lose the i before a consonant and also before ī, ĭ, and ē (except in the future, the participle, the gerund, and the gerundive). Thus, — capi-at, capi-unt, capi-ebat, capi-ēs, capi-et, capi-ent; but, capi-it (not ēcapi-it), caperet.

2. All varieties of perfect and supine stems are found in this conjugation. See lists, § 211. The perfect is not formed from the present stem, but from the root.

d. The Fourth Conjugation includes all verbs which add i- to the root to form the present stem: as, audī-re.2 In these the perfect and supine stems regularly add r, t, to the verb-stem: as, audī-v-i, audī-tum.3 Endings like those of the third conjugation are added in the third person plural of the present (indicative and imperative), in the imperfect and future indicative, and in the present subjunctive: as, audī-unt, audī-ebat, audī-ētis, audī-at, the i being regularly short before a vowel.

e. The Present Imperative Active (second person singular) is the same as the present stem: as, amā, monē, tegē, audī. But verbs in -iō of the third conjugation omit i: as, capē (not ēcapē).

f. The tenses of completed action in the Active voice are all regularly formed by adding the tense-endings (given in § 166) to the perfect stem: as, amāv-i, amāv-eram, amāv-erō, amāv-erim, amāv-issem, amāv-isse.

g. The tenses of completed action in the Passive voice are formed by adding to the perfect participle the corresponding tenses of continued action of the verb esse: as, perfect amātus sum; pluperfect amātus eram, etc.

1 The gerundive varies between -endus and -undus.
2 A few are formed from noun-stems, as finī-re (from finī-s), and a few roots perhaps end in ē; but these are not distinguishable in form.
3 For exceptions, see § 212. b.
### Synopsis of the Verb

180. The following synopsis shows the forms of the verb arranged according to the three stems (§ 164). Amō, a regular verb of the first conjugation, is taken as a type.

**Principal Parts:** *Active*, amō, amāre, amāvi, amātum.  
*Passive*, amor, amāri, amātus sum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present stem, amā-</th>
<th>Perfect stem, amāv-</th>
<th>Supine stem, amāt-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ACTIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>PASSIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. amō</td>
<td>amo-r</td>
<td>amāt-us sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. amā-bam</td>
<td>amā-bar</td>
<td>amāt-us eram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. amā-bō</td>
<td>amā-bor</td>
<td>amāt-us erō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. ame-m</td>
<td>ame-r</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. amē-rem</td>
<td>amē-rem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. amā</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. amā-tō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. amā-re</td>
<td>amā-re</td>
<td>amāt-us sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GERUND amā-ns</td>
<td></td>
<td>amāt-us esse</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>amāt-us esse</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect stem, amāv-</strong></td>
<td><strong>Supine stem, amāt-</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. amāv-ī</td>
<td>amāt-us sum</td>
<td>amāt-us esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperf. amāv-eram</td>
<td>amāt-us eram</td>
<td>amāt-um īrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Perf. amāv-erō</td>
<td>amātus sim</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>amāt-us esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. amāv-erim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperf. amāv-issem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. amāv-isse</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Notes
- **Gerund:** amā-ndī
- **Supine:** amāt-um amāt-ū
Peculiarities of Conjugation

181. In tenses formed upon the Perfect Stem, v between two vowels is often lost and contraction takes place.

a. Perfects in -āvi, -ēvi, -ōvi, often contract the two vowels into ā, ē, ō respectively: as, amāsse for amāvisse; amārim for amāverim; amāssem for amāvissem; consuērat for consuēverat; flēstis for flēvistis; nōsse for nōvisse. So in perfects in -vi, where the v is a part of the present stem: as, commōverat for commōverat.

Note.—The first person of the perfect indicative (as, amāvi) is never contracted, the third very rarely.

b. Perfects in -īvī regularly omit v, but rarely contract the vowels except before st and ss, and very rarely in the third person perfect:—

audieram for audīveram; audisse for audīvisse; audiēri for audiēvisti; abiür for abiürivit; abiürunt for abiürērunt.

Note 1.—The forms siris, sirit, siritis, sirint, for sīveris etc. (from sīverō or sīverim), are archaic.

Note 2.—In many forms from the perfect stem is, īs, īs, are lost in like manner, when s would be repeated if they were retained: as, dīxī for dīxisti (x = cs); träxe for trāxisse; ēvāsī for ēvāsisti; vīxet for vīxisset; ērēpsēmus for ērēpsissēmus; dēcēssē for dēcessisse. These forms belong to archaic and colloquial usage.

182. Four verbs,—dīcō, dūcō, faciō, ferō,—with their compounds, drop the vowel-termination of the Imperative, making dīc, dūc, fāc. fēr; but compounds in -ficiō retain it, as, consicēce.

Note.—The imperative forms dīce, dūce, face (never fere), occur in early Latin.

a. For the imperative of sciō, the future form scitō is always used in the singular, and scitōte usually in the plural.

183. The following ancient forms are found chiefly in poetry:

1. In the fourth conjugation, -ibam. -ībō, for -ībām, -iam (future). These forms are regular in ēō, go (§ 203).

2. In the present subjunctive, -im: as in duim, perduim, retained in religious formulas and often in comedy. This form is regular in sum and volō and their compounds (§§ 170, 199).

3. In the perfect subjunctive and future perfect indicative, -sim, -sō: as, faxim, faxō, iussō, recēpsō (= fēcerim etc.); ausim (= ausus sim).

4. In the passive infinitive, -ier: as, vocārier for vocāri; agier for agī.

5. A form in -assō, -assere is found used as a future perfect: as, amāssis, from amō; levāssō, from levō; impetrāssere, from impetrō; iūdicāssit, from iūdicō (cf. § 263. 2. b. n.).
FIRST CONJUGATION (ā-STEMS) — ACTIVE VOICE

184. The First Conjugation includes all verbs which add ā- to the root to form the present stem, with a few whose root ends in a-. The verb amō, love, is conjugated as follows:

**Principal Parts:** Present Indicative amō, Present Infinitive amāre, Perfect Indicative amāvi, Supine amātum.

| Present Stem amā- | Perfect Stem amāv- | Supine Stem amāt-
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDICATIVE</td>
<td>SUBJUNCTIVE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amō, 1 I love, am loving, do love</td>
<td>amem 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amās, thou lovest (you love)</td>
<td>amēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amat, he (she, it) loves</td>
<td>amet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāmus, we love</td>
<td>amēmus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātis, you love</td>
<td>amētis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amant, they love</td>
<td>ament</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābam, I loved, was loving, did love</td>
<td>amārem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābās, you loved</td>
<td>amārēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābat, he loved</td>
<td>amāret</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābāmus, we loved</td>
<td>amārēmus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābātis, you loved</td>
<td>amārētis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābant, they loved</td>
<td>amārent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābō, I shall love</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābis, you will love</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābit, he will love</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābimus, we shall love</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābitis, you will love</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābunt, they will love</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The stem-vowel ā- is lost before ē, and in the Present Subjunctive becomes ē-.
2 The translation of the Subjunctive varies widely according to the construction. Hence no translation of this mood is given in the paradigms.
# First Conjugation

## Indicative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāvī, <em>I loved, have loved</em></td>
<td>amāverim</td>
<td>amāverim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvistī, <em>you loved</em></td>
<td>amāveris</td>
<td>amāverit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvit, <em>he loved</em></td>
<td>amāverit</td>
<td>amāverit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvimus, <em>we loved</em></td>
<td>amāverimus</td>
<td>amāveritis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvistis, <em>you loved</em></td>
<td>amāveritis</td>
<td>amāverint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvērunt (-ēre), <em>they loved</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Pluperfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Pluperfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāveram, <em>I had loved</em></td>
<td>amāvissem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverās, <em>you had loved</em></td>
<td>amāvissēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverat, <em>he had loved</em></td>
<td>amāvissēt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverāmus, <em>we had loved</em></td>
<td>amāvissēm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverātis, <em>you had loved</em></td>
<td>amāvissētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverant, <em>they had loved</em></td>
<td>amāvissēnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Future Perfect

### Singular

| amāverō, *I shall have loved* | amāverimus, *we shall have loved* |
| amāveris, *you will have loved* | amāveritis, *you will have loved* |
| amāverit, *he will have loved* | amāverint, *they will have loved* |

### Plural

## Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amā, <em>love thou</em></td>
<td>amātō, <em>thou shalt love</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāte, <em>love ye</em></td>
<td>amātōte, <em>ye shall love</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amantō, <em>they shall love</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāre, <em>to love</em></td>
<td>amātūrus esse, <em>to be about to love</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Particles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāns, -antis, <em>loving</em></td>
<td>amātūrus, -a, -um, <em>about to love</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Gerund

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amandī, <em>of loving</em></td>
<td>amandūm, <em>loving</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Datīve</td>
<td>Ablative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amandō, <em>for loving</em></td>
<td>amandō, <em>by loving</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Supine

| amātum, *to love* | amātū, *to love* |
FIRST CONJUGATION (ā-STEMS)—PASSIVE VOICE

Principal Parts: Present Indicative amor, Present Infinitive amāri, Perfect Indicative amātus sum.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present stem amā-</th>
<th>Supine stem amāt-</th>
<th>Impefect</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amor,2 I am loved, being loved</td>
<td>amer3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāris (-re), you are loved</td>
<td>amēris (-re)</td>
<td>amētur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātur, he is loved</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāmūr, we are loved</td>
<td>amēmūr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāminī, you are loved</td>
<td>amēminī</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amantur, they are loved</td>
<td>amentur</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **IMPERFECT**                          |                    |                     |               |
| amābar, I was loved, being loved       | amārer             |                     |               |
| amābāris (-re), you were loved         | amārēris (-re)     | amārētur           |               |
| amābāetur, he was loved                |                    |                     |               |
| amābāmūr, we were loved                | amārēmūr           |                     |               |
| amābāminī, you were loved              | amārēminī          |                     |               |
| amābantur, they were loved             | amārentur          |                     |               |

**FUTURE**

|                     |                    |                     |               |
| amābor, I shall be loved             |                    | amāberis (-re), you will be loved |               |
|                        |                    | amābitur, he will be loved       |               |
| amābimūr, we shall be loved         |                    | amābimīnī, you will be loved     |               |
| amābimīnī, you will be loved        |                    | amābuntur, they will be loved    |               |

1 Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used instead of sum, es, etc.; so also fueram instead of eram and fuerō instead of erō. Similarly in the Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive fuerim, fueris, etc. are sometimes used instead of sim, sis, etc., and faissem instead of essēm.
2 The stem-vowel ā- is lost before -or, and in the Present Subjunctive becomes ē-.
3 The translation of the Subjunctive varies widely according to the construction. Hence no translation of this mood is given in the paradigms.
§ 184] SECOND CONJUGATION

INDICATIVE

Perfect

amātus sum,1 I was loved
amātus es, you were loved
amātus est, he was loved
amātī sumus, we were loved
amātī estis, you were loved
amātī sunt, they were loved

SUBJUNCTIVE

amātus sim
amātus sis
amātus sit

amātī simus
amātī siti
amātī sint

Pluperfect

amātus eram,1 I had been loved
amātus erās, you had been loved
amātus erat, he had been loved
amātī erāmus, we had been loved
amātī erātis, you had been loved
amātī erant, they had been loved

Future Perfect

Singular

amātus erō,1 I shall have been loved
amātus eris, you will have, etc.
amātus erit, he will have, etc.

Plural

amātī erimus, we shall have, etc.
amātī eritis, you will have, etc.
amātī erunt, they will have, etc.

Imperative

Present amāre, be thou loved
Future amātōr, thou shalt be loved
amātōr, he shall be loved

amāminī, be ye loved

amantōr, they shall be loved

Infinitive

Present amārī, to be loved
Perfect amātus esse, to have been loved
Future amātum īrī, to be about to be loved

Participles

Perfect amātus, -a, -um, loved (beloved, or having been loved)
Future (Gerundive) amandus, -a, -um, to-be-loved (lovely)

1 See page 94, footnote 1.
SECOND CONJUGATION (ē-STEMS)

185. The Second Conjugation includes all verbs which add ē- to the root to form the present stem, with a few whose root ends in ē-.

**Principal Parts:** Active, moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum; Passive, moneor, monērī, monitus sum.

**Present Stem monē-**  **Perfect Stem monu-**  **Supine Stem monit-**

| Active Voice |  | Passive Voice |
|--------------|  |              |
| **Indicative** | **Subjunctive** | **Indicative** | **Subjunctive** |
| Present | | Present | |
| moneō, *I* warn | moneam | moneor | monear ¹ |
| monēs, *you* warn | moneās | monēris (re) | monēaris (re) |
| monēt, *he* warns | moneat | monētur | monēātur |
| monēmus | moneāmus | monēmur | moneāmur |
| monētis | moneātis | monēminī | moneāminī |
| monent | moneant | monentur | moneantur |
| **Imperfect** |  | **Imperfect** | |
| monebām | moneārem | monēbar | monērer |
| monēbās | moneāres | monēbāris (re) | monērēris (re) |
| monēbat | monēret | monēbātur | monērētur |
| monēbāmus | monērēmus | monēbāmur | monērēmur |
| monēbātis | monērētis | monēbāminī | monērēminī |
| monēbant | monērent | monēbantur | monērentur |
| **Future** |  | **Future** | |
| monēbō |  | monēbor | |
| monēbis |  | monēberis (re) | |
| monēbit |  | monēbitur | |
| monēbimus |  | monēbimur | |
| monēbitis |  | monēbimini | |
| monēbunt |  | monēbuntur | |

¹ See § 179. b. 1.
### Active Voice
**Indicative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monuī</td>
<td>monuerim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuistī</td>
<td>monueris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuit</td>
<td>monuerit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuimus</td>
<td>monuerimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuistis</td>
<td>monueritis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerunt (-re)</td>
<td>monuerint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monueram</th>
<th>monuissem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monuerās</td>
<td>monuissēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerat</td>
<td>monuisset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerāmus</td>
<td>monuissēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerātis</td>
<td>monuissētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerant</td>
<td>monuisent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect**

| monuerō    | monitus erō 1 |
| monueris   | monitus eris  |
| monuerit   | monitus erit  |
| monuierimus | monitus erimus |
| monueritis | monitus eritis |
| monuerint  | monitus erunt |

### Passive Voice
**Indicative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus sum 1</td>
<td>monitus sim 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus es</td>
<td>monitus sis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus est</td>
<td>monitus sit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moniti sumus</td>
<td>moniti simus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moniti estis</td>
<td>moniti sitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moniti sunt</td>
<td>moniti sint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect**

| monitus eram 1 | monitus essēm 1 |
| monitus erās | monitus essēs |
| monitus erat | monitus esset |
| moniti erāmus | moniti essēmus |
| moniti erātis | moniti essētis |
| moniti erant | moniti essent |

**Future Perfect**

| monitus erō 1 | monitus eris |
| monitus erit | monitus erit |
| monitus erimus | monitus eritis |
| monitus erunt | monitus erunt |

### Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>monē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>monētō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>monēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>monētor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēre</td>
<td>monēri</td>
<td>monitūrus esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monērisse</td>
<td>monitus esse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitum īri</td>
<td>monitūrus esse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Participles

**Present**

| monēns, -entis | monitus, -a, -um |
| monēnī | monendus, -a, -um |

**Future**

| monētūrus, -a, -um | monitūm, monitū |

### Gerund

| monendī, -dō, -dum, -dō | monitūm, monitū |

### Supine

1 See footnote 1 on page 94.
### Third Conjugation (ē-stems)

**186.** The Third Conjugation includes all verbs (not irregular, see § 197) which add ē- to the root to form the present stem, with a few whose root ends in ē.

**Principal Parts:** *Active,* tegō, tegēre, tēxī, tēctum;  
*Passive,* tegor, tegi, tectus sum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Stem</th>
<th>Perfect Stem téx-</th>
<th>Supine Stem tēct-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Active Voice</strong></td>
<td><strong>Passive Voice</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indicative</strong></td>
<td><strong>Indicative</strong></td>
<td><strong>Subjunctive</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegō, <em>I cover</em></td>
<td>tegam²</td>
<td>tegor²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegis, <em>you cover</em></td>
<td>tegās</td>
<td>tegeris (<em>-re</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegit, <em>he covers</em></td>
<td>tegat</td>
<td>tegitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegimus</td>
<td>tegāmus</td>
<td>tegimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegitis</td>
<td>tegātis</td>
<td>tegimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegunt</td>
<td>tegant</td>
<td>teguntur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperfect</strong></td>
<td><strong>Imperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegēbam</td>
<td>tegerem</td>
<td>tegēbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegēbās</td>
<td>tegerēs</td>
<td>tegēbāris (<em>-re</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegēbat</td>
<td>tegerētis</td>
<td>tegēbātur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegēbāmus</td>
<td>tegerēmus</td>
<td>tegēbāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegēbatis</td>
<td>tegerētis</td>
<td>tegēbāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegēbant</td>
<td>tegerent</td>
<td>tegēbantur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegam²</td>
<td>tegar²</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegēs</td>
<td>tegēris (<em>-re</em>)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teget</td>
<td>tegētur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegēmus</td>
<td>tegēmur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegētis</td>
<td>tegēmini</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegent</td>
<td>tegentur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ The perfect stem in this conjugation is always formed from the root; tēx- is for teg- (see § 15. 9).
² See § 179. c. 1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Active Voice</strong></th>
<th><strong>Passive Voice</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxī</td>
<td>tectus sum 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxistī</td>
<td>tectus sim 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxit</td>
<td>tectus es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téximus</td>
<td>tectus sis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxistis</td>
<td>tectus est</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxerunt (re)</td>
<td>tectus sit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxerimus</td>
<td>tectus sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxerētis</td>
<td>tectē sīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxerent</td>
<td>tectē estis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pluperfect</strong></td>
<td><strong>Pluperfect</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téixeram</td>
<td>tectus eram 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téixerās</td>
<td>tectus erās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxerat</td>
<td>tectus erat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxerāmus</td>
<td>tectē erāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxerētis</td>
<td>tectē erētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxerant</td>
<td>tectē erant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxissem</td>
<td>tectus essēmus</td>
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<tr>
<td>téxisēs</td>
<td>tectus essēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxisset</td>
<td>tectus esset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxissēmus</td>
<td>tectē essēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxissētis</td>
<td>tectē essētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future Perfect</strong></td>
<td><strong>Future Perfect</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxerō</td>
<td>tectus erō 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxerētis</td>
<td>tectē erētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téxerent</td>
<td>tectē erant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMPERATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>IMPERATIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>tegere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegite</td>
<td>tegimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>tegitō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegitōte</td>
<td>tegitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegitō</td>
<td>tegitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teguntō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INFINITIVE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>tegere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegere</td>
<td>tegi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>téxisse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téctus esse</td>
<td>tectum īri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participles</strong></td>
<td><strong>Gerundive</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>tegēns, -entis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegēns, -entis</td>
<td>tegendus (-undus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>téctūrus, -a, -um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>téctūrus, -a, -um</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GERUND</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegendī, -dō, -dum, -dō</td>
<td>téctum, tectū</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 See footnote 1 on page 94.
FOURTH CONJUGATION (ī-STEMS)

187. The Fourth Conjugation includes all verbs which add ĕ- to the root to form the present stem.

Principal Parts: Active, audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītum; Passive, audīor, audīrī, audītus sum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE</th>
<th>Present Stem audi-</th>
<th>Perfect Stem audīv-</th>
<th>Supine Stem audīt-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACTIVE VOICE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicative</td>
<td>Subjunctive</td>
<td>Indicative</td>
<td>Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiō, I hear</td>
<td>audiam¹</td>
<td>audior</td>
<td>audiar¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīas, you hear</td>
<td>audīas</td>
<td>audīris (-re)</td>
<td>audīāris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit, he hears</td>
<td>audiat</td>
<td>audītūr</td>
<td>audīātur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīmus</td>
<td>audīāmus</td>
<td>audīmur</td>
<td>audīāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītis</td>
<td>audīātis</td>
<td>audīminī</td>
<td>audīāminī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audient</td>
<td>audiant</td>
<td>audiantur</td>
<td>audiantur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiēbam¹</td>
<td>audīrem</td>
<td>audiēbar¹</td>
<td>audīrer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiēbās</td>
<td>audīrēs</td>
<td>audiēbāris (-re)</td>
<td>audīrēris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiēbat</td>
<td>audīret</td>
<td>audiēbātur</td>
<td>audiērētur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiēbāmus</td>
<td>audīrēmus</td>
<td>audiēbāmur</td>
<td>audiērēmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiēbātis</td>
<td>audīrētis</td>
<td>audiēbāminī</td>
<td>audiērēminī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiēbant</td>
<td>audīrent</td>
<td>audiēbantur</td>
<td>audiērentur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiam¹</td>
<td></td>
<td>audiār¹</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiēs</td>
<td></td>
<td>audiēris (-re)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiet</td>
<td></td>
<td>audiētūr</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiēmus</td>
<td></td>
<td>audiēmur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiētis</td>
<td></td>
<td>audiēminī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audient</td>
<td></td>
<td>audientur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ See § 179. d.
§ 187]

FOURTH CONJUGATION

Active Voice
INDICATIVE
Perfect
audiē
divēris
daudīvit
audiēimus
audiētis
audīerunt (-re)

SUBJUNCTIVE
audierim
audieris
audierit
audierimus
audieritis
audierint

Pluperfect
audiveram
audiverās
audiverat
audiērāmus
audiērātis
audioverant

Future Perfect
audiērō
audiēris
audiērit
audiēimus
audiēritis
audiērint

Passive Voice
INDICATIVE
Perfect
auditus sum
auditus es
auditus est
auditūsumus
auditūestis
auditūsunt

SUBJUNCTIVE
auditus sim
auditus sis
auditus sit
auditūsimus
auditūsitīs
auditūsint

Pluperfect
auditus eram
auditus erās
auditus erat
auditūerāmus
auditūerātis
auditūerant

Future Perfect
auditus erō
auditus eris
auditus erit
auditīerimus
auditīerītis
auditīerunt

Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>audī</th>
<th>audīte</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>audītō</td>
<td>audītōte</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Singular | Plural |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audire</td>
<td>audīminī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītor</td>
<td>audītor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Infinitive
Present audiē
Perfect audivisse
Future audītūrus esse

auditūm īri

Participles
Present audiēns, -ientis
Future audītūrus, -a, -um

Perfect auditus, -a, -um
Gerundive audiendus, -a, -um

Gerund
audiendi, -dō, -dum, -dō

Supine
auditūm, auditū

1 See footnote 1, p. 94.
### VERBS IN -īō OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION

188. Verbs of the Third Conjugation in -īō have certain forms of the present stem like the fourth conjugation. They lose the i of the stem before a consonant and also before i, i, and ē (except in the future, the participle, the gerund, and the gerundive).¹

Verbs of this class are conjugated as follows:—

**Principal Parts:** *Active*, capiō, capēre, cēpī, captum;  
*Passive*, capior, capī, captus sum.

**Present Stem** capie-(cape-)  
**Perfect Stem** cēp-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>ACTIVE VOICE</strong></th>
<th><strong>PASSIVE VOICE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiō, <em>I take</em></td>
<td>capiō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capis, <em>you take</em></td>
<td>capiās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capit, <em>he takes</em></td>
<td>capiāt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capimus</td>
<td>capiāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capitis</td>
<td>capiātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiunt</td>
<td>capiant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiēbam</td>
<td>caperem</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>IMPERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiēbam</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>FUTURE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiēt, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cēpī</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PLUPERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cēperam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cēpissem</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>FUTURE PERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cēperēō</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>SUPINE STEM</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| capt-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>IMPERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiēbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caperēr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>FUTURE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiēris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiētur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiāminī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiantur</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>captus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>captus sim</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PLUPERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>captus eram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>captus essēm</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>FUTURE PERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>captus erō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ This is a practical working rule. The actual explanation of the forms of such verbs is not fully understood.
Active Voice

Present
Singular  Plural
cape  capite

Future
capitō  capitōte
  capitō  capiunto

Imperative
Present
Singular  Plural
capere  capimini

Future

Infinitive
Present  capere
Perfect  cēpisse
Future  captūrus esse

Participles
Present  capiens, -ientis
Future  captūrus, -a, -um

Gerund
  capiendi, -dō, -dum, -dō

Supine
  captum, -tū

Parallel Forms

189. Many verbs have more than one set of forms, of which only one is generally found in classic use:—

lavō, lavāre or lavēre, wash (see § 211. c).
scateō, scatēre or scatēre, gush forth.
lūdīficō, -āre, or lūdīficor, -āri, mock.
fulgō, fulgēre, or fulgeō, fulgēre, shine.

Deponent Verbs

190. Deponent Verbs have the forms of the Passive Voice, with an active or reflexive signification:—

| Principal | First conjugation: miror, mirāri, mirātus, admire. |
| Parts    | Second conjugation: vereor, verēri, veritus, fear. |
|          | Third conjugation: sequor, sequi, secūtus, follow. |
|          | Fourth conjugation: partior, partiri, partitus, share. |
CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

INDICATIVE

Pres. miror
mirāris (-re)
mirātur
mirāmur
mirāmini
mirāntur

Impr. mirābar
Fut. mirābor
Perf. mirātus sum
Plur. mirātus eram
Pres. mirātus erō

sequor
sequeris (-re)
sequitur
sequimur
sequimini
sequuntur

partior
partīris (-re)
partītur
partīmur
partīmini
partīuntur

sequebar
sequar
secūtus sum
secūtus eram
secūtus erō

partiēbar
partiar
partitus sum
partitus eram
partitus erō

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres. mirer
Impf. mirārer
Perf. mirātus sim
Plur. mirātus essem

sequar
sequerer
secūtus sim
secūtus essem

partiar
partīrer
partitus sim
partitus essem

secre
sequitor

PARTIÉRE

IMPETIVE

Pres. mirāre
Fut. mirātor

verēre
verētor

partīre
partītor

INFINITIVE

Pres. mirāri
Perf. mirātus esse
Fut. mirātūrus esse

verēri
veritus esse
veritūrus esse

sequī
secūtus esse
secūtūrus esse

partīri
partitus esse
partītūrus esse

PARTICIPLES

Pres. mirāns
Fut. mirātūrus
Perf. mirātus
Gen. mirandus

verēns
veritūrus
veritus
verendus

sequēns
secūtūrus
secūtus
sequendus

partiēns
partītūrus
partitus
partiendus

GERUND

mirandī, -ō, etc.
verendī, etc.
sequendī, etc.

partiēndī, etc.

SUPINE

mirātum, -tū
veritum, -tū
secūtum, -tū

partītum, -tū
Deponent Verbs

§§ 190, 191

a. Deponents have the participles of both voices:—

 sequēns, following
 secūtus, having followed.

 secūtūrus, about to follow.
 sequendus, to be followed.

b. The perfect participle generally has an active sense, but in verbs otherwise deponent it is often passive: as, mercātus, bought; adeptus, gained (or having gained).

c. The future infinitive is always in the active form: thus, sequor has secūtūrus (-a, -um) esse (not secūtum irī).

d. The gerundive, being passive in meaning, is found only in transitive verbs, or intransitive verbs used impersonally:—

 hōc cōnfidendum est, this must be acknowledged.
 moriendum est omnibus, all must die.

e. Most deponents are intransitive or reflexive in meaning, corresponding to what in Greek is called the Middle Voice (§ 156. a. n.).

f. Some deponents are occasionally used in a passive sense: as, crīminor. I accuse, or I am accused.

g. About twenty verbs have an active meaning in both active and passive forms: as, mereō or mereor, I deserve.

191. More than half of all deponents are of the First Conjugation, and all of these are regular. The following deponents are irregular:—

 adsentior, -irī, adsēnsus, assent.
 apīscor, (-ip-), -i, aptus (-eptus), get.
 dēfēscor, -i, -fessus, faint.
 expērigscor, -i, -perfectus, rise.
 experior, -irī, expertus, try.
 fātor, -ērī, fassus, confess.
 fruor, -i, frūctus (fruitus), enjoy.
 frungor, -i, fūntus, fulfill.
 gradior (-grediōr), -i, gressus, step.
 irāscor, -i, irātus, be angry.
 lāboi, -i, lāpsus, fall.
 loquor, -i, locūtus, speak.
 mētior, -irī, mēnsus, measure.

 -miniscor, -i, -mentus, think.
 morior, -irī, mortuus (mortūrus), die.
 nanciscor, -i, nactus (nāntactus), find.
 nāscor, -i, nātus, be born.
 nitor, -i, nīsus (nīxus), strive.

 obliviscor, -i, oblītus, forget.
 opperior, -irī, oppertus, await.
 ordinor, -irī, orsus, begin.
 orior, -irī, ortus (orītūrus), rise (3d conjugation in most forms).
 paciscor, -i, pactus, bargain.
 patior (-petior), -i, passus (-pessus), suffer.

 -plerct, -i, -plexus, clasp.
 profiscor, -i, prefectus, set out.
 quior, -i, questus, complain.
 reor, rēri, ratus, think.
 revertor, -i, reversus, return.
 ringor, -i, rictus, snarl.
 sequor, -i, secūtus, follow.
 tueor, -ērī, tuitus (tūtus), defend.
 ulciscor, -i, ultus, avenge.
 utor, -i, ūsus, use, employ.

Note.—The deponent comperior, -irī, compertus, is rarely found for comperīō, -ire. Revertor, until the time of Augustus, had regularly the active forms in the perfect system, reverti, reverteram, etc.
a. The following deponents have no supine stem: —

déverto, -ti, turn aside (to lodge).
ôffiteor, -érei, deny.
fatiscor, -i, gape.
líquor, -i, melt (intrans.).

medeor, -érei, heal.
reminiscor, -i, call to mind.
vescor, -i, feed upon.

Note.—Deponents are really passive (or middle) verbs whose active voice has disappeared. There is hardly one that does not show signs of having been used in the active at some period of the language.

Semi-Deponents

192. A few verbs having no perfect stem are regular in the present, but appear in the tenses of completed action as deponents. These are called Semi-deponents. They are: —

auđo, auđere, ausus, dare.
gauđo, gauđere, gavisus, rejoice.
fidō, fidēre, fīsus, trust.
soleō, solēre, solitus, be wont.

a. From auđo there is an old perfect subjunctive ausim. The form sōdēs (for sī auđēs), an thou wilt, is frequent in the dramatists and rare elsewhere.

b. The active forms vāpulō, vāpulāre, be flagged, and vēnēō, vēnire, be sold (contracted from vēnūm īre, go to sale), have a passive meaning, and are sometimes called neutral passives. To these may be added fieri, to be made (§ 204), and exsulāre, to be banished (live in exile); cf. accēdere, to be added.

Note.—The following verbs are sometimes found as semi-deponents: iūrō, iūrāre, iūrātus, swear; nūbō, nūbere, nūpta, marry; placēō, placēre, placitus, please.

THE PERIAPHRACTIC CONJUGATIONS

193. A Periaphrastic form, as the name indicates, is a “roundabout way of speaking.” In the widest sense, all verb-phrases consisting of participles and sum are Periaphrastic Forms. The Present Participle is, however, rarely so used, and the Perfect Participle with sum is included in the regular conjugation (amātus sum, eram, etc.). Hence the term Periaphrastic Conjugation is usually restricted to verb-phrases consisting of the Future Active Participle or the Gerundive with sum.

Note.—The Future Passive Infinitive, as amātum īri, formed from the infinitive passive of ēō, go, used impersonally with the supine in -um, may also be classed as a periaphrastic form (§ 203. a).

194. There are two Periaphrastic Conjugations, known respectively as the First (or Active) and the Second (or Passive).

a. The First Periaphrastic Conjugation combines the Future Active Participle with the forms of sum, and denotes a future or intended action.

b. The Second Periaphrastic Conjugation combines the Gerundive with the forms of sum, and denotes obligation, necessity, or propriety.

c. The periaphrastic forms are inflected regularly throughout the Indicative and Subjunctive and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.
195. The First Periphrastic Conjugation: —

**INDICATIVE**

Present  amātūrus sum, *I am about to love*
Imperfect amātūrus eram, *I was about to love*
Future  amātūrus erō, *I shall be about to love*
Perfect  amātūrus fuī, *I have been, was, about to love*
Pluperfect amātūrus fueram, *I had been about to love*
Future Perfect amātūrus fuerō, *I shall have been about to love*

**SUBJUNCTIVE**

Present  amātūrus sim
Imperfect amātūrus essem
Perfect  amātūrus fuerim
Pluperfect amātūrus fuisset

**INFINITIVE**

Present  amātūrus esse, *to be about to love*
Perfect  amātūrus fuisset, *to have been about to love*

So in the other conjugations: —

Second:  movētūrus sum, *I am about to advise.*
Third:  tēctūrus sum, *I am about to cover.*
Fourth:  auditūrus sum, *I am about to hear.*
Third (in -iō): captūrus sum, *I am about to take.*

196. The Second Periphrastic Conjugation: —

**INDICATIVE**

Present  amandūrus sum, *I am to be, must be, loved*
Imperfect amandūrus eram, *I was to be, had to be, loved*
Future  amandūrus erō, *I shall have to be loved*
Perfect  amandūrus fuī, *I was to be, had to be, loved*
Pluperfect amandūrus fueram, *I had had to be loved*
Future Perfect amandūrus fuerō, *I shall have had to be loved*

**SUBJUNCTIVE**

Present  amandūrus sim
Imperfect amandūrus essem
Perfect  amandūrus fuerim
Pluperfect amandūrus fuisset

**INFINITIVE**

Present  amandūrus esse, *to have to be loved*
Perfect  amandūrus fuisset, *to have had to be loved*
So in the other conjugations:—

Second: menendus sum, I am to be, must be, advised.
Third: tendens sum, I am to be, must be, covered.
Fourth: addiendus sum, I am to be, must be, heard.
Third (in -iō): capiens sum, I am to be, must be, taken.

IRREGULAR VERBS

197. Several verbs add some of the personal endings of the present system directly to the root, or combine two verbs in their inflection. These are called Irregular Verbs. They are sum, volō, ferō, edō, dō, eō, quēō, fīō, and their compounds.

Sum has already been inflected in § 170.

198. Sum is compounded without any change of inflection with the prepositions ab, ad, dé, in, inter, ob, praed, prō (earlier form prōd), sub, super.

a. In the compound prōsum (help), prō retains its original ī before e:

Principal Parts: prōsum, prōd esse, prōfui, prōfutūrus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōsum</td>
<td>prōsumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōdes</td>
<td>prōdestis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōdest</td>
<td>prōsunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōderam</td>
<td>prōderānum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōderō</td>
<td>prōderinnis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōfui</td>
<td>prōfurnīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pluperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōferam</td>
<td>prōferānum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut. Perf.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōferō</td>
<td>prōferīnnum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Imperative

Present prōdes, prōdeste  Future prōdestō, prōdestôte

Infinitive

Present prōd esse  Perfect prōfussisse  Future prōfutūrus esse

Participle

Future prōfutūrus

1 These are athematic verbs, see § 174. 2.
b. Sum is also compounded with the adjective potis, or pote, able, making the verb possum (be able, can). Possum is inflected as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal Parts:</th>
<th>possum, posse, potui</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th></th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>Singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>possum</td>
<td>possumus</td>
<td>possim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>potes</td>
<td>potestis</td>
<td>possis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>potest</td>
<td>possunt</td>
<td>possit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>poteram</td>
<td>poterāmus</td>
<td>possēm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>poterō</td>
<td>poterīmus</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>potul</td>
<td>potūmus</td>
<td>potuerim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>potueram</td>
<td>potuerāmus</td>
<td>potuissem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Perf.</td>
<td>potuerō</td>
<td>potuerīmus</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Pres. posse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf. potuisse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participle</th>
<th>Pres. potēns (adjective), powerful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

199. volō, nōlō, mālō

| Principal Parts: | volō, velle, volui, ——, be willing, will, wish |
|                 | nōlō, nōlle, nōlui, ——, be unwilling, will not |
|                 | mālō, mālle, mālui, ——, be more willing, prefer |

Note. —Nōlō and mālō are compounds of volō. Nōlō is for ne-volō, and mālō for mā-volō from mage-volō.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Indicative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>volō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vis³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vult (volt)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>volumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vultis (voltis)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>volunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>volēbam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>volam, volēs, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>volui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>volueram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Perf.</td>
<td>voluerō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹The forms potis sum, pote sum, etc. occur in early writers. Other early forms are potesse; possiēm, -ēs, -et; poterint, potisit (for possit); potestur and possitur (used with a passive infinitive, cf. § 205, a).

²Potui is from an obsolete ♠potēre.

³Vis is from a different root.
SUBJUNCTIVE

Present velim, -īs, -īt, nōlim mālim
   velīmus, -ītis, -īnt

Imperfect vellem,1 -ēs, -ēt, nōllem māllem
   vellemus, -ētis, -ēnt

Perfect voluerim nōluerim māluerim
   voluissem nōluissem māluissem

IMPERATIVE

Present —— nōlī, nōlite ——

Future —— nōlitō, etc. ——

INFINITIVE

Present velle1 nōlle mālle
   Perfect voluisse nōluisse māluisse

PARTICIPLES

Present volēnūs, -entis nōlēnūs, -entis ——

NOTE. — The forms sīs for sī vis, sūltis for sūl vultis, and the forms nēvis (nē-vis), nēvōlt, māvolō, māvolant, māvelim, māvellem, etc., occur in early writers.

200. Ferō, bear, carry, endure2

PRINCIPAL PARTS: ferō, ferre,3 tulī, lātum

PRESENT STEM fer-

PERFECT STEM tul-

SUPINE STEM lāt-

ACTIVE

INDICATIVE

Present ferō ferimus feror
   fers fertis ferris (-re) ferimīni
   fert fērunt fērtur fēruntur

Imperfect ferebam

Future feram

Perfect tulī

Pluperfect tuleram

Future Perfect tulerō

PASSIVE

ferēbar

ferar

lātus sum

lātus erān

lātus erō

1 Vellem is for fvel-sēm, and velle for fvel-se (cf. es-se), the s being assimilated to the i preceding.
2 Ferō has two independent stems: fer- in the present system, and tul- (for tol-) in the perfect from tol, root of tollō. The perfect tētulī occurs in Plautus. In the participle the root is weakened to tī-, lātum standing for tītātum (cf. τῆτως).
3 Ferre, ferrem, are for ffer-se, ffer-sēm (cf. es-se, es-sem), s being assimilated to preceding r; or ferēre, ferrem, may be for fferese, fferesēm (see § 15. 4).
### Active

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>feram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>ferrem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>tulerm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>tulissem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>ferar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>ferrer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>latus sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>latus essem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>fer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>fertō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>ferri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>ferre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>tulisse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>laturus esse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Participles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gerundive</td>
<td>latus</td>
<td>latum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### a.
The compounds of *ferō*, conjugated like the simple verb, are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ad-</td>
<td>adferō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>au-, ab-</td>
<td>auferō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>con-</td>
<td>conferō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis-, di-</td>
<td>differō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex-, ē-</td>
<td>efferō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-</td>
<td>inferō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ob-</td>
<td>offerō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-</td>
<td>referō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub-</td>
<td>sufferō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. — In these compounds the phonetic changes in the preposition are especially to be noted. *ab-* and *au-* are two distinct prepositions with the same meaning.

---

1 See note 3, page 110.
2 Sustulī and sublātum also supply the perfect and participle of the verb tollō.
201. Edō, edere, ēdi, ēsum, eat, is regular of the third conjugation, but has also an archaic present subjunctive and some alternative forms directly from the root (ED), without the thematic vowel. These are in full-faced type.

**INDICATIVE**

**Present**
edō, edis (ēs), edit (ēst)
edimus, editis (ēstis), edunt

**Imperfect**
edēbam, edēbās, etc.

**SUBJUNCTIVE**

**Present**
edam (ēdim), edās (ēdis), edat (ēdit)
edāmus (ēdimus), edātīs (ēditīs), edant (ēdint)

**Imperfect**
ederem, derēs (ēssēs), dereret (ēssēt)
ederēmus (ēssēmus), derētīs (ēssētīs), dererent (ēssent)

**IMPERATIVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>ede (ēs)</td>
<td>edite (ēste)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>editō (ēstō)</td>
<td>editōte (ēstōte)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>editō (ēstō)</td>
<td>eduntō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITITIVE**

**Present**
edere (ēsse)

**Perfect**
ēdisse

**Future**
ēsūrus esse

**PARTICIPLES**

**Present**
edēns, -entis

**Future**
ēsūrus

**GERUND**
edendi, -dō, -dum, -dō

**SUPINE**
ēsum, ēsū

*a.* In the Passive the following irregular forms occur in the third person singular: Present Indicative ēstur, Imperfect Subjunctive ēssētur.

1 In ēs etc. the e is long. In the corresponding forms of sum, e is short. The difference in quantity between ēdō and ēs etc. depends upon inherited vowel variation (§ 17. a).
2 Old forms are ēssūrus and supine ēssum.
202. The irregular verb *dō, give*, is conjugated as follows:

**Principal Parts**: dō, dāre, dedī, datum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Stem dā-</th>
<th>Perfect Stem ded-</th>
<th>Supine Stem dat-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Active</strong></td>
<td><strong>Indicative</strong></td>
<td><strong>Passive</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>dō</td>
<td>damus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dās</td>
<td>datis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dat</td>
<td>dant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>dabant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>dābō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>dedī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>dederam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
<td>dederō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subjunctive</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>dem, dēs, det, etc.</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>darem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>dederēm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>desissem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperative</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>dā</td>
<td>date</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>dātō</td>
<td>datōte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dātō</td>
<td>dantō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Infinitive</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>dare</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>dedisse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>datūrus esse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participles</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>dāns, dantis</td>
<td>Perfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>datūrus</td>
<td>Gerundive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gerund**

dandī, -dō, -dum, -dō

**Supine**

datum, datū

For compounds of dō, see § 209. a. n.
203. **Eō, go.**

**Principal Parts:** eō, īre, ī (ivī), ītum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Indicative</strong></th>
<th><strong>Subjunctive</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eō, īs, īt</td>
<td>eam, ēas, cat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēimus, ītis, ēunt</td>
<td>eāmus, ēātis, ēant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēbam, ībās, ībat</td>
<td>īrem, īrēs, īret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēbāmus, ībātis, ībant</td>
<td>īrēmus, īrētis, īrent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēbō, ībis, ībit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēbīmus, ībītis, ībunt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ī (ivī)</td>
<td>ierim (iverim)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pluperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>īcrām (īverām)</td>
<td>īsse (īvisse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future Perfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>īerō (īverō)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative**

Present ī

Future ītō, ītōte

itte

**Infinitive**

Present īre

Perfect īsse (īvisse)

Future ītūrus esse

**Participles**

Present īchus, gen. īuntis

Future ītūrus

Gerund īvandī, -dō, -dum, -dō

Supine ītum, ītū

**a.** The compounds adeō, approach, ineō, enter, and some others, are transitive. They are inflected as follows in the passive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Indicative</strong></th>
<th><strong>Subjunctive</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. adecir</td>
<td>Pres. adicar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aediris</td>
<td>Impf. adibur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aeditur</td>
<td>Futr. aeditus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aeditur</td>
<td>Perf. aeditus sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aeditur</td>
<td>Plup. aeditus eram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aeditur</td>
<td>F. P. aeditus crō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adeuntur</td>
<td>Plup. aeditus esse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus inflected, the forms of eō are used impersonally in the third person singular of the passive: as, ītum est (§ 208, d). The infinitive īrī is used with the supine in -um to make the future infinitive passive (§ 193, n.). The verb vēnéō, be sold (i.e. vēnum eō, go to sale), has also several forms in the passive.

**b.** In the perfect system of eō the forms with v are very rare in the simple verb and unusual in the compounds.

**c.** ī before s is regularly contracted to i: as, īsse.

1 The root of eō is ē (weak form i). This i becomes ī except before a, o, and u, where it becomes e (cf. ēō, eam, īunt). The strong form of the root, ī, is shortened before a vowel or final -t; the weak form, ī, appears in ītum and ītūrus.
The compound ambīō is inflected regularly like a verb of the fourth conjugation. But it has also ambībat in the imperfect indicative.

c. Prō with eō retains its original d: as, prōdēō, prōdīs, prōdit.

204. Faciō, facere, fēcī, factum, make, is regular. But it has imperative fac in the active, and, besides the regular forms, the future perfect faxō, perfect subjunctive faxim. The passive of faciō is —

fīō, fērī, factus sum, be made or become.
The present system of fīō is regular of the fourth conjugation, but the subjunctive imperfect is fierem, and the infinitive fieri.

Note. — The forms in brackets are not used in good prose.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>fīō, fīs, fīt</td>
<td>fieram, fieras, fierat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>fēbām, fierās, etc.</td>
<td>fierimus, fierátis, fierant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>fīam, fīes, etc.</td>
<td>fierem, fierēs, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>factus sum</td>
<td>factus sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>factus eram</td>
<td>factus essem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
<td>factus erō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Imperative

[fī, fīte, fītō, ——] ¹

Infinitive

Present fierī

Perfect factus esse

Future factum īnim

Participles

Perfect factus Gerundive faciendus

a. Most compounds of faciō with prepositions weaken ā to ē in the present stem and to ō in the supine stem, and are inflected regularly like verbs in -ō: —
cōnfiō, cōnfīcēre, cōnfēcī, cōnfectum, finīsh.
cōnficior, cōnficī, cōnfec tus.

b. Other compounds retain a, and have -fīō in the passive: as, benefaciō, -facere, -fēcī, -factum; passive benefīō, -fierī, -factus, benefit. These retain the accent of the simple verb: as, bene-fā'cīs (§ 12. a, Exc.).
c. A few isolated forms of fīō occur in other compounds: —
cōnfit, it happens, cōnfiunt; cōnfiat; cōnferent, cōnferent; cōnferi.
dēfit, it lacks, dēfiunt; dēfiat; dēfiat; dēferi.
effierī, to be effected.
infīō, begin (to speak), infat.
interfīat, let him perish; interfīerī, to perish.
superfīt, it remains over; superfīat, superfīerī.

¹ The imperative is rarely found, and then only in early writers.
DEFECTIVE VERBS

205. Some verbs have lost the Present System, and use only tenses of the Perfect, in which they are inflected regularly. These are —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>coepī</td>
<td><em>coepi</em></td>
<td><em>ōdī</em></td>
<td>mementō</td>
<td><em>coepisse</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ὁδί</td>
<td><em>ōdī</em></td>
<td><em>ōderam</em></td>
<td>mementissem</td>
<td><em>ōdissem</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>memini</td>
<td><em>memini</em></td>
<td><em>memineram</em></td>
<td>mementōte</td>
<td><em>ōsūrus esse</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPLES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>coepī</td>
<td><em>coepus, begun</em></td>
<td><em>coepī</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ὁδί</td>
<td><em>ōsus, hating or hated</em></td>
<td><em>ōderō</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>memini</td>
<td><em>meminēns</em></td>
<td><em>meminēns</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a.* The passive of *coepī* is often used with the passive infinitive: as, *coepus sum vocāri,* *I began to be called,* but *coepī vocāre,* *I began to call.* For the present system *incipīo* is used.

**Note.** Early and rare forms are *coepīō,* *coepiam,* *coeperet,* *coepere.*

*b.* The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect of *ōdī* and *memini* have the meanings of a Present, Imperfect, and Future respectively: —

*ōdī,* *I hate*; *ōderam,* *I hated* (was hating); *ōderō,* *I shall hate.*

**Note 1.** A present participle *meminēns* is early and late.

**Note 2.** *Novi* and *consuēvi* (usually referred to *nōscō* and *consuēscō*) are often used in the sense of *I know* (have learned) and *I am accustomed* (have become accustomed) as preteritive verbs. Many other verbs are occasionally used in the same way (see 476, n.).

---

1 Root *ap* (as in *apiscor*) with co(n-).
2 Root *od,* as in *ōdium.*
3 Root *men,* as in *mēns.*
206. Many verbs are found only in the Present System. Such are maerēō, -ere, be sorrowful (cf. maestus, sad); ferīō, -ire, strike.

In many the simple verb is incomplete, but the missing parts occur in its compounds: as, vādō, vādere, in-vāsi, in-vāsum.

Some verbs occur very commonly, but only in a few forms:—

a. Aiō, I say:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indic.</td>
<td>Pres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impf.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subj.</td>
<td>Pres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imper.</td>
<td>aī (rare)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part.</td>
<td>aiōns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The vowels a and i are pronounced separately (a-is, a-it) except sometimes in old or colloquial Latin. Before a vowel, one i stands for two (see § 6. c):—thus aiō was pronounced āi-yō and was sometimes written aiō.

b. Inquam, I say, except in poetry, is used only in direct quotations (cf. the English quoth).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indic.</td>
<td>Pres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impf.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>——, inquiēs, inquiet; ——, ——, ——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>inquiē, inquiēst, ——; ——, ——, ——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imper.</td>
<td>Pres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>inquitō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The only common forms are inquam, inquis, inquit, inquiunt, and the future inquiēs, inquiet.

c. The deponent fārī, to speak, has the following forms:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indic.</td>
<td>Pres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fut.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perf.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>fātus eram, ——, fātus erat; ——, ——, ——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imper.</td>
<td>Pres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infin.</td>
<td>Pres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part.</td>
<td>Pres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perf.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ger.</td>
<td>fandus (to be spoken of)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerund, gen.</td>
<td>fandi, abl. fandō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Several forms compounded with the prepositions ex, prae, prō, inter, occur: as, praefātur, praefāmur, affārī, prōfātus, interfātur, etc. The compound infāns is regularly used as a noun (child). Infandus, nefandus, are used as adjectives, unspeakable, abominable.

1 The second singular ais with the interrogative -ne is often written ain.
2 An old imperfect aībam, aībās, etc. (dissyllabic) is sometimes found.
**d.** Queō, *I can*, nequeō, *I cannot*, are conjugated like eō. They are rarely used except in the present. Queō is regularly accompanied by a negative. The forms given below occur, those in full-faced type in classic prose. The Imperative, Gerund, and Supine are wanting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>queō</td>
<td>queam</td>
<td>nequeō</td>
<td>nequeam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīs</td>
<td>queās</td>
<td>nequis</td>
<td>nequeās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīt</td>
<td>queat</td>
<td>nequit</td>
<td>nequeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīmus</td>
<td>queāmus</td>
<td>nequīmus</td>
<td>nequeāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quītis</td>
<td></td>
<td>nequito</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīunt</td>
<td>quīant</td>
<td>nequīunt</td>
<td>nequeant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Imperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quībam</td>
<td></td>
<td>nequīrem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quībat</td>
<td>quīret</td>
<td>nequībat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>quīrent</td>
<td>nequībant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quībō</td>
<td></td>
<td>nequībit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quībunt</td>
<td></td>
<td>nequībunt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīvi</td>
<td></td>
<td>nequīvi</td>
<td>nequīverim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nequīsti</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīvit</td>
<td>quīverit</td>
<td>nequīvit</td>
<td>nequīverit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīvērunt (-ēre)</td>
<td>quīerent</td>
<td>nequīvērunt (-ēquire)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pluperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Pluperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nequīverat (-ierat)</td>
<td>nequivisset (-quisset)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>quīvissernt</td>
<td>nequīverant (-ierant)</td>
<td>nequissernt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Infiniitive</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīre</td>
<td>quīsse</td>
<td>nequīre</td>
<td>nequīvisse (-quisse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participles</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quiēns</td>
<td></td>
<td>nequiēns, nequeuntēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** — A few passive forms are used with passive infinitives: as, quitur, queuntur, quitus sum, queātūr, queantur, nequītur, nequītum; but none of these occurs in classic prose.
c. Quaesō, I ask, beg (original form of quaerō), has —

**INDIC.** Pres. quaesō, quaesumus

**NOTE.** — Other forms of quaesō are found occasionally in early Latin. For the perfect system (quaesivi, etc.), see quaerō (§ 211. d).

j. Ovāre, to triumph, has the following: —

**INDIC.** Pres. ovās, ovat

**SUBJ.** Pres. ovet

**IMPF.** ovāret

**PART.** ovāns, ovātūrus, ovātus

**GER.** ovandi

**g.** A few verbs are found chiefly in the Imperative: —

Pres. singular salvē, plural salvēte, Fut. salvētō, hail! (from salvus, safe and sound). An infinitive salvēre and the indicative forms salvē, salvētis, salvēbis, are rare.

Pres. singular avē (or havē), plural avēte, Fut. avētō, hail or farewell. An infinitive avēre also occurs.

Pres. singular cēdo, plural cēdite (ette), giver, tell.

Pres. singular apage, begone (properly a Greek word).

**IMPERSONAL VERBS**

207. Many verbs, from their meaning, appear only in the third person singular, the infinitive, and the gerund. These are called Impersonal Verbs, as having no personal subject.¹ The passive of many intransitive verbs is used in the same way.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Con. I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>Pass. Con. I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>it is plain</td>
<td>it is allowed</td>
<td>it chances</td>
<td>it results</td>
<td>it is fought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstit</td>
<td>licet</td>
<td>accidit</td>
<td>ēverit</td>
<td>pūgnātur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstitbat</td>
<td>licēbat</td>
<td>accidēbat</td>
<td>ēveniēbat</td>
<td>pūgnābitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstitbit</td>
<td>licēbit</td>
<td>accidet</td>
<td>ēveniet</td>
<td>pūgnātum est</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstitit</td>
<td>licuit. -itum est</td>
<td>accidit</td>
<td>ēvēnit</td>
<td>pūgnātum erat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstiterat</td>
<td>licuerat</td>
<td>acciderat</td>
<td>ēvēnerat</td>
<td>pūgnātum erit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstiterit</td>
<td>licuerit</td>
<td>acciderit</td>
<td>ēvēnerit</td>
<td>pūgnātur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstit</td>
<td>licet</td>
<td>accidat</td>
<td>ēveniat</td>
<td>pūgnātur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstitaret</td>
<td>licēret</td>
<td>accideret</td>
<td>ēveniret</td>
<td>pūgnātum sit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstiterit</td>
<td>licuerit</td>
<td>acciderit</td>
<td>ēveniri</td>
<td>pūgnātum esset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstitissit</td>
<td>licissit</td>
<td>accidissit</td>
<td>ēvenissit</td>
<td>pūgnāri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstitisse</td>
<td>licisse</td>
<td>accidisse</td>
<td>ēvenisse</td>
<td>pūgnātum esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-stātūrum esse</td>
<td>-tūrum esse</td>
<td>——</td>
<td>-tūrum esse</td>
<td>pūgnātum iri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ With impersonal verbs the word it is used in English, having usually no representative in Latin, though id, hōc, illud, are often used nearly in the same way.
208. Impersonal Verbs may be classified as follows: —

a. Verbs expressing the operations of nature and the time of day: —

vesperāscit (inceptive, § 263. 1), it grows late. 
ningit, it snows. 
fulgurat, it lightens. 
tonat, it thunders. 
rōrat, the dew falls.

Note. — In these no subject is distinctly thought of. Sometimes, however, the verb is used personally with the name of a divinity as the subject: as, Juppiter tonat, Jupiter thunders. In poetry other subjects are occasionally used: as, fundae saxa plunt, the slings rain stones.

b. Verbs of feeling, where the person who is the proper subject becomes the object, as being himself affected by the feeling expressed in the verb (§ 354. b): —

miseret, it grieves. 
paenitet (poenitet), it repents.
piget, it disgusts. 
pudet, it shames.
taedet, it wearies. 

misere, I pity (it distresses me); pudet mē, I am ashamed.

Note. — Such verbs often have also a passive form: as, miseror, I pity (am moved to pity); and occasionally other parts: as, paenitīrus (as from paeniō), paenitendus, pudendus, pertaeasum est, pigitum est.

c. Verbs which have a phrase or clause as their subject (cf. §§ 454, 569. 2): —

accidit, contingit, ēvenit, obtingit, obvenit, fit, it happens.
dēlectat, iuvat, it delights.
libet, it pleases. 
opertet, it is fitting, ought.
licet, it is permitted. 
necessē est, it is needful.
certum est, it is resolved. 
praestat, it is better.
constat, it is clear. 
interest, réfert, it concerns.
placet, it seems good (pleases). 
vacat, there is leisure.
videntur, it seems, seems good.
restat, superest, it remains.

decet, it is becoming.

Note. — Many of these verbs may be used personally; as, vacō, I have leisure. Libet and licet have also the passive forms libitum (licitum) est etc. The participles libēns and licēns are used as adjectives.

d. The passive of intransitive verbs is very often used impersonally (see synopsis in § 207): —

ventum est, they came (there was coming).
pugnātur, there is fighting (it is fought).
fitur, some one goes (it is gone).
parcitur mihi, I am spared (it is spared to me, see § 372).

Note. — The impersonal use of the passive proceeds from its original reflexive (or middle) meaning, the action being regarded as accomplishing itself (compare the French cela se fait).
First Conjugation

209. There are about 360 simple verbs of the First Conjugation, most of them formed directly on a noun- or adjective-stem:

armō, arm (arma, armi); caecō, to blind (caecus, blind); exsulō, be an exile (exsil, an exile) (§ 259).

Their conjugation is usually regular, like amō; though of many only a few forms are found in use.

a. The following verbs form their Perfect and Supine stems irregularly. Those marked * have also regular forms.

crepō, crepuit (-crepāvī), -crepit-, resound.
cubō, *cubuī, -cubīt-, lie down.
dō. dāre, dedi, dat., give (dā).
domō, domuī, domīt-, subdue.
frīcō, fricui, *frict-, rub.
iuvō (ad-iuvō), iūvī, iūt., help.
micō, micui, —, glitter.
necō, *nequī, necāt- (-nect-), kill.2

pōtō, pōtāvī, *pōt-, drink.
secō, secui, secēt-, cut.
sonō, sonuī, sonit-, sound.
stō, stētī, -stat- (-stit-), stand.
tonō, tonuī, *tonit-, thunder.
vetō, vetuī, vetīt-, forbid.

Note.—Compounds of these verbs have the following forms: —
crepō: con-crepui, dis-crepui or -crepāvī; in-crepui or -crepāvī.
dē: circum-, inter-, pessum-, satis-, super-, vēnāvā; -dedī, -dat-, of the first conjugation. Other compounds belong to the root dās, put, and are of the third conjugation: as, condō, condēre, condiui, condītum.
micō: di-micāvī, -micāt-; e-micāvī, -micāt-.
plicō: re-, sub- (supr.), multi-plicāvī, -plicāvī, -plicāt-; ex-plicāvī (unfold), -uī, -it- (explain), -iīvī, -iīt-; im-plicāvī, -iūvī (-uī), -iūtum (-ītum).
stō: cōn-stō, stītī, (-stātūs); ad-, re-stō, stītī, ——; ante- (ante-), inter-, super-
stō, stētī, ——; circum-stō, stētī (-stūtī), ——; praestō, stītī, -stīt- (-stāt-);
di-stō, ex-stō, no perfect or supine (future participle ex-stātūs).

Second Conjugation

210. There are nearly 120 simple verbs of the Second Conjugation, most of them denominative verbs of condition, having a corresponding noun and adjective from the same root, and an inceptive in -scō (§ 263. 1): —

caleō, be warm; calor, warmth; calidus, warm; calēscō, grow warm.
timeō, fear; timor, fear; timidus, timid; per-timēscō, to take fright.

1 Future Participle also in -stārus (either in the simple verb or in composition).
2 Necō has regularly necāvī, necātūm, except in composition.
CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

a. Most verbs of the second conjugation are inflected like *moneō*, but
many lack the supine (as, *arceō, ward off*; *careō, lack*; *egēō, need*; *timeō, fear*), and a number have neither perfect nor supine (as, *maereō, be sad*).

b. The following keep ē in all the systems:

dēleō, destroy
dēlēre
dēlēvi
dēlētum
fiēō, weep
fiēre
fiēvi
fiētum
neō, sew
nēre
nēvi
nētum
vieō, plait
viēre
viēvi
viētum
com-pleō, fill up
-plēre
-plēvi
-plētum

Algeō, alsi, be cold.
årdeō, ārsi, ārsurūsus, burn.
audeō, ausus sum, darc.
augeō, auxi, auct-, increase.
caveō, cāvi, caut-, care.
cēneō, cēnsum, cēns-, value.
ciēō, civi-, excitē.
doceō, docui, doct-, teach.
faveō, fāvi, faut-, favor.
ferveō, fervi (ferbui), ——, glow.
foveō, fōvi, fōt-, cherish.
fulgeō, fulsi, ——, shine.
gaudēō, gavisus sum, rejoice.
haereō, haesī, haes-, cling.
indulgeō, indulsi, indult-, indulge.
iiubeō, iussi, iuss-, order.
lriqueō, licui (liqui), ——, melt.
lūceō, luxi, ——, shine.
lūgeō, lūxi, ——, moure.
maneō, mānsi, māns-, wait.
miscēō, -culi, mixt- (mist-), mix.
morēō, morindis, mors-, bite.
movēō, movi, mot-, move.
mulceō, mulsi, muls-, soothe.
mulgeō, mulsi, muls-, milk.
(cō)niveō, -nivi (nixi), ——, wink.
(ab)oleō, -olēvi, -olit-, destroy.
pendeō, pependī, -pens-, hang.
prandeō, pranči, prāns-, dinc.
rideō, risi, -ris-, laugh.
sedeō, sēdi, sess-, sit.
soleō, solitus sum, be wont.
sorbeō, sorbui (sorpsi), ——, suck.
spondeō, sponendi, spēns-, pledge.
strideō, stridī, ——, whiz.
suādeō, suāsi, suās-, urge.
teneō (tineō), tenui, -tent-, hold.
tergeō, tersi, ters-, wipe.
tondeō, -tontīdī (-tontī), tônς-, shear.
torqueō, torsi, tort-, twist.
torreō, torri, tost-, roast.
turgeō, tursi, ——, swell.
urgeō, ursi, ——, urge.
videō, vidi, vis-, see.
voveō, vōvi, vōt-, vow.

Third Conjugation

211. The following lists include most simple verbs of the Third Conjugation, classed according to the formation of the Perfect Stem:

a. Forming the perfect stem in s (x) (§ 177, b and note):

angē, āuxi, ——, choke.
carpō, carpaei, carp-, pluck.
cēdēō, cessi, cess-, yield.
cingō, cingi, cinct-, bind.
third conjugation 123

dēmō, dēmpsi, dēmpτ-, take away.
dicō, dixi, dīct-, say.
dividō, divisi, divid-, divide.
dūcō, dūxi, duct-, guide.
emungō, -mūnxī, -mūnt-, clean out.
figō, fixi, fict-, fix.
flingō [fling], flaxi, fict-, fashion.
flexō, flexi, flex-, bend.
-fligō, -flixi, -flict-, ——, smile.
flō, flūxi, flux-, flow.
frenō, ——, fīxωs (frees-), gnash.
frīgō, frīxi, frīct-, fry.
gregō, gessi, gess-, carry.
iumgō, iūnxī, iūnt-, join.
lædō, læsi, lax-, last.
-liciō, -lexi-, -lect-, entice (elicui, elici-).
lūdō, lūxi, lus-, play.
mergō, mersi, mers-, plunge.
mittō, misi, miss-, send.
nectō [NEx], nexi (nexuī), nex-, wease.
nūbō, nūpsi, nūpt-, marry.
pectō, pexi, pex-, comb.
perrīgō, perrīxi, perrīct-, go on.
pingō [Pig], pinxi, pict-, paint.
plangō [Plag], plānxi, plānt-, beat.
plauāō, plauisi, plaus-, applaud.
plectō, plexi, plex-, braïd.
premō, presi, press-, press.
prōmō, -mpsī, -mpt-, bring out.

quatiō, (-cuasī), quass-, shake.
rādō, rāsi, rās-, scrape.
regō, réxi, réct-, rule.
rēpō, répsi, ——, creep.
roōdō, roși, ros-, gnaw.
scalpō, scalpsi, scalpt-, scrape.
scribō, scripsi, script-, write.
sculpō, sculpisi, sculpt-, carve.
serpō, serpsi, ——, crawl.
spargō, sparsi, spars-, scatter.
-spicīō, -spexi, -spect-, view.
-stingō, -stinxī, -stinct-, quench.
stringō, strīnxi, strict-, bind.
struō, strūxi, strūct-, build.
sūgō, sūxi, sūct-, suck.
sümō, sūmpsi, sūmpτ-, take.
surgō, surrēxi, surrēct-, rise.
tegō, tēxi, tēct-, shelter.
tempō, -tempsi, -tempτ-, despise.
tergō, tersi, ters-, wipe.
tingō, tīnxī, tīct-, stain.
trahō, trāxi, trāct-, drag.
trūdō, trūsī, trūs-, throw.
ungō (ungō), ūnxī, ūnt-, anoint.
ūrō, ussi, ust-, burn.
-vāsō, -vāsi, -vas-, go.
vēbō, vēxi, vect-, draw.
vivō, vīxi, vīct-, live.

b. Reduplicated in the perfect (§ 177. c): —

cadō, cećiū, cās-, fall.
caedo, cecidī, caes-, cuē.
caōnō, ceceini, ——, sing.
curō, cucurri, curs-, run.
dissō [dic], didici, ——, learn.
-dō [dua], -dīdi, -dit- (as in ab-dō, etc., with cēdō, vēndō), put.
fallō, fefelli, fals-, deceive.
pangō [pāc], pepīgi(-pēgi), pāct-, fasten, fix, bargain.
parcō, pepercī (parsi), (parsūrus), spare.

pariō, pepeni, part- (pariturux), bring forth.
pellō, pepuli, puls-, drive.
pendō, pependi, pēns-, weigh.
poscō, pospoci, ——, demand.
pungō [pug], puppagi (-punxi), punct-, prick.

sitō [sta], sitii, stat-, stōp.
tangō [tag], tegiit, tact-, touch.
tendō [ten], tettiendi (-tendi), tent-, stretch.
tundō [tud], tutuddi, tūns- (-tūs-), beat.

adding u (v) to the verb-root (§ 177. a): —
alō, aliui, alt- (alit-), nourish.
cernō, crēvi, -crēt-, decree.
cellō, celui, cult-, dwell, till.
compēscō, compēscui, ——, restrain.
consulō, -lui, consulti-, consult.
crescō, crēvi, crēt-, increase.
CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

-cumbō [cun], -cubui, -cubit-, lie down.
depō, depusī, depst-,-knead.
fremō, fremui, —-, roar.
gemō, gemui, —-, growl.
gignō [gen], genui, genuit-, beget.
mōtō, messui, -mess-, reap.
molō, molui, moleit-, grind.
occulō, occuli, occulp-, hide.
(ad)olōscō, -ēvi, -ult-, grow up.
pāscō, pāvi, pāst-, feed.
percellō, -culi, -culs-, upset.
pōnō [pos], posui, posit-, put.
quiescō, quiēvi, quiēt-, rest.

rapiō, rapui, rapt-, seize.
scisō, scivi, scit-, decrece.
sērō, sēvi, sat-, sow.
sērō, serui, sert-, entwine.
sinō, sivi, sit-, permit.
spernō, spēvi, spēt-, scorn.
sterō, strāvi, strāt-, strew.
sterūtī, -steruī, —-, scrape.
strepō, strepui, —-, sound.
suēscō, suēvi, suēt-, be wont.
texō, texui, text-, weave.
tremō, tremui, —-, tremble.
vomō, vomui, —-, vomit.

d. Adding iv to the verb-root (§ 177.f): —
arcessō,¹ -ivī, arcessit-, summon.
capessō, capessivi, —-, undertake.
cupiō, cupiui, cupit-, desire.
incessō, incessivi, —-, attack.
lacessō, lacessivi, lacessit-, provoke.

petō, petivi, petit-, seek.
quaeerō, quaessivi, quaeesit-, seek.
rudō, rudivi, —-, bruay.
sapiō, sapivi, —-, be wise.
terō, trivi, trit-, rub.

e. Lengthening the vowel of the root (cf. § 177. d): —
agō, āgi, āct-, drive.
capiō, cēpi, capt-, take.
edō, ēdi, ēsum, cat (see § 201).
emō, ēmi, ēmpit-, bay.
faciō, fēci, fact-, make (see § 201).
fodiō, fōdi, foss-, dig.
frangō [frag], fregī, frāct-, break.
fugīō, fugī, (fugitūrus), flee.
fundō [fund], fūdi, fūs-, pour.

lavō, lāvi, lōt- (laut-), wash (also regular of first conjugation).
legō,² legi, lēct-, gather.
linō [lin], līvi (livī), lit-, smear.
linquō [lique], -liquē, -lect-, leave.
nōscō [nosc], nōvi, nōt- (nōgnit-, āgnit-, ad-gnīt-), know.
rumpō [rump], rūpi, rupt-, burst.
scabō, scābi, —-, scratch.
vincō [vinc], vicī, vict-, conquer.

f. Retaining the present stem or verb-root (cf. § 177. e): —
acuō, -ui, -ūt-, sharpen.
arguō, -ui, -ūt-, accuse.
bibō, bibi, (pōtus), drink.
-cendō, -endi, -cēns-, kindle.
(con)gruō, -ui, —-, agree.
cūdō, -cūdi, -cūs-, forge.
facesō, -ā (facesi), facesit-, execute.
-fenō, -fendi, -fēns-, ward off.
findō [find], fidi,³ fiss-, split.
icō, ici, ict-, hit.

¹ Sometimes accersō, etc.
² The following compounds of legō have -lēxi: diligent, interlegō, neglegō.
³ In this the perfect stem is the same as the verb-root, having lost the reduplication (§ 177. c. n.).
scandō, -scendī, -scensus, climb.
scindō [scind], scīdī,† sciss-, tear.
sīdō, sīdī (-sēdī), -sess-, settle.
solvō, solvī, solvēt-, loose, pay.
spuō, -uī, ——, spit.
statuō, -uī, -ūt-, establish.
sternuo, -uī, ——, sneeze.
stridō, stridī, ——, whiz.

suō, suī, sūt-, sew.
(ex)uō, -uī, -ūt-, put off.
tribuō, -uī, -ūt-, assign.
veillō, veillī (-vulsi), vuls-, pluck.
verriō, -verri, vers-, sweep.
vertē, vertī, vers-, turn.
visī [vid], visī, vis-, visit.
volvō, volvi, volūt-, turn.

Note.—Several have no perfect or supine: as, claudō, limp; fatīscō, gape; hīscō, yawn; tellō (sustulī, sublatūm, supplied from sufferī), raise; vergō, incline.

Fourth Conjugation.

212. There are — besides a few deponents and some regular derivatives in -ūriō, as, ēsuriō, be hungry (cf. § 263. 4) — about 60 verbs of this conjugation, a large proportion of them being descriptive verbs: like —

crōciō, croak; múgiō, bellow; tinnīō, tinkle.

a. Most verbs of the Fourth Conjugation are conjugated regularly, like audiō, though a number lack the supine.

b. The following verbs show special peculiarities: —

amiciō, amixī (-cui), amicit-, clothe.
aperiō, aperūi, apert-, open.
comperiō, -peri, compert-, find.
farcīō, farsiō, fartum, stuff.
ferīō, ——, ——, strike.
fulciō, fulsiō, fult-, prop.
hausrō, hausī, haust- (hausūrus), drain.
opernō, operūi, opert-, cover.
reperiō, repperī, repert-, find.

saepō, saepī, saept-, hedge in.
saliō (-siliō), salui (saliī), [salt- (-sult-)], leap.
sanciō [sac], sānxiō, sānect-, sanction.
sarcīō, sarșiō, sart-, patch.
sentiō, sēnsī, sēns-, feel.
sepelīō, sepelīvi, sepult-, bury.
venīō, venī, vent-, come.
vinciō, vinxiō, vincit-, bind.

For Index of Verbs, see pp. 437 ff.

† See footnote 3, page 124.
PARTICLES

213. Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections are called Particles.

In their origin Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions are either (1) case-forms, actual or extinct, or (2) compounds and phrases.

Particles cannot always be distinctly classified, for many adverbs are used also as prepositions and many as conjunctions (§§ 219 and 222).

ADVERBS

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS

214. Adverbs are regularly formed from Adjectives as follows:

a. From adjectives of the first and second declensions by changing the characteristic vowel of the stem to -ē: as, cărē, dearly, from cărus, dear (stem căro-); amīcē, like a friend, from amīcus, friendly (stem amīco-).

Note. — The ending -ē is a relic of an old ablative in -ēa (cf. § 43, n. 1).

b. From adjectives of the third declension by adding -ter to the stem. Stems in nt- (nom. -ns) lose the t-. All others are treated as i-stems: —

fortiter, bravely, from fortis (stem fortī-), brave.
ácriter, eagerly, from ācer (stem ācri-), eager.
vigilantēr, watchfully, from vigilāns (stem vigilant-).
prūderter, prudently, from prūdēns (stem prūdent-).
aliter, otherwise, from alius (old stem ali-).

Note. — This suffix is perhaps the same as -ter in the Greek -tēros; and in uter, alter. If so, these adverbs are in origin either neuter accusatives (cf. d) or masculine nominatives.

c. Some adjectives of the first and second declensions have adverbs of both forms (-ē and -ter). Thus dūrus, hard, has both dūrē and dūriter; miser, wretched, has both misērē and misēriter.

d. The neuter accusative of adjectives and pronouns is often used as an adverb: as, multum, much; facilē, easily; quid, why.

This is the origin of the ending -ius in the comparative degree of adverbs (§ 218): as, ācrius, more keenly (positive ācriter); faciulus, more easily (positive faciūs).

Note. — These adverbs are strictly cognate accusatives (§ 390).

e. The ablative singular neuter or (less commonly) feminine of adjectives, pronouns, and nouns may be used adverbially: as, falsō, falsely; citō,
quickly (with shortened o); rectā (viā), straight (straightway); crēbrō, frequently; volgō, commonly; fortē, by chance; spontē, of one’s own accord.

Note.—Some adverbs are derived from adjectives not in use: as, abundē, pleni-fully (as if from *abundōs; cf. abundō, abound); saepē, often (as if from *saepis, dense, close-packed; cf. saepēs, hedge, and saepīō, hedge in).

215. Further examples of Adverbs and other Particles which are in origin case-forms of nouns or pronouns are given below.

In some the case is not obvious, and in some it is doubtful.

1. Neuter Accusative forms: nān (for nē-o-nom, later ānum), not; iterum (comparative of i-, stem of is), a second time; dēnum (superlative of dē, down), at last.

2. Feminine Accusatives: partim, partly. So statim, on the spot; saltim, at least (generally saltēm), from lost nouns in -tis (genitive -tis). Thus -tim became a regular adverbial termination; and by means of it adverbs were made from many noun- and verb-stems immediately, without the intervention of any form which could have an accusative in -tim: as, sēparātim, separately, from sēparātus, separate. Some adverbs that appear to be feminine accusative are possibly instrumental: as, palam, openly; pēpera, wrongly; tam, so; quam, as.

3. Plural Accusatives: as, aliās, elsewhere; forās, out of doors (as end of motion). So perhaps quia, because.

4. Ablative or Instrumental forms: quā, where; intrā, within; extrā, outside; quī, how; aliquī, somehow; forās, out of doors; quī, wither; adeō, to that degree; utō, beyond; citrō, this side (as end of motion); retrō, back; illūc (for fillō-ce), weakened to illāc, thither. Those in -tō are from comparative stems (cf. ās, cis, re-).

5. Locative forms: ibi, there; ubi, where; illī, illī-c, there; peregrī (peregrī), abroad; hic (for hī-ce), here. Also the compounds hodiē (probably for hōdiē), to-day; perodiē, day after to-morrow.

6. Of uncertain formation: (1) those in -tus (usually preceded by i), with an ablative meaning: as, funditus, from the bottom, utterly; divinitus, from above, providentially; intus, within; penitus, within; (2) those in -dem, -dam, -dō: as, quidem, indeed; quandam, once; quandō (cf. dēnec), when; (3) dum (probably accusative of time), while; iam, now.

216. A phrase or short sentence has sometimes grown together into an adverb (cf. notwithstanding, nevertheless, besides):—

postmode, presently (a short time after).

dēnō (for de novō), anew.

vidēlicet (for viād licet), to wit (see, you may).

nihilominus, nevertheless (by nothing the less).

Note.—Other examples are:—anteā, old antideā, before (ante eā, probably ablative or instrumental); ilīcē (in locō), on the spot, immediately; prōrōs, absolutely (prō versus, straight ahead); rūrōs (re-vōrōs), again; quotannis, yearly (quot annīs, as many years as there are); quam-ob-rem, wherefore; cōminus, hand to hand (con manus); éminus, at long range (ex manus); nīmōrum, without doubt (nī mirum); ob-viam (as in ire obviam, to go to meet); pridem (cf. prae and -dem in i-dem), for some time; forsan (fors an), perhaps (it’s a chance whether); forsitan (fors sit an), perhaps (it would be a chance whether); sciēlicet (iscī, licet), that is to say (know, you may; cf. i-licet, you may go); ēctūtum (actū, on the act, and tum, then).
CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS

217. The classes of Adverbs, with examples, are as follows: —

\[\text{a. Adverbs of Place}\]

hic, here. húc, hither. hinc, hence. hác, by this way.
ibi, there. eō, thither. inde, thence. eā, by that way.
istīc, there. istīc, thither. istinc, thence. istā, by that way.
illic, there. illūc, thither. illinc, thence. illā (illāc), "", quā, by what way.
ubi, where. quō, whither. unde, whence. quā, by some way.
alicubi, somewhere. aliquō, somewhither, alicunde, from somewhere.
(to) somewhere.
ibidem, in the same place. eōdem, to the same place. indidem, from the same place. eādem, by the same way.
alibi, elsewhere, in aliō, elsewhere, to another place. aliunde, from another place. aliā, in another way.
ubicubi, wherever. quōquō, whithersoever. undecunque, whencesoever. quāquā, in whatever way.
ubivis, anywhere, quōvis, anywhere, unde, whither you will. undique, from every quarter. quāvis, by whatever way.
where you will.
sicubi, if anywhere. sīquō, if anywhere (anywhither). sicundae, if from anywhere. sīquā, if anywhere.
whither.
nēcubi, lest anywhere. nēquō, lest anywhere. nēcunde, lest from anywhere. nēquā, lest anywhere.

\[\text{Note.} \quad \text{The demonstrative adverbs hic, ibi, istīc, illī, illīc, and their correlatives,}
\text{correspond in signification with the pronouns hic, is, iste, ille (see § 146), and are often}
\text{equivalent to these pronouns with a preposition: as, inde = ab ēō, etc. So the relative or}
\text{interrogative ubi corresponds with qui (quīs), ali-cubi with aliquīs, ubi-bi with quisquīs,}
\text{si-cubi with sīquis (see §§ 147–151, with the table of correlatives in § 152).}

\[\text{ēsque, all the way to; usquam, anywhere; usquam, nowhere; citrō, to this side;}
\text{intrō, inwardly; ultrō, beyond (or freely, i.e. beyond what is required);}
\text{portō, further on.}
\text{quōrsūm (for quō vorsūm, whither turned?), to what end? hōrsūm, this way;}
\text{prōrsūm, forward (prōrsus, utterly); intrōrsūm, inwardly; retrōrsūm, backward; sūrsūm, upward; deorsūm, downward; seorsūm, apart; aliōrsūm, another way.}

\[\text{b. Adverbs of Time}
\text{quandō, when? (interrogative); cum (quom), when (relative); ut, when, as; nunc, now; tunc (tum), then; max, presently; iam, already; dum, while; iam diū,}
\text{iam dūdum, iam pridem, long ago, long since.}

\[\text{1 All these adverbs were originally case-forms of pronouns. The forms in -bi and}
\text{-ic are locative, those in -ē and -āc, -ā and -āc, ablative (see § 215); those in -inc are}
\text{from -im (of uncertain origin) with the particle -ce added (thus illim, illin-c).}
primum (prīmō), first; deinde (postecā), next after; postrēmum (postrēmō), finally; posteāquam, postquam, when (after that, as soon as).

umquam (unquam), ever; numquam (numquam), never; semper, always.

aliquandō, at some time, at length; quandōque (quandōcumque), whenever; ēōnique, at last.

quotiëns (quotiēs), how often; totiëns, so often; aliquotiëns, a number of times.

cotidiē, every day; hodiē, to-day; heri, yesterday; crās, to-morrow; pridiē, the day before; poestidiē, the day after; in diēs, from day to day.

nōndum, not yet; necēcum, nor yet; vixēcum, scarce yet; quam primum, as soon as possible; saepe, often; crēbrō, frequently; iam nōn, no longer.

c. Adverbs of Manner, Degree, or Cause

quam, how, as; tam, so; quamvis, however much, although; paene, almost; magis, more; valē, greatly; vix, hardly.

cūr, quāre, why; idē, idcirō, propterea, on this account, because; cō, therefore;

ergō, itaque, igitur, therefore.

ita, sic, so; ut (uti), as, how; utut, utcumque, however.

d. Interrogative Particles

an, -ne, ane, utrum, utrumne, num, whether.

nōnne, annōn, whether not; numquid, ecquid, whether at all.

On the use of the Interrogative Particles, see §§ 332, 335.

e. Negative Particles

nōn, not (in simple denial); haud, minimē, not (in contradiction); nē, not (in prohibition); nēve, neu, nor; nēdum, much less.

nē, lest; neque, nec, nor; nē . . . quidem, not even.

nōn modo . . . vērum (sed) etiam, not only . . . but also.

nōn modo . . . sed nē . . . quidem, not only nor . . . but not even.

sī minus, if not; quō minus (quōminus), so as not.

quīn (relative), but that; (interrogative), why not?

nē, nec (in composition), not; so in nesciō, I know not; negō, I say no (āīō, I say yes); negōtium, business (tneōtium); nēmō (nē- and hēmō, old form of homō), no one; nē quis, lest any one; neque enim, for . . . not.

For the use of Negative Particles, see § 325 ff.

For the Syntax and Peculiar uses of Adverbs, see § 320 ff.

Comparison of Adverbs

218. The Comparative of Adverbs is the neuter accusative of the comparative of the corresponding adjective; the Superlative is the Adverb in -ē formed regularly from the superlative of the Adjective: —
cærē, dearly (from cærus, dear); cărius, căriissimē.
miserē (miseriter), wretchedly (from miser, wretched); miserius, miserrimē.
leviter (from levis, light); levius, levissimē.
audācter (audāciter) (from audāx, bold); audācius, audācissimē.
benē, well (from bonus, good); melius, optimē.
malē, ill (from malus, bad); pēius, pessimē.

α. The following are irregular or defective: —

diū, long (in time); diūtius, diūtissimē.
potius, rather; potissimum, first of all, in preference to all.
saepe, often; saepius, oftener, again; saepissimē.
satis, enough; satius, preferable.
secus, otherwise; setius, worse.
multum (multē), magis, maximē, much, more, most.
parum, not enough; minus, less; minimē, least.
nūper, newly; nūpermē.
temperē, seasonably; temperius.

Note. — In poetry the comparative magis is sometimes used instead of magis.

PREPOSITIONS

219. Prepositions were not originally distinguished from Adverbs in form or meaning, but have become specialized in use. They developed comparatively late in the history of language. In the early stages of language development the cases alone were sufficient to indicate the sense, but, as the force of the case-endings weakened, adverbs were used for greater precision (cf. § 338). These adverbs, from their habitual association with particular cases, became Prepositions; but many retained also their independent function as adverbs.

Most prepositions are true case-forms: as, the comparative ablative extrā, infrā, suprā (for ēxtrērā, īnferā, īsuperā), and the accusatives circum, ēoram, cum (cf. § 215). Circiter is an adverbial formation from circum (cf. § 214. b. n.); præter is the comparative of piae, proper of prope.\(^1\) Of the remainder, versus is a petrified nominative (participle of vertō); adversus is a compound of versus; tràns is probably an old present participle (cf. in-trā-re); while the origin of the brief forms ab, ad, cē, ex, ob, is obscure and doubtful.

220. Prepositions are regularly used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative.

α. The following prepositions are used with the Accusative: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ad, to</td>
<td>circiter, about.</td>
<td>intrā, inside.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adversus, against</td>
<td>cis, citrā, this side.</td>
<td>iūxtā, near.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adversum, towards</td>
<td>contrā, against.</td>
<td>ob, on account of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ante, before</td>
<td>ergā, towards.</td>
<td>penes, in the power of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apud, at, near</td>
<td>extrā, outside.</td>
<td>per, through.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circā, around</td>
<td>infrā, below.</td>
<td>pōne, behind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circum, around</td>
<td>inter, among.</td>
<td>post, after.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) The case-form of these prepositions in -ter is doubtful.
§§ 220, 221] PREPOSITIONS

praeter, beyond. secundum, next to. ultrā, on the further side.
prope, near. supra, above. versus, towards.
propter, on account of. trans, across.

b. The following prepositions are used with the Ablative:—

ā, āb, abs, away from, by. ē, ex, out of.
absque, without, but for. prae, in comparison with.
cōram, in presence of. prō, in front of, for.
cum, with. sine, without.
dē, from. tenus, up to, as far as.

c. The following may be used with either the Accusative or the Ablative, but with a difference in meaning:—

in, into, in. sub, under.
subter, beneath. super, above.

In and sub, when followed by the accusative, indicate motion to, when by the ablative, rest in, a place:

vēnit in aedis, he came into the house; erat in aedibus, he was in the house.
disciplina in Britannia reperta atque inde in Galliam trānslāta esse existimātur, the system is thought to have been discovered in Great Britain and thence brought over to Gaul.

sub ilice consederat, he had seated himself under an ilex.

sub tēgēs mittere orbem, to subject the world to laws (to send the world under laws).

221. The uses of the Prepositions are as follows:—

1. Ā, ab, away from, from, off from, with the ablative.
   a. Of place: as, — ab urbe prefectus est, he set out from the city.
   b. Of time: (1) from: as, — ab hōra tertīa ad vesperam, from the third hour till evening; (2) just after: as, — ab eō magistrātū, after [holding] that office.
   c. Idiomatic uses: ā reliquis different, they differ from the others; ā parvulis, from early childhood; prope ab urbe, near (not far from) the city; liberāre ab, to set free from; occītus ab hoste (perīt ab hoste), slain by an enemy; ab hāc parte, on this side; ab rē ēius, to his advantage; ā rē pública, for the interest of the state.

2. Ad, to, towards, at, near, with the accusative (cf. in, into).
   a. Of place: as, — ad urbem vēnit, he came to the city; ad meridiem, towards the south; ad exercitum, to the army; ad hostem, toward the enemy; ad urbem, near the city.
   b. Of time: as, — ad nōnam hōram, till the ninth hour.
   c. With persons: as, — ad eum vēnit, he came to him.

1 For pālam etc., see § 132.
2 Ab signifies direction from the object, but often towards the speaker; compare dē, down from, and ex, out of.
d. Idiomatic uses: ad supplicia desicendunt, they resort to punishment; ad haec respondit, to this he answered; ad tempus, at the [fit] time; adire ad rem publicam, to go into public life; ad petendam pacem, to seek peace; ad latera, on the flank; ad arma, to arms; ad hunc modum, in this way; quem ad modum, how, as; ad centum, nearly a hundred; ad hoc, besides; omnès ad annum, all to a man; ad diem, on the day.

3. Ante, in front of, before, with the accusative (cf. post, after).
   a. Of place: as, — ante portam, in front of the gate; ante exercitum, in advance of the army.
   b. Of time: as, — ante bellum, before the war.
   c. Idiomatic uses: ante urbem captam, before the city was taken; ante diem quinimum (a. d. v.) Kal., the fifth day before the Calends; ante quadriennium, four years before or ago; ante tempus, too soon (before the time).

4. Apud, at, by, among, with the accusative.
   a. Of place (rare and archaic): as, — apud forum, at the forum (in the marketplace).
   b. With reference to persons or communities: as, — apud Helvetios, among the Helvetians; apud populum, before the people; apud aliquem, at one’s house; apud se, at home or in his senses; apud Cicero, in [the works of] Cicero.

5. Circā, about, around, with the accusative (cf. circum, circiter).
   a. Of place: templo circā forum, the temples about the forum; circā se habet, he has with him (of persons).
   b. Of time or number (in poetry and later writers): circā canem hōram, about the same hour; circā idūs Octōbris, about the fifteenth of October; circā decem milia, about ten thousand.
   c. Figuratively (in later writers), about, in regard to (cf. dé): circā quem pūgna est, with regard to whom, etc. ; circā deös neglegentior, rather neglectful of (i.e. in worshipping) the gods.

6. Circiter, about, with the accusative.
   a. Of time or number: circiter idūs Novembris, about the thirteenth of November; circiter meridiem, about noon.

7. Circum, about, around, with the accusative.
   a. Of place: circum haec loca, hereabout; circum Capuam, round Capua; circum ilium, with him; legatiō circum insulās missa, an embassy sent to the islands round about; circum amicos, to his friends round about.

8. Contrā, opposite, against, with the accusative.
   contrā Italianum, over against Italy; contrā haec, in answer to this.
   a. Often as adverb: as, — haec contrā, this in reply; contrā autem, but on the other hand; quod contrā, whereas, on the other hand.

9. Cum, with, together with, with the ablative.
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a. Of place: as, — vade mēcum, go with me; cum omnibus impedimentis, with all [their] baggage.
b. Of time: as, — prīmā cum lūce, at early dawn (with first light).
c. Idiomatic uses: māgnō cum dolōre, with great sorrow; communicāre ali-quid cum aliquō, share something with some one; cum malō suō, to his own hurt; cōnfigere cum hoste, to fight with the enemy; esse cum tēlo, to go armed; cum silentiō, in silence.

10. Dē, down from, from, with the ablative (cf. ab, away from; ex, out of).
a. Of place: as, — dē caelō dēmissus, sent down from heaven; dē nāvibus désilire, to jump down from the ships.
b. Figuratively, concerning, about, of: as, — cōgnōscit dē Clōdi caede, he learns of the murder of Clodius; cōnsilia dē bellō, plans of war.
c. In a partitive sense (compare ex), out of, of: as, — ënus dē plēbe, one of the people.
d. Idiomatic uses: multīs dē causās, for many reasons; quā dē causā, for which reason; dē imprōvisō, of a sudden; dē industriā, on purpose; dē integro, anew; dē terrā vigiliā, just at midnight (starting at the third watch); dē mēnse Decembri nāvigāre, to sail as early as December.

11. Ex, e, from (the midst, opposed to in), out of, with the ablative (cf. ab and dē).
a. Of place: as, — ex omnibus partibus silvac ēvolāverunt, they flew out from all parts of the forest; ex Hispāniā, [a man] from Spain.
b. Of time: as, — ex eō die quintus, the fifth day from that (four days after); ex hōc die, from this day forth.
c. Idiometrically or less exactly: ex cōnsulātū, right after his consulship; ex ëius sententia, according to his opinion; ex aequō, justly; ex imprōvisō, unexpectedly; ex tuā vē, to your advantage; māgnō ex parte, in a great degree; ex equō pāgnāre, to fight on horseback; ex ëus, expedient; ë regione, opposite; quaerere ex aliquō, to ask of some one; ex senātūs consultō, according to the decree of the senate; ex fugā, in [their] flight (proceeding immediately from it); ënus ë filiīs, one of the sons.

12. In, with the accusative or the ablative.

1. With the accusative, into (opposed to ex).
a. Of place: as, — in Ætālem contendit, he hastens into Italy.
b. Of time, till, until: as, — in lūcem, till daylight.
c. Idiometrically or less exactly: in meridiem, towards the south; amor in (ergā, adversus) patrem, love for his father; in āram cōnfigit, he fled to the altar (on the steps, or merely to); in diēs, from day to day; in longitūdinem, lengthwise; in lātitūdinem patēbat, extended in width; in hace verba iūrāre, to swear to these words; hunc in modum, in this way; ërātiō in Catilinām, a speech against

1 Of originally meant from (cf. of).
Catiline; in perpetuum, forever; in pēius, for the worse; in diem vivere, to live from hand to mouth (for the day).

2. With the ablative, in, on, among.

In very various connections: as, — in castrīs, in the camp (cf. ad castra, to, at, or near the camp); in mari, on the sea; in urbe esse, to be in town; in tempore, in season; in scribendō, while writing; est mihi in animō, I have it in mind, I intend; in ancoris, at anchor; in hoc homine, in the case of this man; in dubio esse, to be in doubt.

13. Infrā, below, with the accusative.

a. Of place: as, — ad mare infrā oppidum, by the sea below the town; infrā caelum, under the sky.

b. Figuratively or less exactly: as, — infrā Homērum, later than Homer; infrā tres pedēs, less than three feet; infrā elephantōs, smaller than elephants; infrā infimōs omnīs, the lowest of the low.

14. Inter, between, among, with the accusative.

inter mē et Scipīōnem, between myself and Scipio; inter ēs et offam, between the cup and the lip (the mouth and the morsel); inter hostium tēla, amid the weapons of the enemy; inter omnīs primus, first of all; inter bibendum, while drinking; inter sē loquuntur, they talk together.

15. Ob, towards, on account of; with the accusative.

a. Literally: (1) of motion (archaic): as, — ob Rōnam, towards Rome (Ennius); ob viam, to the road (preserved as adverb, in the way of). (2) Of place in which, before, in a few phrases: as, — ob oculōs, before the eyes.

b. Figuratively, in return for (mostly archaic, probably a word of account, balancing one thing against another): as, — ob mulierem, in pay for the woman; ob rem, for gain. Hence applied to reason, cause, and the like, on account of (a similar mercantile idea), for: as, — ob eam causam, for that reason; quam ob rem (quamobrem), wherefore, why.

16. Per, through, over, with the accusative.

a. Of motion: as, — per urbem ire, to go through the city; per mūrōs, over the walls.

b. Of time: as, — per hīcensem, throughout the winter.

c. Figuratively, of persons as means or instruments: as, — per hominēs idō-neōs, through the instrumentality of suitable persons; licet per mē, you (etc.) may for all me. Hence, stat per mē, it is through my instrumentality; so, per sē, in and of itself.

da. Weakened, in many adverbial expressions: as, — per iocum, in jest; per speciem, in show, ostentatiously.

17. Prae, in front of; with the ablative.

a. Literally, of place (in a few connections): as, — prae sē portāre, to carry in one's arms; prae sē ferre, to carry before one, (hence figuratively) exhibit, proclaim ostentatiously, make known.
b. Figuratively, of hindrance, as by an obstacle in front (compare English for): as,—praetor aedificavit, he was silent for joy.

c. Of comparison: as,—praetor magnitudine corporum suorum, in comparison with their own great size.

18. Praeter, along by, by, with the accusative.

a. Literally: as,—praeter castra, by the camp (along by, in front of); praeter oculos, before the eyes.

b. Figuratively, beyond, besides, more than, in addition to, except: as,—praeter spem, beyond hope; praeter aliōs, more than others; praeter paucōs, with the exception of a few.

19. Prō, in front of, with the ablative.

sedēns prō aede Castoris, sitting in front of the temple of Castor; prō populō, in presence of the people. So prō rōstris, on [the front of] the rostra; prō contiōne, before the assembly (in a speech).

a. In various idiomatic uses: prō legē, in defense of the law; prō vitulā, instead of a heifer; prō centum miliibus, as good as a hundred thousand; prō ratā parte, in due proportion; prō hāc vice, for this once; prō cōnsule, in place of consul; prō viribus, considering his strength; prō virili parte, to the best of one's ability; prō tua prudentia, in accordance with your wisdom.

20. Propter, near, by, with the accusative.

propter tē sedet, he sits next you. Hence, on account of (cf. all along of): as,—propter metum, through fear.

21. Secundum,1 just behind, following, with the accusative.

a. Literally: as,—ite secundum mē (Plaut.), go behind me; secundum litora, near the shore; secundum flūmen, along the stream (cf. secundō flūmine, down stream).

b. Figuratively, according to: as,—secundum nāturam, according to nature.

22. Sub, under, up to, with the accusative or the ablative.

1. Of motion, with the accusative: as,—sub montem succedere, to come close to the hill.

a. Idiomatically: sub noctem, towards night; sub lūcem, near daylight; sub haec dicta, at (following) these words.

2. Of rest, with the ablative: as,—sub Iove, in the open air (under the heaven, personified as Jove); sub monte, at the foot of the hill.

a. Idiomatically: sub eōdem tempore, about the same time (just after it).

23. Subter, under, below, with the accusative (sometimes, in poetry, the ablative).

subter togam (Liv.), under his mantle; but,—subter litore (Catull.), below the shore.

24. Super,2 with the accusative or the ablative.

1 Old participle of sequor. 2 Comparative of sub.
1. With the accusative, above, over, on, beyond, upon.
   a. Of place: super vallum præcipientium (Ing. 58), to be hurled over the rampart; super laterès corta indúcuntur (B.C. ii. 10), hides are drawn over the bricks; super terrae tumulum statui (Legg. ii. 65), to be placed on the mound of earth; super Numidiam (Ing. 19), beyond Numidia.
   b. Idiomatically or less exactly: vulnus super vulnus, wound upon wound; super vinum (Q. C. viii. 4), over his wine.

2. With the ablative, concerning, about (the only use with this case in prose).
   hac super rē, concerning this thing; super tālī rē, about such an affair; litterās super tantā rē exspectāre, to wait for a letter in a matter of such importance.
   a. Poetically, in other senses: ligna super focō largē repōnēns (Hor. Od. i. 9. 5), piling logs generously on the fire; nōcte super mediā (Aen. ix. 61), after midnight.

25. Suprā, on top of, above, with the accusative.
   suprā terram, on the surface of the earth. So also figuratively: as, — suprā hanc memoriam, before our remembrance; suprā mōrem, more than usual; suprā quod, besides.

26. Tenus (postpositive), as far as, up to, regularly with the ablative, sometimes with the genitive (cf. § 359. b).
   1. With the ablative: Taurō tenus, as far as Taurus; capulō tenus, up to the hill.
   2. With the genitive: Cumārum tenus (Fam. viii. 1. 2), as far as Cumae.

   Note 1.—Tenus is frequently connected with the feminine of an adjective prenoun, making an adverbial phrase: as, háctenus, hitherto; quātensus, so far as; dé hac rē háctenus, so much for that (about this matter so far).
   Note 2.—Tenus was originally a neuter noun, meaning line or extent. In its use with the genitive (mostly poetical) it may be regarded as an adverbial accusative (§ 397. a).

27. Trans, across, over, through, by, with the accusative.
   a. Of motion: as, — trāns mare currunt, they run across the sea; trāns flūmen ferre, to carry over a river; trāns aethera, through the sky; trāns caput iace, throw over your head.
   b. Of rest: as, — trāns Rhēnum incolum, they live across the Rhine.

28. Ultrā, beyond (on the further side), with the accusative.
   cis Pādūm ultrāque, on this side of the Po and beyond; ultrā summ numerum, more than that number; ultrā fidem, incredible; ultrā modum, immoderate.

   Note. — Some adverbs appear as prepositions: as, intus, insuper (see § 219). For Prepositions in Compounds, see § 267.
CONJUNCTIONS

222. Conjunctions, like prepositions (cf. § 219), are closely related to adverbs, and are either petrified cases of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, or obscured phrases: as, quod, an old accusative; dum, probably an old accusative (cf. tum, cum); vērō, an old neuter ablative of vērus; nisiōminus, none the less; prōināe, lit. forward from there. Most conjunctions are connected with pronominal adverbs, which cannot always be referred to their original case-forms.

223. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences. They are of two classes, Coördinate and Subordinate: —

a. Coördinate, connecting coördinate or similar constructions (see § 278. 2. a). These are:—
1. Copulative or disjunctive, implying a connection or separation of thought as well as of words: as, et, and; aut, or; neque, nor.
2. Adversative, implying a connection of words, but a contrast in thought: as, sed, but.
3. Causal, introducing a cause or reason: as, nam, for.
4. Illative, denoting an inference: as, igitur, therefore.

b. Subordinate, connecting a subordinate or independent clause with that on which it depends (see § 278. 2. b). These are:—
1. Conditional, denoting a condition or hypothesis: as, si, if; nisi, unless.
2. Comparative, implying comparison as well as condition: as, ac si, as if.
3. Concessive, denoting a concession or admission: as, quamquam, although (lit. however much it may be true that, etc.).
5. Consecutive, expressing result: as, ut, so that.
6. Final, expressing purpose: as, ut, in order that: nē, that not.
7. Causal, expressing cause: as, quia, because.

224. Conjunctions are more numerous and more accurately distinguished in Latin than in English. The following list includes the common conjunctions¹ and conjunctive phrases: —

CoöRDINATE

a. Copulative and Disjunctive

et, -que, atque (ae), and.
et...et; et...-que (atque); -que...et; -que...-que (poetical), both...and.
etiam, quoque, neque nōn (necnōn), quīn etiam, itidem (item), also.
cum...tum; tum...tum, both...and; not only...but also.

¹ Some of these have been included in the classification of adverbs. See also list of Correlatives, § 152
quā . . . quā, on the one hand . . . on the other hand.
modo . . . modo, now . . . now.
aut . . . aut; vel . . . vel (-ve), either . . . or.
sive (seu) . . . sive, whether . . . or.
nec (neque) . . . nec (neque); neque . . . nec; nec . . . neque (rare), neither . . . nor.
et . . . neque, both . . . and not.
nec . . . et; nec (neque) . . . -que, neither (both not) . . . and.

b. Adversative
sed, autem, vērum, vērō, at, atqui, but.
tamen, attamen, sed tamen, vērum tamen, but yet, nevertheless.
nihilominus, none the less.
at vērō, but in truth; enimvērō, for in truth.
cēterum, on the other hand, but.

c. Causal
nam, namque, enim, etenim, for.
quāpropter, quārē, quamobrem, quōcirca, unde, wherefore, whence.

d. Illative
ergō, igitur, itaque, ideō, idcirco, inde, proinde, therefore, accordingly.

SUBORDINATE

a. Conditional
si, if; sin, but if; nisi (ni), unless, if not; quod si, but if.
modo, dum, dummodo, si modo, if only, provided.
dummodo nē (dum nē, modo nē), provided only not.

b. Comparative
ut, uti, sicut, just as; velut, as, so as; preut, praet, ceu, like as, according as.
tamquam (tanquam), quasi, ut si, ac si, velut, veluti, velutī, velut si, as if.
quam, atque (ac), as, than.

c. Concessive
etsi, etiamsi, tametsi, even if; quamquam (quanquam), although.
quamvis, quantumvis, quamlibet, quantumlibet, however much.
līcet (properly a verb), ut, cum (quom), though, suppose, whereas.

d. Temporal
cum (quom), quandō, when; ubi, ut, when, as; cum primum, ut primum, ubi primum,
simul, simul ac, simul atque, as soon as; postquam (posteāquam), after.
prius . . . quam, ante . . . quam, before; nōn ante . . . quam, not . . . until.
dum, āisque dum, dōneō, quoad, until, as long as, while.
e. Consecutive and Final

ut (uti), quō, so that, in order that.
ne, ut ne, lest (that . . . not, in order that not); neve (neu), that not, nor.
quīn (after negatives), quōminus, but that (so as to prevent), that not.

f. Causal

quia, quod, quoniam (quom-iam), quandō, because.
cum (quom), since.
quandōquidem, si quidem, quippe, ut pote, since indeed, inasmuch as.
proptereā . . . quod, for this reason . . . that.

On the use of Conjunctions, see §§ 323, 324.

INTERJECTIONS

225. Some Interjections are mere natural exclamations of feeling; others are derived from inflected parts of speech, e.g. the imperatives em, lo (probably for eme, take); age, come, etc. Names of deities occur in hercē, pot (from Pollux), etc. Many Latin interjections are borrowed from the Greek, as euge, euhoe, etc.

226. The following list comprises most of the Interjections in common use:

ō, ēn, ecce, ehem, papae, vāh (of astonishment).
iō, ēvae, ēvoe, euhoe (of joy).
heu, ēheu, vae, alas (of sorrow).
heus, eho, ehadum, ho (of calling); st, hist.
ēia, euge (of praise).
prō (of attestation): as, prō pudor, shame!
FORMATION OF WORDS

227. All formation of words is originally a process of composition. An element significant in itself is added to another significant element, and thus the meaning of the two is combined. No other combination is possible for the formation either of inflections or of stems. Thus, in fact, words (since roots and stems are significant elements, and so words) are first placed side by side, then brought under one accent, and finally felt as one word. The gradual process is seen in sea voyage, sea-nymph, seaside. But as all derivation, properly so called, appears as a combination of uninflected stems, every type of formation in use must antedate inflection. Hence words were not in strictness derived either from nouns or from verbs, but from stems which were neither, because they were in fact both; for the distinction between noun-stems and verb-stems had not yet been made.

After the development of Inflection, however, that one of several kindred words which seemed the simplest was regarded as the primitive form, and from this the other words of the group were thought to be derived. Such supposed processes of formation were then imitated, often erroneously, and in this way new modes of derivation arose. Thus new adjectives were formed from nouns, new nouns from adjectives, new adjectives from verbs, and new verbs from adjectives and nouns.

In course of time the real or apparent relations of many words became confused, so that nouns and adjectives once supposed to come from nouns were often assigned to verbs, and others once supposed to come from verbs were assigned to nouns.

Further, since the language was constantly changing, many words went out of use, and do not occur in the literature as we have it. Thus many Derivatives survive of which the Primitive is lost.

Finally, since all conscious word-formation is imitative, intermediate steps in derivation were sometimes omitted, and occasionally apparent Derivatives occur for which no proper Primitive ever existed.

ROOTS AND STEMMS

228. Roots\(^1\) are of two kinds: —

1. \textit{Verbal}, expressing ideas of action or condition (sensible phenomena).

From verbal roots come all parts of speech except pronouns and certain particles derived from pronominal roots.

229. Stems are either identical with roots or derived from them. They are of two classes: (1) Noun-stems (including Adjective-stems) and (2) Verb-stems.

\textbf{Note.} — Noun-stems and verb-stems were not originally different (see p. 163), and in the consciousness of the Romans were often confounded; but in general they were treated as distinct.

230. Words are formed by inflection: (1) from roots inflected as stems; (2) from derived stems (see § 232).

\(^1\) For the distinction between Roots and Stems, see §§ 24, 25.
231. A root used as a stem may appear—

_a._ With a short vowel: as, *duc-is* (*dux*), *duc*; *nec-is* (*nex*); *i-s, i-d*. So in verbs: *as, est-t, fer-t* (cf. § 174. 2).

_b._ With a long vowel: 1 as, *luc-is* (*lux*), *luc*; *pac-is* (*pax*). So in verbs: *duc-o, i-s for tēs, from cō, ĭre; fātur from fārī.*

_c._ With reduplication: as, *fur-fur, mar-mor, mur-mur*. So in verbs: *as, gi-gnō* (root *gen*), *si-stō* (root *sta*).

**DERIVED STEMS AND SUFFIXES**

232. Derived Stems are formed from roots or from other stems by means of *suffixes*. These are:—

1. Primary: added to the root, or (in later times by analogy) to verb-stems.

2. Secondary: added to a noun-stem or an adjective-stem.

Both primary and secondary suffixes are for the most part pronominal roots (§ 228. 2), but a few are of doubtful origin.

**Note 1.**—The distinction between primary and secondary suffixes, not being original (see § 227), is continually lost sight of in the development of a language. Suffixes once primary are used as secondary, and those once secondary are used as primary. Thus in *hosticus* (*hosti + cus*) the suffix *-cus*, originally *ko-* (see § 234. II. 12) primary, as in *paucus*, has become secondary, and is thus regularly used to form derivatives; but in *padicus, apricus*, it is treated as primary again, because these words were really or apparently connected with verbs. So in English *-able* was borrowed as a primary suffix (*tolerable, eatable*), but also makes forms like *clubbable, salable*; *-some* is properly a secondary suffix, as in *toilsome, lonesome*, but makes also such words as *meddle-some, venturesome*.

**Note 2.**—It is the stem of the word, not the *nominative*, that is formed by the derivative suffix. For convenience, however, the nominative will usually be given.

**Primary Suffixes**

233. The words in Latin formed immediately from the root by means of Primary Suffixes, are few. For—

1. Inherited words so formed were mostly further developed by the addition of other suffixes, as we might make an adjective *lone-ly-some-ish*, meaning nothing more than *lone, lonely, or lonesome.*

2. By such accumulation of suffixes, new compound suffixes were formed which crowded out even the old types of derivation. Thus,—

1 The difference in vowel-quantity in the same root (as *duc*) depends on inherited variations (see § 17. a).
A word like mēns, mentis, by the suffix ōn- (nom. -ō), gave mentiō, and this, being divided into mēn + tiō, gave rise to a new type of abstract nouns in -tiō: as, légā-tiō, embassy.

A word like auditor, by the suffix io- (nom. -ius), gave rise to adjectives like auditōr-ius, of which the neuter (auditōriūm) is used to denote the place where the action of the verb is performed. Hence tōrīus (nom. -tōriūm), x., becomes a regular noun-suffix (§ 250. a).

So in English such a word as suffocation gives a suffix -ation, and with this is made starvation, though there is no such word as starvate.

234. Examples of primary stem-suffixes are: —

1. Vowel suffixes: —
   1. ō- (m., n.), ā- (r.), found in nouns and adjectives of the first two declensions: as, sonus, ūdus, vagus, toga (root tēg).
   2. r-, as in ovis, avis; in Latin frequently changed, as in rūpes, or lost, as in scōbas (scōbīs, root scān).
   3. u-, disguised in most adjectives by an additional i, as in suā-vis (for *suād-vis, instead of *suā-dus, cf. ḫōvē), ten-ius (root tēn in tendō), and remaining alone in nouns of the fourth declension, as acus (root āk, šārp, in ācer, aciēs, ōxōs), pecū, genuā.

II. Suffixes with a consonant: —
   1. to- (m., n.), tā- (r.), in the regular perfect passive participle, as tēctus, tēctum; sometimes with an active sense, as in pōtus, prānsus; and found in a few words not recognized as participles, as pūtus (cf. pūrus), altus (alō).
   2. t- in abstracts and rarely in nouns of agency, as messis, vestis, pars, mēns. But in many the i is lost.
   3. tu- in abstracts (including supines), sometimes becoming concretes, as āctus, lūctus.
   4. no- (m., n.), nā- (r.), forming perfect participles in other languages, and in Latin making adjectives of like participial meaning, which often become nouns, as māgnus, plānus, rēgnum.
   5. ni-, in nouns of agency and adjectives, as ignis, sēgnis.
   6. nu-, rare, as in manus, pinus, cornu.
   7. mo- (mā-), with various meanings, as in animus, almus, firmus, forma.
   8. ve- (vā-) (commonly no-, uā-), with an active or passive meaning, as in equus (equus), arvum, oōspīcūs, exiguus, vacūus (vacuus).
   9. ro- (rā-), as in ager (stem ag-re-), integer (cf. intāctus), sacer, plēri-que (cf. plēnus, plētus).
   10. lo- (lā-), as in caelum (for *caed-lum), chisel, exemplum, sella (for *sēdla).
   11. yo- (yā-), forming gerundives in other languages, and in Latin making adjectives and abstracts, including many of the first and fifth declensions, as eximius, audācia, Florentia, pereōdēs.
   12. ko- (kā-), sometimes primary, as in paucī (cf. pāu̯kēs), locus (for stēculus).
   In many cases the vowel of this termination is lost, leaving a consonant stem: as, apex, cortex, loquāx.
13. en- (en-, ēn-, ēn-), in nouns of agency and abstracts: as, aspergō, compāgō (-īnis), gerō (-ōnis).
14. men-, expressing means, often passing into the action itself: as, agmen, flūmen, fulmen.
15. ter- (tor-, tēr-, tōr-, tr-), forming nouns of agency: as, pater (i.e. protector), frāter (i.e. supportor), ōrātor.
16. tro-, forming nouns of means: as, claustrum (claustrum), mūlctrum (mulcetrum).
17. es- (os-), forming names of actions, passing into concretions: as, genus (generis), tempus (see § 15. 4). The infinitive in -ere (as in reg-ere) is a locative of this stem (-er-e for ī-es-i).
18. nt- (ont-, ent-), forming present active participles: as, légēns, with some adjectives from roots unknown: as, frequēns, recēns.

The above, with some suffixes given below, belong to the Indo-European parent speech, and most of them were not felt as living formations in the Latin.

**Significant Endings**

235. Both primary and secondary suffixes, especially in the form of compound suffixes, were used in Latin with more or less consciousness of their meaning. They may therefore be called Significant Endings.

They form: (1) Nouns of Agency; (2) Abstract Nouns (including Names of Actions); (3) Adjectives (active or passive).

**Note.**—There is really no difference in etymology between an adjective and a noun, except that some formations are habitually used as adjectives and others as nouns (§ 20. b. n. 2).

**DERIVATION OF NOUNS**

**Nouns of Agency**

236. Nouns of Agency properly denote the *agent* or *doer* of an action. But they include many words in which the idea of agency has entirely faded out, and also many words used as adjectives.

**α.** Nouns denoting the *agent* or *doer of an action* are formed from roots or verb-stems by means of the suffixes —

- **tor** (-tor), m.; **trīx**, f.
  - can-tor, can-trīx, singer;
  - vic-tor, vic-trīx, conqueror (victorious);
  - tōn-sor (for †tond-tor), tōns-trīx (for †tōnd-trīx), hair-cutter;
  - peti-tor, candidate;

- **ere** (root **can**), to sing.
  - can-ere (root **can**), to sing.
  - vinc-ere (**vic**), to conquer.

- **ēre** (root **tond** as root), to shear.
  - tond-ēre (tōnd as root), to shear.
  - pet-ēre (**PET**; peti- as stem), to seek.
By analogy -tor is sometimes added to noun-stems, but these may be stems of lost verbs: as, viā-tor, traveller, from via, way (but cf. the verb inviō).

Note 1.—The termination -tor (-sor) has the same phonetic change as the supine ending -tum (-sum), and is added to the same form of root or verb-stem as that ending. The stem-ending is tōr- (§ 234, II. 15), which is shortened in the nominative.

Note 2.—The feminine form is always -trix. Masculines in -sor lack the feminine, except expulsor (expultrix) and tōnsor (tōnstrix).

b. t-, m. or r., added to verb-stems makes nouns in -es (-ēs, -ēs; stem it-, et-) descriptive of a character:——

praestes, -stēs (verb-stem from root sta, stāre, stand), guardian.
teges, -etēs (verb-stem tegē-, cf. tegō, cover), a coverer, a mat.
pedes, -ētis (pēs, pedēs, foot, and i, root of ire, go), foot-soldier.

c. ꞏ (genitive -ēnis, stem ōn-), m., added to verb-stems1 indicates a person employed in some specific art or trade:——

com-bibō (bib as root in bibō, bibere, drink), a pot-companion.
gerō, -ēnis (aēs in gerō, gerere, carry), a carrier.

Note.—This termination is also used to form many nouns descriptive of personal characteristics (cf. § 255).

Names of Actions and Abstract Nouns

237. Names of Actions are confused, through their terminations, with real abstract nouns (names of qualities), and with concrete nouns denoting means and instrument.

They are also used to express the concrete result of an action (as often in English).

1 Thus legiō is literally the act of collecting, but comes to mean legion (the body of soldiers collected); cf. levy in English.

238. Abstract Nouns and Names of Actions are formed from roots and verb-stems by means of the endings——

a. Added to roots or forms conceived as roots——

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>-or</th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>-ēs, F.</th>
<th>-us, N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>-ōris</td>
<td></td>
<td>-ēs</td>
<td>-eris or -oris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stem</td>
<td>ōr- (earlier ōs-)</td>
<td>i-</td>
<td></td>
<td>er- (earlier e/ōs-)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

tim-or, fear;  
am-or, love;  
sēd-ēs, seat;  
caeō-ēs, slaughter;  
genus, birth, race;  
timēre, to fear.  
amāre, to love.  
sedēre, to sit.  
caedere, to kill.  
gen, to be born (root of ignō, bear).

1 So conceived, but perhaps this termination was originally added to noun-stems.
§§ 238, 239] NAMES OF ACTIONS AND ABSTRACT NOUNS

Note.—Many nouns of this class are formed by analogy from imaginary roots: as facinus from a supposed root FACIN.

b. Apparently added to roots or verb-stems—

| Nom. | -tīō, f. | -tīō (-siō), f. | tūrā (-sūrā), f. | -tus, m. |
| Gen. | -tōnis | -tōnis (-siōnis) | tūrāe (-sūrāe) | -tūs (-sūs) |
| Stem | tōn- | -tōn- (siōn-) | tūrā- (sūrā-) | tu- (su-) |

legiō, a collecting (levy), a legion; legerē, to collect.
regiō, a direction, a region; regere, to direct.
vocātiō, a calling; vocāre, to call.
mōli-tiō, a toiling; mōlīri, to toil.
scip-tūrā, a writing; scribere, to write.
sēn-sus (for tēnt-tus), feeling; sentire, to feel.

Note 1. — -tiō, -tūrā, -tus are added to roots or verb-stems precisely as -tor, with the same phonetic change (cf. § 236. a. n. 1). Hence they are conveniently associated with the supine stem (see § 178). They sometimes form nouns when there is no corresponding verb in use: as, senātūs, senate (cf. senex); mentiō, mention (cf. mēns); fētūra, offspring (cf. fētus); litterātūra, literature (cf. litterae); consūlātus, consulship (cf. cōnsul).

Note 2. — Of these endings, -tus was originally primary (cf. § 234. II. 3.); -tō is a compound formed by adding on to a stem ending in a vowel (originally i): as, dīciō (cf. dīcere and dicīt); -tīō is a compound formed by adding on to stems in ti-: as, gradātiō (cf. gradātum); -tūrā is formed by adding -rā, feminine of -rās, to stems in tu-: as, nātūra from nātus; statūrā from status (cf. figūra, of like meaning, from a simple u-stem, figō-; and matūrā, Mātūtā).

239. Nouns denoting acts, or means and results of acts, are formed from roots or verb-stems by the use of the suffixes—


ag-men, line of march, band; ag, root of agere, to lead.
regi-men, rule; regi-men-tum, rule; regi- (rege-), stem of regere, to direct.
cert-men, contest, battle; certā-, stem of certāre, to contend.

So columna, pillar; mō-men, movement; nō-men, name; flū-men, stream.
testi-mōnium, testimony; testāri, to witness.
queri-mōnia, complaint; queri, to complain.

-mōnium and -mōnia are also used as secondary, forming nouns from other nouns and from adjectives: as, sānti-mōnia, sanctity (sāntus, holy); mātri-mōnium, marriage (māter, mother).

Note. — Of these endings, -men is primary (cf. § 234. II. 14); -mentum is a compound of men- and to- and appears for the most part later in the language than -men: as, mōmen, movement (Lacr.); mōmentum (later). So elementum is a development from l-m-n- or l-m-n’s (letters of the alphabet), changed to elementa along with other nouns in -men. -mōnium and -mōnia were originally compound secondary suffixes formed from mōn- (a by-form of men-), which was early associated with mō-.
(stem almo-), *fostering*; Almōn, a river near Rome; alimōnia, *support*. But the last was formed directly from alō when -mōnia had become established as a supposed primary suffix.

240. Nouns denoting *means* or *instrument* are formed from roots and verb-stems (rarely from noun-stems) by means of the neuter — suffixes — 

- *bü-ulum*, *-culum*, *-brum*, *-crum*, *-trum*  
  
  *pā-ulum*, *fodder*;  
  *sta-ulum*, *stall*;  
  *vehiculum*, *wagon*;  
  *candelā-brum*, *candlestick*;  
  *sepulcrum*, *tomb*;  
  *claus-trum* († *claud-trum*), *bar*;  
  *arā-trum*, *plough*;  
  
  *pāscere*, *to feed*.  
  *stāre*, *to stand*.  
  *rehere*, *to carry*.  
  *candelā*, *candle* (a secondary formation).  
  *sepelire*, *to bury*.  
  *claudere*, *to shut*.  
  *arāre*, *to plough*.  

*Note.* — *trum* (stem tro-) was an old formation from *tor-* (§ 234. II. 15), with the stem suffix *-ōr*, and *-clum* (stem *clo-* for *tlo-*) appears to be related; *-clum* is the same as *-clum*; *-bü-ulum* contains *lo*— (§ 234. II. 9, 10) and *-brum* is closely related.

α. A few masculines and feminines of the same formation occur as nouns and adjectives: —

- *fā-bula*, *tale*;  
  *fāri*, *to speak*.  
  *ridere*, *to laugh*.  
  *facere*, *to make*.  
  *latēre*, *to hide*.  
  *terere*, *to bore*.  
  *mulgēre*, *to milk*.  

241. Abstract Nouns, mostly from adjective-stems, rarely from noun-stems, are formed by means of the secondary feminine suffixes —

- *-ia* (*-iēs*), *-tia* (*-tiēs*), *-tās*, *-tūs*, *-tūdō*  
  
  *audāc-ia*, *boldness*;  
  *audāx*, *bold*.  
  *pauper-īēs*, *poverty*;  
  *pauper*, *poor*.  
  *tristī-tia*, *sadness*;  
  *tristis*, *sād*.  
  *sēgnit-īēs*, *laziness*;  
  *sēgnis*, *lazy*.  
  *boni-tās*, *goodness*;  
  *bonus*, *good*.  
  *senec-tūs*, *age*;  
  *senex*, *old*.  
  *māgni-tūdō*, *greatness*;  
  *māgnus*, *great*.  

1. In stems ending in *-ō* or *-ā* the stem-vowel is lost before *-ia* (as *superb-ia*) and appears as *i* before *-tās*, *-tūs*, *-tia* (as in *boni-tās*, above).

2. Consonant stems often insert *i* before *-tās*: as, *loquāx* (stem *loquāc-*), *loquāci-tās*; but *honestās*, *māies-tās* (as if from old adjectives in *-ēs*), *über-tās*, *volup-tās*. *ō* after *i* is changed to *oe*: as, *pius* (*stem pīo-*), *pie-tās*; *socius*, *socie-tās*.
a. In like manner -dō and -gō (f.) form abstract nouns, but are associated with verbs and apparently added to verb-stems:—

cupī-dō, desire, from cupere, to desire (as if from stem cupī-).
dulcē-dō, sweetness (cf. dulcis, sweet); as if from a stem dulcē-, cf. dulcē-scō.
lumbā-gō, lumago (cf. lumbus, loot), as if from lumbō, -āre.

Note. — Of these, -ia is inherited as secondary (cf. § 234. II. 11). -tia is formed by adding -ia to stems with t-suffix: as, militia, from mile (stem milit-); molestia from molestus; clēmentia from clēmens; whence by analogy, malitia, avāri-tia. -tās is inherited, but its component parts, tā- + ti-, are found as suffixes in the same sense: as, senecta from senex; sēmen-tis from sēmen. -tūs is tū- + ti-, cf. servitū-dō. -dō and -gō appear only with long vowels, as from verb-stems, by a false analogy; but -dō is dō- + ōn-: as, cupidus, cupidō; gravōdō, gravēdō (cf. gravē-scō); albidus, albēdō (cf. albēscō); formidōs, hot, formidō (cf. formidōsus), (hot flash?) fear; -gō is possibly co- + ōn-: cf. vorāx, vorāgō, but cf. Cethēgus. -tūs is compounded of -dō with tu-stems, which acquire a long vowel from association with verb-stems in u- (cf. volūmen, from volvō): as, cōnsūtū-dō, valētū-dō, habitū-dō, sollicitū-dō; whence servitūdō (cf. servitūs, -tūtis).

b. Neuter Abstracts, which easily pass into concretes denoting offices and groups, are formed from noun-stems and perhaps from verb-stems by means of the suffixes—

-ium, -itium

hospit-ium, hospitality, an inn;¹ hospes (gen. hospit-is), a guest.
collēg-ium, colleagueship, a college; collēga, a colleague.
auspic-ium, soothsaying, an omen; auspex (gen. auspex-is), a soothsayer.
gaud-ium, joy; gaudēre, to rejoice.
effug-ium, escape; effugere, to escape.
benefic-ium, a kindness; benefacere, to benefit; cf. beneficus.
désider-ium, longing; désiderāre, to miss, from 'dés-sidēs, out of place, of missing soldiers.
ad verbum, [added] to a verb.
interlūd-ium, time of new moon; inter lūnas, between moons.
régifug-ium, flight of the kings; régis fuga, flight of a king.
servit-ium, slavery, the slave class; servus, a slave.

Vowel stems lose their vowel before -ium: as, collēg-ium, from collēga.

Note. — -ium is the neuter of the adjective suffix -ius. It is an inherited primary suffix, but is used with great freedom as secondary. -tium is formed like -tia, by adding -ium to stems with t: as, exit-ium, equit-ium (cf. exitās, equitās); so, by analogy, calvītium, servitium (from calvus, servus).

c. Less commonly, abstract nouns (which usually become concrete) are formed from noun-stems (confused with verb-stems) by means of the suffixes—

¹ The abstract meaning is put first.
-nia, f.; -nium, -lium, -cinium, n.

pecū-nia, money (chattels);
contici-nium, the hush of night;
auxi-lium, help;
lātrē-cinium, robbery;

pecū, cattle.
conticēscere, to become still.
augēre, to increase.
lātrē, robber (cf. lātrēcinor, rob, implying an adjective †lātrēcinus).

For Diminutives and Patronymics, see §§ 243, 244.

**DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES**

242. Derivative Adjectives, which often become nouns, are either *Nominal* (from nouns or adjectives) or *Verbal* (as from roots or verb-stems).

**Nominal Adjectives**

243. Diminutive Adjectives are usually confined to one gender, that of the primitive, and are used as *Diminutive Nouns*. They are formed by means of the suffixes —

-ulus (-a, -um), -olus (after a vowel), -culus, -ellus, -illus

riv-ulus, a streamlet;
gladi-olus, a small sword;
filii-ulus, a little son;
filii-ola, a little daughter;
ätri-olum, a little hall;
homun-culus, a dwarf;
auri-cula, a little ear;
münus-culum, a little gift;
cōdic-illī, writing-tablets;
mis-ellus, rather wretched;
lib-ellus, a little book;
aure-olus (-a, -um), golden;
parv-olus (later parv-ulus), very small;
māius-culums, somewhat larger;

rivus, a brook.
gladius, a sword.
filius, a son.
filia, a daughter.
ätrium, a hall.
homō, a man.
auris, an ear.
mūnus, n., a gift.
cōdex, a block.
miser, wretched.
līber, a book.
aureus (-a, -um), golden.
parvus (-a, -um), little.
māior (old máios), greater.

**Note 1.** — These diminutive endings are all formed by adding -lus to various stems. The formation is the same as that of -ulus in § 231. But these words became settled as diminutives, and retained their connection with nouns. So in English the diminutives whitish, reddish, are of the same formation as bookish and swappish. -ulus comes from -lus added to adjectives in -cus formed from stems in n- and s-: as, iuven-cus, Aurunc-cus (cf. Aurunculétas), prīs-cus, whence the cu becomes a part of the termination, and the whole ending (-ulus) is used elsewhere, but mostly with n- and s-stems, in accordance with its origin.

**Note 2.** — Diminutives are often used to express affection, pity, or contempt: as, duliciolae, little pet; mullicula, a poor (weak) woman; Graeculus, a miserable Greek.
a. -cīō, added to stems in n., has the same diminutive force, but is used with masculines only: as, homun-cīō, a dwarf (from homō, a man).

244. Patronymics, indicating descent or relationship, are formed by adding to proper names the suffixes —

-ādēs, -īdēs, -īdēs, -eus, m.; -ās, -īs, -ēis, f.

These words, originally Greek adjectives, have almost all become nouns in Latin: —

Atlās: Atlanti-ādēs, Mercury; Atlanti-īdēs (Gr. plur.), the Pleiads.
Scipīō: Scipi-ādēs, son of Scipio.
Tyndareus: Tyndar-īdēs, Castor or Pollux, son of Tyndarus; Tyndar-īs, Helen, daughter of Tyndarus.
Anchisēs: Anchisi-ādēs, Æneas, son of Anchises.
Thēseus: Thēs-īdēs, son of Theseus.
Tydeus: Tyd-īdēs, Diomedes, son of Tydeus.
Oileus: Æiax Oil-eus, son of Oilus.
Cisseus: Cissē-īs, Hecuba, daughter of Cisseus.
Thaumās: Thaumant-īās, Iris, daughter of Thaumas.
Hesperus: Hesper-īdēs (from Hesper-is, -īdis), plur., the daughters of Hesperus, the Hesperides.

245. Adjectives meaning full of, prone to, are formed from noun-stems with the suffixes —

-ōsus, -lēns, -lentus

fluctu-ōsus, billowy;
form-ōsus, beautiful;
perīcul-ōsus, dangerous;
pesti-lēns, pesti-lentus, pestilent;
vīno-lentus, vīn-ōsus, given to drink;

fluctus, a bellow.
forma, beauty.
periculum, danger.
pestis, pest.
vīnum, wine.

246. Adjectives meaning provided with are formed from nouns by means of the regular participial endings —

-tus, -ātus, -ītus, -ūtus

fūnes-tus, deadly;
hones-tus, honorable;
faux-tus (for faves-tus), favorable;
barb-ātus, bearded;
turr-ītus, turreted;
corn-ūtus, horned;

fūnus (st. fūner-, older fūn-s-), death.
honor, honor.
favor, favor.
barba, a beard.
turris, a tower.
cornū, a horn.

Note. —-ātus, -ītus, -ūtus, imply reference to an imaginary verb-stem; -tus is added directly to nouns without any such reference.
247. Adjectives of various meanings, but signifying in general made of or belonging to, are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes —

-eus, -ius, -aceus, -icius, -aneus (-neus), -icus

aur-eus, golden;  
apr-ius, paternal;  
uxor-ius, uxorious;  
ros-aceus, of roses;  
later-icius, of brick;  
presvent-aneus, operating instantly;  
extr-aneus, external;  
subterr-aneus, subterranean;  
salig-neus, of willow;  
vola-ticus, winged (volatus, a flight);  
domes-ticus, of the house, domestic;  
silva-ticus, sylvan;  

aurum, gold.  
pater, a father.  
uxor, a wife.  
rosa, a rose.  
later, a brick.  
presens, present.  
extrâ, without.  
sub terrâ, underground.  
salix, willow.  
volaere, to fly.  
domus, a house.  
silva, a wood.

Note. — -ius is originally primitive (§ 234. II. 11); -eus corresponds to Greek -eós, -eos, and has lost a y-sound (cf. yco, § 234. II. 11); -icius and -aceus are formed by adding -i- to stems in -c- (á-c- (suffix ko-, § 234. II. 12); -aneus is no- + -eus (§ 234, II. 4); -aneus is formed by adding -aneus to á-stems; -icus is a formation with -cus (cf. hosti-cus with silvá-ticus), and has been affected by the analogy of participial stems in to- (nominative -tus).

248. Adjectives denoting pertaining to are formed from noun-stems with the suffixes —

-ális, -ários, -élis, -ílis, -úlis

nátur-ális, natural;  
popul-ários, fellow-countryman;  
patrú-élis, cousin;  
host-ílis, hostile;  
cur-úlis, curule;  

nâtûra, nature.  
populus, a people.  
patrus, uncle.  
hostis, an enemy.  
currus, a chariot.

Note. — The suffixes arise from adding -ís (stem hi-) to various vowel stems. The long vowels are due partly to confusion between stem and suffix (cf. vitá-lis, from vitâ-, with rég-lis), partly to confusion with verb-stems: cf. Aprilis (aperire), edúlis (edere), with senílis (senex). -ríus is an inherited suffix, but in most of these formations -ários arises by differentiation for -ális in words containing an l (as mult-ários).

249. Adjectives with the sense of belonging to are formed by means of the suffixes —

-ánus, -énus, -íus; -ás, -énis; -eus, -acus (acus), -icus; -eus, -ióus, -icius

1. So from common nouns: —

mont-ánus, of the mountains;  
veter-ánus, veteran;  
antelúc-ánus, before daylight;  
móns (stem monti-), mountain.  
vetus (stem veter-), old.  
ante lúcum, before light.
NOMINAL ADJECTIVES

249. 

- **terr-ēnus**, earthly;
- **ser-ēnus**, calm (of evening stillness);
- **coll-īnus**, of a hill;
- **div-īnus**, divine;
- **libert-īnus**, of the class of freedmen;
- **cūi-ās**, of what country?
- **infīm-ās**, of the lowest rank;
- **for-ēnīsus**, of a market-place, or the Forum;
- **cīvī-cūs**, civic, of a citizen;
- **fullō-icūs**, of a fuller;
- **mer-ācūs**, pure;
- **fēmin-eus**, of a woman, feminine;
- **lact-eus**, milky;
- **plēb-ēius**, of the commons, plebeian;
- **patr-icīcus**, patrician;

2. But especially from proper nouns to denote *belonging to* or *coming from*:

- **Rōm-ānus**, Roman;
- **Sull-āni**, Sulla's veterans;
- **Cyzić-ēni**, Cyzicenes, people of Cyzicus;
- **Ligur-īnus**, of Liguria;
- **Arpīn-ās**, of Arpium;
- **Sicili-ēnīs**, Sicilian;
- **Tīl-acūs**, Trojan (a Greek form);
- **Platōn-icūs**, Platonic;
- **Aquil-ēiui**, a Roman name;
- **Aquil-ēia**, a town in Italy;

α. Many derivative adjectives with these endings have by usage become nouns:

- **Silv-ānus, m.**, a god of the woods;
- **membr-āna, r.**, skin;
- **Aemili-ānus, m.**, name of Scipio Africanus;
- **lani-ēna, r.**, a butcher's stall;
- **Aefid-ēnus, m.**, a Roman name;
- **inqui-īnus, m.**, a lodger;
- **Caeć-īna**, used as m., a Roman name;
- **ru-īna, r.**, a fall;
- **doctr-īnā, r.**, learning;

**Note.** — Of these terminations, -ānus, -ēnus, -īnus are compounded from -nus added to a stem-vowel: as, arca, arcānus; collis, collīnus. The long vowels come from a confusion with verb-stems (as in plē-nus, finī-tus, tribū-tus), and from the noun-stem in ā: as, arcānus. A few nouns occur of similar formation, as if from verb-stems in ē- and ā-: as, colōnus (colō, cf. incīla), patrōnus (cf. patrō, -āre), tribūnus (cf. tribūō, tribus), Portūnus (cf. portus), Vacūna (cf. vacō, vacuus).

250. Other adjectives meaning in a general way *belonging to* (especially of places and times) are formed with the suffixes —
-ter (-tria), -ester (-estria), -timus, -nus, -ernus, -urnus, -ternus (-turnus)

palüs-ter, of the marshes;  palüs, a marsh.
pedes-ter, of the foot-soldiers;
sex mēnēs, six months.
sēmēs-tris, lasting six months;
silva, a wood.
silv-ester, silv-estria, woody;
finis, an end.
fini-timus, neighboring, on the borders;
māri-timus, of the sea;
vēr-nus, vernal;
mare, sea.
vēr, spring.
hodi-ernus, of to-day;
dēs, day.
hodiē, to-day.
diū, long (in time).
diū-urnus, daily;
heri (old hēsē), yesterday.
hēs, day.
diū-ternus, lasting;
diū, long (in time).

Note.—Of these, -ester is formed by adding tri- (cf. tro-, § 234. II. 10) to stems in t- or d-. Thus pedest-ri- becomes pedestri-, and others follow the analogy. -nus is an inherited suffix (§ 234. II. 4). -ernus and -urnus are formed by adding -ius to s-stems: as, diur-nus (for idius-nus), and hence, by analogy, hodiernus (hodiē). By an extension of the same principle were formed the suffixes -ternus and -turnus from words like paternus and nocturnus.

α. Adjectives meaning belonging to are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes —

-ārius, -tōrius (-sōrius)

ōrdin-ārius, regular;
ērdē, rank, order.
argent-ārius, of silver or money;
argentum, silver.
extr-ārius, stranger;
extrā, outside.
meri-tōrius, profitable;
meritus, earned.
dēvor-sōrius, of an inn (cf. § 254. 5);
dēvore, turned aside.

Note 1.—Here -ius (§ 234. II. 11) is added to shorter forms in -ārius and -or: as, pecūliārius (from pecūliāris), bellātorius (from bellātor).

Note 2.—These adjectives are often fixed as nouns (see § 254).

Verbal Adjectives

251. Adjectives expressing the action of the verb as a quality or tendency are formed from real or apparent verb-stems with the suffixes —

-āx, -idus, -ulus, -vus (-nus, -tvus, -tivus)

-āx denotes a faulty or aggressive tendency; -tivus is oftener passive.

pūga-āx, pugnacious;
pūgnāre, to fight.

aud-āx, bold;
andēre, to dare.

cup-idus, eager;
cupere, to desire.

tib-ulus, thirsty (as dry earth etc.);
tibere, to drink.

proter-vus, violent, wanton;
prōtere, to trample.
noc-ivus (noc-ivus), hurtful, injurious;
recid-ivus, restored;
cap-tius, captive; m., a prisoner of war;

Note. — Of these, -āx is a reduction of -ācus (stem-vowel ā + -cus), become independent and used with verb-stems. Similar forms in -ēx, -ōx, -ix, and -ūx are found or employed in derivatives: as, imbīx, m., a rain-tile (from imber); senex, old (from senīs); ōrōx, fierce (from ōrus); atōx, savage (from ātēr, black); celōx, v., a yacht (cf. cellō); felīx, happy, originally fertile (cf. fēlē, suck); fidūcia, x., confidence (as from fidēāx); cf. nōscīx (from victor). So manācūs, chewing (from māndō).

-īdus is no doubt denominative, as in herbādus, grassy (from herba, herb); tumīdus, swollen (cf. tumū-lus, hill; tumul-ius, uproot); callidus, tough, cunning (cf. callum, tough flesh); mācidus, slimy (cf. mūcus, slime); ōbīdus, wasting (cf. ōbēs, wasting disease). But later it was used to form adjectives directly from verb-stems.

-ius is the same suffix as in diminutives, but attached to verb-stems. Cf. aesīlus, rivalling (cf. imitor and imāgō); sódīlus, sitting by, attentive (cf. domi-sēda, home-staying, and sēdī, set, settle, hence calm); penīdūlus, hanging (cf. pondī, ablative, in weight; perpendīculum, a plummet; appendīx, an addition); strīgīlus, covering (cf. strīgēs); legīlus, a picker (cf. sacrī-legus, a picker up of things sacred).

-īvus seems originally primary (cf. § 234. II. 8), but -ivus and -ītus have become secondary and are used with nouns: as, aestīvus, of summer (from aestus, heat); tempestīvus, timely (from tempus); cf. domes-ticus (from domus).

252. Adjectives expressing passive qualities, but occasionally active, are formed by means of the suffixes —

-ilis, -bilis, -ius, -tilis (-silis)

frag-illis, frail;
nō-bilis, well known, famous;
exim-ius, choice, rare (cf. ē-greg-ius);
ag-illis, active;
hab-illis, handy;
al-tilis, faulted (see note);

frangere (frag), to break.
nōsere (ano), to know.
eximere, to take out, select.
agere, to drive.
habere, to hold.
alere, to nourish.

Note. — Of these, -ius is primary, but is also used as secondary (cf. § 241. b. n.). -ilis is both primary (as in agilis, fragilis) and secondary (as in similis, like, cf. ōmos, ōmōlos, English same); -bilis is in some way related to -bulum and -brum (§ 240. c.); in -tilis and -silis, -ilis is added to - (so-), stem of the perfect participle: as, fossīlis, dug up (from fossus, dug); volātīlīs, winged (from volātus, flight).

253. Verbal Adjectives that are Participial in meaning are formed with the suffixes —

-ndus, -bundus, -cundus

a. -ndus (the same as the gerundive ending) forms a few active or reflexive adjectives: —

secu-ndus, second (the following), favorable; sequī, to follow.
rotu-ndus, round (whirling) 1;

rotāre, to whirl.

1 Cf. volvēndus mēnsibus (Aen. i. 269), in the revolving months; cf. oruīndi ab Sabīnis (Liv. i. 17), sprung from the Sabines, where oruindī = ortī.
b. -bundus, -cundus, denote a continuance of the act or quality expressed by the verb:—

vita-bundus, avoiding;  
treme-bundus, trembling;  
mori-bundus, dying, at the point of death;  
fā-cundus, eloquent;  
fē-cundus, fruitful;  
irā-cundus, irascible;

tītāre, to shun.  
tremere, to tremble.  
mortī, to die.  
fāri, to speak.  
root rē, nourish.  
cf. irāscī, to be angry.

Note.—These must have been originally nominal: as in the series, rubus, red bush; rubidus (but no ārubicus), ruddy; Rubicōn, Red River (cf. Minūs, a river of Etruria; Minūs, a river of Lusitania); rubicundus (as in aerruncus, homun-culus). So turba, commotion; turbō, a top; turbidus, roily, etc. Cf. apexabō, longabō, gravēdō, dulcēdō.

c. Here belong also the participial suffixes -minus, -mnus (cf. Greek μενός), from which are formed a few nouns in which the participial force is still discernible:—

fe-mina, woman (the nourisher);  
alu-mnus, a foster-child, nursing;

root rē, nourish.  
acere, to nourish.

Nouns with Adjective Suffixes

254. Many fixed forms of the Nominal Adjective suffixes mentioned in the preceding sections, make Nouns more or less regularly used in particular senses:—

1. -ārius, person employed about anything:—
argentārius, m., silversmith, broker, from argentrum, silver.
Corinthiārius, m., worker in Corinthian bronze (sarcastic nickname of Augustus), from (aes) Corinthium, Corinthian bronze.
centōnārius, m., ragman, from centō, patchwork.

2. -āria, thing connected with something:—
argentāria, r., bank, from argentum, silver.
arēnāriae, r. plural, sandpits, from arēna, sand.
Asināria, r., name of a play, from asinus, ass.  

3. -ārium, place of a thing (with a few of more general meaning):—
aerārium, n., treasury, from aes, copper.
tepidārium, n., warm bath, from tepidus, warm.
sudārium, n., a towel, cf. sudō, -āre, sweet.
salārium, n., salt money, salary, from sal, salt.
calendārium, n., a note-book, from calendae, calends.

1 Cf. § 163. footnote 1.
2 Probably an adjective with fābula, play, understood.
4. -tòria (-sòria): —
vor-sòria, f., a tack (nautical), from versus, a turn.

5. -tórìum (-sórìum), place of action (with a few of more general meaning):
dèver-sórìum, n., an inn, as from dèvortō, turn aside.
audi-tórìum, n., a lecture-room, as from audiō, hear.
ten-tórìum, n., a tent, as from tendō, stretch.
tèc-tórìum, n., plaster, as from tegō, tèctus, cover.
por-tórìum, n., toll, cf. portō, carry, and portus, harbor.

6. -île, animal-stall:
bov-île, n., cattle-stall, from bōs, bòvis, ox, cow.
ov-île, n., sheepfold, from ovis, stem ovi, sheep.

7. -al for -âle, thing connected with the primitive:
capit-al, n., headdress, capital crime, from caput, head.
penetr-âle (especially in plural), n., inner apartment, cf. penetrō, enter.
Sàturn-âlia, n., plural (the regular form for names of festivals), feast of Sàturn, from Sàturnus.

8. -étum, n. (cf. -átus, -útus, see § 246. n.), -tum, place of a thing, especially with names of trees and plants to designate where these grow:
querc-étum, n., oak grove, from quercus, oak.
oliv-étum, n., olive grove, from oliva, an olive tree.
salic-tum, n., a willow thicket, from salix, a willow tree.
Argil-étum, n., *The Clay Pit*, from argilla, clay.

9. -cus (sometimes with inserted i, -icus), -icus, in any one of the genders, with various meanings:
villi-cus, m., a steward, villi-ca, f., a stewardess, from villa, farm-house.
fabr-ica, f., a workshop, from faber, workman.
am-icus, m., am-ica, f., friend, cf. amāre, to love.
bübui-cus, m., ox-tender, from bübui-lus, diminutive, cf. bōs, ox.
cant-icum, n., song, from cantus, act of singing.
rubr-ica, f., red paint, from ruber, red.

10. -eus, -ea, -eum, with various meanings:
alv-eus, m., a trough, from alvus, the belly.
capre-ea, f., a wild she-goat, from caper, he-goat.
flamm-eum, n., a bridal veil, from flamma, flame, from its color.

11. -ter (stem tri-), -aster, -ester:
eques-ter, m., knight, for telquet-ter.
sequ-ester, m., a stake-holder, from derivative of sequor, follow.
ole-aster, m., wild olive, from olea, an olive tree.
IRREGULAR DERIVATIVES

255. The suffix -ō (genitive -ōnis, stem ōn-), usually added to verb-stems (see § 236. c), is sometimes used with noun-stems to form nouns denoting possessed of. These were originally adjectives expressing quality or character, and hence often appear as proper names: —

epulae, a feast; epul-ō, a feaster.
nāsus, a nose; nās-ō, with a large nose (also as a proper name).
volus (in bene-volus), wishing; volōnēs (plural), volunteers.
frōns, forehead; front-ō, big-head (also as a proper name).
cūria, a curia; cūri-ō, head of a curia (also as a proper name).
restis, a rope; resti-ō, a rope-maker.

a. Rarely suffixes are added to compound stems imagined, but not used in their compound form: —

ad-verb-ium, adverb; ad, te, and verbum, verb, but without the intervening tacטבּוּס.
lātī-fund-ium, large estate; lātus, wide, fundus, estate, but without the intervening לָתִּית-פּוּנְדָּס.
su-ove-taer-ilia, a sacrifice of a swine, a sheep, and a bull; sūs, swine, ovis, sheep, taurus, bull, where the primitive would be impossible in Latin, though such formations are common in Sanskrit.

DERIVATION OF VERBS

256. Verbs may be classed as Primitive or Derivative.

1. Primitive Verbs are those inherited by the Latin from the parentspeech.
2. Derivative Verbs are those formed in the development of the Latin as a separate language.

257. Derivative Verbs are of two main classes: —
1. Denominative Verbs, formed from nouns or adjectives.
2. Verbs apparently derived from the stems of other verbs.

Denominative Verbs

258. Verbs were formed in Latin from almost every form of noun-stem and adjective-stem.

259. 1. Verbs of the First Conjugation are formed directly from ā-stems, regularly with a transitive meaning: as, fuga, flight; fugāre, put to flight.
2. Many verbs of the First Conjugation are formed from o-stems, changing the o- into ä-. These are more commonly transitive: ---

stimulō, -āre, to incite, from stimulus, a goad (stem stimulō-).
daquō, -āre, to make even, from aequus, even (stem aequo-).
dibernō, -āre, to pass even, from hibernus, of the winter (stem hiberno-).
ablō, -āre, to whiten, from albus, white (stem ablo-).
dpio, -āre, to expiate, from pius, pure (stem pio-).
novō, -āre, to renew, from novus, new (stem novo-).
ammo, -āre, to arm, from arma, arms (stem ammo-).
dannō, -āre, to injure, from damnum, injury (stem dannō-).

3. A few verbs, generally intransitive, are formed by analogy from consonant and i- or u-stems, adding ä to the stem: ---

vigilō, -āre, to watch, from vigil, awake.
exitulō, -āre, to be in exile, from exsil, an exile.
auspiciō, -āri, to take the auspices, from auspex (stem auspice-), augur.
pulverō, -āre, to turn (anything) to dust, from pulvis (stem pulvis- for pulvis-), dust.
aestuō, -āre, to surge, boil, from aestus (stem aestu-), tide, seething.
levō, -āre, to lighten, from levis (stem levi-), light.

260. A few verbs of the Second Conjugation (generally intransitive) are recognizable as formed from noun-stems; but most are inherited, or the primitive noun-stem is lost: ---

albeō, -āre, to be white, from albus (stem albe-), white.
cāneo, -āre, to be hoary, from cānus (stem cāne-), hoary.
clāreo, -āre, to shine, from clārus, bright.
claudeō, -āre, to be lame, from claudus, lame.
algēō, -āre, to be cold, cf. algidus. cold.

261. Some verbs of the Third Conjugation in -uō, -uere, are formed from noun-stems in u- and have lost a consonant i: ---

statuō (for *statu-yō), -ere, to set up, from status, position.
metuō, -ere, to fear, from metus, fear.
acuō, -ere, to sharpen, from acus, needle.
arguō, -ere, to clear up, from inherited stem *arguv-, bright (cf. ἀγρυφός).

Note. — Many verbs in u are inherited, being formed from roots in u: as, fluō, fluere, flou; so-lovō (for *lo-lovō, cf. λόω), solvere, dissolve. Some roots have a parasitic u: as, loquor, locitus, speak.

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1 The type of all or most of the denominative formations in §§ 259-262 was inherited, but the process went on in the development of Latin as a separate language.
262. Many i-verbs or verbs of the Fourth Conjugation are formed from i-stems:—

möilor, -i, to toil, from móiōs (-is), mass.
finiō, -ire, to bound, from finis, end.
sitio, -ire, to thirst, from sitis, thirst.
stabilio, -ire, to establish, from stabilis, stable.

a. Some arise by confusion from other stems treated as i-stems:—
bullio, -ire, to boil, from bulla (stem bulla-), bubble.
condio, -ire, to preserve, from condus (stem con-), storekeeper.
insiāniō, -ire, to rave, from insānus (stem insāno-), mad.
gestio, -ire, to show wild longing, from gestus (stem gestu-), gesture.

Note. — Some of this form are of doubtful origin: as, ordin, begin, cf. ordō and exōnium. The formation is closely akin to that of verbs in -iō of the third conjugation (p. 102).

b. Some are formed with -iō from consonant stems:—
cūstōdiō, -ire, to guard, from cūstōs (stem cūstōd-), guardian.
fūlguriō, -ire, to lighten, from fulgur, lightning.

Note. — Here probably belong the so-called désideratives in -uriō (see § 263. 4. n.).

Verbs from Other Verbs

263. The following four classes of verbs regularly derived from other verbs have special meanings connected with their terminations.

Note. — These classes are all really denotive in their origin, but the formations had become so associated with actual verbs that new derivatives were often formed directly from verbs without the intervention of a noun-stem.

1. Inceptives or Inchoatives add -scō 1 to the present stem of verbs. They denote the beginning of an action and are of the Third Conjugation. Of some there is no simple verb in existence:—

calē-scō, grow warm, from calēō, be warm.
labē-scō, begin to totter, from labēō, totter.
scī-scō, determine, from scīō, know.
con-cupī-scō, conceive a desire for, from cupīō, desire.
alē-scō, grow, from alō, feed.
So irā-scō, get angry; cf. irā-tus.
iuvenē-scō, grow young; cf. iuvenis, young man.
mītē-scō, grow mild; cf. mītis, mild.
vesperā-scīt, it is getting late; cf. vespere, evening.

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1 For -scō in primary formation, see § 176. b. 1.
Note. — Inceptors properly have only the present stem, but many use the perfect and supine systems of simple verbs: as, calēscō, grow warm, calai; ārdēscō, blaze forth, ārei; profectōscor, set out, prefectus.

2. Intensives or Iteratives are formed from the Supine stem and end in -tō or -tō (rarely -sō). They denote a forcible or repeated action, but this special sense often disappears. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in -itō (not -ātō).

iac-tō, hurl, from iaciō, throw.
dormi-tō, be sleepy, from dormiō, sleep.
vol-itō, fly, from volō, fly.
vend-i-tō, try to sell, from vendō, sell.
quas-sō, shatter, from quatiō, shake.

They are of the first conjugation, and are properly denominative.

a. Compound suffixes -titō, -sitō, are formed with a few verbs. These are probably derived from other Iteratives; thus, cantitō may come from cantō, iterative of canō, sing.

b. Another form of Intensives — sometimes called Meditatives, or verbs of practice — ends in -essō (rarely -issō). These denote a certain energy or eagerness of action rather than its repetition:

cap-essō, lay hold on, from capiō, take.
fac-essō, do (with energy), from faciō, do.
pet-essō, pet-issō, seek (eagerly), from petō, seek.

These are of the third conjugation, usually having the perfect and supine of the fourth:

arcessō, arcessēre, arcessīvī, arcessītum, summon.
lacessō, lacessēre, lacessīvī, lacessītum, provoke.

Note. — The verbs in -essō, -issō, show the same formation as levāssō, impetrāssere, iūdicāssit, etc. (§ 183. 5), but its origin is not fully explained.

3. Diminutives end in -illō, and denote a feeble or petty action:

cav-illōr, jest, cf. cavilla, raillery.
cant-illō, chirp or warble, from cantō, sing.

Note. — Diminutives are formed from verb-stems derived from real or supposed diminutive nouns.

4. Desideratives end in -turiō (-suriō), and express longing or wishing. They are of the fourth conjugation, and only two are in common use:

par-turiō, be in taber, from pariō, bring forth.
ē-suriō (for ēd-turiō), be hungry, from edō, eat.

Others are used by the dramatists.

Note. — Desideratives are probably derived from some noun of agency: as, empturīō, wish to buy, from emptor, buyer. Visū, go to see, is an inherited desiderative of a different formation.
COMPOUND WORDS

264. A Compound Word is one whose stem is made up of two or more simple stems.

a. A final stem-vowel of the first member of the compound usually disappears before a vowel, and usually takes the form of i before a consonant. Only the second member receives inflection.¹

b. Only noun-stems can be thus compounded. A preposition, however, often becomes attached to a verb.

265. New stems are formed by Composition in three ways: —

1. The second part is simply added to the first: —

   su-ove-taurilia (süs, ovis, taurus), the sacrifice of a swine, a sheep, and a bull (cf. § 265. a).

   septen-decim (septem, decem), seventeen.

2. The first part modifies the second as an adjective or adverb (Determinative Compounds): —

   lātī-fundium (lātus, fundus), a large landed estate.

   omni-potēns (omnis, potēns), omnipotent.

3. The first part has the force of a case, and the second a verbal force (Objective Compounds): —

   agri-cola (ager, field, ći cola akin to colō, cultivate), a farmer.

   armi-ger (arma, arms, ći ger akin to gerō, carry), armor-bearer.

   corni-ceu (cornū, horn, ći ceu akin to canō, sing), horn-blower.

   carpī-fex (carē, flesh, ći fex akin to faciō, make), executioner.

a. Compounds of the above kinds, in which the last word is a noun, may become adjectives, meaning possessed of the quality denoted: —

   ali-pēs (āla, wing, pēs, foot), wing-footed.

   māga-animus (māgnus, great, animus, soul), great-souled.

   an-cepīs (āmb-, at both ends, caput, head), double.

Note. — Many compounds of the above classes appear only in the form of some further derivative, the proper compound not being found in Latin.

¹ The second part generally has its usual inflection; but, as this kind of composition is in fact older than inflection, the compounded stem sometimes has an inflection of its own (as, cornicen, -cinis; lūcifer, -feri; īdēx, -dicis), from stems not occurring in Latin. Especially do compound adjectives in Latin take the form of i-stems: as, animus, examinis; nōrma, abnormis (see § 73). In composition, stems regularly have their uninfluected form: as, igni-spicium, divining by fire. But in o- and ā-stems the final vowel of the stem appears as i-, as in āli-pēs (from āla, stem ālā-); and i- is so common a termination of compounded stems, that it is often added to stems which do not properly have it: as, flōri-comus, flower-crowned (from flōs, för-is, and coma, hair).
Syntactic Compounds

266. In many apparent compounds, complete words — not stems — have grown together in speech. These are not strictly compounds in the etymological sense. They are called Syntactic Compounds. Examples are:—

a. Compounds of faciō, factō, with an actual or formerly existing noun-stem confounded with a verbal stem in ē. These are causative in force:
cōnsuē-faciō, habituate (cf. cōnsuē-scō, become accustomed).
cāle-faciō, cāle-factō, to heat (cf. cāle-scō, grow warm).

b. An adverb or noun combined with a verb:—
bene-dicō (bene, well, dicō, speak), to bless.
satis-faciō (satis, enough, faciō, dō), to do enough (for).

c. Many apparent compounds of stems:—
fiēn-inbeō (fiē, surety, inbeō, command), to give surety.
mān-suētus (manui, to the hand, suētus, accustomed), tace.
Mārci-por (Mārci puér), slave of Marcus.
Iuppiter (Iūp, old vocative, and pater), father Jove.
anim-advertō (animum advertō), attend to, punish.

d. A few phrases forced into the ordinary inflections of nouns:—
prō-cōnsul, proconsul (for prō cōnsule, instead of a consul).
trium-vir, triumvir (singular from trium vulūrum).
septem-triās, the Bear, a constellation (supposed singular of septem triōnēs, the Seven Plough-Oxen).

In all these cases it is to be observed that words, not stems, are united.

267. Many syntactic compounds are formed by prefixing a Particle to some other part of speech.

a. Prepositions are often prefixed to Verbs. In these compounds the prepositions retain their original adverbial sense:—
ā, ab, away: ā-mittere, to send away.
ad, to, towards: af-ferre (ad-ferō), to bring.
ante, before: antē-ferre, to prefer; antē-cellere, to excel.
circum, around: circum-mūnire, to fortify completely.
com-, con- (cum), together or forcibly: cōn-ferre, to bring together; collocāre, to set firm.
dē, down, utterly: dē-spicere, despise; dē-struere, destroy.
dē, ex, out: ef-ferre (ec-ferō), to carry forth, uplift.
in (with verbs), in, on, against: in-ferre, to bear against.
inter, between, to pieces: inter-rumpere, to interrupt.
ob, towards, to meet: of-ferre, to offer; ob-venire, to meet.
sub, under, upon from under: sub-struere, to build beneath; sub-dūcere, to lead up.
super, upon, over and above: super-fiere, to overflow.
NOTE 1.—In such compounds, however, the prepositions sometimes have their ordinary force as prepositions, especially ad, in, circum, trans, and govern the case of a noun: as, transire flumen, to cross a river (see § 388. b).

NOTE 2.—Short a of the root is weakened to i before one consonant, to e before two: as, faciō, confaciō, confectus; iaciō, iiciō, iicius. But long a is retained: as, peractus.

b. Verbs are also compounded with the following inseparable particles, which do not appear as prepositions in Latin:—

amb- (am-, an-), around: ambire, to go about (cf. ambī, about).
dis-, dī-, asunder, apart: discedere, to depart (cf. dúo, two); dividere, to divide.
por-, forward: portendere, to hold forth, predict (cf. portō, forth).
red-, re-, back, again: redire, to return; recludere, to open (from claudō, shut); reficere, to repair (make again).
scī-, scī-, apart: scīscī, to separate; scīscītiō, a going apart, secession (scī, ire, to go).

c. Many Verbs are found compounded with a preposition, like the verbs to which they correspond:—

per-fuga, deserter; cf. per-fugīō.
trā-dux, vine-branch; cf. trā-dūcō (transductō).
ad-vena, stranger; cf. ad-veniō.
con-ix (con-iunx), spouse; cf. con-iungō.
in-dex, pointer out; cf. in-dicō.
prae-ses, guardian; cf. praesideō.
com-bibō, boon companion; cf. com-bibō, -ere.

d. An Adjective is sometimes modified by an adverbial prefix.

1. Of these, per- (less commonly praer-), very; sub-, somewhat; in-, not, are regular, and are very freely prefixed to adjectives:—

per-magnus, very large.
per-pauci, very few.
sub-rūsticus, rather clownish.
sub-fuscus, darkish.
prae-longus, very long.
in-nocuus, harmless.
in-imicus, unfriendly.
in-sānus, insane.
in-finitus, boundless.
im-pūrus, impure.

NOTE.—Per and sub, in these senses, are also prefixed to verbs: as, per-terro, terrify; subrideō, smile. In ignōscō, pardon, in- appears to be the negative prefix.

2. The negative in- sometimes appears in combination with an adjective that does not occur alone:—

in-ermis, unarmed (cf. arma, arms).
in-bellis, unwarlike (cf. bellum, war).
in-pānis, without punishment (cf. poena, punishment).
in-teger, untouched, whole (cf. tangō, to touch, root tag).
in-vitus, unwilling (probably from root seen in vi-s, thou wishes).
PART SECOND—SYNTAX

INTRODUCTORY NOTE

268. The study of formal grammar arose at a late period in the history of language, and dealt with language as a fully developed product. Accordingly the terms of Syntax correspond to the logical habits of thought and forms of expression that had grown up at such a period, and have a logical as well as a merely grammatical meaning. But a developed syntactical structure is not essential to the expression of thought. A form of words—like "ō puerum pulchrum! oh! beautiful boy”—expresses a thought and might even be called a sentence; though it does not logically declare anything, and does not, strictly speaking, make what is usually called a sentence at all.

At a very early period of spoken language, word-forms were no doubt significant in themselves, without inflections, and constituted the whole of language,—just as to a child the name of some familiar object will stand for all he can say about it. At a somewhat later stage, such uninflected words put side by side made a rudimentary form of proposition: as a child might say "fire bright; horse run." With this began the first form of logical distinction, that of Subject and Predicate; but as yet there was no distinction in form between noun and verb, and no fixed distinction in function. At a later stage forms were differentiated in function and—by various processes of composition which cannot be fully traced—Inflections were developed. These served to express person, tense, case, and other grammatical relations, and we have true Parts of Speech.

Not until language reached this last stage was there any fixed limit to the association of words, or any rule prescribing the manner in which they should be combined. But gradually, by usage, particular forms came to be limited to special functions (as nouns, verbs, adjectives), and fixed customs arose of combining words into what we now call Sentences. These customs are in part the result of general laws or modes of thought (logic), resulting from our habits of mind (General Grammar); and in part what may be called By-Laws, established by custom in a given language (Particular Grammar), and making what is called the Syntax of that language.

In the fully developed methods of expression to which we are almost exclusively accustomed, the unit of expression is the Sentence: that is, the completed statement, with its distinct Subject and Predicate. Originally sentences were simple. But two simple sentence-forms may be used together, without the grammatical subordination of either, to express a more complex form of thought than could be denoted by one alone. This is *parataxis* (arrangement side by side). Since, however, the two sentences, independent in form, were in fact used to express parts of a complex whole and were therefore mutually dependent, the sense of unity found expression in conjunctions, which denoted the grammatical subordination of the one to the other. This is *hypotaxis* (arrangement under, subordination). In this way, through various stages of development, which correspond to our habitual modes of thought, there were produced various forms of complex sentences. Thus, to express the complex idea *I beseech you to pardon me*, the two simple sentence-forms *quaeso* and *ignoscas* were used side by side, *quaeso* *ignoscas*; then the feeling of grammatical subordination found expression in a conjunction, *quaeso ut ignoscas*, forming a complex sentence. The results of these processes constitute the subject-matter of Syntax.

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THE SENTENCE

Kinds of Sentences

269. A Sentence is a form of words which contains a Statement, a Question, an Exclamation, or a Command.

a. A sentence in the form of a Statement is called a Declarative Sentence: as,—canis currit, the dog runs.

b. A sentence in the form of a Question is called an Interrogative Sentence: as,—canisne currit? does the dog run?

c. A sentence in the form of an Exclamation is called an Exclamatory Sentence: as,—quam celeriter currit canis! how fast the dog runs!

d. A sentence in the form of a Command, an Exhortation, or an Entreaty is called an Imperative Sentence: as,—i, curre per Alpis, go, run across the Alps; currat canis, let the dog run.

Subject and Predicate

270. Every sentence consists of a Subject and a Predicate.

The Subject of a sentence is the person or thing spoken of.

The Predicate is that which is said of the Subject.

Thus in canis currit, the dog runs, canis is the subject, and currit the predicate.

271. The Subject of a sentence is usually a Noun or Pronoun, or some word or group of words used as a Noun:—

equités ad Caesarem vēnērunt, the cavalry came to Cæsar.
hūmānum est errāre, to err is human.
quaeceitum nūm mōrs malum sit, the question is whether death is an evil.

a. But in Latin the subject is often implied in the termination of the verb:—

sedē-mus, we sit. curri-tis, you run. inqui-t, says he.

272. The Predicate of a sentence may be a Verb (as in canis currit, the dog runs), or it may consist of some form of sum and a Noun or Adjective which describes or defines the subject (as in Caesar cōnsul erat, Cæsar was consul).

Such a noun or adjective is called a Predicate Noun or Adjective, and the verb sum is called the Copula (i.e. the connective).

Thus in the example given, Cæsar is the subject, cōnsul the predicate noun, and erat the copula (see § 283).
Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

273. Verbs are either Transitive or Intransitive.

1. A Transitive Verb has or requires a direct object to complete its sense (see § 274): as, — frātem cecidit, he slew his brother.

2. An Intransitive Verb admits of no direct object to complete its sense:
   cadō, I fall (or am falling). sōl lūcit, the sun shines (or is shining).

Note 1. — Among transitive verbs Factitive Verbs are sometimes distinguished as a separate class. These state an act which produces the thing expressed by the word which completes their sense. Thus mēnsam fēcit, he made a table (which was not in existence before), is distinguished from mēnsam percussit, he struck a table (which already existed).

Note 2. — A transitive verb may often be used absolutely, i.e. without any object expressed: as, — ārat, he is ploughing, where the verb does not cease to be transitive because the object is left indefinite, as we see by adding, — quid, what? agrum suum, his land.

Note 3. — Transitive and Intransitive Verbs are often called Active and Neuter Verbs respectively.

Object

274. The person or thing immediately affected by the action of a verb is called the Direct Object.

A person or thing indirectly affected by the action of a verb is called the Indirect Object.

Only transitive verbs can have a Direct Object; but an Indirect Object may be used with both transitive and intransitive verbs (§§ 362, 366):

pater vocat filium (direct object), the father calls his son.
mihi (ind. obj.) agrum (dir. obj.) ostendit, he showed me a field.
mihi (ind. obj.) placet, it is pleasing to me.

Note. — The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is not a fixed distinction, for most transitive verbs may be used intransitively, and many verbs usually intransitive may take a direct object and so become transitive (§ 388, a).

a. With certain verbs, the Genitive, Dative, or Ablative is used where the English, from a difference in meaning, requires the direct object (Objective):

hominem videō, I see the man (Accusative).
hominī serviō, I serve the man (Dative, see § 367).
hominis miseror, I pity the man (Genitive, see § 354. a).
homine amicō utor, I treat the man as a friend (Ablative, see § 410).
b. Many verbs transitive in Latin are rendered into English by an intransitive verb with a preposition:

petit aprum, he aims at the boar.
laudem affectat, he strives after praise.
curat valétādinem, he takes care of his health.
meum cāsum dohārunt, they grieved at my misfortune.
ridet nostram āmentiam (Quinct. 55), he laughs at our stupidity.

275. When a transitive verb is changed from the Active to the Passive voice, the Direct Object becomes the Subject and is put in the Nominative case:

Active: pater filium vocat, the father calls his son.
Passive: filius à patre vocātur, the son is called by his father.
Active: lūnum et stellās vidēamus, we see the moon and the stars.
Passive: lūna et stellae videntur, the moon and stars are seen (appear).

Modification

276. A Subject or a Predicate may be modified by a single word, or by a group of words (a phrase or a clause).
The modifying word or group of words may itself be modified in the same way.

a. A single modifying word may be an adjective, an adverb, an appositive (§ 282), or the oblique case of a noun.

Thus in the sentence vir fortis patienter fert, a brave man endures patiently, the adjective fortis, brave, modifies the subject vir, man, and the adverb patienter, patiently, modifies the predicate fert, endures.

b. The modifying word is in some cases said to limit the word to which it belongs.

Thus in the sentence puēr patrem videō, I see the boy’s father, the genitive puēr limits patrem (by excluding any other father).

277. A Phrase is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an Adjective or an Adverb.

Thus in the sentence vir fuit summā nōbilitāte, he was a man of the highest nobility, the words summā nōbilitāte, of the highest nobility, are used for the adjective nōbilis, noble (or nōbilissimās, very noble), and are called an Adjective Phrase.

So in the sentence māgnā celeritāte vēnit, he came with great speed, the words māgnā celeritāte, with great speed, are used for the adverb celeriter, quickly (or celerīmē, very quickly), and are called an Adverbial Phrase.
Clauses and Sentences

278. Sentences are either Simple or Compound.

1. A sentence containing a single statement is called a Simple Sentence.

2. A sentence containing more than one statement is called a Compound Sentence, and each single statement in it is called a Clause.

a. If one statement is simply added to another, the clauses are said to be Coördinate. They are usually connected by a Coördinate Conjunction (§ 223. a); but this is sometimes omitted:—

divide et impera, divide and control. But,—
vēnī, vidi, vici, I came, I saw, I conquered.

b. If one statement modifies another in any way, the modifying clause is said to be Subordinate, and the clause modified is called the Main Clause.

This subordination is indicated by some connecting word, either a Subordinate Conjunction (§ 223. b) or a Relative:—

öderint dum metuant, let them hate so long as they fear.
servum misit quem sēcum habēbat, he sent the slave whom he had with him.

A sentence containing one or more subordinate clauses is sometimes called Complex.

Note.—A subordinate clause may itself be modified by other subordinate clauses.

279. Subordinate Clauses are of various kinds.

a. A clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb is called a Relative Clause:—

Mosa prófluit ex monte Vosegō, qui est in finibus Lingonum (B. G. iv. 10),
the Meuse rises in the Vosges mountains, which are on the borders of the Lingoes.

For Relative Pronouns (or Relative Adverbs) serving to connect independent sentences, see § 308. f.

b. A clause introduced by an Adverb of Time is called a Temporal Clause:—

cum tacent, clamant (Cat. i. 21), while they are silent, they cry aloud.
hominēs aegri morbō gravi, cum jactantur aestū febrīque, si aquam gelidam
biberint, primō relevāri videntur (id. i. 31), men suffering with a severe
sickness, when they are tossing with the heat of fever, if they drink cold
water, seem at first to be relieved.
c. A clause containing a Condition, introduced by si, if (or some equivalent expression), is called a Conditional Clause. A sentence containing a conditional clause is called a Conditional Sentence.

Thus, si aquam gelidam biberint, primō relevāri videntur (in b, above) is a Conditional Sentence, and si...biberint is a Conditional Clause.

d. A clause expressing the Purpose of an action is called a Final Clause:

edō ut vivam, I eat to live (that I may live).
misit légātōs qui dicerent, he sent ambassadors to say (who should say).

e. A clause expressing the Result of an action is called a Consecutive Clause:

tam longē aberam ut nēn vidērem, I was too far away to see (so far away that I did not see).

AGREEMENT

280. A word is said to agree with another when it is required by usage to be in the same Gender, Number, Case, or Person.

The following are the general forms of agreement, sometimes called the Four Concord: —

1. The agreement of the Noun in Apposition or as Predicate (§§ 281–284).
2. The agreement of the Adjective with its Noun (§ 286).
3. The agreement of the Relative with its Antecedent (§ 305).
4. The agreement of the Finite Verb with its Subject (§ 316).

a. A word sometimes takes the gender or number, not of the word with which it should regularly agree, but of some other word implied in that word.

This use is called Synesis, or construētiō ad sēnsum (construction according to sense).

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS

281. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case.

The descriptive noun may be either an Appositive (§ 282) or a Predicate noun (§ 283).

1 Observe that the classes defined in a–e are not mutually exclusive, but that a single clause may belong to several of them at once. Thus a relative clause is usually subordinate, and may be at the same time temporal or conditional; and subordinate clauses may be coordinate with each other.
Apposition

282. A noun used to describe another, and standing in the same part of the sentence with the noun described, is called an Apposition, and is said to be in apposition:—

externus timor, maximum concordiae vinculum, iungēbat animōs (Liv. ii. 39),

fear of the foreigner, the chief bond of harmony, united their hearts.

[Here the appositive belongs to the subject.]

quattuor hic primum ōmen equōs vidi (Aen. iii. 537), I saw here four horses,

the first omen. [Here both nouns are in the predicate.]

litterās Graecās senex didici (Cat. M. 26), I learned Greek when an old man.

[Here senex, though in apposition with the subject of didici, really states something further: viz., the time, condition, etc., of the act (Predicate Apposition).]

a. Words expressing parts may be in apposition with a word including the parts, or vice versa (Partitive Apposition):—

Nec P. Popilius neque Q. Metellus, clārissimi virī atque amplissimi, vim tribūniciam sustinēre poterunt (Cf. 95), neither Publius Popilius nor Quintus Metellus, [both of them] distinguished and honorable men, could withstand the power of the tribunes.

Gnaeus et Pāblius Scipōnēs, Cneius and Publius Scipio (the Scipios).

b. An Adjective may be used as an appositive:—

ea Sex. Rōscium impēm recēpit (Rosc. Am. 27), she received Sextus Roscius in his poverty (needy).

c. An appositive generally agrees with its noun in Gender and Number when it can:—

sequuntur nātūram, optimam ducem (Jael. 19), they follow nature, the best guide.

omnia doctrinārum inventricēs Athēnās (De Or. i. 13), Athens, discoverer of all learning.

NOTES. — But such agreement is often impossible: as,—ōlim truncus crām fīcūlνus, inutilē lignum (Hor. S. i. 8. 1), I once was a fig-tree trunk, a useless log.

d. A common noun in apposition with a Locative (§ 427) is put in the Ablative, with or without the preposition in:—

Antiochēs, celebri quondam urbe (Arch. 4), at Antioch, once a famous city.

Albae constitērunt, in urbe mānītā (Phil. iv. 6), they halted at Alba, a fortified town.

For a Genitive in apposition with a Possessive Pronoun or an Adjective, see § 302. e.

For the so-called Appositional Genitive, see § 343. d.

For the construction with nōmen est, see § 373. a.
Predicate Noun or Adjective

283. With sum and a few other intransitive or passive verbs, a noun or an adjective describing or defining the subject may stand in the predicate. This is called a Predicate Noun or Adjective.

The verb sum is especially common in this construction, and when so used is called the copula (i.e. connective).

Other verbs which take a predicate noun or adjective are the so-called copulative verbs signifying to become, to be made, to be named, to appear, and the like.

284. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after the copula sum or a copulative verb is in the same case as the Subject:—

pácis semper auctor fui (Lig. 28), I have always been an adviser of peace.
quae pertinácia quibusdam, eadem aliis constántia vidéri potest (Marc. 31),
what may seem obstinacy to some, may seem to others consistencynéius mortis sedéntis ultóres (Mil. 79), you sit as avengers of his death.
habeásur vir égregius Paulus (Cat. iv. 21), let Paulus be regarded as an
extraordinary man.
egó patrónus exstití (Resc. Am. 5), I have come forward as an advocate.
dícit nón omnís bonós esse béástos, he says that not all good men are happy.

a. A predicate noun referring to two or more singular nouns is in the plural:—
cónsuliés creantur Caesar et Servilius (B. C. iii. 1), Caesar and Servilius are elected consuls.

b. Sum in the sense of exist makes a complete predicate without a predicate noun or adjective. It is then called the substantive verb:—
sunt virí fortés, there are (exist) brave men. [Cf. vixére fortés ante Agamé
mona (Hor. Od. iv. 9. 25), brave men lived before Agamemnon.]

For Predicate Accusative and Predicate Ablative, see §§ 392, 415. x.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES

Attributive and Predicate Adjectives

285. Adjectives are either Attributive or Predicate.

1. An Attributive Adjective simply qualifies its noun without the intervention of a verb or participle, expressed or implied: as,
—bonus imperátor, a good commander; stellae lúcidae, bright stars;
verbum Graecum, a Greek word.
2. All other adjectives are called Predicate Adjectives: —

stellae lúcidae erant, the stars were bright.
sit Scipio cārōs (Cat. iv. 21), let Scipio be illustrious.
hominēs mitis reddītī (Inv. i. 2), has rendered men mild.
tria praedēs Cāpitōnī proprie trāduntur (Rosc. Am. 21), three farms are handed over to Cæpio as his own.
consilium cēpērunt plēnum sceleris (id. 28), they formed a plan full of villany.

Note.—A predicate adjective may be used with sum or a copulative verb (§ 283); it may have the construction of a predicate accusative after a verb of naming, calling, or the like (§ 393. n.); or it may be used in apposition like a noun (§ 282. b).

Rules of Agreement

286. Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case: —

vir fortis, a brave man.
illa mulier, that woman.
urbium māgnārum, of great cities.
cum ducentis militibus, with two hundred soldiers.
imperātor victus est, the general was beaten.
secūtae sunt tempestātibus, storms followed.

Note.—All rules for the agreement of adjectives apply also to adjective pronouns and to participles.

a. With two or more nouns the adjective is regularly plural, but often agrees with the nearest (especially when attributive): —

Nīsus et Euryalus primī (Aen. v. 294), Nīsus and Euryalus first.
Caesāris omni et grātia et opibus fruor (Pamn. i. 9. 21), I enjoy all Cæsar’s favor and resources.

Note.—An adjective referring to two nouns connected by the preposition cum is occasionally plural (synēsis, § 286. a): as, —Iuba cum Labienō captī (B. Afr. 52), Juba and Labienus were taken.

b. A collective noun may take an adjective of a different gender and number agreeing with the gender and number of the individuals implied (synēsis, § 280. a): —

pars certāre parātī (Aen. v. 168), a part ready to contend.
colōnīae aliquot dēductae, Prisci Latinī appellāti (Liv. i. 3), several colonies were planted [led out] [of men] called Old Latinus.
multītūdō convictī sunt (Tac. Ann. xv. 44), a multitude were convicted.
magna pars raptae (id. i. 9), a large part [of the women] were seized.

Note.—A superlative in the predicate rarely takes the gender of a partitive genitive by which it is limited: as, —vōcissimum animālium delphīnus est (Plin. N. H. ix. 20), the dolphin is the swiftest [creature] of creatures.
287. One adjective may belong in sense to two or more nouns of different genders. In such cases,—

1. An Attributive Adjective agrees with the nearest noun:—

   multae operae ac labores, of much trouble and toil.
   vita morësque mei, my life and character.
   si re, si vir, si tempus ëllum dignum fuit (Mil. 19), if any thing, if any man, if any time was fit.

2. A Predicate Adjective may agree with the nearest noun, if the nouns form one connected idea:—

   factus est strepitos et adimplerum (Verr. i. 45), a noise of assent was made (noise and murmur).

   Note. — This is only when the copula agrees with the nearest subject (§ 317. e).

3. But generally, a Predicate Adjective will be masculine, if nouns of different genders mean living beings; neuter, if things without life:—

   uxor deinde ac liber amplexi (Liv. ii. 40), then his wife and children embraced him.
   labor (x.) voluptasque (r.) societate quadam inter se naturali sunt iuncta (x.) (id. v. 4), labor and delight are bound together by a certain natural alliance.

4. If nouns of different genders include both living beings and things without life, a Predicate Adjective is sometimes masculine (or feminine), sometimes neuter, and sometimes agrees in gender with the nearest if that is plural:—

   rex regiaque classis unam profecti (Liv. xxi. 50), the king and the royal fleet set out together.
   natura inimica sunt libera civitas et rex (id. xli. 24), by nature a free state and a king are hostile.
   leges sortesque oraculi exspectandae (id. v. 15), that the ambassadors and the replies of the oracle should be waited for.

   a. Two or more abstract nouns of the same gender may have a Predicate Adjective in the neuter plural (cf. § 289. e):—

   stultitia et temeritas et iniquitas . . . sunt fugienda (Fin. iii. 39), folly, rashness, and injustice are [things] to be shunned.

Adjectives used Substantively

288. Adjectives are often used as Nouns (substantively), the masculine usually to denote men or people in general of that kind, the feminine women, and the neuter things:—
omnis, all men (everybody).
mātōres, ancestors.
Romāni, Romans.
liberta, a freedwoman.
sapiens, a philosopher.
boni, the good (good people).
omnia, all things (everything).
minōres, descendents.
barbari, barbarians.
Sabinae, the Sabine wives.
amicus, a friend.
bona, goods, property.

Note. — The plural of adjectives, pronouns, and participles is very common in this use. The singular is comparatively rare except in the neuter (§ 280. a, c) and in words that have become practically nouns.

a. Certain adjectives have become practically nouns, and are often modified by other adjectives or by the possessive genitive:

  tua vicina proxima, your next-door neighbor.
  propinquus ceteri, his other relatives.
  meus aequale, a man of my own age.
  eius familiaris Catilina (Harr. Resp. 5), his intimate friend Catilina.
  Leptae nostri familiariissimus (Fam. ix. 13. 2), a very close friend of our friend Lepta.

b. When ambiguity would arise from the substantive use of an adjective, a noun must be added:

  boni, the good; omnia, everything (all things); but, —
  potentia omnium rerum, power over everything.

c. Many adjectives are used substantively either in the singular or the plural, with the added meaning of some noun which is understood from constant association:

  Africus [ventus], the southwest wind; Ianuarius [mensis], January; vitulina [caro], veal (calf's flesh); fera [bестиа], a wild beast; patria [terra], the fatherland; Gallia [terra], Gaul (the land of the Galli); hiberna [castra], winter quarters; trīēmis [vēris], a three-banked galley, trireme; argentarius [fāber], a silversmith; rēgia [domus], the palace; Latinae [fēriae], the Latin festival.

Note. — These adjectives are specific in meaning, not generic like those in § 288. They include the names of winds and months (§ 31).
For Nouns used as Adjectives, see § 321. c.
For Adverbs used like Adjectives, see § 321. d.

289. Neuter Adjectives are used substantively in the following special senses:

a. The neuter singular may denote either a single object or an abstract quality:

  raptō vivere, to live by plunder.
  in āridō, on dry ground.
  honestum, an honorable act, or virtue (as a quality).
  opus est mātūrātō, there is need of haste. [Cf. Impersonal passives, § 208. d.]
b. The neuter plural is used to signify objects in general having the quality denoted, and hence may stand for the abstract idea: —

honesta, honorable deeds (in general). praeterita, the past (lit., bygones). omnès fœtia laudant, all men praise bravery (brave things).

A neuter adjective may be used as an appositive or predicate noun with a noun of different gender (cf. § 287. a): —

trīste lupus stabulis (Ecl. iii. 80), the wolf is a grievous thing for the fold. varium et mutābile semper fēmina (Aen. iv. 569), woman is ever a changing and fickle thing. malum nihī vidētur esse mors (Tusc. i. 9), death seems to me to be an evil.

d. A neuter adjective may be used as an attributive or a predicate adjective with an infinitive or a substantive clause: —

istuc ipsum nōn esse (Tusc. i. 12), that very "not to be." hūmanum est errāre, to err is human. aliud est errāre Caesarem nōlle, aliud nōlle misericēri (Lig. 16), it is one thing to be unwilling that Caesar should err, another to be unwilling that he should pity.

Adjectives with Adverbial Force

290. An adjective, agreeing with the subject or object, is often used to qualify the action of the verb, and so has the force of an adverb: —

prīmus vēnit, he was the first to come (came first). nūllus dubitō, I no way doubt. laeti audīrē, they were glad to hear. erat Rōmae frequēns (Rosc. Am. 16), he was often at Rome. sērōs in caelum redeās (Hor. Od. i. 2. 45), mayst thou return late to heaven.

Comparatives and Superlatives

291. Besides their regular signification (as in English), the forms of comparison are used as follows: —

a. The Comparative denotes a considerable or excessive degree of a quality: as, — brevior, rather short; audācior, too bold.

b. The Superlative (of eminence) often denotes a very high degree of a quality without implying a distinct comparison: as, — mōns altissimus, a very high mountain.

Note. — The Superlative of Eminence is much used in complimentary references to persons and may often be translated by the simple positive.
c. With quam, vel, or unus the Superlative denotes the highest possible degree:

quam plurimi, as many as possible.
quam maximî potest (maximî quam potest), as much as can be.
vel minimus, the very least.
vir unus doctissimus, the one most learned man.

Note 1. — A high degree of a quality is also denoted by such adverbs as admodum, valde, very, or by per or præ in composition (§ 267. d. 1): as, — valde malus, very bad—pessimus; permagnus, very great; præcaltus, very high (or deep).

Note 2. — A low degree of a quality is indicated by sub in composition: as, — subrūsticus, rather clownish, or by minus, not very; minimî, not at all; parum, not enough; nōn satis, not much.

Note 3. — The comparative māiorēs (for māiorēs nātû, greater by birth) has the special signification of ancestors; so minōrēs often means descendants.

For the Superlative with quisque, see § 313. b. For the construction of a substantive after a Comparative, see §§ 406, 407; for that of a clause, see § 535. c, 571. a. For the Ablative of Degree of Difference with a Comparative (multō etc.), see § 414.

292. When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives are in the Comparative:

longius quam lātior aciēs erat (Liv. xxvii. 48), the line was longer than it was broad (or, rather long than broad).

vērior quam grātior (id. xxii. 38), more true than agreeable.

Note. — So also with adverbs: as, — libenter quam vērius (Mil. 78), with more freedom than truth.

a. Where magis is used, both adjectives are in the positive:

disertus magis quam sapiēnē (Att. x. 1. 4), eloquent rather than wise.
clāri magis quam honesti (Iug. 8), more renowned than honorable.

Note. — A comparative and a positive, or even two positives, are sometimes connected by quam. This use is rarer and less elegant than those before noticed:

clāri māioribus quam vetustīs (Tac. Ann. iv. 61), of a family more famous than old.

vehementius quam cautē (Tac. Agr. 4), with more fury than good heed.

293. Superlatives (and more rarely Comparatives) denoting order and succession — also medius, [cēterus], reliquus — usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant:

summus mōns, the top of the hill.
in ultimā plateā, at the end of the place.
prior āctīō, the earlier part of an action.
reliqui captivi, the rest of the prisoners.
in colle mediō (B. G. i. 24), half way up the hill (on the middle of the hill).
inter cēteram plānitieā (Iug. 92), in a region elsewhere level.

Note. — A similar use is found in sērā (multā) nocte, late at night, and the like. But medium vīae, the middle of the way; multum diēī, much of the day, also occur.
PRONOUNS

294. A Pronoun indicates some person or thing without either naming or describing it. Pronouns are derived from a distinct class of roots, which seem to have denoted only ideas of place and direction (§ 228. 2), and from which nouns or verbs can very rarely be formed. They may therefore stand for Nouns when the person or thing, being already present to the senses or imagination, needs only to be pointed out, not named.

Some pronouns indicate the object in itself, without reference to its class, and have no distinction of gender. These are Personal Pronouns. They stand syntactically for Nouns, and have the same construction as nouns.

Other pronouns designate a particular object of a class, and take the gender of the individuals of that class. These are called Adjective Pronouns. They stand for Adjectives, and have the same construction as adjectives.

Others are used in both ways; and, though called adjective pronouns, may also be treated as personal, taking, however, the gender of the object indicated.

In accordance with their meanings and uses, Pronouns are classified as follows:—

Personal Pronouns (§ 295).
Demonstrative Pronouns (§ 296).
Reflexive Pronouns (§ 299).
Possessive Pronouns (§ 302).
Interrogative Pronouns (§ 333).
Relative Pronouns (§ 303).
Indefinite Pronouns (§ 309).

Personal Pronouns

295. The Personal Pronouns have, in general, the same constructions as nouns.

a. The personal pronouns are not expressed as subjects, except for distinction or emphasis:—

tē vocō, I call you. But,—
quīs mē vocat? ego tē vocō, who is calling me? I (emphatic) am calling you.

b. The personal pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -um being used partitively (§ 346), and that in -i oftenest objectively (§ 348):—
māior vestrum, the elder of you.
habētis ducem memorem vestri, oblītum suī (Cat. iv. 19), you have a leader who thinks (is mindful) of you and forgets (is forgetful of) himself.
pars nostrum, a part (i.e. some) of us.

Note 1.—The genitives nostrum, vestrum, are occasionally used objectively (§ 348):
as, — cupidus vestrum (Verr. iii. 224), fond of you; custōs vestrum (Cat. iii. 29), the guardian of you (your guardian).

Note 2.—“One of themselves” is expressed by unus ex suis or ipsis (rarely ex sē), or unus sūrum.

c. The Latin has no personal pronouns of the third person except the reflexive sē. The want is supplied by a Demonstrative or Relative (§§ 296. 2, 308. 1).
Demonstrative Pronouns

296. Demonstrative Pronouns are used either adjectively or substantively.

1. As adjectives, they follow the rules for the agreement of adjectives and are called Adjective Pronouns or Pronominal Adjectives (§§ 286, 287):

   hōc proelīō factō, after this battle was fought (this battle having been fought).
   eōdem proelīō, in the same battle.
   ex eis aedificis, out of those buildings.

2. As substantives, they are equivalent to personal pronouns. This use is regular in the oblique cases, especially of is:

   Caesar et exercitus ēius, Caesar and his army (not suus). [But, Caesar exercitus suum dimisit, Caesar disbanded his [own] army.]
   si obsidēs ab eis detur (B. G. i. 14), if hostages should be given by them (persons just spoken of).
   hī sunt extrā provinciān trāns Rhodanum prīmi (id. i. 10), they (those just mentioned) are the first [inhabitants] across the Rhone.
   ille minimum propter adulēscentiam poterat (id. i. 20), he (emphatic) had very little power, on account of his youth.

   a. An adjective pronoun usually agrees with an appositive or predicate noun, if there be one, rather than with the word to which it refers (cf. § 306):

      hic locus est ēius quō perfugiant; hic portus, haec arx, haec āra sociōrum (Verr. v. 126), this is the only place to which they can flee for refuge; this is the haven, this the citadel, this the altar of the allies.
      rōrum caput hōc erat, hic fons (Hor. Ep. i. 17. 46), this was the head of things, this the source.
      eam sapientiam interpretantur quam adhuc mortālis nōmō est consecūtus [for id. . . . quae] (Lael. 18), they explain that [thing] to be wisdom which no man ever yet attained.

297. The main uses of hic, ille, iste, and is are the following:

   a. Hic is used of what is near the speaker (in time, place, or thought). It is hence called the demonstrative of the first person.

   It is sometimes used of the speaker himself; sometimes for "the latter" of two persons or things mentioned in speech or writing; more rarely for "the former," when that, though more remote on the written page, is nearer the speaker in time, place, or thought. Often it refers to that which has just been mentioned.
b. Ille is used of what is remote (in time, etc.); and is hence called the demonstrative of the third person.

It is sometimes used to mean "the former"; also (usually following its noun) of what is famous or well-known; often (especially the neuter illud) to mean "the following."

c. Iste is used of what is between the two others in remoteness: often in allusion to the person addressed,—hence called the demonstrative of the second person.

It especially refers to one's opponent (in court, etc.), and frequently implies antagonism or contempt.

d. Is is a weaker demonstrative than the others and is especially common as a personal pronoun. It does not denote any special object, but refers to one just mentioned, or to be afterwards explained by a relative. Often it is merely a correlative to the relative qui:

venit mihi ob viae tarn propter, is mihi litteras abs te reddidit (Att. ii. 1. 1),
your boy met me, he delivered to me a letter from you.

eum quem, one whom.

eum consulem qui non dubitet (Cat. iv. 24), a consul who will not hesitate.

e. The pronouns hic, ille, and is are used to point in either direction, back to something just mentioned or forward to something about to be mentioned.

The neuter forms often refer to a clause, phrase, or idea:

est illud quidem vel maximum, animam videre (Tusc. i. 52), that is in truth a very great thing,—to see the soul.

f. The demonstratives are sometimes used as pronouns of reference, to indicate with emphasis a noun or phrase just mentioned:

nulla virtus aliena mercede praefer propter hanc laudis (Arch. 28),
virtue wants no other reward except that just mentioned of praise.

Note.—But the ordinary English use of that of is hardly known in Latin. Commonly the genitive construction is continued without a pronoun, or some other construction is preferred:

cum ei Simonides artem memoriae pollicentur: obvivias, inquit, nullam (Fin. ii.
104), when Simonides promised him the art of memory, "I should prefer,"
said he. "[that] of forgetfulness."

Caesaris exercitus Pompeianos ad Pharsalum victit, the army of Caesar defeated
that of Pompey (the Pompeians) at Pharsalus.

298. The main uses of idem and ipse are as follows:

a. When a quality or act is ascribed with emphasis to a person or thing already named, is or idem (often with the concessive quidem) is used to indicate that person or thing:
per ūnum servum et eum ex gladiātorīō lūdō (Att. i. 16. 5), by means of a single slave, and that too one from the gladiatorial school.

vincula, et ea sempiterna (Cat. iv. 7), imprisonment, and that perpetual.

Ti. Gracchus régnum occupāre cōnātus est, vel régnavit is quidem paucōs mēnsis (Lael. 41), Tiberius Gracchus tried to usurp royal power, or rather he actually reigned a few months.

Note. — So rarely with ille: as, — nunc dextrā ingeniāns ictūs, nunc ille sinistrā (Aen. v. 457), now dealing redoubled blows with his right hand, now (he) with his left. [In imitation of the Homeric ἰ ᾳ: cf. Aen. v. 334; ix. 796.]

b. Idem, the same, is often used where the English requires an adverb or adverbial phrase (also, too, yet, at the same time): —

ōrātiōsplendida et grandis et eadem in primēs facēta (Brut. 273), an oration, brilliant, able, and very witty too.

cum [haec] dicat, negat idem esse in Deō grātiām (N. D. i. 121), when he says this, he denies also that there is mercy with God (he, the same man).

Note. — This is really the same use as in a above, but in this case the pronoun cannot be represented by a pronoun in English.

c. The intensive ipse, self, is used with any of the other pronouns, with a noun, or with a temporal adverb for the sake of emphasis: —

turpe mihi ipsī vidēbātur (Phil. i. 9), even to me (to me myself) it seemed disgraceful.

id ipsum, that very thing; quod ipsum, which of itself alone.

in eum ipsum locum, to that very place.

tum ipsum (Off. ii. 60), at that very time.

Note 1. — The emphasis of ipse is often expressed in English by just, very, mere, etc.

Note 2. — In English, the pronouns himself etc. are used both intensively (as, he will come himself) and reflexively (as, he will kill himself); in Latin the former would be translated by ipse, the latter by sē or sēsē.

d. Ipse is often used alone, substantively, as follows: —

1. As an emphatic pronoun of the third person: —

idque rei publicae præclarum, ipsīs glōriōsum (Phil. ii. 27), and this was splendid for the state, glorious for themselves.

omnia boni quantum in ipsīs fuit (id. ii. 29), all good men so far as was in their power (in themselves).

di capitū ipsīs generique réservent (Aen. viii. 484), may the gods hold in reserve [such a fate] to fall on his own and his son-in-law's head.

2. To emphasize an omitted subject of the first or second person: —

vōbiscum ipsī recordāmini (Phil. ii. 1), remember in your own minds (yourselves with yourselves).

3. To distinguish the principal personage from subordinate persons: —

ipse dixit (cf. aντὶς ὥσ), he (the Master) said it.

Nōmentānus erat super ipsum (Hor. S. ii. 8. 23), Nomentanus was above [the host] himself [at table].
c. *Ipse* is often (is rarely) used instead of a reflexive (see § 300. b).

f. *Ipse* usually agrees with the subject, even when the real emphasis in English is on a reflexive in the predicate:

mē *ipse consōlor* (Lael. 10), *I console myself.* [Not mē ipsum, as the English would lead us to expect.]

**Reflexive Pronouns**

299. The Reflexive Pronoun (*sē*), and usually its corresponding possessive (*suus*), are used in the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause:

sē ex nāvē prōīcit (B. G. iv. 25), *he threw himself from the ship.*
Dumnorigem ad sē vocat (id. i. 20), *he calls Dumnorix to him.*
sē sē castris tēnēbat (id. iii. 24), *they kept themselves in camp.*
contemnī sē putant (Cat. M. 65), *they think they are despised.*
Caesar *suās copiās subducit* (B. G. i. 22), *Caesar leads up his troops.*
Caesar statuīt *sibi Rhēnum esse trānsscendundum* (id. iv. 16), *Caesar decided that he must cross the Rhine (the Rhine must be crossed by himself).*

a. For reflexives of the first and second persons the oblique cases of the personal pronouns (*mei, tuī, etc.*) and the corresponding possessives (*meus, tuus, etc.*) are used:

mortī mē obtuli (Mil. 94), *I have exposed myself to death.*
hinc tē réginae ad limīna perfer (Aen. i. 389), *do you go (breathe yourself) hence to the queen’s threshold.*
quid est quod tantīs nēs in labōribus exercēamus (Arch. 28), *what reason is there why we should exert ourselves in so great toils?*
singularis vībis novēnōs ex turmis manipalisque vestīs simulēs eligite (Liv. xxi. 54), *for each of you pick out from the squadrons and maniples nine like yourselves.*

300. In a subordinate clause of a complex sentence there is a double use of Reflexives.

1. The reflexive may always be used to refer to the subject of its own clause (*Direct Reflexive*):

īūdicāri potest quantum habeat in sē bonī cōnstantia (B. G. i. 40), *it can be determined how much good firmness possesses (has in itself).*

[Caesar] nōluit cum locum vacāre, nē Germānī e suis finibus trānsīrent (id. i. 28), *Caesar did not wish this place to be vacant, for fear the Germans would cross over from their territories.*

si qua significātiō virtūtis ēlūceat ad quam sē similis animus adplicet et adingat (Lael. 48), *if any sign of virtue shine forth to which a similar disposition may attach itself.*
2. If the subordinate clause expresses the words or thought of the subject of the main clause, the reflexive is regularly used to refer to that subject (Indirect Reflexive):

petiērunt ut sibi licēret (B. G. i. 30), they begged that it might be allowed them (the petitioners).

Iecius nūntium mittit, nisi subsidiüm sibi submittātur (id. ii. 6), Iecius sends a message that unless relief be furnished him, etc.

decima legiō ei grātiās ēgit, quod dē sē optimum ōrdicium fēcisset (id. i. 41), the tenth legion thanked him because [they said] he had expressed a high opinion of them.

sē obsidēs ab eis (the Helvetians) sībī (Cæsar, who is the speaker) dēntur, sē (Cæsar) cum eīs pācem esse factūrōm (id. i. 14), [Cæsar said that] if hostages were given him by them he would make peace with them.

Note.—Sometimes the person or thing to which the reflexive refers is not the grammatical subject of the main clause, though it is in effect the subject of discourse: Thus,—cum ipsi dē nihili minus grātum fītārum sīt quum nōn omnisōs patēre ad sē plācandum viam (Legg. ii. 25), since to God himself nothing will be less pleasing than that the way to appease him should not be open to all men.

a. If the subordinate clause does not express the words or thought of the main subject, the reflexive is not regularly used, though it is occasionally found:—

sunt īta multī ut eōs carcer capere nōn possit (Cat. ii. 22), they are so many that the prison cannot hold them. [Here sē could not be used; so also in the example following.]

ibī in proxīmis villīs īta bipartītō inērunt, ut Tiberis inter eōs et pōns inerēt (id. iii. 5), there they stationed themselves in the nearest farm-houses, in two divisions, in such a manner that the Tiber and the bridge were between them (the divisions).

nōn fuit eō contentus quod eī praeter spem acciderat (Manil. 25), he was not content with that which had happened to him beyond his hope.

Compare: qui ĕt, Māceānās, ut nēmō, quam sībī sortem sēu ratiō dederit seu fors obiēcerit, illā contentus vivat (Hor. S. i. 1. 1), how comes it, Māceānās, that nobody lives contented with that lot which choice has assigned him or chance has thrown in his way? [Here sībī is used to put the thought into the mind of the discontented man.]

b. Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of an indirect reflexive, either to avoid ambiguity or from carelessness; and in later writers is sometimes found instead of the direct reflexive:—

cūr dē suā virtūte aut dē ipsīus diligentiā désperērunt (B. G. i. 40), why (he asked) should they despair of their own courage or his diligence?

omnīa aut ipsōs aut hostēs populātōs (Q. C. iii. 5. 6), [they said that] either they themselves or the enemy had laid all waste. [Direct reflexive.]
qui sé ex his minus timidōs existimārī volēbant, nōn sé hostem verērī, sed
angustiās itineris et māgnitūdinem silvārum quae intercēderant inter
ipseōs (the persons referred to by sé above) atque Arioquistum... timēre
dicēbant (B. G. i. 39), those of them who wished to be thought less timid
said they did not fear the enemy, but were afraid of the narrows and the
vast extent of the forests which were between themselves and Arioquistus.
andistis nūper dicere lēgātōs Tyndaritānōs Mercurium qui sacrīs anniver-
sarīs apud ēōs coerētūr esse subhātum (Verr. iv. 84), you have just heard
the ambassadors from Tyndaris say that the statue of Mercury which was
worshipped with annual rites among them was taken away. [Here Ciceron
waivers between apud ēōs cēlēbātur, a remark of his own, and apud sé
colerētūr, the words of the ambassadors. ēōs does not strictly refer to
the ambassadors, but to the people — the Tyndaritani.]

301. Special uses of the Reflexive are the following: —

a. The reflexive in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the
subject of a suppressed main clause: —

Paetus omnīs librōs quōs frāter suus reliquisset mihi dōnāvit (Att. ii. 1),
Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said in the act of donation)
his brother had left him.

b. The reflexive may refer to any noun or pronoun in its own clause
which is so emphasized as to become the subject of discourse: —

Sōcratem cēvēs suī interfēcērunt, Socrates was put to death by his own fellow-
citizens.

quī poterat salūs suā cuiquam nān probāri (Mil. 81), how can any one fail
to approve his own safety? [In this and the preceding example the
emphasis is preserved in English by the change of voice.]

hunc si secūtī erunt suī comitēs (Cat. ii. 10), this man, if his companions
follow him.

Note. — Occasionally the clause to which the reflexive really belongs is absorbed:
as, — studeō sānāre sībī īpsōs (Cat. ii. 17), I am anxious to cure these men for their own
benefit (i.e. ut sānī sībī sint).

c. Suus is used for one's own as emphatically opposed to that of
others, in any part of the sentence and with reference to any word
in it: —

suī flammās dēlectō Fīdēns (Liv. iv. 33), destroy Fidenza with its own fires
(the fires kindled by that city, figuratively). [Cf. Cat. i. 32.]

d. The reflexive may depend upon a verbal noun or adjective: —
suī laus, self-praise.
habētis ducem memorem vestri, oblītum suī (Cat. iv. 19), you have a leader
mindful of you, forgetful of himself.
perditi hominēs cum suī similibus servis (Phil. i. 5), abandoned men with
slaves like themselves.
e. The reflexive may refer to the subject implied in an infinitive or verbal abstract used indefinitely:—
contentum suis rebus esse maxime sunt divitiae (Par. 51), the greatest wealth is to be content with one's own.
cui próposita sit cónsérvātīō suī (Fin. v. 37), one whose aim is self-preservation.

f. Inter sē (nōs, vōs), among themselves (ourselves, yourselves), is regularly used to express reciprocal action or relation:—
inter sē confīgūrant (Cat. i. 25), contend with each other.
inter sē continentur (Arch. 2), are joined to each other.

Possessive Pronouns

302. The Possessive Pronouns are derivative adjectives, which take the gender, number, and case of the noun to which they belong, not those of the possessor:—
haec örmāmenta sunt mea (Val. iv. 4), these are my jewels. [mea is neuter plural, though the speaker is a woman.]
meī sunt ördīnēs, mea discriptīō (Cat. M. 50), mine are the rows, mine the arrangement. [mea is feminine, though the speaker is Cyrus.]
multa in nostrō collegīo praecērā (id. 64), [there are] many fine things in our college. [nstrō is neuter singular, though men are referred to.]
Germanī suās cópiās castrīs ēdūxērunt (B. G. i. 51), the Germans led their troops out of the camp.

a. To express possession and similar ideas the possessive pronouns are regularly used, not the genitive of the personal or reflexive pronouns (§ 343. a):—
donus mea, my house. [Not donus mei.]
pater noster, our father. [Not pater nostri.]
patrimōniun tuum, your inheritance. [Not tuōi.]

Note 1. — Exceptions are rare in classic Latin, common in later writers. For the use of a possessive pronoun instead of an Objective Genitive, see § 348. a.

Note 2. — The Interrogative Possessive cāius, -a, -um, occurs in poetry and early Latin: as, — cāium pecus (Ecl. iii. 1), whose flock? The genitive cāius is generally used instead.

b. The possessives have often the acquired meaning of peculiar to, favorable or propitious towards, the person or thing spoken of:—
[petere] ut suā clēmentiā ac mansuetūdine ětātur (B. G. ii. 14), they asked (they said) that he would show his [wonted] clemency and humanity,
ignōrantī quem portum petat nūllus suus ventus est (Sen. Ep. 71. 3), to him who knows not what port he is bound to, no wind is fair (his own).
tempore tuō pūgnāstī (Liv. xxxviii. 45. 10), did you fight at a fit time?

Note. — This use is merely a natural development of the meaning of the possessive, and the pronoun may often be rendered literally.
c. The possessives are regularly omitted (like other pronouns) when they are plainly implied in the context: —

socium fraudavit, he cheated his partner. [socium suum would be distinctive, his partner (and not another's); suum socium, emphatic, his own partner.]

d. Possessive pronouns and adjectives implying possession are often used substantively to denote some special class or relation: —
nostri, our countrymen, or men of our party.
suis continebat (B. G. i. 15), he held his men in check.
flamma extrema meum (Aen. ii. 431), last flames of my countrymen.
Sullani, the veterans of Sulla's army; Pompeiani, the partisans of Pompey.

Note.—There is no reason to suppose an ellipsis here. The adjective becomes a noun like other adjectives (see § 288).

e. A possessive pronoun or an adjective implying possession may take an appositive in the genitive case agreeing in gender, number, and case with an implied noun or pronoun: —

mea sœlis causâ (Ter. Heaut. 129), for my sake only.
in nostrœ omnium fletû (Mil. 92), amid the tears of us all.
ex Anniâna Milonis domô (Att. iv. 3. 3), out of Annius Milo's house. [Equivalent to ex Anni Milonis domo.]
nostra omnium patria, the country of us all.
suum ipsius regnum, his own kingdom.

For the special reflexive use of the possessive suus, see §§ 299, 300.

Relative Pronouns

303. A Relative Pronoun agrees with some word expressed or implied either in its own clause, or (often) in the antecedent (demonstrative) clause. In the fullest construction the antecedent is expressed in both clauses, with more commonly a corresponding demonstrative to which the relative refers: as, — iter in ea loca facere coepit, quibus in locis esse Germanos audiebat (B. G. iv. 7), he began to march into those places in which places he heard the Germans were. But one of these nouns is commonly omitted.

The antecedent is in Latin very frequently (rarely in English) found in the relative clause, but more commonly in the antecedent clause.

Thus relatives serve two uses at the same time: —

1. As Nouns (or Adjectives) in their own clause: as, — eì qui Aelisae obsidiebantur (B. G. vii. 77), those who were besieged at Alesia.

2. As Connectives: as, — T. Balventius, qui superiore annò primum pûnum duxerat (id. v. 35), Titus Balventius, who the year before had been a centurion of the first rank.

When the antecedent is in a different sentence, the relative is often equivalent to a demonstrative with a conjunction: as, — quae cum ita sint (= et cum ea ita sint), [and] since this is so.

The subordinating force did not belong to the relative originally, but was developed from an interrogative or indefinite meaning specialized by use. But the subordinating and the later connective force were acquired by qui at such an early period that the steps of the process cannot now be traced.
304. A Relative Pronoun indicates a relation between its own clause and some substantive. This substantive is called the Antecedent of the relative.

Thus, in the sentence—

\[ \text{eam nihil dēlectābat quod fās esset (Mil. 43), nothing pleased him which was right,} \]

the relative quod connects its antecedent nihil with the predicate fās esset, indicating a relation between the two.

305. A Relative agrees with its Antecedent in Gender and Number; but its Case depends on its construction in the clause in which it stands:—

\[ \text{ea dīces quam cōnstituerat vēnit (B. G. i. 8), that day which he had appointed came.} \]

\[ \text{pontem qui erat ad Genāvam inbet rescindī (id. i. 7), he orders the bridge which was near Geneva to be cut down.} \]

\[ \text{Aduatuci, dē quibus suprā diximus, domum revertērunt (id. ii. 29), the Aduatuci, of whom we have spoken above, returned home.} \]

**Note.**—This rule applies to all relative words so far as they are variable in form: as, quālis, quantus, quicumque, etc.

**a.** If a relative has two or more antecedents, it follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (§§ 286, 287):—

\[ \text{filium et filiam, quōs valde dilēxit, unō tempore āmisit, he lost at the same time a son and a daughter whom he dearly loved.} \]

\[ \text{grandēs nātā mātrēs et parvuli liberī, quērum utrorumque actās misericordiām nostrām requiriō (Verr. v. 129), aged matrons and little children, whose time of life in each case demands our compassion.} \]

\[ \text{ōtium atque divitiae, quae prīma mortālēs putant (Sall. Cat. 36), idleness and wealth, which men count the first (objects of desire).} \]

\[ \text{eae frūgēs et fructūs quōs terrā gignit (N. D. ii. 27), those fruits and crops which the earth produces.} \]

For the Person of the verb agreeing with the Relative, see § 316. a.

306. A Relative generally agrees in gender and number with an appositive or predicate noun in its own clause, rather than with an antecedent of different gender or number (cf. § 296. a):—

\[ \text{mare etiam quem Nēptūnum esse dīcēbās (N. D. iii. 52), the sea, too, which you said was Neptune. [Not quod.]} \]

\[ \text{Thēbae ipsae, quod Bœōtiae caput est (Liv. xlii. 44), even Thebes, which is the chief city of Bœotia. [Not quae.]} \]

**Note.**—This rule is occasionally violated: as,—\[ \text{flūmen quod appellātur Tamesis (B. G. v. 11), a river which is called the Thames.} \]
a. A relative occasionally agrees with its antecedent in case (by attraction):

si aliquid agas eorum quorum consuesti (Fam. v. 14), if you should do some thing of what you are used to do. [For eorum quae.]

**Note.** Occasionally the antecedent is attracted into the case of the relative: —
urbem quam statuisti vestra est (Aen. i. 573), the city which I am founding is yours.
Naucretem, quem convenire volui, in navis non erat (Pl. Am. 1009), Naukretes, whom I wished to meet, was not on board the ship.

b. A relative may agree in gender and number with an implied antecedent: —
quartum genus . . . qui in vetere aere alieno vacillant (Cat. ii. 21), a fourth class, who are staggering under old debts.
unus ex eo numeri qui parati erant (Iug. 35), one of the number [of those] who were ready.
coniuravere pauci, de qua [i.e. coniuratio] dicam (Sall. Cat. 18), a few have conspired, of which [conspiracy] I will speak.

**Note.** So regularly when the antecedent is implied in a possessive pronoun: as,
—nosta acta, quos tyrannos vocas (Vat. 29), the deeds of us, whom you call tyrants.
[Here quos agrees with the nostrum (genitive plural) implied in nostra.]

**Antecedent of the Relative**

307. The Antecedent Noun sometimes appears in both clauses; but usually only in the one that precedes. Sometimes it is wholly omitted.

a. The antecedent noun may be repeated in the relative clause: —
loqui natura erat haec quem locum nostri delgerat (B. G. ii. 18), the nature of the ground which our men had chosen was this.

b. The antecedent noun may appear only in the relative clause, agreeing with the relative in case: —
quae res in consulatibus nostris gessimus attigit hic versibus (Arch. 28), he has touched in verse the things which I did in my consulship.
quae prima innocentis milites defensi est oblatas sustepi (Sall. 92), I undertook the first defence of an innocent man that was offered me.

**Note.** In this case the relative clause usually comes first (cf. § 308. d) and a demonstrative usually stands in the antecedent clause: —
quae pars civitatis calamitate populo Romano intulerat, ea princeps poenas persolvit (B. G. i. 12), that part of the state which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.
quae gratia currum fuit vivis, eadem sequitur (Aen. vi. 655), the same pleasure that they took in chariots in their lifetime follows them (after death).
quae fit ut nemo, quam sibi sortem dius dederit, illa contentus vivat (cf. Hor. S. i. 1. 1), how does it happen that no one lives contented with the lot which choice has assigned him?
c. The antecedent may be omitted, especially if it is indefinite:—
qui decumae legionis aquilam ferébat (B. G. iv. 25), [the man] who bore the
eagle of the tenth legion.
quid cognoscet misit (id. i. 21), he sent [men] to reconnoitre.

d. The phrase *id quod* or *quae ré(s) may be used (instead of *quod*
one) to refer to a group of words or an idea:—
[obstructum est] Gabinió dicam ànne Pompéiò? an utrique — *id quod* est
vérius? (Manil. 57), an affront has been offered — shall I say to Gabinius
or to Pompey? or — which is truer — to both?
multum sunt in venationibus, *quae ré(s) virès alit* (B. G. iv. 1), they spend
much time in hunting, which [practice] increases their strength.

Note.—But *quod alone* often occurs: as, — Cassius noster, *quod mihi nágnae volup-
tāti fuit, hostem réficcerat* (Fam. ii. 10), our friend Cassius — which was a great satis-
faction to me — had driven back the enemy.

e. The antecedent noun, when in apposition with the main clause,
or with some word of it, is put in the relative clause:—
firmi [amicí], córus generis est nágna pénēria (Lael. 62), steadfast friends,
a class of which there is great lack (of which class there is, etc.).

f. A predicate adjective (especially a superlative) belonging to the
antecedent may stand in the relative clause:—
vása ea *quae pulcherrima* apud eum viderat (Verr. iv. 63), those most beau-
tiful vessels which he had seen at his house. [Nearly equivalent to the
vessels of which he had seen some very beautiful ones.]

Special Uses of the Relative

308. In the use of Relatives, the following points are to be observed:—

a. The relative is never omitted in Latin, as it often is in Eng-
lish:—
liber quem mihi dédísti, the book you gave me.
is sum qui semper fui, I am the same man I always was.
eós in locó est dé quó tibi locútus sum, he is in the place I told you of.

b. When two relative clauses are connected by a copulative con-
junction, a relative pronoun sometimes stands in the first and a
demonstrative in the last:—
erat prefectus obviam legiōnibus Macedonicis quattuor, *quás sibi conciliandre
pecūniā cōgitabant éaque ad urbem addúcere* (Fam. xii. 23. 2), he had
set out to meet four legions from Macedonia, which he thought to win over
to himself by a gift of money and to lead (them) to the city.
c. A relative clause in Latin often takes the place of some other
construction in English, — particularly of a participle, an appositive,
or a noun of agency: —

légés quae nunc sunt, the existing laws (the laws which now exist).
Caesar qui Galliam vicit, Caesar the conqueror of Gaul.
iūsta glória qui est fructus virtūtis (Pison. 57), true glory [which is] the fruit
of virtue.
ille qui petit, the plaintiff (he who sues).
qui legit, a reader (one who reads).

d. In formal or emphatic discourse, the relative clause usually
comes first, often containing the antecedent noun (cf. § 307. b): —

quae pars civitātis Helvētiae insignem calamitātem populō Rōmānō intulerat,
ea prīnceps poēnās persolvit (B. G. i. 12), the portion of the Helvetican
state which had brought a serious disaster on the Roman people was the
first to pay the penalty.

Note. — In colloquial language, the relative clause in such cases often contains a
redundant demonstrative pronoun which logically belongs in the antecedent clause:
as,— ille qui cōnsulē cævet, diūnō īti bene licet partum bene (Plant. Rud. 1240),
he who is on his guard, he may long enjoy what he has well obtained.

e. The relative with an abstract noun may be used in a parenthetical
clause to characterize a person, like the English such: —

quae vestra prūdentia est (Cael. 45), such is your wisdom. [Equivalent to
prō vestrā prūdentīā.]
audīssēs cōmoedōs vel lēctōrem vel lyrīstēn, vel, quae mea liberālitās, omnēs
(Plin. Ep. i. 15), you would have listened to comedians, or a reader, or a
lyre-player, or — such is my liberality — to all of them.

f. A relative pronoun (or adverb) often stands at the beginning of
an independent sentence or clause, serving to connect it with the
sentence or clause that precedes: —

Caesar statuit exspectandam classem; quae ubi convēnit (B. G. iii. 14),
Caesar decided that he must wait for the fleet; and when this had come
together, etc.
quae qui audīēbant, and those who heard this (which things).
quae cum ita sint, and since this is so.
quōrum quod simile factum (Cat. iv. 13), what deed of theirs like this?
quō cum vēnisset, and when he had come there (whither when he had come).

Note. — This arrangement is common even when another relative or an interrogative
follows. The relative may usually be translated by an English demonstrative,
with or without and.

g. A relative adverb is regularly used in referring to an antecedent
in the Locative case; so, often, to express any relation of place instead
of the formal relative pronoun: —
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mortuus Cūmis quō sē contuleraet (Liv. ii. 21), having died at Cūmis, whither he had retired. [Here in quam urbem might be used, but not in quās.]
locus quō aditus non erat, a place to which (whither) there was no access.
regnā unde genus dācīs (Aen. v. 801), the kingdom from which you derive your race.
unde petitur, the defendant (he from whom something is demanded).

b. The relatives qui, quālis, quantus, quot, etc. are often rendered simply by as in English:—

idem quod semper, the same as always.
cum esset tālīs quālem tē esse videō (Mur. 32), since he was such a man as I see you are.
tanta dinicatio quanta numquam fuit (Att. vii. 1. 2), such a fight as never was before.
tot mala quot sidera (Ov. Tr. i. 5. 47), as many troubles as stars in the sky.

i. The general construction of relatives is found in clauses introduced by relative adverbs: as, ubi, quō, unde, cum, quāre.

Indefinite Pronouns

309. The Indefinite Pronouns are used to indicate that some person or thing is meant, without designating what one.

310. Quis, quīspiam, alīquis, quīdam, are particular indefinites, meaning some, a certain, any. Of these, quis, any one, is least definite, and quīdam, a certain one, most definite; alīquis and quīspiam, some one, stand between the two:—

dixerit quis (quīspiam), some one may say.
alīqui philosophi ita putant, some philosophers think so. [quīdam would mean certain persons defined to the speaker’s mind, though not named.]
habitant hic quaedam mulieres pauperculae (Ter. Ad. 647), some poor women live here [i.e. some women he knows of; some women or other would be alīquae or uesciō quae].

a. The indefinite quis is rare except in the combinations sī quis, if any; nisi quis, if any . . . not; nē quis, lest any, in order that none; num quis (ecquis), whether any; and in relative clauses.

b. The compounds quīspiam and alīquis are often used instead of quis after sī, nisi, nē, and num, and are rather more emphatic:—

quīd sī hoc quīspiam voluīt deus (Ter. Eun. 875), what if some god had desired this?
nisi alicui suōrum nōgōtium daret (Nep. Dion. 8. 2), unless he should employ some one of his friends.
cavēbat Pompēius omnia, nē aliquid vōs timērētis (Mil. 66), Pompey took every precaution, so that you might have no fear.
311. In a particular negative aliquis (aliquí), some one (some), is regularly used, where in a universal negative quisquam, any one, or ullus, any, would be required: —

iūstitia numquam nocet quisquam (Fin. i. 50), justice never does harm to anybody. [aliquí would mean to somebody who possesses it.]
nūn sine aliquō metū, not without some fear. But, — sine ullō metū, without any fear.

cum aliquid nūn habeās (Tusc. i. 88), when there is something you have not.

Note. — The same distinction holds between quis and aliquis on the one hand, and quisquam (ullus) on the other, in conditional and other sentences where a negative is expressed or suggested: —
si quisquam, ille sapiēns fuit (Lael. 9), if any man was (ever) a sage, he was.
dum praedissides ullō fuerunt (Rosc. Am. 120), while there were any armed forces.
si quid in tē peccavī (Att. iii. 15. 4), if I have done wrong towards you [in any particular case (see § 310)].

312. Quīvis or quīlibet (any one you will), quisquam, and the corresponding adjective ullus, any at all, are general indefinites.

Quīvis and quīlibet are used chiefly in affirmative clauses, quisquam and ullus in clauses where a universal negative is expressed or suggested: —
nūn cuīvis hominis contingit adire Corinthum (Hor. Ep. i. 17. 36), it is not every man's luck to go to Corinth. [nūn quisquam would mean not any man's.]
queīlibet modo aliquem (Acad. ii. 132), anybody you will, provided it be somebody.
si quisquam est timidus, is ego sum (Fam. vi. 14. 1), if any man is timorous, I am he.
si tempus est ullum iūre hominīs necandi (Mil. 9), if there is any occasion whatever when homicide is justifiable.

Note. — The use of the indefinites is very various, and must be learned from the Lexicon and from practice. The choice among them may depend merely on the point of view of the speaker, so that they are often practically interchangeable. The differences are (with few exceptions) those of logic, not of syntax.

313. The distributives quisque (every), uterque (each of two), and unus quisque (every single one) are used in general assertions: —

bonus liber melior est quisque quō māior (Plin. Ep. i. 20. 4), the larger a good book is, the better (each good book is better in proportion, etc.).
ambō exercitūs suās quisque abeunt domōs (Liv. ii. 7. 1), both armies go away, every man to his home.
uterque utrique erat exercitus in conspectū (B. G. vii. 35), each army was in sight of the other (each to each).
pone ante oculōs unus quemque régum (Par. i. 11), set before your eyes each of the kings.
a. Quisque regularly stands in a dependent clause, if there is one:—
quō quisque est sollertior, hōc docet Iracundius (Rosc. Com. 31), the keener-witted a man is, the more impatiently he teaches.

Note. — Quisque is generally postpositive 1: as, suum quisque, to every man his own.

b. Quisque is idiomatically used with superlatives and with ordinal numerals:—
nōbilissimus quisque, all the noblest (one after the other in the order of their nobility). 2
primō quōque tempore (Rosc. Am. 36), at the very first opportunity.
antiquissimum quōque tempus (B. G. i. 45), the most ancient times.
deçinus quisque (id. v. 52), one in ten.

Note 1. — Two superlatives with quisque imply a proportion: as, — sapientissimus
quisque aequissimō animō moritur (Cat. M. 83), the wisest men die with the greatest
equanimity.

Note 2. — Quotus quisque has the signification of how many, pray? often in a dis-
paraging sense (how few):—
quotus enim quisque disertas?quotus quisque inris peritus est (Flanc. 62), for how
few are eloquent! how few are learned in the law!
quotus enim istud quisque fecisset (Lig. 26), for how many would have done this?
[i.e. scarcely anybody would have done it].

314. Nēmō, no one, is used of persons only —
1. As a substantive:—
nēminem accusat, he accuses no one.

2. As an adjective pronoun instead of nūllus:—
vir nēmō bonus (Legg. ii. 41), no good man.

Note. — Even when used as a substantive, nēmō may take a noun in apposition:
as, — nēmō scriptor, nobody [who is] a writer.

a. Nūllus, no, is commonly an adjective; but in the genitive and
ablative singular it is regularly used instead of the corresponding
cases of nēmō, and in the plural it may be either an adjective or a
substantive:—
nūllum mittitūr tēlum (B. C. ii. 13), not a missile is thrown.
nūllum hoste prohibente (B. G. iii. 6), without opposition from the enemy.
nūllus insecor calamitātem (Phil. ii. 98), I persecute the misfortune of no one.
nūllum adiviante (id. x. 4), with the help of no one (no one helping).
nūlli erant praedōnēs (Flacc. 28), there were no pirates.
nūlli eximentur (Pison. 94), none shall be taken away.

For nōn nēmō, nōn nūlīs (nōn nūlli), see § 326. a.

1 That is, it does not stand first in its clause.
2 As, in taking things one by one off a pile, each thing is uppermost when you
take it.
Alius and Alter

315. Alius means simply other, another (of an indefinite number); alter, the other (of two), often the second in a series; ceteri and reliqui, all the rest, the others; alterutrum, one of the two: —

propter quod alius iter habère nállum (B. G. i. 7), because (as they said) they had no other way.

úni epistulæ respondi, veniò ad alteram (Fam. ii. 17. 6), one letter I have answered, I come to the other.

alterum genus (Cat. ii. 19), the second class.

iécissem ipse mē potius in profundum ut ceterós cónservārem (Sest. 45), I should have rather thrown myself into the deep to save the rest.

Servilius cónsul, religiisque magistrátûs (B. C. iii. 21), Servilius the consul and the rest of the magistrates.

cum sit nècesse alterum utrum vincere (Fam. vi. 3), since it must be that one of the two should prevail.

Note. — Alter is often used, especially with negatives, in reference to an indefinite number where one is opposed to all the rest taken singly: —
dum nē sit té dítor alter (Hor. S. i. i. 49), so long as another is not richer than you (lit. the other, there being at the moment only two persons considered).
nōn ut magis alter, amicus (id. i. 5. 33), a friend such that no other is more so.

a. The expressions alter . . . alter, the one . . . the other, alius . . . alius, one . . . another, may be used in pairs to denote either division of a group or reciprocity of action: —

alteri dimicant, alteri victórem timent (Fam. vi. 3), one party fights, the other fears the victor.

alteram alteri præsidiō esse iussērat (B. C. iii. 89), he had ordered each (of the two legions) to support the other.

aliī gladiōs adoriantur, aliī fragmentum saeptōrum (Sest. 79), some make an attack with swords, others with fragments of the railings.

alius ex aliō causam quaerit (B. G. vi. 37), they ask each other the reason.

alius aliōmin percontāmur (Pl. Stich. 370), we keep asking each other.

b. Alius and alter are often used to express one as well as another (the other) of the objects referred to: —

alter cónsul, one of the [two] consuls.

alius est maledicere, alius accusāre (Cael. 6), it is one thing to slander, another to accuse.

c. Alius repeated in another case, or with an adverb from the same stem, expresses briefly a double statement: —

alius alius petit, one man seeks one thing, another another (another seeks another thing).

iussit alius aliō diére (Liv. xlv. 33), he ordered different persons to dig in different places.

aliī aliō locō resistēbant (B. C. ii. 39), some halted in one place, some in another.
VERBS

Agreement of Verb and Subject

316. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person: —

ego statuō, I resolve. senāvus decrevit, the senate ordered.
silent légēs inter arma (Mil. 11), the laws are dumb in time of war.

Note.—In verbs containing a participle, the participle agrees with the subject in gender and number (§ 280): —
orātiō est habita, the plea was delivered. bellum excortum est, a war arose.

a. A verb having a relative as its subject takes the person of the expressed or implied antecedent: —
adsum qui fēci (Aen. ix. 427), here am I who did it.
tu, qui scis, omneum diligentiam adhibitēbis (Att. v. 2. 3), you, who know, will use all diligence.
vidēte quam déspiciamur omnes qui sumus e municipiis (Phil. iii. 15), see how all of us are scorned who are from the free towns.

b. A verb sometimes agrees in number (and a participle in the verb-form in number and gender) with an appositive or predicate noun: —
amantium irae amoris integrātiō est (Ter. And. 555), the quarrels of lovers are the renewal of love.
nón omnis error stultitia dicenda est (Div. ii. 90), not every error should be called folly.
Corinthus lūtēnt Graeciae estinctum est (cf. Manil. 11), Corinth, the light of Greece, is put out.

Double or Collective Subject

317. Two or more Singular Subjects take a verb in the Plural:
pater et avus mortui sunt, his father and grandfather are dead.

Note.—So rarely (by synesis, § 280. a) when to a singular subject is attached an ablative with cum: as,—dux cum aliquot principibus capiuntur (Liv. xxi. 60), the general and several leading men are taken.

a. When subjects are of different persons, the verb is usually in the first person rather than the second, and in the second rather than the third: —
si tū et Tullia valēris ego et Cicerō valēmus (Fam. xiv. 5), if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well. [Notice that the first person is also first in order, not last, as by courtesy in English.]

Note.—In case of different genders a participle in a verb-form follows the rule for predicate adjectives (see § 287. 2-4).
b. If the subjects are connected by disjunctives (§ 223. a), or if they are considered as a single whole, the verb is usually singular: —

quem neque fides neque ius iurandum neque illum misericordia repressit
(Ter. Ad. 306), not faith, nor oath, ray, nor mercy, checked him.

senatus populusque Romanus intellegit (Fam. v. 8), the Roman senate and
people understand. [But, neque Caesar neque ego habiti essēmus (id.
xii. 20), neither Caesar nor I should have been considered.]

fāma et vita innocentis défenditur (Rosc. Am. 15), the reputation and life of an
innocent man are defended.

cēst in ēō virtūs et probitās et summum officium summaque observantia (Fam.
xiii. 23 A. 2), in him are to be found worth, uprightness, the highest sense of
duty, and the greatest devotion.

Note. — So almost always when the subjects are abstract nouns.

c. When a verb belongs to two or more subjects separately, it often
agrees with one and is understood with the others: —

interēdit M. Antōnius Q. Cassius tribūnī plēbis (B. C. i. 2), Mark Antony
and Quintus Cassius, tribunes of the people, interpose.

hōc milii et Peripatēticī et vetus Acadēmīa concēdit (Acad. ii. 113), this both
the Peripatetic philosophers and the Old Academy grant me.

a. A collective noun commonly takes a verb in the singular; but
the plural is often found with collective nouns when individuals are
thought of (§ 280. a): —

(1) senātus haec intellegit (Cat. i. 2), the senate is aware of this.
ad hiberna exercitus redivit (Liv. xxii. 22), the army returns to winter-quarters.
plēōs ā patribus sēcessit (Sall. Cat. 33), the plebs seceded from the patricians.

(2) pars praedās agēbant (Iug. 32), a part brought in booty.
cum tanta multitudō lapōdēs conicerent (B. G. ii. 6), when such a crowd were
throwing stones.

Note 1. — The point of view may change in the course of a sentence: as, — equitātum omnem . . . quem habēbat praemittit, qui videat (B. G. i. 15), he sent ahead all
the cavalry he had, to see (who should see).

Note 2. — The singular of a noun regularly denoting an individual is sometimes
used collectively to denote a group: as, Poeni, the Carthaginians; miles, the soldiery;
ejeces, the cavalry.

c. Quisque, each, and ūnus quique, every single one, have very often
a plural verb, but may be considered as in partitive apposition with a
plural subject implied (cf. § 282. a): —

sibi quisque habeant quod suum est (Pl. Curc. 180), let every one keep his
own (let them keep every man his own).

Note. — So also uterque, each (of two), and the reciprocal phrases altus . . . alium,
alter . . . alterum (§ 315. a).
Omission of Subject or Verb

318. The Subject of the Verb is sometimes omitted: —

a. A Personal pronoun, as subject, is usually omitted unless emphatic: —
   loquer, I speak. But, ego loquor, it is I that speak.

b. An indefinite subject is often omitted: — créderēs, you would have supposed; putāmus, we (people) think; dicunt, ferunt, perhibent, they say.

c. A passive verb is often used impersonally without a subject expressed or understood (§ 208. d): —
   dīū atque ācriter pugnātum est (B. G. i. 26), they fought long and vigorously.

319. The verb is sometimes omitted: —

a. Dicō, faciō, agō, and other common verbs are often omitted in familiar phrases: —
   quōrum haec [spectant], what does this aim at?
   ex ungue leōnem [cōgnōscēs], you will know a lion by his claw.
   quid multa, what need of many words? (why should I say much?)
   quid? quod, what of this, that . . . ? (what shall I say of this, that . . . ?)
   [A form of transition.]
   Aēolus haec contrā (Aen. i. 70), Aēolus thus [spoke] in reply.
   tum Cotta [inquit], then said Cotta.
   dī meliōra [duint]? (Cat. M. 47), Heaven for fend (may the gods grant better things)!
   unde [venīs] et quō [tendīs]? (Hor. S. ii. 4. 1), where from and whither bound? [Cf. id. i. 9. 62 for the full form.]

b. The copula sum is very commonly omitted in the present indicative and present infinitive, rarely (except by late authors) in the subjunctive: —
   tū coniūnx (Aen. iv. 113), you [are] his wife.
   quid ergō? andācissimus ego ex omnibus (Rosc. Am. 2), what then? am I the boldest of all?
   omnia praecellāra rāra (Lael. 79), all the best things are rare.
   potest incidere saepe contentiō et comparātiō dē duōbus honestis utrum honestius (Off. i. 152), there may often occur a comparison of two honorable actions, as to which is the more honorable. [Here, if any copula were expressed, it would be sit, but the direct question would be complete without any.]
   accipe quae peragenda prius (Aen. vi. 136), hear what is first to be accomplished. [Direct: quae peragenda prius?]
PARTICLES

Adverbs

320. The proper function of Adverbs, as petrified case-forms, is to modify Verbs: as,—celeriter ire, to go with speed. It is from this use that they derive their name (adverbium, from ad, to, and verbum, verb; see § 241. b). They also modify adjectives, showing in what manner or degree the quality described is manifested: as, splendidè mendāx, gloriously false. More rarely they modify other adverbs: as, nimis graviter, too severely. Many adverbs, especially relative adverbs, serve as connectives, and are hardly to be distinguished from conjunctions (see § 20. g. n.).

321. Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs.

a. A Demonstrative or Relative adverb is often equivalent to the corresponding Pronoun with a preposition (see § 308. g):—

eō [= in ea] impēnit vāsa (Jul. 75), upon them (thither, thereon, on the beasts) he puts the camp-utensils.

eō militēs imponēre (B. G. i. 42), to put soldiers upon them (the horses).
apud eōs quō [= ad quās] sē contulit (Verr. iv. 38), among those to whom (whither) he resorted.

qui eum necāset unde [= quō] ipse nātus esset (Rosc. Am. 71), one who should have killed his own father (him whence he had his birth).

ō condicionēs miserās administrandārum provinciārum ubi [= in quibus] severitās periculōsa est (Flacc. 87), O! wretched terms of managing the provinces, where strictness is dangerous.

b. The participles dictum and factum, when used as nouns, are regularly modified by adverbs rather than by adjectives; so occasionally other perfect participles:—

praeclārē facta (Nep. Timoth. 1), glorious deēs (things gloriously done).

multa facētē dicta (Off. i. 104), many witty sayings.

c. A noun is sometimes used as an adjective, and may then be modified by an adverb:—

victor exercitus, the victorious army.

admodum puer, quite a boy (young).

magis vir, more of a man (more manly).

populum ōtē regem (Aen. i. 21), a people ruling far and wide.

Note. — Very rarely adverbs are used with nouns which have no adjective force but which contain a verbal idea:—

hinc abitiō (Plaut. Rud. 503), a going away from here.

quid cōgitem dē obviān itiōne (Att. xiii. 50), what I think about going to meet (him). [Perhaps felt as a compound.]

1 For the derivation and classification of adverbs, see §§ 214–217.
a. A few adverbs appear to be used like adjectives. Such are obviam, palam, sometimes contra, and occasionally others:

fit obviam Clōdiō (Mil. 29), he falls in with (becomes in the way of) Clōdius. [Cf. the adjective obvius: as, — si ille obvius ei futūrus nōn erat (id. 47), if he was not likely to fall in with him.]

haec commemorō quae sunt palam (Pison. 11), I mention these facts, which are well-known.

alia probabilia, contra alia dicimus (Off. ii. 7), we call some things probable, others the opposite (not probable). [In this use, contra contradicts a previous adjective, and so in a manner repeats it.]

erō semper lēnitās (Ter. And. 175), my master’s constant (always) gentleness. [An imitation of a Greek construction.]

Note.—In some cases one can hardly say whether the adverb is treated as an adjective modifying the noun, or the noun modified is treated as an adjective (as in c above).

For proprius, pridiē, palam, and other adverbs used as prepositions, see § 432.

322. The following adverbs require special notice: —

a. Etiam (et iam), also, even, is stronger than quoque, also, and usually precedes the emphatic word, while quoque follows it:

nōn verbis sōlum sed etiam vī (Verr. ii. 64), not only by words, but also by force.

hoc quoque maleficium (Rosc. Am. 117), this crime too.

b. Nunc\(^1\) means definitely now, in the immediate present, and is rarely used of the immediate past.

Iam means now, already, at length, presently, and includes a reference to previous time through which the state of things described has been or will be reached. It may be used of any time. With negatives iam means (no) longer.

Tum, then, is correlative to cum, when, and may be used of any time. Tunc, then, at that time, is a strengthened form of tum (†tum-ce, cf. nunc):

ut iam anteā dīxi, as I have already said before.

si iam satis aetātis atque rōboris habēret (Rosc. Am. 149), if he had attained a suitable age and strength (lit. if he now had, as he will have by and by).

nōn est iam lēnitāti locus, there is no longer room for mercy.

quod iam erat institutum, which had come to be a practice (had now been established).

nunc quidem déleta est, tum flōrebat (Lael. 13), now (t is true) she [Greece] is ruined, then she was in her glory.

tum cum rēgnābat, at the time when he reigned.

\(^{1}\) For †tum-ce; cf. tunc (for †tum-ce).
c. Certō means certainly, certē (usually) at least, at any rate: —
certō scīō, I know for a certainty; ego certē, I at least.

d. Primum means first (first in order, or for the first time), and
implies a series of events or acts. Primō means at first, as opposed
to afterwards, giving prominence merely to the difference of time: —
hōc primum sentiō, this I hold in the first place.
aedis primō ruere rébānīm, at first we thought the house was falling.

Note. — In enumerations, primum (or primō) is often followed by deinde, secondly, in
the next place, or by tum, then, or by both in succession. Deinde may be several times
repeated (secondly, thirdly, etc.). The series is often closed by dénique or postrēmō,
lastly, finally. Thus, — primum dé genere bellī, deinde dé magnītūdīne, tum dé im-
perātore délīgendo (Manil. 6), first of the kind of war, next of its magnitude, then of
the choice of a commander.

e. Quidem, indeed, gives emphasis, and often has a concessive mean-
ing, especially when followed by sed, autem, etc.: —
hōc quidem vidēre licet (Lael. 54), this surely one may see. [Emphatic.]
[sécuritās] speciē quidem blanda, sed rēapse multīs locīs repudiānda (id. 47),
(tranquility) in appearance, 'tis true, attractive, but in reality to be
rejected for many reasons. [Concessive.]

f. Nē . . . quidem means not even or not . . . either. The emphatic
word or words must stand between nē and quidem: —
sed nē Ingrūtha quidem quiētus erat (Ing. 51), but Ingrūtha was not quiet
either.

ego autem nē frāscī possīm quidem īs quōs valdē amā (Att. ii. 19. 1), but I
cannot even get angry with those whom I love very much.

Note. — Quidem has the same senses as quidem, but is in Cicero confined to the
first person. Thus, — quidem adprobābō (Fam. ii. 3. 2), I for my part shall approve.

CONJUNCTIONS

323. Copulative and Disjunctive Conjunctions connect similar
constructions, and are regularly followed by the same case or mood
that precedes them: —

scriptum senātūrē et populō (Cat. iii. 10), written to the senate and people.

ut eās [partēs] sānārēs et cōnfirmārēs (Mil. 68), that you might cure and
strengthen those parts.

neque meā prūdentā neque hūmanīs cōnsiliis frettus (Cat. ii. 29), relying
neither on my own foresight nor on human wisdom.

1 For the classification of conjunctions, see §§ 223, 224.
a. Conjunctions of Comparison (as ut, quam, tamquam, quasi) also commonly connect similar constructions:—

his igitur quam physicis potius crèdendum existimás (Div. ii. 37), do you think these are more to be trusted than the natural philosophers?
hominem callidiorum vidi nèminem quam Phormiònum (Ter. Ph. 591), a shrewder man I never saw than Phormio (cf. § 497).

ut nònum vinum sic nònum omnis nàtùra vetustàte coacèsit (Cat. M. 65),
as every wine does not sour with age, so [does] not every nature.
in mè quasi in tyrannum (Phil. xiv. 15), against me as against a tyrant.

b. Two or more coördinate words, phrases, or sentences are often put together without the use of conjunctions (Asyndeton, § 601. c):

oomnes di, hominès, all gods and men.
sumni, medii, infini, the highest, the middle class, and the lowest.
iùra, légès, agrès, libertàtem nòbis reliquèrunt (B. G. vii. 71), they have left us our rights, our laws, our fields, our liberty.

c. 1. Where there are more than two coördinate words etc., a conjunction, if used, is ordinarily used with all (or all except the first):—

aut aere alienò aut mìnûndine tribùtorum aut iniùrià potentiòrum (B. G. vi. 13), by debt, excessive taxation, or oppression on the part of the powerful.
at sunt mòròsi et auxili et irràcundì et difficiles senès (Cat. M. 65), but (you say) old men are capricious, solicitous, choleric, and fussy.

2. But words are often so divided into groups that the members of the groups omit the conjunction (or express it), while the groups themselves express the conjunction (or omit it):—

propudium illud et portentum, L. Antònius insigne odium omnium hominum (Phil. xiv. 8), that wretch and monster, Lucius Antonius, the abomination of all men.

utrumque ògit graviter, auctòritàte et offensioane animi nòm acerbà (Lael. 77), he acted in both cases with dignity, without loss of authority and with no bitterness of feeling.

3. The enclitic -que is sometimes used with the last member of a series, even when there is no grouping apparent:—

noxè volò méthique (Brut. 110), by voice, expression, and gesture.
cùrùm cònsilium vigilantiamque (Phil. vii. 20), care, wisdom, and vigilance.
quòrum auctòritàtèm dignitàtem voluntàtemque defènderàs (Fam. i. 7. 2),
whose dignity, honor, and wishes you had defended.

d. Two adjectives belonging to the same noun are regularly connected by a conjunction:—

multae et gravès causae, many weighty reasons.
vir liber ac fortis (Rep. ii. 34), a free and brave man.
6. Often the same conjunction is repeated in two coordinate clauses:

- et ... et (-que ... -que), both ... and.
- aut ... aut, either ... or.
- vel ... vel, either ... or. [Examples in § 324. e.]
- sive (seu) ... sive (seu), whether ... or. [Examples in § 324. f.]

f. Many adverbs are similarly used in pairs, as conjunctions, partly or wholly losing their adverbial force:

- nunc ... nunc, tum ... tum, iam ... iam, now ... now.
- modo ... modo, now ... now.
- simul ... simul, at the same time ... at the same time.
- quà ... quà, now ... now, both ... and, alike [this] and [that].
- modo ait modo negat (Ter. Enn. 714), now he says yes, now no.
- simul gràtiās agit, simul gràtulātur (Q. C. vi. 7. 15), he thanks him and at the same time congratulates him.
- ērumpunt saepe vitā amicorum tum in ipsīs amīcōs tum in aliēnōs (Lael. 76), the faults of friends sometimes break out, now against their friends themselves, now against strangers.
- quà marīs quà féminās (Pl. Mil. 1113), both males and females.

g. Certain relative and demonstrative adverbs are used correlatively as conjunctions:

- ut (rel.) ... ita, sic (dem.), as (while) ... so (yet).
- tam (dem.) ... quam (rel.), so (as) ... as.
- cum (rel.) ... tum (dem.), while ... so also; not only ... but also.

324. The following Conjunctions require notice:

a. Et, and, simply connects words or clauses; -que combines more closely into one connected whole. -que is always enclitic to the word connected or to the first or second of two or more words connected:

- cum coniugibus et liberis, with [their] wives and children.
- ferrō ignique, with fire and sword. [Not as separate things, but as the combined means of devastation.]
- aquā et ignī interdictus, forbidden the use of water and fire. [In a legal formula, where they are considered separately.]

b. Atque (ac), and, adds with some emphasis or with some implied reflection on the word added. Hence it is often equivalent to and so, and yet, and besides, and then. But these distinctions depend very much upon the feeling of the speaker, and are often untranslatable:

- omnia honesta atque inhomestā, everything honorable and dishonorable (too, without the slightest distinction).
- usus atque disciplina, practice and theory beside (the more important or less expected).
- atque ego crēdo, and yet I believe (for my part).
c. *Atque* (ac), in the sense of *as, than*, is also used after words of comparison and likeness: —

simul atque, as soon as.
non secus (non aliter) ac si, not otherwise than if.
præ eo ac dēbuit, as was my duty (in accordance as I ought).
aequē ac tā, as much as you.
haud minus ac iussi faciunt, they do just as they are ordered.

For and not, see § 328. a.

\[d^+\] Sed and the more emphatic vērum or vērō, but, are used to introduce something in opposition to what precedes, especially after negatives (*not this . . . but something else*). *At* (old form ast) introduces with emphasis a new point in an argument, but is also used like the others; sometimes it means *at least*. *At enim* is almost always used to introduce a supposed objection which is presently to be overthrown. *At* is more rarely used alone in this sense.

*Autem*, however, now, is the weakest of the adversatives, and often marks a mere transition and has hardly any adversative force perceptible. *Atquē*, however, now, sometimes introduces an objection and sometimes a fresh step in the reasoning. *Quod si, but if, and if, now if,* is used to continue an argument.

**Note.** — Et, -que, and *atque* (ac) are sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest *but*, especially when a negative clause is followed by an affirmative clause continuing the same thought: as, — *impetum hostēs ferre non poterunt ac terga vertērunt* (B. G. iv. 35), the enemy could not stand the onset, but turned their backs.

e. *Aut, or,* excludes the alternative; *vel* (an old imperative of *volo*) and -ve give a choice between two alternatives. But this distinction is not always observed: —

sed quis ego sum aut quae est in mē facultās (Lael. 17), *but who am I or what special capacity have I?* [Here vel could not be used, because in fact a negative is implied and both alternatives are excluded.]

aut bibat aut abeat (Tusc. v. 118), *let him drink or (if he won't do that, then let him) quit.* [Here vel would mean, let him do either as he chooses.]

vita tālis fuit vel fortūnā vel gloriā (Lael. 12), *his life was such either in respect to fortune or fame* ( whichever way you look at it).

si propinquōs habeant imbēcilliorēs vel animō vel fortūnā (id. 70), *if they have relatives beneath them either in spirit or in fortune* (in either respect, for example, or in both).

aut deōrum aut rēgum filiī (id. 70), *sons either of gods or of kings.* [Here one case would exclude the other.]

implicāti vel ἦσα διομένω vel etiam officiis (id. 85), *entangled either by close intimacy or even by obligations.* [Here the second case might exclude the first.]
f. Sive (seu) is properly used in disjunctive conditions (if either... or if), but also with alternative words and clauses, especially with two names for the same thing:—
sive invidens sive quod ita putaret (De Or. i. 91), either laughingly or because he really thought so.
sive deae seu sint volucres (Aen. iii. 262), whether they (the Harpies) are goddesses or birds.

 g. Vel, even, for instance, is often used as an intensive particle with no alternative force: as,—vel minimus, the very least.

 h. Nam and namque, for, usually introduce a real reason, formally expressed, for a previous statement; enim (always postpositive), a less important explanatory circumstance put in by the way; etenim (for, you see; for, you know; for, mind you) and its negative neque enim introduce something self-evident or needing no proof.

 (ca vita) quae est sola vita nominanda. nam dum sumus inclusi in his compagibus corporis, minere quodam necessitas est gravis operae performimur; est enim animus cælestis, etc. (Cat. M. 77), (that life) which alone deserves to be called life; for so long as we are confined by the body's frame, we perform a sort of necessary function and heavy task. For the soul is from heaven.

 harum trium sententiârum nàli prorsus adsentior. nec enim illa prima vera est (Lael. 57), for of course that first one isn't true.

 i. Ergò, therefore, is used of things proved formally, but often has a weakened force. Igitur, then, accordingly, is weaker than ergò and is used in passing from one stage of an argument to another. Itaque, therefore, accordingly, and so, is used in proofs or inferences from the nature of things rather than in formal logical proof. All of these are often used merely to resume a train of thought broken by a digression or parenthesis. Idcirco, for this reason, on this account, is regularly followed (or preceded) by a correlative (as, quia, quod, si, ut, nè), and refers to the special point introduced by the correlative.

 malum mihi vidétur esse mors. est miseriæ igitur, quoniam malum. certè. 
ergò et ei quibus événit iam ut morerentur et ei quibus événârum est miseri. mihi ita vidétur. nòmi ergò non miser. (Tusc. i. 9.) Death seems to me to be an evil. 'It is wretched, then, since it is an evil.' Certainly. 'Therefore, all those who have already died and who are to die hereafter are wretched.' So it appears to me. 'There is no one, therefore, who is not wretched.'

 quia nátiura mútâri nòm potest, idcirco vérae amicitiae sempiternaæ sunt (Lael. 32), because nature cannot be changed, for this reason true friendships are eternal.
Autem, enim, and vērō are *postpositive*; so generally igitur and often tamen.

Two conjunctions of similar meaning are often used together for the sake of emphasis or to bind a sentence more closely to what precedes: as, at vērō, *but in truth, but surely, still, however*; itaque ergō, *accordingly then*; namque, *for*; et-enim, *for, you see, for of course* (§ 324. k).

For Conjunctions introducing Subordinate Clauses, see Syntax.

### Negative Particles

2. In the use of the Negative Particles, the following points are to be observed:

2. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative:

>nēmō non audiet, *every one will hear* (nobody will not hear).
>nōn possum nēn cōnfitēri (Fam. ix. 14. 1), *I must confess.*
>ut . . . nē nōn timēre quidem sine aliquō timōre possimus (Mil. 2), *so that we cannot even be relieved of fear without some fear.*

a. Many compounds or phrases of which nōn is the first part express an *indefinite* affirmative:

>nōn nūllus, *some*; nōn nūlli (= aliqui), *some few.*
>nōn nihil (= aliquid), *something.*
>nōn nēmō (= aliquot), *swadry persons.*
>nōn numquam (= aliquotiens), *sometimes.*

b. Two negatives of which the second is nōn (belonging to the predicate) express a *universal* affirmative:

>nēmō nōn, nūllus nōn, *nobody [does] not, i.e. everybody [does].* [Cf. nōn nēmō, *not nobody, i.e. somebody.*]
>nihil nōn, *everything.* [Cf. nōn nihil, *something.*]
>numquam nōn, *never not, i.e. always.* [Cf. nōn numquam, *sometimes.*]

c. A statement is often made emphatic by denying its contrary (*Litotes*, § 641):

>nōn semel (= saepissime), *often enough (not once only).*
>nōn haec sine nūmine divōm eveniunt (Aen. ii. 777), *these things do not occur without the will of the gods.*
>haec nōn nīmis exquirō (Att. vīi. 18. 3), *not very much, i.e. very little.*

Note. — Compare nōn nūllus, nōn nēmō, etc., in a above.

1 That is, they do not stand first in their clause.
2 For a list of Negative Particles, see § 217. e.
327. A general negation is not destroyed —
1. By a following nē . . . quidem, not even, or nōn modo, not only:—
numquam tū nōn modo ātium, sed nē bellum quidem nisi nefārium concupisisti
(Cat. i. 25), not only have you never desired repose, but you have never
desired any war except one which was infamous.
2. By succeeding negatives each introducing a separate subordinate member:—
eaque nesciēbant nec ubi nec quālia essent (Tusc. iii. 4), they knew not where
or of what kind these things were.
3. By neque introducing a coördinate member:—
nequeō satis mirāri neque conicere (Ter. Eun. 547), I cannot wonder enough
nor conjecture.

328. The negative is frequently joined with a conjunction or
with an indefinite pronoun or adverb. Hence the forms of nega-
tion in Latin differ from those in English in many expressions:—
nūllī (neutrī) crēdō (not nōn crēdō üllī), I do not believe either (I believe
neither).
sine üllō periculō (less commonly cum nūllō), with no danger (without any
danger).
nihil umquam audīvi iūcundius, I never heard anything more amusing.
Cf. negō haec esse vēra (not diē nōn esse), I say this is not true (I deny, etc.).

a. In the second of two connected ideas, and not is regularly ex-
pressed by neque (nec), not by et nōn:—
hostēs terga vertērunt, nēque prius fugere dēsitērunt (B. G. i. 53), the enemy
turned and fled, and did not stop fleeing until, etc.

Note.—Similarly nec quisquam is regularly used for et nēmō; neque üllus for et
nūllus; nec umquam for et umquam; nēve (neu), for et nē.

329. The particle imō, nay, is used to contradict some part of
a preceding statement or question, or its form; in the latter case,
the same statement is often repeated in a stronger form, so that
imō becomes nearly equivalent to yes (nay but, nay rather):—
causa igitur nōn bona est? imō optima (Att. ix. 7. 4), is the cause then not
a good one? on the contrary, the best.

a. Minus, less (especially with sī, if, quō, in order that), and minimē,
least, often have a negative force:—
sī minus possunt, if they cannot. [For quō minus, see § 558. b.]
audācissimus ego ex omnibus? minimē (Rosc. Am. 2), am I the boldest of
them all? by no means (not at all).
QUESTIONS

Forms of Interrogation

330. Questions are either Direct or Indirect.

1. A Direct Question gives the exact words of the speaker: —
   quid est? what is it?      ubi sum? where am I?

2. An Indirect Question gives the substance of the question, adapted to the form of the sentence in which it is quoted. It depends on a verb or other expression of asking, doubting, knowing, or the like: —
   rogavit quid esset, he asked what it was. [Direct: quid est, what is it?]
   nescio ubi sim, I know not where I am. [Direct: ubi sum, where am I?]

331. Questions in Latin are introduced by special interrogative words, and are not distinguished by the order of words, as in English.¹

Note. — The form of Indirect Questions (in English introduced by whether, or by an interrogative pronoun or adverb) is in Latin the same as that of Direct; the difference being only in the verb, which in indirect questions is regularly in the Subjunctive (§ 574).

332. A question of simple fact, requiring the answer yes or no, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word: —
   tūne id veritus es (Q. Fr. i. 3. 1), did you fear that?
   hīcīne vir usquam nīsi in patriā moriētur (Mil. 104), shāl this man die anywhere but in his native land?
   is tibi mortēnne vidētur aut dolōrem timēre (Tusc. v. 88), does he seem to you to fear death or pain?

a. The interrogative particle -ne is sometimes omitted: —
   patēre tua cōnsilia nōn sentis (Cat. i. 1), do you not see that your schemes are manifest? (you do not see, eh?)

Note. — In such cases, as no sign of interrogation appears, it is often doubtful whether the sentence is a question or an ironical statement.

b. When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, as in nōnne, an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer: —
   nōnne animadvertis (N. D. iii. 83), do you not observe?
   num dubium est (Rosc. Am. 107), there is no doubt, is there?

Note. — In Indirect Questions num commonly loses its peculiar force and means simply whether.

¹ For a list of Interrogative Particles, see § 217. d.
c. The particle -ne often when added to the verb, less commonly when added to some other word, has the force of nōnne:—

meministīne mē in senātū dicere (Cat. i. 7), don't you remember my saying in the Senate?

rēctēne interpretor sententiam tuam (Tusc. iii. 37), do I not rightly interpret your meaning?

Note 1.—This was evidently the original meaning of -ne; but in most cases the negative force was lost and -ne was used merely to express a question. So the English interrogative no? shades off into eh?

Note 2.—The enclitic -ne is sometimes added to other interrogative words: as, utrumne, whether? anne, or; quantane (Hor. S. ii. 3. 317), how big? quōne malō (id. ii. 3. 295), by what curve?

333. A question concerning some special circumstance is formed by prefixing to the sentence an interrogative pronoun or adverb as in English (§ 152):—

quid exspectās (Cat. ii. 18), what are you looking forward to?

quō igitur haec spectant (Fam. vi. 6. 11), whither then is all this tending?

Icāre, ubi es (Ov. M. viii. 232), Icarius, where are you?

quod vectigal vōbis tātum fuit? quem socium dēfendistis? cui praesidiō classibus vestris fuitis? (Manil. 32), what revenue has been safe for you? what ally have you defended? whom have you guarded with your fleets?

Note.—A question of this form becomes an exclamation by changing the tone of the voice: as,—

quālis vir erat! what a man he was!

quōt calamitātēs passā sumus! how many misfortunes we have suffered!

quō studiō cōnsentiunt (Cat. iv. 15), with what zeal they unite!

α. The particles -nam (enclitic) and tandem may be added to interrogative pronouns and adverbs for the sake of emphasis:—

quisnam est, pray who is it? [quis tandem est? would be stronger.]

ubinam gentium sumus (Cat. i. 9), where in the world are we?

in quā tandem urbe hōc disputant (Mil. 7), in what city, pray, do they maintain this?

Note.—Tandem is sometimes added to verbs:—

ain tandem (Fam. ix. 21), you don't say so! (say you so, pray?)

itāne tandem uxōrem dūxīt Antiphō (Ter. Ph. 231), so then, eh? Antípho's got married.

Double Questions

334. A Double or Alternative Question is an inquiry as to which of two or more supposed cases is the true one.

335. In Double or Alternative Questions, utrum or -ne, whether, stands in the first member; an, anne, or, annōn, necne, or not, in the second; and usually an in the third, if there be one:—
utrum nescis, an prò nihilō id putās (Fam. x. 26), is it that you don’t know, or do you think nothing of it?

vōsne L. Domitium an vōs Domitius dēseruit (B. C. ii. 32), did you desert Lucius Domitius, or did Domitius desert you?

quaerō servōsne an libēros (Rose. Am. 74), I ask whether slaves or free.

utrum hostem an vōs an fortūnam utriusque populii ignōrātis (Liv. xxi. 10), is it the enemy, or yourselves, or the fortune of the two peoples, that you do not know?

Note. — Anne for an is rare. Necē is rare in direct questions, but in indirect questions it is commoner than annōn. In poetry -ne . . . -ne sometimes occurs.

a. The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member; in which case an or -ne (anne, necne) may stand in the second: —

Gabiniō dicam anne Pompēiō an utrique (Manil. 57), shall I say to Gabinius, or to Pompey, or to both?

sunt hæc tua verba necē (Tusc. iii. 41), are these your words or not?

quaeśivi ā Catilīnā in conventū apud M. Laecam fuisset necē (Cat. ii. 13), I asked Catiline whether he had been at the meeting at Marcus Laeca’s or not.

b. Sometimes the first member is omitted or implied, and an (anne) alone asks the question, —usually with indignation or surprise: —

an tū miserōs putās ilīs (Tusc. i. 13), what! do you think those men wretched?

an iste unquam dē sē bonam spem habuisset, nisi dē vōbis malam opinionem animō imbibisset (Verr. i. 42), would he ever have had good hopes about himself unless he had conceived an evil opinion of you?

c. Sometimes the second member is omitted or implied, and utrum may ask a question to which there is no alternative: —

utrum est in clārissimīs civibus is, quem . . . (Flacc. 45), is he among the noblest citizens, whom, etc.?

d. The following table exhibits the various forms of alternative questions: —

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Note. — From double (alternative) questions must be distinguished those which are in themselves single, but of which some detail is alternative. These have the common disjunctive particles aut or vel (-ve). Thus, — quaerō num inūstē aut improbē fēcerit (Off. iii. 54), I ask whether he acted unjustly or even dishonestly. Here there is no double question. The only inquiry is whether the man did either of the two things supposed, not which of the two he did.
Question and Answer

336. There is no one Latin word in common use meaning simply yes or no. In answering a question affirmatively, the verb or some other emphatic word is generally repeated; in answering negatively, the verb, etc., with non or a similar negative: —

valetne, is he well? valet, yes (he is well).
cratue tecum, was he with you? non erat, no (he was not).
um quidnam novi? there is nothing new, is there? nihil sanē, oh! nothing.

a. An intensive or negative particle, a phrase, or a clause is sometimes used to answer a direct question: —

1. For yes: —

vērō, in truth, true, no doubt, yes. ita vērō, certainly (so in truth), etc.
etiam, even so, yes, etc.
ita, so, true, etc.
sanē, surely, no doubt, doubtless, etc.
certē, certainly, unquestionably, etc.
factum, true, it’s a fact, you’re right, etc. (lit., it was done).

2. For no: —
non, not so.
nullō modo, by no means.
minimē, not at all (lit., in the smallest degree, cf. § 329. a).
minimē vērō, no, not by any means; oh! no, etc.
non quidem, why, no; certainly not, etc.
non herele vērō, why, gracious, no! (certainly not, by Hercules!)

Examples are: —

aut etiam aut non respondēre (Acad. ii. 104), to answer (categorically) yes or no.
estne ut fertur forma? sanē (Ter. Eun. 361), is she as handsome as they say she is? (is her beauty as it is said?) oh! yes.
miser ergō Archelāus? certē si inēstus (Tusc. v. 35), was Archelaus wretched then? certainly, if he was unjust.
an haec contemnitis? minimē (De Or. ii. 295), do you despise these things? not at all.
volumibus ne et feris? minimē vērō (Tusc. i. 104), to the birds and beasts? why, of course not.
ex tua animi sententia tu uxorem habēs? non hercle, ex mei animi sententiā (De Or. ii. 260), Lord! no, etc.

337. In answering a double question, one member of the alternative, or some part of it, must be repeated: —

vidisti an dē auditō nūntiās? — egomet vidi (Plaut. Merc. 902), did you see it or are you repeating something you have heard? — I saw it myself.
CONSTRUCTION OF CASES

§ 338. The Cases of nouns express their relations to other words in the sentence. The most primitive way of expressing such relations was by mere juxtaposition of uninflected forms. From this arose in time composition, i.e. the growing together of stems, by means of which a complex expression arises with its parts mutually dependent. Thus such a complex as armi-gero- came to mean arm-bearing; fidi-cen-, playing on the lyre. Later, Cases were formed by means of suffixes expressing more definitely such relations, and Syntax began. But the primitive method of composition still continues to hold an important place even in the most highly developed languages.

Originally the Indo-European family of languages, to which Latin belongs, had at least seven case-forms, besides the Vocative. But in Latin the Locative and the Instrumental were lost except in a few words (where they remained without being recognized as cases), and their functions were divided among the other cases.

The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative express the simplest and perhaps the earliest case-relations. The Nominative is the case of the Subject, and generally ends in -s. The Vocative, usually without a termination, or like the Nominative (§ 33. a), perhaps never had a suffix of its own. The Accusative, most frequently formed by the suffix -m, originally connected the noun loosely with the verb-idea, not necessarily expressed by a verb proper, but as well by a noun or an adjective (see § 380).

The Genitive appears to have expressed a great variety of relations and to have had no single primitive meaning; and the same may be true of the Dative.

The other cases perhaps at first expressed relations of place or direction (to, from, at, with), though this is not clear in all instances. The earlier meanings, however, have become confused with each other, and in many instances the cases are no longer distinguishable in meaning or in form. Thus the Locative was for the most part lost from its confusion with the Dative and Ablative; and its function was often performed by the Ablative, which is freely used to express the place where (§ 421). To indicate the case-relations—especially those of place—more precisely, Propositions (originally adverbs) gradually came into use. The case-endings, thus losing something of their significance, were less distinctly pronounced as time went on (see § 36, phonetic decay), and prepositions have finally superseded them in the modern languages derived from Latin. But in Latin a large and various body of relations was still expressed by case-forms. It is to be noticed that in their literal use cases tended to adopt the preposition, and in their figurative uses to retain the old construction. (See Ablative of Separation, §§ 402-404; Ablative of Place and Time, § 421 f.)

The word cānas, case, is a translation of the Greek πτωσις, a falling away (from the erect position). The term πτωσις was originally applied to the Oblique Cases (§ 35. g), to mark them as variations from the Nominative, which was called ὑπή, erect (cāsus rectus). The later name Nominative (cāsus nominativus) is from nomināre, and means the naming case. The other case-names (except Ablative) are of Greek origin. The name Genitive (cāsus genitivus) is a translation of γενής [πτωσις], from γενεσ (class), and refers to the class to which a thing belongs. Dative (cāsus dativus, from δατου), is translated from δατου, and means the case of giving. Accusative (accēssivus, from accusās) is a mistranslation of aitōρο̄w (the case of causing), from aitōra, cause, and meant to the Romans the case of accusing. The name Vocative (vocētus, from vocē) is translated from aitōρο̄w (the case of calling). The name Ablative (ablātīvus, from ablātus, auferō) means taking from. This case the Greek had lost.

1 Some of the endings, however, which in Latin are assigned to the dative and ablative are doubtless of locative or instrumental origin (see p. 34, footnote).

2 The e-vocative of the second declension is a form of the stem (§ 45. c).
NOMINATIVE CASE

339. The Subject of a finite verb is in the Nominative: —

Caesar Rhēnum trānsīre dēcrēverat (L. G. iv. 17), Caesar had determined to
cross the Rhine.

For the omission of a pronominal subject, see § 295. a.

a. The nominative may be used in exclamations: —

ēn dextra fidēsque (Aen. iv. 597), lo, the faith and plighted word!
ecce tuae litterae de Varrōne (Att. xiii. 16), lo and behold, your letters about
Varro!

Note. — But the accusative is more common (§ 397. d).

VOCATIVE CASE

340. The Vocative is the case of direct address: —

Tiberīne pater, tā, sānte, precor (Liv. ii. 10), O father Tiber, thee, holy one,
I pray.

rēs omnis mīhi tēcum erit, Hortēnsi (Verr. i. 33). my whole attention will be
devoted to you, Hortensius.

a. A noun in the nominative in apposition with the subject of the
imperative mood is sometimes used instead of the vocative: —

audī tā, populus Albānus (Liv. i. 24), hear, thou people of Alba.

b. The vocative of an adjective is sometimes used in poetry instead
of the nominative, where the verb is in the second person: —

quō moriturē ruis (Aen. x. 811), whither art thou rushing to thy doom?
cēnsōrem trābecāte salūtās (Pers. iii. 29), robæt you salute the censor.

c. The vocative macte estō (virtūte), success attend your (valor): —

iubērem tē macte virtūte esse (Liv. ii. 12), I should bid you go on and prosper
in your valor.
macte novā virtūte puer (Aen. ix. 641), success attend your valor, boy!

Note. — As the original quantity of the final e in macte is not determinable, it may
be that the word was an adverb, as in bene est and the like.

GENITIVE CASE

341. The Genitive is regularly used to express the relation of
one noun to another. Hence it is sometimes called the adjective
case, to distinguish it from the Dative and the Ablative, which
may be called adverbial cases.
The uses of the Genitive may be classified as follows: —

1. Genitive with Nouns:
   1. Of Possession (§ 343).
   2. Of Material (§ 344).
   3. Of Quality (§ 345).
   4. Of the Whole, after words designating a Part (Partitive, § 346).
   5. With Nouns of Action and Feeling (§ 348).

II. Genitive with Adjectives:
   1. After Relative Adjectives (or Verbals) (§ 349).
   2. Of Specification (later nsc) (§ 349 d).

III. Genitive with Verbs:
   1. Of Memory, Feeling, etc. (§§ 350, 351, 354).
   2. Of Accusing, etc. (Charge or Penalty) (§ 352).

GENITIVE WITH NOUNS

342. A noun used to limit or define another, and not meaning the same person or thing, is put in the Genitive.

This relation is most frequently expressed in English by the preposition of, sometimes by the English genitive (or possessive) case: —

libri Ciceronis, the books of Cicero, or Cicero’s books.
inimici Caesaris, Caesar’s enemies, or the enemies of Caesar.
talentum auri, a talent of gold.
vir summae virtutis, a man of the greatest courage.

But observe the following equivalents: —

vacatiō laboris, a respite from toil.
petitiō consultiōnis, candidacy for the consulship.
rēgnum civitātis, royal power over the state.

Possessive Genitive

343. The Possessive Genitive denotes the person or thing to which an object, quality, feeling, or action belongs: —

Alexandri canis, Alexander’s dog.
potentia Pompēi (Sall. Cat. 19), Pompey’s power.
Ariovisti mort (B. G. v. 29), the death of Ariovistus.
perditārum temeritās (Mil. 22), the recklessness of desperate men.

Note 1. — The Possessive Genitive may denote (1) the actual owner (as in Alexander’s dog) or author (as in Cicero’s writings), or (2) the person or thing that possesses some feeling or quality or does some act (as in Cicero’s eloquence, the strength of the bridge, Catiline’s evil deeds). In the latter use it is sometimes called the Subjective Genitive; but this term properly includes the possessive genitive and several other genitive constructions (nearly all, in fact, except the Objective Genitive, § 347).

Note 2. — The noun limited is understood in a few expressions: —
ad Castoris [aedēs] (Quinct. 17), at the [temple] of Castor. [Cf. St. Paul’s.]
Flaccus Claudii, Flaccus [slave] of Claudius.
Hectoris Andromachē (Aen. iii. 319), Hector’s [wife] Andromache.
a. For the genitive of possession a possessive or derivative adjective is often used, — regularly for the possessive genitive of the personal pronouns (§ 302. a): —

über meus, my book. [Not liber mei.]
aliēna pericula, other men’s dangers. [But also aliōrum.]
Sullāna tempora, the times of Sulla. [Oftener Sullae.]

b. The possessive genitive often stands in the predicate, connected with its noun by a verb (Predicate Genitive): —

haec domus est patris mei, this house is my father’s.
iam me Pompei totum esse scis (Fam. ii. 13), you know I am now all for Pompey (all Pompey’s).
summa laus et tua et Brūtī est (Fam. xii. 4. 2), the highest praise is due both to you and to Brutus (is both yours and Brutus’s).
compendi facere, to save (make of saving).
lucrum facere, to get the benefit of (make of profit).

Note. — These genitives bear the same relation to the examples in § 343 that a predicate noun bears to an appositive (§§ 282, 283).

c. An infinitive or a clause, when used as a noun, is often limited by a genitive in the predicate:

neque sui iūdici [erat] discerere (B. C. i. 35), nor was it for his judgment to decide (nor did it belong to his judgment).
cūiusvis hominis est errare (Phil. xii. 5), it is any man’s [liability] to err.
negavit mōris esse Graecōrum, ut in conviviō virōrum accumberland mulierēs (Verr. ii. 1. 66), he said it was not the custom of the Greeks for women to appear as guests (recline) at the banquets of men.
scēd timēi est optāre necem, (Ov. M. iv. 115), but ’tis the coward’s part to wish for death.
stultī erat spérare, saēdēres impudentis (Phil. ii. 23), it was folly (the part of a fool) to hope, effrontery to urge.
sapiēntis est paucā loqui, it is wise (the part of a wise man) to say little.
[Not sapiēns (neuter) est, etc.]

Note 1. — This construction is regular with adjectives of the third declension instead of the neuter nominative (see the last two examples).

Note 2. — A derivative or possessive adjective may be used for the genitive in this construction, and must be used for the genitive of a personal pronoun: —
mentiri nōn est meum [not mei], it is not for me to lie.
humānum [for hominēs] est errare, it is man’s nature to err (to err is human).

d. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition (Appositional Genitive) (§ 282): —
nōmen insanīae (for nōmen insanīa), the word madness.
oppidum Antiochiae (for oppidum Antiochiae, the regular form), the city of Antioch.
Genitive of Material

344. The Genitive may denote the Substance or Material of which a thing consists (cf. § 403): —

talentum aurī, a talent of gold. flūmina lactis, rivers of milk.

Genitive of Quality

345. The Genitive is used to denote Quality, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective: —

vir summae virtūtis, a man of the highest courage. [But not vir virtūtis.]
māgnae est déliberātiōnis, it is an affair of great deliberation.
māgni formae labōris (Hor. S. i. 1. 33), the ant [a creature] of great toil.
ille autem sui iūdici (Nep. Att. 9), but he [a man] of independent (his own) judgment.

NOTE. — Compare Ablative of Quality (§ 415). In expressions of quality, the genitive or the ablative may often be used indifferently: as, praestantī prūdentiā vir, a man of surpassing wisdom; maximī animī homō, a man of the greatest courage. In classic prose, however, the genitive of quality is much less common than the ablative: it is practically confined to expressions of measure or number, to a phrase with ūius, and to nouns modified by māgnus, maximus, summus, or tantus. In general the Genitive is used rather of essential, the Ablative of special or incidental characteristics.

a. The genitive of quality is found in the adjective phrases ūius modī, cūius modī (equivalent to tālis, such; quālis, of what sort): —

ūius modī sunt tempestātēs cōnsecūtēs, uti (B. G. iii. 29), such storms followed, that, etc.

b. The genitive of quality, with numerals, is used to define measures of length, depth, etc. (Genitive of Measure): —

fossa trium pedum, a trench of three feet [in depth].
mūrin sēdecim pedum, a wall of sixteen feet [high].

For the Genitive of Quality used to express indefinite value, see § 417.

Partitive Genitive

346. Words denoting a Part are followed by the Genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs.

a. Partitive words, followed by the genitive, are —

1. Nouns or Pronouns (cf. also 3 below): —

pars militum, part of the soldiers. quis nostrum, which of us?
nihil erat reliquī, there was nothing left.
nēmō sōrum (B. G. vii. 66), not a man of them.
māgnam partem sōrum interfecerunt (id. ii. 23), they killed a large part of them.
2. Numerals, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Pronominal words like alius, alter, nūllus, etc.: —
ūnus triēnōrum, one of the tribunes (see c below).
sapiēstum octāvus (Hor. S. ii. 3. 296), the eighth of the wise men.
mīlā passuum sescenta (B. G. iv. 3), six hundred miles (thousands of paces).
māior frātrum, the elder of the brothers.
animālium fortīōra, the stronger [of] animals.
Suebōrum ġēns est longē maxima et bellicōsissima Germānōrum omnium (B. G. iv. 1), the tribe of the Suevi is far the largest and most warlike of all the Germans.
alter cōnsulum, one of the [two] consuls.
nūlla eārum (B. G. iv. 28), not one of them (the ships).

3. Neuter Adjectives and Pronouns, used as nouns: —
tantum spati, so much [of] space.
aliqüid nummōrum, a few pence (something of coins).
id loci (or locōrum), that spot of ground; id temporis, at that time (§ 397. a).
plāns urbis, the level parts of the town.
quid novī, what news? (what of new?)
plōs dōloris (B. G. i. 20), more grief.
suia liqüid tīnōris (B. C. ii. 29), some fear of his own (something of his own fear).

Note 1. — In classic prose neuter adjectives (not pronominal) seldom take a partitive genitive, except multum, tantum, quantum, and similar words.

Note 2. — The genitive of adjectives of the third declension is rarely used partitively: — nihil novi (genitive), nothing new; but, — nihil memorābile (nominative), nothing worth mention (not nihil memorābils).

4. Adverbs, especially those of Quantity and of Place: —
parum ötī, not much ease (too little of ease).
satis pecōniae, money enough (enough of money).
plōrinum tōfius Galliāe equitātā valet (B. G. v. 3), is strongest of all Gaul in cavalry.
ubinam gentium sumus (Cat. i. 9), where in the world are we (where of nations)?
ubicumque terrārum et gentium (Verr. v. 143), wherever in the whole world.
rēs erat eō iam loci ut (Sest. 68), the business had now reached such a point that, etc.
inde loci, next in order (thence of place). [Poetical.]

b. The poets and later writers often use the partitive genitive after adjectives, instead of a noun in its proper case: —
sequinmū tē, sāncte deōrum (Aen. iv. 576), we follow thee, O holy deity. [For sāncte deus (§ 49. g. n.)]
nigrae lānārum (Plin. H. N. viii. 193), black wools. [For nigrae lānæ.]
expeūtī militūm (Liv. xxx. 9), light-armed soldiers. [For expētū militēs.]
hominum cūctōs (Ov. M. iv. 631), all men. [For cūctōs hominēs; cf. e.]}
§§ 346-348] OBJECTIVE GENITIVE 215

c. Cardinai numerals (except Bilia) regularly take the Ablative with e (ex) or de instead of the Partitive Genitive. So also quidam, a certain one, commonly, and other words occasionally: —

unus ex tribunis, one of the tribunes. [But also, unus tribunorum (cf. a. 2).]

minimus ex illis (Iug. 11), the youngest of them.

medius ex tribus (ib.), the middle one of the three.

quidam ex militibus, certain of the soldiers.

unus de multis (Fin. ii. 66), one of the many.

pauci de nostris cadunt (B. G. i. 15), a few of our men fall.

homine de comitibus meis, a man of my companions.

d. Uterque, both—(properly each), and quisque, each, with Nouns are regularly used as adjectives in agreement, but with Pronouns take a partitive genitive: —

uterque consul, both the consuls; but, uterque nostrum, both of us.

unus quisque vestrum, each one of you.

utraque castre, both camps.

e. Numbers and words of quantity including the whole of any thing take a case in agreement, and not the partitive genitive. So also words denoting a part when only that part is thought of: —

nös omnés, all of us (we all). [Not omnés nostrum.]

quot sunt hostés, how many of the enemy are there?

cavē inimicós, qui multí sunt, beware of your enemies, who are many.

multí multés, many of the soldiers.

nēmō Rōmānus, not one Roman.

Objective Genitive

347. The Objective Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

348. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the Genitive of the Object: —

cāritās tui, affection for you.

désiderium ēti, longing for rest.

vacātiō muneris, relief from duty.

grātiā benefici, gratitude for kindness.

fuga malōrum, refuge from disaster.

precātiō déorum, prayer to the gods.

contentiō honōrum, struggle for office.

opinātiō virtūtis, reputation for valor.

Note.—This usage is an extension of the idea of belonging to (Possessive Genitive). Thus in the phrase odiam Caesaris, hate of Caesar, the hate in a passive sense belongs to Caesar, as odium, though in its active sense he is the object of it, as hate (cf. a). The distinction between the Possessive (subjective) and the Objective Genitive is very unstable and is often lost sight of. It is illustrated by the following example: the phrase amor patris, love of a father, may mean love felt by a father, a father’s love (subjective genitive), or love towards a father (objective genitive).
a. The objective genitive is sometimes replaced by a possessive pronoun or other derivative adjective:—

mea invidia, my unpopularity (the dislike of which I am the object). [Cf. odium meī (Har. Resp. 5), hatred of me.]
laudātor meus (Att. i. 10. 5), my eulogist (one who praises me). [Cf. nostrī laudātor (id. i. 14. 6).]
Clōdiānum crīmen (Mil. 72), the murder of Clodiarius (the Clodian charge). [As we say, the Nathan murder.]
metās hostilīs (Ing. 41), fear of the enemy (hostile fear).
ca quac faciebat, tuā sē fidāciā facere dicebat (Verr. v. 176), what he was doing, he said he did relying on you (with your reliance).
neque neglegentī tuā, neque īd odiō fēcit tū (Ter. Ph. 1010), he did this neither from neglect nor from hatred of you.

b. Rarely the objective genitive is used with a noun already limited by another genitive:—

animī multārum rērum percursiō (Tusc. iv. 31), the mind’s traversing of many things.

c. A noun with a preposition is often used instead of the objective genitive:—

odium in Antōnium (Pam. x. 5. 3), hate of Antony.
merita ērgā mē (id. i. 1. 1), services to me.
meam in tē pietātem (id. i. 9. 1), my devotion to you.
impetus in urbem (Phil. xii. 29), an attack on the city.
excessus ē vitā (Fin. iii. 60), departure from life. [Also, excessus vitae, Tusc. i. 27.]
adoptiō in Domitiōnium (Tac. Ann. xii. 25), the adoption of Domitius. [A late, and bold extension of this construction.]

Note.—So also in late writers the dative of reference (cf. § 360. b): as,—longō bellō māteria (Tac. H. i. 89), resources for a long war.

**GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES**

§ 349. Adjectives requiring an object of reference govern the Objective Genitive.

\( \Delta \) a. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt, and their opposites govern the genitive:—

avidī laudīs (Manil. 7), greedy of praise.
fastidiosus litterārum, disclaiming letters.
iūris pertitus, skilled in law. [So also the ablative, iūre, cf. § 418.]
memorēm vestri, oblivīnum sal (Cat. iv. 19), mindful of you, forgetful of himself.
rationēs et orātiōnis exportēs (Off. i. 50), devoid of sense and speech.
nostrae consūtūdinis imperītī (B.G. iv. 22), unacquainted with our customs.
plēnus fidei, full of good faith.

omnis spei egenaum (Tac. Ann. i. 58), destitute of all hope.

tempestātum potentem (Aen. i. 80), having sway over the storms.

impotentis irae (Liv. xxix. 9. 9), ungovernable in anger.

coniurationis particeps (Cat. iii. 14), sharing in the conspiracy.

affinis rei capitālis (Verr. ii. 2. 94), involved in a capital crime.

insōns culpae (Liv. xxii. 49), innocent of guilt.

b. Participles in -ns govern the genitive when they are used as
adjectives, i.e. when they denote a constant disposition and not a
particular act: —

sī quem tuī amansōrēm cognōvisti (Q. Fr. i. 1. 15), if you have become
acquainted with any one more fond of you.

multītūdō insolentēs beliī (B. C. ii. 36), a crowd unused to war.

erat Jugurthae appetēns gloriæ militāris (Lug. 7), Jugurtha was eager for mili-
tary glory.

Note 1.—Participles in -ns, when used as participles, take the case regularly gov-
erned by the verb to which they belong: as, — Sp. Maelium rēgum appetēntem inter-
ēmit (Cat. M. 56), he put to death Spurium Maelius, who was aspiring to royal power.

Note 2.—Occasionally participial forms in -ns are treated as participles (see note 1)
even when they express a disposition or character: as, — virtūs quae alīs temper-
amentam dicunt esse, alīs obtemperantem temperantium praeceptis et eam subse-
quentem (Tusc. iv. 30), observant of the teachings of temperance and obedient to her.

c. Verbals in -āx (§ 251) govern the genitive in poetry and later
Latin: —

iūstum et tenācem prōpositi virum (Il. Od. iii. 3), a man just and steadfast
to his purpose.

circus capāx populi (Ov. A. A. i. 130), a circus big enough to hold the people.

cibi vinique capācissimus (Liv. ix. 16. 13), a very great eater and drinker
(very able to contain food and wine).

da. The poets and later writers use the genitive with almost any
adjective, to denote that with reference to which the quality exists
(Genitive of Specification): —

callidus rei militāris (Tac. II. ii. 32), skilled in soldiership.

pauper aquae (Hor. Od. iii. 30. 11), scant of water.

nōtus animī paternī (id. ii. 2. 6), famed for a paternal spirit.

fessi rērum (Aen. i. 178), weary of toil.

integer vitae sclerosique pūrns (Hor. Od. i. 22. 1), upright in life, and unstained
by guilt.

Note.—The Genitive of Specification is only an extension of the construction with
adjectives requiring an object of reference (§ 349). Thus callidus denotes knowledge;

pauper, want; pūrns, innocence; and so these words in a manner belong to the classes
under a.

For the Ablative of Specification, the prose construction, see § 418. For Adjectives
of likeness etc. with the Genitive, apparently Objective, see § 385. c. For Adjectives
with animī (locative in origin), see § 358.
GENITIVE WITH VERBS

Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting

350. Verbs of remembering and forgetting take either the Accusative or the Genitive of the object:

a. Memini takes the Accusative when it has the literal sense of retaining in the mind what one has seen, heard, or learned. Hence the accusative is used of persons whom one remembers as acquaintances, or of things which one has experienced.

So obliviscor in the opposite sense, — to forget literally, to lose all memory of a thing (very rarely, of a person).

Cinamn memini (Phil. v. 17), I remember Cinna.

utinam avum tuum meminisse (id. i. 34), oh! that you could remember your grandfather! (but he died before you were born).

Postumium, cōnus statuam in Isthmō meminisse vēdicis (Att. xiii. 32), Postumium, whose statue you say you remember (to have seen) on the Isthmus.

omnia meminit Siron Epicurī dogmata (Acad. ii. 106), Siron remembers all the doctrines of Epicurus.

multa ab allis audita meminērunt (De Or. ii. 355), they remember many things that they have heard from others.

tōtam causam oblivitus est (Brut. 217), he forgot the whole case.

hinc iam obliviscere Grāiōs (Aen. ii. 148), from henceforth forget the Greeks (i.e. not merely disregard them, but banish them from your mind, as if you had never known them).

b. Memini takes the Genitive when it means to be mindful or regardful of a person or thing, to think of somebody or something (often with special interest or warmth of feeling).

So obliviscor in the opposite sense, — to disregard, or dismiss from the mind, — and the adjective oblivus, careless or regardless.

ipse sui meminerat (Verr. ii. 138), he was mindful of himself (of his own interests).

faciam ut hīus loci diēaque meāque semper meminerim (Ter. Eun. 801), I will make you remember this place and this day and me as long as you live.

nee mē meminisse pigēbit Eūssae, dum memor ipse met (Aen. iv. 335), nor shall I feel regret at the thought of Eūssa, so long as I remember myself.

meminērunt verēcundiae (Off. i. 122), let them cherish modesty.

hūmīnæ infirmitātis meminī (Liv. xxx. 31. 6), I remember human weakness.

oblivisci temporum necūrn, meminisse āctīnum (Pam. i. 9. 8), to disregard my own interests, to be mindful of the matters at issue.

nece tamen Epicurī licet oblivisci (Fin. v. 3), and yet I must not forget Epicurus.

obliviscere caedis atque incendiōrum (Cat. i. 6), turn your mind from slaughter and conflagrations (dismiss them from your thoughts).
Note 1. — With both meminī and obliviscor the personal and reflexive pronouns are regularly in the Genitive; neuter pronouns and adjectives used substantively are regularly in the Accusative; abstract nouns are often in the Genitive. These uses come in each instance from the natural meaning of the verbs (as defined above).

Note 2. — Meminī in the sense of mention takes the Genitive: as, — eundem Achillam cātus supra meminimus (B. C. iii. 108), that same Achilles whom I mentioned above.

c. Reminiscor is rare. It takes the Accusative in the literal sense of call to mind, recollect; the Genitive in the more figurative sense of be mindful of: —

 dulcis mōriēns reminiscitur Argōs (Aen. x. 782), as he dies he calls to mind his beloved Argos.
reminiscerētur et veteris incommodi populi Rōmānī et prīstinae virtūtis Helvētiōrum (B. G. i. 13), let him remember both the former discomfiture of the Roman people and the ancient valor of the Helvetians. [A warning, — let him bear it in mind (and beware)!]

d. Recordor, recollect, recall, regularly takes the Accusative: —

recordāre cōnsēsum illum theatrī (Phil. i. 30), recall that unanimous agreement of the [audience in the] theatre.
recordāmini omnēs cīvilēs diissēsionēs (Cat. iii. 24), call to mind all the civil wars.

Note. — Recordor takes the genitive once (Pison. 12); it is never used with a personal object, but may be followed by dē with the ablative of the person or thing (cf. § 351, n.): —

dē tē recordor (Scanr. 49), I remember about you.
dē lēss (lacrimis) recordor (Planc. 104), I am reminded of those tears.

Verbs of Reminding

351. Verbs of reminding take with the Accusative of the person a Genitive of the thing; except in the case of a neuter pronoun, which is put in the accusative (cf. § 390, c).

So admonēō, commoneō, commonefeciō, commonefīō. But moneō with the genitive is found in late writers only.

Catilīna admonēbat alium egestātis, alium cupiditātis suae (Sall. Cat. 21),
Catiline reminded one of his poverty, another of his cupidity.
eōs hoc moneō (Cat. ii. 20), I give them this warning.
quod vōs lēx commonet (Verr. iii. 40), that which the law reminds you of.

Note. — All these verbs often take dē with the ablative, and the accusative of nouns as well as of pronouns is sometimes used with them: —
saeipius tē admonēo dē syngraphā Sittianā (Fam. viii. 4. 5) I remind you again and again of Sittius’s bond.
officiēum vos trānum ut vōs mālo cōgātis commoneāri (Plant. Ps. 159), that you may by misfortune force yourselves to be reminded of your duty.
Verbs of Accusing, Condemning, and Acquitting

352. Verbs of *accusing*, *condemning*, and *acquitting*, take the Genitive of the Charge or Penalty:—

arguit mē furtī, *he accuses me of theft*.
pecūliātus damnātus (*pecūniāe públicas damnātus*) (Flacc. 43), *condemned for embezzlement*.
videō nōn tē absolūtum esse improbitātis, sed illōs damnātōs esse caedis (Verr. ii. 1. 72), *I see, not that you were acquitted of outrage, but that they were condemned for homicide*.

a. Peculiar genitives, under this construction, are—
capitis, as in damnāre capitis, *to sentence to death*.
māiestātis [laesae], *treason* (crime against the dignity of the state).
repetundārum [rērum], *extortion* (lit. of an action for reclaiming money).
vōtī damnātus (or reus), *bound* [to the payment] of one's vow, i.e. successful in one's effort.
pecūniāe (damnāre, iūdicāre, see note).
duplī etc., as in duplī condemnāre, *condemn to pay twofold*.

Note.—The origin of these genitive constructions is pointed at by pecūniāe damnāre (Gell. xx. 1. 38), *to condemn to pay money*, in a case of injury to the person; quantae pecūniāe iūdicāti essent (id. xx. 1. 47), *how much money they were adjudged to pay*, in a mere suit for debt; confessi aeris ac debitī iūdicati (id. xx. 1. 42), *adjudged to owe an admitted sum due*. These expressions show that the genitive of the penalty comes from the use of the genitive of value to express a *sum of money due* either as a debt or as a fine. Since in early civilizations all offences could be compounded by the payment of fines, the genitive came to be used of other punishments, not pecuniary. From this to the genitive of the actual crime is an easy transition, inasmuch as there is always a confusion between crime and penalty (cf. Eng. guilty of death). It is quite unnecessary to assume an ellipsis of crime or iūdicium.

353. Other constructions for the Charge or Penalty are—

1. The Ablative of Price: regularly of a *definite amount* of fine, and often of indefinite penalties (cf. § 416):—
Frusinātēs tertiā parte agrī damnāti (Liv. x. 1), *the people of Frusino condemned [to forfeit] a third part of their land*.

2. The Ablative with dē, or the Accusative with *inter*, in idiomatic expressions:—
dē aleā, *for gambling*; dē ambitū, *for bribery*.
dē pecūniās repetundās, *of extortion* (cf. § 352. a).
inter sicāriōs (Rosc. Am. 90), *as an assassin* (among the assassins).
dē vi et māiestātis damnāti (Phil. i. 21), *convicted of assault and treason*.

Note.—The accusative with ad in and in occurs in later writers to express the penalty: *ad*.—*ad mortem* (Tac. Ann. xvi. 21), *to death*; *ad (in) metalla*, *to the mines*. 
Verbs of Feeling

354. Many verbs of feeling take the Genitive of the object which excites the feeling.

a. Verbs of pity, as miseror and miserescō, take the genitive:—

miserēmini familiae, iūdicēs, miserēmini patris, miserēmini fili (Flacc. 106),
have pity on the family, etc.
miserēre ammi non digna ferentis (Aen. ii. 144), pity a soul that endures
unworthy things.
miserēsecte rēgis (id. viii. 573), pity the king. [Poetical.]

Note.—But miseror, commiseror, bewail, take the accusative: as,—commūnem
condicionem miserān (Mur. 55), bewail the common lot.

b. As impersonals, miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, taedet (or pertaesium
est), take the genitive of the cause of the feeling and the accusative
of the person affected:—

quōs infāmae suae neque pudet neque taedet (Verr. i. 35), who are neither
ashamed nor weary of their dishonor.
mē miseret parietum ipsōrum (Phil. ii. 69), I pity the very walls.
mē civitātis mōrum piget taedetque (Ing. 4), I am sick and tired of the ways
of the state.
decemvirōrum vōs pertaesium est (Liv. iii. 67), you became tired of the decemvirs.

c. With miseret, paenitet, etc., the cause of the feeling may be ex-
pressed by an infinitive or a clause:—

neque mē paenitet mortālis inimicitiās habēre (Rab. Post. 32), nor am I sorry
to have deadly enmities.
nōn dedisse istune pudet; mē quia nōn accēpi piget (Pl. Pseud. 282), he is
ashamed not to have given; I am sorry because I have not received.

Note.—Miseret etc. are sometimes used personally with a neuter pronoun as sub-
ject: as,—nōn tē haec pudent (Ter. Ad. 754), do not these things shame you?

Interest and Réfert

355. The impersonals interest and réfert take the Genitive of
the person (rarely of the thing) affected.

The subject of the verb is a neuter pronoun or a substantive
clause:—

Clōdi intererat Milōnem perīre (cf. Mil. 56), it was the interest of Clodius that
Milo should die.

aliquid quod illōrum magis quam suā rēgalis videbīrīr (Ing. 111), something
which seemed to be more for their interest than his own.

videō enim quid mea interīsit, quid utriusque nostrum (Fam. vii. 23. 4), for I
see what is for my good and for the good of us both.
a. Instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun the corresponding possessive is used in the ablative singular feminine after *interest* or *rēfert*:

quid tuā id rēfert? māgni (Ter. Ph. 723), *how does that concern you? much.*
[See also the last two examples above.]
vehementer interērat vēstrā quī patrēs estis (Plin. Ep. iv. 13. 4), *it would be very much to your advantage, you who are fathers.*

*Note.* — This is the only construction with *rēfert* in classic prose, except in one passage in Sallust (see example above).

b. The accusative with *ad* is used with *interest* and *rēfert* to express the thing *with reference to which one is interested*:

māgni *ad homōrem nostrum* interest (Fam. xvi. 1), *it is of great consequence to our honor.*
rēfert etiam *ad frāctūs* (Var. R. R. i. 16. 6), *it makes a difference as to the crop.*

*Note 1.* — Very rarely the *person* is expressed by *ad* and the accusative, or (with *rēfert*) by the dative (probably a popular corruption):

quid id *ad mē* ant *ad meas* rem rēfert (Pl. Pers. 513), *what difference does that make to me or to my interests?*

quid rēfert *intrā nātūrāe finis* vivētū (Hor. S. i. 1. 49), *what difference does it make to me who live within the limits of natural desire?*

nōn rēfert *dēdecorī* (Tac. Ann. xv. 65), *that it makes no difference as to the disgrace.*

*Note 2.* — The degree of interest is expressed by a genitive of value, an adverb, or an adverbial accusative.

**Verbs of Plenty and Want**

**356. Verbs of Plenty and Want** sometimes govern the genitive (cf. § 409. a. N.):

*convivium vicīnōrum* compleō (Cat. M. 46, in the mouth of Cato), *I fill up the banquet with my neighbors.*

implantur veteris Bacchī pinguisque īerīnae (Aem. i. 215), *they fill themselves with old wine and fat venison.*

nec quis auxilī egebat (B. G. vi. 11), *lest any require aid.*

quid est quod défensōnis indigeat (Rosc. Am. 34), *what is there that needs defence?*

quae ad consolāndum māiōris ingenii et ad ferendum singularis virtūtis indigent (Fam. vi. 4. 2), *[sorrows] which for their comforting need more ability, and for endurance unusual courage.*

*Note.* — Verbs of plenty and want more commonly take the ablative (see §§ 409. a, 401), except *egēō*, which takes either case, and *indigeō*. But the genitive is by a Greek idiom often used in poetry instead of the ablative with all words denoting separation and *want* (cf. § 357. b. 3):

*abstinentō irārum* (Hor. Od. iii. 27. 60), *refrain from wrath.*
*operum solūtōs* (id. iii. 17. 16), *free from toils.*
*désine mollium querellārum* (id. ii. 9. 17), *have done with weak complaints.*
Genitive with Special Verbs

357. The Genitive is used with certain special verbs.

a. The genitive sometimes follows potior, get possession of; as always in the phrase potiri rerum, to be master of affairs:—

illius regni potiri (Fam. i. 7. 5), to become master of that kingdom.

Cleanthes solem dominari et rerum potiri putat (Acad. ii. 126), Cleanthes thinks the sun holds sway and is lord of the universe.

Note.—But potior usually takes the ablative (see § 416).

b. Some other verbs rarely take the genitive —

1. By analogy with those mentioned in § 354:—

neque huius sis veritus feminae primariae (Ter. Ph. 971), and you had no respect for this high-born lady.

2. As akin to adjectives which take the genitive:—

fastidit mei (Plaut. Aul. 245), he displeases me. [Cf. fastidiosus.]

studet tu (quoted N. D. iii. 72), he is zealous for you. [Cf. studiosus.]

3. In imitation of the Greek:—

iustitiaene prius mirer, belline laborum (Aen. xi. 126), shall I rather admire his justice or his toils in war?

neque ille sepsoit ciceris nec longae invicit avaeæ (Hor. S. ii. 6. 84), nor did he grudge his garnered peas, etc. [But cf. invidus, parcus.]

laborum decipitur (Hor. Od. ii. 13. 38), he is beguiled of his woes.

me laborum levas (Pl. Rud. 247), you relieve me of my troubles.

358. The apparent Genitive animi (really Locative) is used with a few verbs and adjectives of feeling and the like:—

Antipho me excruciat animi (Ter. Ph. 187), Antipho tortures my mind (me in my mind).

qui pendet animi (Tusc. iv. 35), who is in suspense.

me animi fallit (Lucr. i. 922), my mind deceives me.

So, by analogy, desipiobam mentis (Pl. Epid. 138), I was out of my head.

aeger animi, sick at heart; confusus animi, disturbed in spirit.

saneus mentis aut animi (Pl. Trin. 454), sound in mind or heart.

PECULIAR GENITIVES

359. Peculiar Genitive constructions are the following:—

a. A poetical genitive occurs rarely in exclamations, in imitation of the Greek (Genitive of Exclamation):—

di immortales, mercimoni lepidi (Pl. Most. 912), good heavens! what a charming bargain!

foederis heu taciti (Prop. iv. 7. 21), alas for the unspoken agreement!
b. The genitive is often used with the ablatives causā, grātiā, for the sake of; ergō, because of; and the indeclinable instar, like; also with prīdiē, the day before; postridiē, the day after; tenus, as far as:

honōris causā, with due respect (for the sake of honor).
verbī grātiā, for example.
ēius légis ergō, on account of this law.
equus instar montis (Aen. ii. 13), a horse huge as a mountain (the image of a mountain).
laterum tenus (id. x. 210), as far as the sides.

Note 1. — Of these the genitive with causā is a development from the possessive genitive and resembles that in nōmen insānē (§ 343.d). The others are of various origin.

Note 2. — In prose of the Republican Period prīdiē and postridiē are thus used only in the expressions prīdiē (postridiē) ēius diēi, the day before (after) that (cf. "the eve, the morrow of that day"). Tacitus uses the construction with other words: as, — postridiē insidiārum, the day after the plot. For the accusative, see § 432 a. Tenus takes also the ablative (p. 236).

DATIVE CASE

360. The Dative is probably, like the Genitive, a grammatical case, that is, it is a form appropriated to the expression of a variety of relations other than that of the direct object. But it is also by some to be a Locative with the primary meaning of to or towards, and the poetic uses (like it clāmor caelō, Aen. v. 451) are regarded as survivals of the original use.

In Latin the Dative has two classes of meanings: —

1. The Dative denotes an object not as caused by the action, or directly affected by it (like the Accusative), but as reciprocally sharing in the action or receiving it consciously or actively. Thus in dédit puérō librum, he gave the boy a book, or ōcit mihi injuicium, he did me a wrong, there is an idea of the boy's receiving the book, and of my feeling the wrong. Hence expressions denoting persons, or things with personal attributes, are more likely to be in the dative than those denoting mere things. So in Spanish the dative is used whenever a person is the object of an action; yo veo al hombre, I see [to] the man. This difference between the Accusative and the Dative (i.e. between the Direct and the Indirect Object) depends upon the point of view implied in the verb or existing in the mind of the writer. Hence Latin verbs of similar meaning (to an English mind) often differ in the case of their object (see § 367 a).

2. The Dative is used to express the purpose of an action or that for which it serves (see § 382). This construction is especially used with abstract expressions, or those implying an action.

These two classes of Datives approach each other in some cases and are occasionally confounded, as in §§ 383, 384.

The uses of the Dative are the following: —

1. Indirect Object (general use):
   1. With Transitives (§ 362).
      1. Of Possession (with esse) (§ 373).
      2. Of Agency (with Gerundive) (§ 374).

2. Special or Idiomatic Uses:
   3. Of Reference (dativus commodi) (§§ 376-381).
   4. Of Purpose or End (predicate use) (§ 382).
   5. Of Fitness etc. (with Adjectives) (§§ 383, 384).
INDIRECT OBJECT

361. The Dative is used to denote the object indirectly affected by an action.

This is called the Indirect Object (§ 274). It is usually denoted in English by the objective with to: —

cèdite tempóri, yield to the occasion.
próvincia Ciceróni obtigit, the province fell by lot to Cicero.
imicís nón crédimus, we do not trust [to] our enemies.

INDIRECT OBJECT WITH TRANSITIVES

362. The Dative of the Indirect Object with the Accusative of the Direct may be used with any transitive verb whose meaning allows (see § 274): —

dó tít librum, I give you a book.
illud tibi affírimò (Fam. i. 7. 5), this I assure you.
commendó tibi ómnia negótiá (id. i. 3), I put all his affairs in your hands (commit them to you).
dabí úbri miú contendit (Deiot. 40), you will surely grant to mercy what you refused to wrath.
litteras á te míhi statóru tuis reddidit (Fam. ii. 17), your messenger delivered to me a letter from you.

a. Many verbs have both a transitive and an intransitive use, and take either the Accusative with the Dative, or the Dative alone: —

míhi id aurum crédít (cf. Plaut. Aul. 15), he trusted that gold to me.
equó nè crédite (Aen. ii. 48), put not your trust in the horse.
concessit senátus postulatiónti tuae (Mur. 47), the senate yielded to your demand.
concédere amícis quidquid volént (Lael. 38), to grant to friends all they may wish.

363. Certain verbs implying motion vary in their construction between the Dative of the Indirect Object and the Accusative of the End of Motion (§§ 426, 427): —

1. Some verbs implying motion take the Accusative (usually with ad or in) instead of the Indirect Object, when the idea of motion prevails: —

litterás quás ad Pompéium scripsit (Att. iii. 8. 4), the letter which I have written [and sent] to Pompey. [Cf. nón quó habeám quod tibi scriberém (id. iv. 4 §), not that I had anything to write to you.]
2. On the other hand, many verbs of motion usually followed by the Accusative with ad or in, take the Dative when the idea of motion is merged in some other idea:—

mihi litterās mittere (Fam. vii. 12), to send me a letter.
enn librum tibi misi (id. vii. 19), I sent you that book.
nec quicquam quod non mihi Caesar dētulerit (id. iv. 13), and nothing which Caesar did not communicate to me.
cūrēs ut mihi velantur (id. viii. 4. 5), take care that they be conveyed to me.
cum alīs alīs subsidium ferrent (B. G. ii. 26), while one lent aid to another.

364. Certain verbs may take either the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (in a different sense) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing:—

dōnat corōnās suis, he presents wreaths to his men; or,
dōnat suīs corōnās, he presents his men with wreaths.
vincula excure sibi (Ov. M. vii. 772), to shake off the leash (from himself).
omnis armīs exuīt (B. G. v. 51), he stripped them all of their arms.

Note 1. — Intercidē, forbid, takes either (1) the Dative of the person and the Ablative of the thing, or (2) in later writers, the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing:—
aquā et ignā aliae intericere, to forbid one the use of fire and water. [The regular formula for banishment.]
interlixit histrōnibus scaenam (Suet. Dom. 7), he forbade the actors [to appear on] the stage (he prohibited the stage to the actors).
fēminis (dat.) purpūrae āsū intercidēmus (Liv. xxxiv. 7), shall we forbid women the wearing of purple?

Note 2. — The Dative with the Accusative is used in poetry with many verbs of preventing, protecting, and the like, which usually take the Accusative and Ablative. Intercedē and prohibē sometimes take the Dative and Accusative, even in prose:—
hisce omnis adītus ad Sullam intercéideret (Rosc. Am. 110), to shut these men off from all access to Sulla (close to them every approach). [Cf. utī commētā Caesarem intercéideret (B. G. i. 48), to shut Caesar off from supplies.]
hunc (oestrōnum) arcūbis pecori (Georg. iii. 154), you shall keep this away from the flock. [Cf. illum arcuā Galliā (Phil. v. 37), he excluded him from Gaul.]
sōistiūm pecori dēfendētē (Ecl. vii. 47), keep the summer heat from the flock. [Cf. utī sē ā contumētis inimicōrum dēfendēret (B. C. i. 22), to defend himself from the slanders of his enemies.]

1 Such are dōnō, impartō, ināuō, exuō, āsērgō, īnsergō, circumdō, and in poetry accingō, implō, and similar verbs.
365. Verbs which in the active voice take the Accusative and Dative retain the Dative when used in the passive: —

púntiábantur haec eadem Cúriōni (B. C. ii. 37), *these same things were announced to Curio.* [Active: núntiábant (quidam) haec eadem Cúriōni.]
nec docendí Caesaris propinquís eius spatium datur, nec tribúnis plebis sui periculo déprecandí facultás tribuítur (id. i. 5), *no time is given Caesar’s relatives to inform him, and no opportunity is granted to the tribunes of the plebs to avert danger from themselves.*

próvinciae privátis décernuntur (id. i. 6), *provinces are voted to private citizens.*

**INDIRECT OBJECT WITH INTRANSITIVES**

366. The Dative of the Indirect Object may be used with any Intransitive verb whose meaning allows: —

cédant arma togae (Phil. ii. 20), *let arms give place to the gown.*

Caesari respondet, *he replies to Caesar.*

Caesari respondétur, *a reply is given to Caesar (Caesar is replied to).* [Cf. § 372.]

respondi maximiis criminibus (Phil. ii. 36), *I have answered the heaviest charges.*

ut ita cüique eveniat (id. ii. 119), *that it may so turn out to each.*

**Note 1.** — Intransitive verbs have no Direct Object. The Indirect Object, therefore, in these cases stands alone as in the second example (but cf. § 362. a).

**Note 2.** — Cédó, *yield,* sometimes takes the Ablative of the thing along with the Dative of the person: as, — cédere alicui possessióne hortórum (cf. Mil. 75), *to give up to one the possession of a garden.*

**a.** Many phrases consisting of a noun with the copula sum or a copulative verb are equivalent to an intransitive verb and take a kind of indirect object (cf. § 367. a. n.²): —

auctor esse alicui, *to advise or instigate one* (cf. persuádeo).

quis huic réi testis est (Quinct. 37), *who testiés (is witness) to this fact?*

is finis populatiónius fuit (Liv. ii. 30. 9), *this put an end to the raids.*

**b.** The dative is sometimes used without a copulative verb in a sense approaching that of the genitive (cf. §§ 367. d, 377): —

légítius frátri (Mar. 32), *a lieutenant to his brother* (i.e. a man assigned to his brother).

ministri sceleribus (Tac. Ann. vi. 36), *agents of crime.* [Cf. séditiónius ministri (id. i. 17), *agents of sedition.*]

miseriís suis remedium mortem expectáre (Sall. Cat. 40), *to look for death as a cure for their miseries.* [Cf. sólus meárum misériárum remedium (Ter. Ad. 294).]

**Note.** — The cases in a and b differ from the constructions of § 367. a. n.² and § 377 in that the dative is more closely connected in idea with some single word to which it serves as an indirect object.
Indirect Object with Special Verbs

367. Many verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the Dative: —

cūr mihi invidēs, why do you envy me?
mihi parcit atque ignōscit, he spares and pardons me.
ignōscit patriō dolorī (Liv. iii. 48), excuse a father’s grief.
sabveni patriae, opitulāre consēgæ (Fam. x. 10. 2), come to the aid of your country, help your colleague.
mihi nōn displease (Clu. 144), it does not displease me.
nōn omnibus servīo (Att. xiii. 49), I am not a servant to every man.
nōn parcam operae (Fam. xiii. 27), I will spare no pains.
sic mihi persuāsi (Cat. M. 78), so I have persuaded myself.
mihi Fabius débebit ignōscere siminus ëius fāmæ parere vidēbor quam anteà consūlum (Tull. 3), Fabius will have to pardon me if I seem to spare his reputation less than I have heretofore regarded it.
huic legiōni Caesar confīdebat maximē (B. G. i. 40. 15), in this legion Caesar trusted most.

In these verbs the Latin retains an original intransitive meaning. Thus: invidēre, to envy, is literally to look askance at; servīre is to be a slave to; suādēre is to make a thing pleasant (sweet) to.

a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings take the Accusative.

Such are iuvō, adivō, help; laedō, injure; iubeō, order; déficiō, fail; délectō, please: —

hic pulvis oculum meum laedit, this dust hurts my eye. [Cf. multa oculis nocent, many things are injurious to the eyes.]

Note 1. — Fīdō and confīdō take also the Ablative (§ 431) as, multum nātūrā locī confīdebant (B. G. iii. 9), they had great confidence in the strength of their position.

Note 2. — Some common phrases regularly take the dative precisely like verbs of similar meaning. Such are—praestō esse, be on hand (cf. adesse); mōrem gerere, humor (cf. mōrigērī); grātium facere, do a favor (cf. grātificāri); dictō audīens esse, be obedient (cf. oboedīre); cui fidem habēbat (B. G. i. 19), in whom he had confidence (cf. confīdebat).

So also many phrases where no corresponding verb exists. Such are—bene (male, pulchre, aggrē, etc.) esse, be well (ill, etc.) off; inūriām facere, do injustice to; diem diēre, bring to trial (name a day for, etc.); agere grātiās, express one’s thanks; habēre grātiām, feel thankful; referre grātiam, repay a favor; opus esse, be necessary; damnum dare, inflict an injury; acceptum (expēnsum) ferre (esse), credit (charge); honōrem habēre, to pay honor to.

1 These include, among the others, the following: adversōr, cēdō, cēdō, faveō, fitō, ignōscō, imperō, indulgeō, invidēs, irāscor, minitor, nocō, parco, pāreō, placeō, resistō, servio, studēō, suādō (persuādēō), suscēnseō, temperō (obtemperō).
b. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative without perceptible difference of meaning.

Such are adūlor, aemulor, dēspērō, praestōbor, medeor: —

adūlātus est Antōniō (Nep. Att. 8), he flattered Antony.
adūlāri Nērōnem (Tac. Ann. xvi. 19), to flatter Nero.
pācem non dēspērās (Att. viii. 15. 3), you do not despair of peace.
salūtī dēspērāre vetuit (Cic. 68), he forbade him to despair of safety.

c. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative with a difference of meaning: —

parti civium cōnsulunt (Off. i. 85), they consult for a part of the citizens.
cum tē cōnsuluissem (Fam. xi. 29), when I had consulted you.
metuēns pueris (Plant. Am. 1113), anxious for the children.
nec metuunt deōs (Ter. Hec. 772), they fear not even the gods. [So also timeō.]
prōspicite patriae (Cat. iv. 3), have regard for the state.
prōspicere sēdem senectūtī (Liv. iv. 49. 14), to provide a habitation for old age.
[So also prōvideō.]

d. A few verbal nouns (as insidiae, ambush; obtemperātiō, obedience) rarely take the dative like the corresponding verbs: —

insidiae cōnsulī (Sall. Cat. 32), the plot against the consul (cf. insidior).
obtemperātiō légibus (Lēgg. i. 42), obedience to the laws (cf. obtemperō).
sibi ipsī responsōri (De Or. iii. 297), an answer to himself (cf. respondēo).

Note. — In these cases the dative depends immediately upon the verbal force of the noun and not upon any complex idea (cf. § 366. a, b).

368. The Dative is used —

1. With the impersonals libet (lubet), it please, and licet, it is allowed: —

quod mihi maximē lubet (Fam. i. 8. 3), what most please me.
quasi tibi nōn licēret (id. vi. 8), as if you were not permitted.

2. With verbs compounded with satis, bene, and male: —

mihi ipse nunquam satisfaciō (Fam. i. 1), I never satisfy myself.
optimō virō maledicere (Deiot. 28), to speak ill of a most excellent man.
pulchrum est benefacere rei pūblīcae (Sall. Cat. 3), it is a glorious thing to benefit the state.

Note. — These are not real compounds, but phrases, and were apparently felt as such by the Romans. Thus, — satis officii meō, satis filōrum voluntātī quī à me hoc petīverunt factum esse arbitrābor (Verr. v. 130), I shall consider that enough has been done for my duty, enough for the wishes of those who asked this of me.

1 See the Lexicon under caveō, conveniō, cupiō, īnsistō, maneō, praeventō, recipiō, renāntiō, solvō, succedēō.
3. With gratificor, gratulor, nūbō, permittō, plaudō, probō, studēō, supplicō, excellō: —

Pompēius se gratificāri putant (Fam. i. 1), they suppose they are doing Pompey a service.
gratulor tibi, mi Balbus (id. vi. 12), I congratulate you, my dear Balbus.
tibi permittē respondēre (N. D. iii. 4), I give you leave to answer.
mihi plaudō ipse domi (Hor. S. i. 1. 66), I applaud myself at home.
cum inimici Mōntēs vēbis ac populō Rōmānō miuentur, amisī ac propinquī supplicant vēbis (Font. 35), while the enemies of Marcus Fonteius are threatening you and the Roman people too, while his friends and relatives are beseeching you.

Note. — Miscē and iungō sometimes take the dative (see § 413. a. n.). Hæbere usually takes the ablative, with or without in, rarely the dative: as, — haerentem capiō corōnam (Hor. S. i. 10. 49), a wreath clinging to the head.

a. The dative is often used by the poets in constructions which would in prose require a noun with a preposition. So especially with verbs of contending (§ 413. b): —

contendis Homērō (Prop. i. 7. 3), you vie with Homer. [In prose: cum Homērō.]
placēs etiam pūgnābīs amōri (Aen. iv. 38), will you struggle even against a love that pleases you?
tibi certat (Ecl. v. 8), vies with you. [tēcum.]
differt servō (Hor. S. i. 4. 48), differs from prose. [ā servōne, § 401.]
lateri abdidit ēnsem (Aen. ii. 553), buried the sword in his side. [in latere, § 430.]

For the Dative instead of ad with the Accusative, see § 428. h.

369. Some verbs ordinarily intransitive may have an Accusative of the direct object along with the Dative of the indirect (cf. § 362. a): —

cui cum rēx crucem minārētur (Tusc. i. 102), and when the king threatened him with the cross.
Crētēsibus obsidiēs imperāvit (Manil. 35), he exacted hostages of the Cretans.
onnia sibi ignōscere (Vell. ii. 30), to pardon one's self everything.
Ascaniōn pater Rōmānōs invidēt arcēs (Aen. iv. 234), does the father envy Ascanius his Roman citadels? [With invideō this construction is poetic or late.]

a. With the passive voice this dative may be retained: —

qui iam nunc sanguinem meum sibi indulgēri acqueōm cēnset (Liv. xi. 15. 16), who even now thinks it right that my blood should be granted to him as a favor.
singulis cēnsōribus dēnāriī trecentī imperāti sunt (Verr. ii. 137), three hundred denarii were exacted of each censor.
Scaevolae concessa est fācundiae virtūs (Quint. xii. 3. 9), to Scaevola has been granted excellence in oratory.
Indirect Object with Compounds

370. Many verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, praec, praeb, sub, super, and some with circum, admit the Dative of the indirect object:—

neque enim adsentior cis (Lael. 13), for I do not agree with them.
quantum ubi a heste pecusibus antecedit (Off. i. 103), so far as man's nature is superior to brutes.
si sibi ipse consenit (id. i. 5), if he is in accord with himself.
virtutes semper voluptatibus inhaerent (Fin. i. 68), virtues are always connected with pleasures.
omnibus negatis non interfuit solum sed praefuit (id. i. 6), he not only had a hand in all matters, but took the lead in them.
tempestati ossequi artis est (Fam. i. 9. 21), it is a point of skill to yield to the weather.
nec umquam succumbet inimiciis (Deiot. 33), and he will never yield to his foes.
cum et Brutus celiibet ducum praeferendus videtur et Valtinius nulli non esset postferendus (Vell. ii. 69), since Brutus seemed worthy of being put before any of the generals and Valtinius deserved to be put after all of them.

a. In these cases the dative depends not on the preposition, but on the compound verb in its acquired meaning. Hence, if the acquired meaning is not suited to an indirect object, the original construction of the simple verb remains.

Thus in convocat suos, he calls his men together, the idea of calling is not so modified as to make an indirect object appropriate. So hominem interficere, to make way with a man (kill him). But in praeficere imperatorem bellum, to put a man as commander-in-chief in charge of a war, the idea resulting from the composition is suited to an indirect object (see also b, §§ 371, 388. b).

Note 1.—Some of these verbs, being originally transitive, take also a direct object: as,—nec offeramus nos periculis (Off. i. 83), that we may not expose ourselves to perils.
Note 2.—The construction of § 370 is not different in its nature from that of §§ 362, 366, and 367; but the compound verbs make a convenient group.

b. Some compounds of ad, ante, ob, with a few others, have acquired a transitive meaning, and take the accusative (cf. § 388. b):—

nós oppugnare (Fam. i. 1), he opposes us.
quis audet bene comitatum aggregé (Phil. xii. 25), who would dare encounter a man well attended?
mánus obire (Lael. 7), to attend to a duty.

1 Such verbs are aggregari, adeó, antecédō, anteeō, antegrediō, conveniō, inés, obē, offendo, oppuguō, praecédō, subeō.
c. The adjective obvius and the adverb obviam with a verb take the dative:----

si ille obvius ei futurus non crat (Mil. 47), if he was not intending to get in his way.
michi obviam venisti (Fam. ii. 16. 3), you came to meet me.

371. When place or motion is distinctly thought of, the verbs mentioned in § 370 regularly take a noun with a preposition:

inhaeret in visceribus (Tusc. iv. 24), it remains fixed in the vitals.
homine conficitum mécum (Tull. 4), a man united to me.
cum hoc concurririt ipsa Eumenēs (Nep. Eum. 4. 1), with him Eumenēs himself engages in combat (runs together).

inserite oculos in curiam (Font. 43), fix your eyes on the senate-house.

ignis qui est ob eos offusus (Tim. 14), the fire which is diffused before the sight.

obictur contra istōrum impetūs Macedonia (Font. 44), Macedonia is set to withstand their attacks. [Cf. si quis vōbis error objectus (Caec. 5), if any mistake has been caused you.]
in segetem flammas incidit (Aen. ii. 304), the fire falls upon the standing corn.

Note.—But the usage varies in different authors, in different words, and often in the same word and the same sense. The Lexicon must be consulted for each verb.

372. Intransitive verbs that govern the dative are used impersonally in the passive (§ 208. d). The dative is retained (cf. § 365):

cui parcel potuit (Liv. xxi. 14), who could be spared?
nōn modo nōm invidētur illi aetiātī vērum cītam favētur (Off. ii. 45), that age (youth) not only is not envied, but is even favored.

tempestur servendum est (Fam. ix. 7), we must serve the exigency of the occasion.

Note.—In poetry the personal construction is sometimes found: as, — cūr invideor (Hor. A. P. 56), why am I envied?

Dative of Possession

373. The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession:—

est mihi domī pater (Rel. iii. 33), I have a father at home (there is to me).
hominī cum deō similītūdō est (Legg. i. 25), man has a likeness to God.
quibus opēs nullae sunt (Sall. Cat. 37), [those] who have no wealth.

Note.—The Genitive or a Possessive with esse emphasizes the possessor; the Dative, the fact of possession: as,—liber est meus, the book is mine (and no one's else); est mihi liber, I have a book (among other things).

a. With nōmen est, and similar expressions, the name is often put in the Dative by a kind of apposition with the person; but the Nominative is also common:—
(1) cui Africannō fuit cognōmen (Liv. xxv. 2), whose (to whom) surname was Africanus.
puerō ab inopīa Egeriō inditum nōmen (id. i. 34), the name Egerius was given the boy from his poverty.
(2) puerō nōmen est Mārcus, the boy’s name is Marcus (to the boy is, etc.).
cui nōmen Arethūsa (Verr. iv. 118), [a fount] called Arethusa.

Note. — In early Latin the dative is usual; Cicero prefers the nominative, Livy the dative; Sallust uses the dative only. In later Latin the genitive also occurs (cf. § 343. d): as,— Q. Metello Macedonicī nōmen inditum est (Vell. i. 11), to Quintus Metellus the name of Macedonicus was given.

b. Dēsum takes the dative; so occasionally absūm (which regularly has the ablative): —
hōc īnum Caesāri dēfuit (B.G. iv. 26), this only was lacking to Caesar.
quid huic abesse poterit (De Or. i. 48), what can be wanting to him?

Dative of the Agent

374. The Dative of the Agent is used with the Gerundive to denote the person on whom the necessity rests: —
haec vōbis prōvincia est défendenda (Manil. 14), this province is for you to defend (to be defended by you).
mīhi est pāgnandum, I have to fight (i.e. the need of fighting is to me: cf.
mīhi est liber, I have a book, § 373. n.).

a. This is the regular way of expressing the agent with the Second or Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (§ 196).

Note 1. — The Ablative of the Agent with ab (§ 405) is sometimes used with the Second Periphrastic Conjugation when the Dative would be ambiguous or when a stronger expression is desired: —
quibus est ā vōbis consultandum (Manil. 6), for whom you must consult. [Here two datives, quibus and vōbis, would have been ambiguous.]
rem ab omnibus vōbis prōvidendum (Rabir. 4), that the matter must be attended to by all of you. [The dative might mean for all of you.]

Note 2. — The Dative of the Agent is either a special use of the Dative of Possession or a development of the Dative of Reference (§ 376).

375. The Dative of the Agent is common with perfect participles (especially when used in an adjective sense), but rare with other parts of the verb: —
mīhi deliberātum et cōstitutum est (Leg. Agr. i. 25), I have deliberated and resolved (it has been deliberated by me).
mīhi rés prōvisa est (Verr. iv. 91), the matter has been provided for by me.
sic dissimilīmīs ēstōnis commūniter cibus quāeritur (N. D. ii. 123), so by very different creatures food is sought in common.
a. The Dative of the Agent is used by the poets and later writers with almost any passive verb:—

ueque cernitur īlli (Aen. i. 440), *nor is seen by any.*

felix est dīcta sorōri (Ov. Fast. iii. 1. 597), *she was called happy by her sister.*

Aelia Paetina Narcissō fōvēbātur (Tac. Ann. xii. 1), *Aelia Paetina was favored by Narcissus.*

b. The dative of the person who *sees or thinks* is regularly used after *videōr, seem.* —

vidētur mihi, *it seems (or seems good) to me.*

dīs alter visum [est] (Aen. ii. 428), *it seemed otherwise to the gods.*

videōr mihi perspicere ipsius animum (Fam. iv. 13. 5), *I seem (to myself) to see the soul of the man himself.*

Note. — The verb *probāre, approve* (originally a mercantile word), takes a Dative of Reference (§ 376), which has become so firmly attached that it is often retained with the passive, seemingly as Dative of Agent:—

haec sententia et illi et nōbis probābātur (Fam. i. 7. 5), *this view met both his approval and mine (was made acceptable both to him and to me).*

hōc cōnsilium pērisque nōm probābātur (B. C. i. 72), *this plan was not approved by the majority.* [But also, cōnsilium ā cūntīs probābātur (id. i. 74).]
iter Pennis vel corporibus suis obstruer e (Cat. M. 75), to block the march of 
the Carthaginians even with their own bodies (to block, etc., for the dis-
advantage of, etc.).
se in conspectum nautis dedit (Verr. v. 82), he put himself in sight of the 
sailors (he put himself to the sailors into sight).
versatur mihi ante oculos (id. v. 123), it comes before my eyes (it comes to me 
before the eyes).

378. The Dative is used of the person from whose point of view 
an opinion is stated or a situation or a direction is defined.

This is often called the Dative of the Person Judging,¹ but is 
merely a weakened variety of the Dative of Reference. It is used —
1. Of the mental point of view (in my opinion, according to me, 
etc.): —

Plato mihi unus instar est centum milium (Brut. 191), in my opinion (to me) 
Plato alone is worth a hundred thousand.
erit ille mihi semper deus (Ecl. i. 7), he will always be a god to me (in my 
regard).
quae est ista servitus tam claro homini (Par. 41), what is that slavery according 
to the view of this distinguished man?

2. Of the local point of view (as you go in etc.). In this use the 
person is commonly denoted indefinitely by a participle in the dative 
plural: —

oppidum primum Thessaliae versentibus ab Epiro (B. C. iii. 80), the first town 
of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (to those coming, etc.).
lavas parte sinum intranti (Liv. xxvi. 20), on the left as you sail up the gulf 
(to one entering).
est urbe egressis tumulus (Aen. ii. 713), there is, as you come out of the city, 
a mound (to those having come out).

Note. —The Dative of the Person Judging is (by a Greek idiom) rarely modified by 
nullus, volens (participles of nullus, volo), or by some similar word: —
ut quibusque bellum invitis aut cupientibus erat (Tac. Ann. i. 59), as each might 
receive the war reluctantly or gladly.
ut militibus labo volentibus esset (Iug. 100), that the soldiers might assume the 
task willingly.

379. The Dative of Reference is used idiomatically without 
any verb in colloquial questions and exclamations: —
quod mihi fortunam (Hor. Ep. i. 5, 12), of what use to me is fortune?
unde mihi lapidem (Hor. S. ii. 7, 110), where can I get a stone?
quod tibi, Tilli (id. i. 6, 24), what use for you, Tillius?

¹ Dativus indicantis.
a. The dative of reference is sometimes used after interjections:
    ei (heī) mihi (Aen. ii. 274), ah me!
    vae victis (Liv. v. 48), woe to the conquered.
    em tibi, there, take that (there for you)! [Cf. § 380.]

Note.—To express for—meaning instead of, in defence of, in behalf of—the ablative with prō is used:
    prō patriā morī (Hor. Od. iii. 2. 13), to die for one’s country.
    ego īō prō tē (Plaut. Most. 1131), I will go instead of you.

Ethical Dative

380. The Dative of the Personal Pronouns is used to show a certain interest felt by the person indicated.¹

This construction is called the Ethical Dative.² It is really a faded variety of the Dative of Reference.

    quid mihi Celsus agit (Hor. Ep. i. 3. 15), pray what is Celsus doing?
    suō sibi servit patri (Plaut. Capt. 5), he serves his own father.
    at tibi repente venit mihi Caninius (Pam. ix. 2), but, look you, of a sudden comes to me Caninius.
    hem tibi talentum argentī (Pl. Truc. 60), hark ye, a talent of silver.
    quid tibi vis, what would you have (what do you wish for yourself)?

Dative of Separation

381. Many verbs of taking away and the like take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 401).

Such are compounds of ab, de, ex, and a few of ad:

    aureum ei dētrāxit amicum (N. D. iii. 83), he took from him his cloak of gold.
    hunc mihi terrōrem ēripe (Cat. i. 18), take from me this terror.
    visam adulēscēntibus vis auseft (Cat. M. 71), violence deprives young men of life.
    nihil enim tibi dētrāxit senātus (Pam. i. 5 n), for the senate has taken nothing from you.
    nec mihi hunc errōrem extorquēri volō (Cat. M. 85), nor do I wish this error wrested from me.

Note.—The Dative of Separation is a variety of the Dative of Reference. It represents the action as done to the person or thing, and is thus more vivid than the Ablative.

¹ Compare “I’ll rhyme you so eight years together.” — As You Like It, iii. 2.
² Dativus ethicus.
a. The distinct idea of motion requires the ablative with a preposition — thus generally with names of things (§ 426. 1): —

illum ex periculō ēripuit (B. G. iv. 12), he dragged him out of danger.

Note. — Sometimes the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing with a preposition are both used with the same verb: as, — mihi praedā dé manibus ēripitur (Verr. ii. 1. 142), the booty is wrested from my hands.

Dative of the Purpose or End

382. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End, often with another Dative of the person or thing affected.

This use of the dative, once apparently general, remains in only a few constructions, as follows: —

1. The dative of an abstract noun is used to show that for which a thing serves or which it accomplishes, often with another dative of the person or thing affected: —

rei publicae clādi sunt (Iug. 85. 43), they are ruin to the state (they are for a disaster to the state).

māgnō ībī nostrīs fuit (B. G. iv. 25), it was of great service to our men (to our men for great use).

tertiam aciem nostrīs subsidīō mīsit (id. i. 52), he sent the third line as a relief to our men.

suis salūtī fuit (id. vii. 50), he was the salvation of his men.

ēvēnit facile quod dis cordī esset (Liv. i. 39), that came to pass easily which was desired by the gods (was for a pleasure [lit. heart] to the gods).

Note 1. — This construction is often called the Dative of Service, or the Double Dative construction. The verb is usually sum. The noun expressing the end for which is regularly abstract and singular in number and is never modified by an adjective, except one of degree (māgnus, minor, etc.), or by a genitive.

Note 2. — The word frugi used as an adjective is a dative of this kind: —
cōgis mē dicere inimicīm Prūgi (Font. 39), you compel me to call my enemy Honest. homīne satis fortēs et plāne frūgi (Verr. iii. 67), men brave enough and thoroughly honest. Cf. erō frūgi bona (Plaut. Pseud. 468), I will be good for something. [See § 122. b.]

2. The Dative of Purpose of concrete nouns is used in prose in a few military expressions, and with freedom in poetry: —

locum castrīs déligit (B. G. vii. 16), he selects a site for a camp.

receptūri canere, to sound a retreat (for a retreat).

receptūri signum (Phil. xiii. 15), the signal for retreat.

optāvit locum régnum (Aen. iii. 109), he chose a place for a kingdom.

locum insidiās circumspectāre (Liv. xxxi. 53), to look about for a place for an ambush. [Cf. locum sēditiōnis quaerere (id. iii. 46).]

For the Dative of the Gerundive denoting Purpose, see § 505. b.
Dative with Adjectives

383. The Dative is used after Adjectives or Adverbs, to denote that to which the given quality is directed, for which it exists, or towards which it tends.

Note. — The dative with certain adjectives is in origin a Dative of Purpose or End.

384. The Dative is used with adjectives (and a few Adverbs) of fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination, and their opposites: ¹

 nihil est tam nātūrae aptum (Lael. 17), nothing is so fitted to nature.
 nihil difficile amānti putō (Or. 33), I think nothing hard to a lover.
 castrīs idōneum locum dēlegī (B. G. i. 49), he selected a place suitable for a camp.
 tribūnī nōbis sunt amīci (Q. Fr. i. 2. 16), the tribunes are friendly to us.
 esse propītus potest nēmīnī (N. D. i. 124), he can be gracious to nobody.
 māgūs autem virīs prosperae semper omnēs rēs (id. ii. 167), but to great men everything is always favorable.
 sēdēs huic nostrō nōn importūna sērmōnī (De Or. iii. 18), a place not unsuitable for this conversation of ours.
 cui fundā erat affīnis M. Tullius (Tull. 14), to which estate Marcus Tullius was next neighbor.
 conveniēnter nātūrae vivēre (Off. iii. 13), to live in accordance with nature (ὁμολογομένος τῷ φύσει).

Note 1. — So, also, in poetic and colloquial use, with idem: as, — invītum qui servat idem facit occīdentī (Hor. A. P. 467), he who saves a man against his will does the same as one who kills him.

Note 2. — Adjectives of likeness are often followed by atque (ac), as. So also the adverbs aequē, pariter, similiter, etc. The pronoun idem has regularly atque or a relative: —

 si parēm sapientiam habēt ac formam (Plaut. Mil. 1251), if he has sense equal to his beauty (like as his beauty).
 tē suspīcor ēisdem rēbus quībus mē ipsum commovērī (Cat. M. 1), I suspect you are disturbed by the same things by which I am.

385. Other constructions are sometimes found where the dative might be expected: —

α. Adjectives of fitness or use take oftener the Accusative with ad to denote the purpose or end; but regularly the Dative of persons: —

aptus ad rem militārem, fit for a soldier's duty.
locus ad insidiās aptior (Mil. 53), a place fitter for lying in wait.
nōbis ūtile est ad hanc rem (cf. Ter. And. 287), it is of use to us for this thing.

¹ Adjectives of this kind are accommodātus, aptus; amīcus, inimīcus, infrēstus, infrīs, molestus; idōneus, opportūnus, proprius; ūtile, inūtile; affīnis, finītīmus, propinquus, vicīnus; pār, dispār, similis, dissimilis; inçundus, grātus; nōtus, ignōtus, and others.
b. Adjectives and nouns of inclination and the like may take the Accusative with in or ergā:——

cōmis in uxōrem (Hor. Ep. ii. 2. 133), kind to his wife.
divīna bonitās ergā homīnēs (N. D. ii. 60), the divine goodness towards men.
dē benevolentiā quam quisque habēat ergā nōs (Off. i. 47), in regard to each
man’s good will which he has towards us.
grātiōrem mē esse in tē (Fam. xi. 10), that I am more grateful to you.

c. Some adjectives of likeness, nearness, belonging, and a few others, ordinarily requiring the Dative, often take the Possessive Genitive:——

quod ut illī proprium ac perpetuum sit . . . optāre dēbētis (Manil. 48), which
you ought to pray may be secure (his own) and lasting to him. [Dative.]
fuit hoc quondam proprium populi Rōmānī (id. 32), this was once the peculiar
characteristic of the Roman people. [Genitive.]
cum utrique sīs maximē necessārium (Att. ix. 7. 1), since you are especially
bound to both. [Dative.]
prōcūrātor aeque utrusque necessārium (Quinct. 86), an agent alike closely
connected with both. [Genitive.]

1. The genitive is especially used with these adjectives when they are
used wholly or approximately as nouns:——
amicus Cicerōnī, friendly to Cicero. But, Cicerōnis amicus, a friend of Cicero;
and even, Cicerōnis amīcisīsum, a very great friend of Cicero.
crēticus et ēius aequālis paean (Or. 215), the cretic and its equivalent the paean.
lī erant affinis istius (Verr. ii. 36), these were this man’s fellows.

2. After similis, like, the genitive is more common in early writers.
Cicero regularly uses the genitive of persons, and either the genitive or the
dative of things. With personal pronouns the genitive is regular (meī, tui,
etc.), and also in vēri similis, probable:——
domīnī similis es (Ter. Enn. 496), you’re like your master (your master’s like).
us essēmus similēs deōrum (N. D. i. 91), that we might be like the gods.
est similis mātōrum suōm (Ter. Ad. 411), he’s like his ancestors.
patrī similis esse (Off. i. 121), to be like his father.
simia quam similis turpissima bēstia nōbīs (N. D. i. 97, quoted from Enn.),
how like us is that wretched beast the ape!
si enim hoc illī similē sit, est illud huic (id. i. 90), for if this is like that, that
is like this.

Note.—The genitive in this construction is not objective like those in § 349, but
possessive (ct. § 343).

For the Dative or Accusative with proprius, proximus, propius, proximē, see § 432. a.

1 Such are aequālis, affinis, aliēnus, amīcus, cognātus, commūnis, cōnsangūineus, contrārius,
dispar, familiāris, finimīmus, inimīcus, necessārius, pār, pecūliāris, propinquus, proprīus
(regularly genitive), aecer, similis, superstes, vicīnus.
ACCUSATIVE CASE

386. The Accusative originally served to connect the noun more or less loosely with the verb-idea, whether expressed by a verb proper or by a verbal noun or adjectival. Its earliest use was perhaps to repeat the verb-idea as in the Cognate Accusative (run a race, fight a battle, see § 300). From this it would be a short step to the Factive Accusative (denoting the result of an act, as in make a table, drill a hole, cf. § 273. n. 1). From this last could easily come the common accusative (of Affecting, break a table, plug a hole, see § 387. a). Traces of all these uses appear in the language, and the loose connection of noun with verb-idea is seen in the use of stems in composition (cf. § 265. 3). It is impossible, however, to derive the various constructions of the accusative with certainty from any single function of that case.

The uses of the accusative may be classified as follows:

I. Primary Object:
   1. Directly affected by the Action (§ 387. a).
   2. Effect of the Action
      1. Thing produced (§ 387. a).
      2. Cognate Accusative (§ 399).
   3.Predicate Accusative (Of Naming etc.) (§ 393).
   4. Of Asking or Teaching (§ 396).
   5. Of Concealing (§ 396. c).
   1. Adverbial (§ 397. a).
   2. Of Specification (Greek Accusative) (§ 397. b).
   5. Subject of Infinitive (§ 357. e).

II. Two Accusatives:

III. Idiomatic Uses:

Direct Object

387. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusative (§ 274).

a. The Accusative of the Direct Object denotes (1) that which is directly affected, or (2) that which is caused or produced by the action of the verb:

   (1) Brūtus Caesarem interfēcit, Brūtus killed Caesar.
   (2) aedem facere, to make a temple. [Cf. proelium pūgnāre, to fight a battle, § 390.]

Note.—There is no definite line by which transitive verbs can be distinguished from intransitive. Verbs which usually take a direct object (expressed or implied) are called transitive, but many of these are often used intransitively or absolutely. Thus timeō, I fear, is transitive in the sentence inimicium timeō, I fear my enemy, but intransitive (absolute) in nōā timēre, don't be afraid. Again, many verbs are transitive in one sense and intransitive in another: as,—Helvētiōs superāverunt Rōmānī, the Romans overcame the Helvetians; but nihīl superābat, nothing remained (was left over). So also many verbs commonly intransitive may be used transitively with a slight change of meaning: as,—ridēs, you are laughing; but mē ridēs, you're laughing at me.

1 Compare armiger, armor-bearer, with arma gerere, to bear arms; fidicen, lyre-player, with fidēbus canere, to (play on) sing to the lyre. Compare also istancē tāctō (Plaut.), the [act of] touching her, with istancer tangere, to touch her (§ 388. d. n. 2).
The object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes its subject in the passive, and is put in the nominative (§ 275): —

Brutus Caesarem interfécit, Brutus killed Caesar.
Caesar à Brútó interfactus est, Caesar was killed by Brutus.
dóminum aedificat, he builds a house.
dóminus aedificatúr, the house is building (being built).

388. Certain special verbs require notice.

a. Many verbs apparently intransitive, expressing feeling, take an accusative, and may be used in the passive: —

meum cásum lúctumque doluērunt (Sest. 145), they grieved at my calamity and sorrow.
sī nón Acrisium risissent Iuppiter et Venus (Hor. Od. iii. 16. 6), if Jupiter and Venus had not laughed at Acrisius.
rídetur ab omni conventū (Hor. S. i. 7. 22), he is laughed at by the whole assembly.

For the Cognate Accusative with verbs of taste, smell, and the like, see § 390. a. Note. — Some verbs commonly intransitive may be used transitively (especially in poetry) from a similarity of meaning with other verbs that take the accusative: —
geméns ignominiam (Georg. iii. 226), groaning at the disgrace. [Cf. doléō.]
festināre fugam (Aen. iv. 575), to hasten their flight. [Cf. accelerō.]
cómptos áris crimínis (Hor. Od. iv. 9. 13), she burned with love for his well-combed locks. [Cf. adámō.]

b. Verbs of motion, compounds of circum, tráns, and praeter, and a few others, frequently become transitive, and take the accusative (cf. § 370. b): —
mortem obíre, to die (to meet death).
consulátum ineunt (Liv. ii. 28), they enter upon the consulship.
nēminem convénī (Fam. ix. 14), I met no one.
si insulam adisset (B. G. iv. 20), if he should go to the island.
tránsire flūmen (id. ii. 28), to cross the river (cf. § 395).
civēs qui circumstant senātum (Cat. i. 21), the citizens who stand about the senate.

Note. — Among such verbs are some compounds of ad, in, per, and sub.

c. The accusative is used after the impersonals decet, dēdecet, dēlec-
tat, iuvat, oportet, fallit, fugit, praeterit: —

ita ut vós decet (Plaut. Most. 729), so as befits you.
mē pedibus délecat claudere verba (Hor. S. ii. 1. 28), my delight is (it pleases me) to arrange words in measure.
nisi mē fallit, unless I am mistaken (unless it deceives me).
iūvit mē tibi tua litterās prōfuisse (Fam. v. 21. 3), it pleased me that your literary studies had profited you.
tē nón praeterit (Fam. i. 8. 2), it does not escape your notice.
Note 1.—So after latet in poetry and post-classical prose: as, — latet plērōsque (Plin. N. H. ii. 82), it is unknown to most persons.

Note 2.—These verbs are merely ordinary transitives with an idiomatic significa-
tion. Hence most of them are also used personally.

Note 3.—Decet and latet sometimes take the dative: —
ita nōbis debeat (Ter. Ad. 928), thus it befits us.
bostique Rōma latet (Sil. It. xii. 614), and Rome lies hidden from the foe.

d. A few verbs in isolated expressions take the accusative from
a forcing of their meaning. Such expressions are: —
ferire fœdus, to strike a treaty (i.e. to sanction by striking down a victim).
vincere iūdicium (spēnsiōnem, rem, hōc), to prevail on a trial, etc. [As if the
case were a difficulty to overcome; cf. vincere iter, Aen. vi. 688.]
aequor nāvigāre (Aen. i. 67), to sail the sea. [As if it were trānsire, § 388. b.]
maris aspera īrō (id. vi. 351), I swear by the rough seas (cf. id. vi. 324).
[The accusative with verbs of swearing is chiefly poetic.]
noctis dormire, to sleep [whole] nights (to spend in sleep).

Note 1.—These accusatives are of various kinds. The last example approaches
the cognate construction (cf. the second example under § 390).

Note 2.—In early and popular usage some nouns and adjectives derived from trans-
itive verbs retain verbal force sufficient to govern the accusative: —
quid tibi istarc tactīō est (Plaut. Poen. 1308), what business have you to touch her?
[Cf. tangō.]
mirābūndī bēstīam (Ap. Met. iv. 16), full of wonder at the creature. [Cf. mirēr.]
vītābūndus castra (Liv. xxv. 13), trying to avoid the camp. [Cf. vītō.]

389. Many verbs ordinarily transitive may be used absolutely,
having their natural object in the ablative with dé (§ 273. N. 2): —
priusquam Pompeius dé eius adventū cognōsceret (B. C. iii. 101), before
Pomponius could learn of his coming. [Cf. eius adventū cognōtō, his
arrival being discovered.]

For Accusative and Genitive after Impersonals, see § 354. b. For the Accusative
after the impersonal Gerundive with esse, see § 500. 3.

Cognate Accusative

390. An intransitive verb often takes the Accusative of a noun
of kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or in some
other manner.

This construction is called the Cognate Accusative or Accusative
of Kindred Signification: —
tūtōrem vitam vivere (Verr. ii. 118), to live a safer life.
tertiam iam aetātem hominum vivēbat (Cat. M. 31), he was now living the
third generation of men.
servītūtem servīre, to be in slavery.
cōrē societātem, to [go together and] form an alliance.
**a.** Verbs of *taste, smell*, and the like take a cognate accusative of the quality:——

- *vinum redolēns* (Phil. ii. 63), *smelling [of] wine.*
- *olère malitiam* (Rosc. Com. 20), *to have the odor of malice.*

Cordubae nātis poētīs, pinge quidam sonantibus atque *peregrīnum* (Arch. 29), *to poets born at Cordova, whose speech had a somewhat thick and foreign accent.*

**b.** The cognate accusative is often loosely used by the poets:——

- *huic errōri similēm [errōrem] insānire* (Hor. S. ii. 3. 62), *to suffer a delusion like this.*
- *saltāre Cyclōpa* (id. i. 5. 63), *to dance the Cyclops (represent in dancing).*
- *Bacchānālia vivēre* (Iuv. ii. 3), *to live in revellings.*
- *Amaryllida resonāre* (Eel. i. 5), *to reēcho [the name of] Amaryllis.*
- *intōnūt laevum* (Aen. ii. 693), *it thundered on the left.*
- *dulce ridentem, dulce loquentem* (Hor. Od. i. 22. 23), *sweetly smiling, sweetly prattling.*
- *tortum clamāt* (id. vii. 309), *he cries harshly.*

**c.** A neuter pronoun or an adjective of indefinite meaning is very common as cognate accusative (cf. §§ 214. d, 397. a):——

- *Empedocles muta alia peccat* (N. D. i. 29), *Empedocles commits many other errors.*
- *ego illud adsentior Theophrastō* (De Or. iii. 184), *in this I agree with Theophrastus.*
- *multum tē ista fefellit opinō* (Verr. ii. 1. 88), *you were much deceived in this expectation (this expectation deceived you much).*
- *plūs valeō, I have more strength.*
- *plārium potest, he is strongest.*
- *quid mē ista laedunt* (Leg. Agr. ii. 32), *what harm do those things do me?*
- *hōc tē moneō, I give you this warning (cf. d. n. 1).*
- *id laetor, I rejoice at this (cf. d. n. 1).*
- *quid moror, why do I delay?*
- *quae hominēs arunt, nāvigant, aedificant* (Sall. Cat. ii. 7), *what men do in ploughing, sailing, and building.*

**d.** So in many common phrases:——

- *si quid ille sē velit* (B. G. i. 34), *if he should want anything of him (if he should want him in anything).*
- *numquid, Geta, aliud mē vis* (Terr. Ph. 151), *can I do anything more for you, Geta (there is nothing you want of me, is there)?* [A common form of leave-taking.]
- *quid est quod, etc., why is it that, etc.?* [Cf. *hōc erat quod* (Aen. ii. 664), *was it for this that, etc.?*]
Note 1.—In these cases substantives with a definite meaning would be in some other construction:—

in hoc eodem peccat, he errs in this same point.

bonis rébus lascari, to rejoice at prosperity. [Also: in, dē, or ex.]
dem testamentó monère, to remind one of the will. [Later: genitive, § 351.]
officì admonîre, to remind one of his duty. [Also: dē officiō.]

Note 2.—In some of these cases the connexion of the accusative with the verb has so faded out that the words have become real adverbs: as,—multum, plús, plúrium; plérumque, for the most part, generally; ceterum, cetera, for the rest, otherwise, but; primum, first; nihil, by no means, not at all; aliquid, somewhat; quid, why; facile, easily. So in the comparative of adverbs (§ 218). But the line cannot be sharply drawn, and some of the examples under b may be classed as adverbia.

Two Accusatives

391. Some transitive verbs take a second accusative in addition to their Direct Object.

This second accusative is either (1) a Predicate Accusative or (2) a Secondary Object.

Predicate Accusative

392. An accusative in the Predicate referring to the same person or thing as the Direct Object, but not in apposition with it, is called a Predicate Accusative.

393. Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object:—

ō Spartace, quem eum tē potius appellem (Phil. xiii. 22), O Spartacus, for what else shall I call you (than Spartacus)?

Cicerônem cónsulem erére, to elect Ciceró consul.

mē augurum nónináverunt (Phil. ii. 4), they nominated me for augur.

cum grátiâs ageret quod sē cónsulem féceisset (De Or. ii. 268), when he thanked him because he had made him consul (supported his candidacy).

hominem prae sē némínem putávit (Rosc. Am. 135), he thought nobody a man in comparison with himself.

ducem sē praebuit (Vat. 33), he offered himself as a leader.

Nottr. —The predicate accusative may be an adjective: as,—hominēs mītis redidit et mānsuētūs (Inv. i. 2), has made men mild and gentle.

a. In changing from the active voice to the passive, the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nominative (§ 284):—

rēx ab suis appellātur (B. G. viii. 4), he is called king by his subjects. [Active:
sui eum rēgem appellāvit.]
Secondary Object

394. The Accusative of the Secondary Object is used (along with the direct object) to denote something more remotely affected by the action of the verb.

395. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take (in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition:

... Caesar Germāūs flāmen trācit (B. C. i. 83), Caesar throws the Germans across the river.

... idem īīs iūrandum adigit Afrāniūm (id. i. 76), he exacts the same oath from Afrānius.

... quōs Pompeius omnia sua praeadiā circundāvit (id. iii. 61), whom Pompey conducted through all his garrison.

Note 1.—This construction is common only with trāēcō, trāictō, and trānpertō. The preposition is sometimes repeated with compounds of trāns, and usually with compounds of the other prepositions. The ablative is also used:

... dōnēc ā tuis trāns Hālyn flāmen trāicērent (Liv. xxxviii. 25), till they should get their possessions across the river Hālys.

(exercitus) Paīdī trāiectus Cremonān (id. xxi. 56), the army was conveyed across the Po to Cremona (by way of the Po, § 429. a).

Note 2.—The secondary object may be retained with a passive verb: as, — Belgae Rhēnum trāducī sunt (B. G. ii. 4), the Belgians were led over the Rhine.

Note 3.—The double construction indicated in § 395 is possible only when the force of the preposition and the force of the verb are each distinctly felt in the compound, the verb governing the direct, and the preposition the secondary object.

But often the two parts of the compound become closely united to form a transitive verb of simple meaning. In this case the compound verb is transitive solely by virtue of its prepositional part and can have but one accusative, — the same which was formerly the secondary object, but which now becomes the direct. So trāiciō comes to mean either (1) to pierce (anybody) [by hurling] or (2) to cross (a river etc.): —

... glādiō hominem trāicēit, he pierced the man with a sword. [Here iāciō has lost all transitive force, and serves simply to give the force of a verb to the meaning of trāns, and to tell the manner of the act.]

Rhōdānum trāiectāvit, he crossed the Rhone. [Here iāciō has become simply a verb of motion, and trāictō is hardly distinguishable from trānsēcit.] In these examples hominem and Rhōdānum, which would be secondary objects if trāiectēt were used in its primary signification, have become the direct objects. Hence in the passive construction they become the subjects and are put in the nominative: —

... homō trāiectus est glādiō, the man was pierced with a sword.

Rhōdānum trāiectus est, the Rhone was crossed.

The poetical trāiectus lōra (Aen. ii. 273), pierced with thongs, comes from a mixture of two constructions: (1) eum trāiectit lōra, he rove thongs through him,1 and (2) eum trāiectit lōris, he pierced him with thongs. In putting the sentence into a passive form, the direct object of the former (lōra) is irregularly kept, and the direct object of the latter (eum) is made the subject.

1 Perhaps not found in the active, but cf. trāiectō fāre (Aen. v. 488).
396. Some verbs of *asking* and *teaching* may take two accusatives, one of the Person (*direct object*), and the other of the Thing (*secondary object*):—

mē sententiam rogāvit, *he asked me my opinion.*
ōtium divōs rogat (Hor. Od. ii. 16. 1), *he prays the gods for rest.*
haec practēmis postulābas (Tull. 39), *you demanded this of the praetor.*
aedōnis populum rogāre (Liv. vi. 42), *to ask the people [to elect] aediles.*
docère puerōs elementa, *to teach children their A B C’s.*

**Note.** — This construction is found in classical authors with ōrō, poscō, repostō, rogō, interrogō, flāgitō, doceō.

a. Some verbs of *asking* take the ablative of the person with a preposition instead of the accusative. So, always, petō (ab), quaerō (ex, ab, dē); usually poscō (ab), flāgitō (ab), postulō (ab), and occasionally others:—
pācem ab Rōmānis petiērunt (B. G. ii. 13), *they sought peace from the Romans.*
quod quaesīvit ex mē P. Apuleius (Phil. vi. 1), *what Publius Apuleius asked of me.*

b. With the passive of some verbs of asking or teaching, the *person* or the *thing* may be used as subject (cf. c. n. 2):—

Caesar sententiam rogātus est, *Caesar was asked his opinion.*
id ab eō flāgitābatur (B. C. i. 71), *this was urgently demanded of him.*

**Note.** — The accusative of the *thing* may be retained with the passive of rogō, and of verbs of teaching, and occasionally with a few other verbs:—

fuerant hōc rogāē (Cael. 64), *they had been asked this.*
poscōr meum Lālapa (Ov. M. vii. 771), *I am asked for my Lālapa.*
Cicerō cūnta ēdictus (Sall. Cat. 45), *Cicero, being informed of everything.*

But with most verbs of asking in prose the accusative of the person becomes the subject nominative, and the accusative of the person is put in the ablative with a preposition: as,—nē postulantur quidem virōs ā senectūte (Cat. M. 34), *strength is not even expected of an old man* (asked from old age).

c. The verb cēlō, *conceal*, may take two accusatives, and the usually intransitive lateō, *lie hid*, an accusative of the person:—
nōn tē cēlāvi sermōnem T. Ampī (Fam. ii. 16. 3), *I did not conceal from you the talk of Titus Ampius.*

nect litterā doli fratrem lūnonīs (Aen. i. 130), *nor did the wiles of Juno escape the notice of her brother.*

**Note 1.** — The accusative of the person with lateō is late or poetical (§ 388. c. n. 1).

**Note 2.** — All the double constructions indicated in § 396 arise from the wavering meaning of the verbs. Thus doceō means both to *show* a thing, and to *instruct* a person; cēlō, to *keep* a person *in the dark*, and to *hide* a thing; rogō, to *question* a person, and to *ask a question* or a *thing*. Thus either accusative may be regarded as the direct object, and so become the subject of the passive (cf. b above), but for convenience the accusative of the thing is usually called secondary.
Idiomatic Uses

397. The Accusative has the following special uses: —

a. The accusative is found in a few adverbial phrases (Adverbial Accusative): —

id temporis, at that time; id (istuc) actatis, at that age.
id (quod) genus, of that (what) sort (perhaps originally nominative).
meam vicem, on my part.
bonam partem, in a great measure; maximum partem, for the most part.
virile (mulliubre) secus, of the male (female) sex (probably originally in apposition).
quad si, but if (as to which, if); quod nisi, if not.

b. The so-called synecdochical or Greek Accusative, found in poetry and later Latin, is used to denote the part affected: —
caput nectetur (Aen. v. 309), their heads shall be bound (they shall be bound about the head).
ardentis oculōs suffecti sanguine et ignī (id. ii. 210), their glaring eyes blood-shot and blazing with fire (suffused as to their eyes with blood and fire).
nuda genu (id. i. 320), with her knee bare (bare as to the knee).
femur trāgulā ictus (Liv. xx. i. 10), wounded in the thigh by a dart.

Note.—This construction is also called the Accusative of Specification.

c. In many apparently similar expressions the accusative may be regarded as the direct object of a verb in the middle voice (§ 156. a):
inūtile ferrum cingitur (Aen. ii. 510), he girds on the useless steel.
nodō sinūs collecta fluentis (id. i. 320), having her flowing folds gathered in a knot.
umerōs āsternor pelle leōnis (id. ii. 722), I cover my shoulders with a lion's skin.
prōtunus induitur faciem cultumque Dīanae (Ov. M. ii. 425), forthwith she assumes the shape and garb of Diana.

d. The Accusative is used in Exclamations: —
ō fortūnātam rem públicam, O fortunate republic! [Cf. ō fortūnāta mors (Phil. xiv. 31), oh, happy death! (§ 339. a).]
ō mē infelīcem (Mil. 102), oh, unhappy I!
mē miseram, ah, wretched me!
ēn quattuor ārās (Ecl. v. 65), to, four altars!
ellum (= em illum), there he is! [Cf. § 146. a. n. 2.]
eccōs (= ecce eōs), there they are, look at them!
prō deum fīdēm, good heavens (O protection of the gods)!
ĥōcine saeculum (Ter. Ad. 304), O this generation!
huncine hominem (Verr. v. 62), this man, good heavens!
NOTE 1.—Such expressions usually depend upon some long-forgotten verb. The substantive is commonly accompanied by an adjective. The use of -ne in some cases suggests an original question, as in quid? what? why? tell me.

NOTE 2.—The omission of the verb has given rise to some other idiomatic accusatives. Such are:—

saltem (sc. dicit) (in addressing a letter), greeting.
me dius fides (sc. adivet), so help me heaven (the god of faith).
unde mihi lapidem (Hor. S. ii. 7. 116), where can I get a stone?
quō mihi fortūnam (Hor. Ep. i. 5. 12), of what use to me is fortune? [No verb thought of.]

C. The subject of an infinitive is in the accusative:—

intellego tē sapere (Fam. vii. 32. 3), I perceive that you are wise.
eās rēs iacērī nolēbat (B. G. i. 18), he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed.

NOTE.—This construction is especially common with verbs of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (§ 580).

F. The accusative in later writers is sometimes used in apposition with a clause:—

dēserunt tribunal . . . manūs intentantēs, causam discordiae et initium armōrum (Tac. Ann. i. 27), they abandon the tribunal shaking their fists,—a cause of dissension and the beginning of war.

NOTE.—This construction is an extension (under Greek influence) of a usage more nearly within the ordinary rules, such as,—Eumenem prōidere Antiochō, pācis mercēdem (Sall. Ep. Mith. 8), they betrayed Eumenes to Antiochus, the price of peace. [Here Eumenes may be regarded as the price, although the real price is the betrayal.]

For the Accusative of the End of Motion, see § 427. 2; for the Accusative of Duration of Time and Extent of Space, see §§ 423, 425; for the Accusative with Prepositions, see § 220.

ABLATIVE CASE

398. Under the name Ablative are included the meanings and, in part, the forms of three cases,—the Ablative proper, expressing the relation from; the Locative, in; and the Instrumental, with or by. These three cases were originally not wholly distinct in meaning, and their combination was rendered more certain (1) by the development of meanings that approached each other and (2) by phonetic decay, by means of which these cases have become largely identical in form. Compare, for the first, the phrases ā parte dexterā, on the right; quam ob causam, from which cause; ad fāmam, at (in consequence of) the report; and, for the second, the like forms of the dative and ablative plural, the old dative in -ē of the fifth declension (§ 96), and the loss of the original -ē of the ablative (§ 49. e; cf. §§ 43. n. 1, 92. f, 214. a. n.).

The relation of from includes separation, source, cause, agent, and comparison; that of with or by, accompaniement, instrument, means, manner, quality, and price; that of in or at, place, time, circumstance. This classification according to the original cases (to which, however, too great a degree of certainty should not be attached) 1 is set forth in the following table:—

1 Thus the Ablative of Cause may be, at least in part, of Instrumental origin, and the Ablative Absolute appears to combine the Instrumental and the Locative.
I. Ablative Proper (from) (Separative):
   1. Of Separation, Privation, and Want (§ 400).
   2. Of Source (participles of origin etc.) (§ 403).
   3. Of Cause (labóre, exsilíō, etc.) (§ 404).
   4. Of Agent (with ab after Passives) (§ 405).
   5. Of Comparison (than) (§ 406).
II. Instrumental Ablative (with):
   1. Of Manner, Means, and Instrument (§ 408 fl.).
   2. Of Object of the Deponents úter etc. (§ 410).
   3. Of Accompaniment (with cum) (§ 413).
   5. Of Quality (with Adjectives) (§ 415).
   8. Ablative Absolute (§ 419).
III. Locative Ablative (in, on, at):
   1. Of Place where (commonly with in) (§ 421).
   2. Of Time and Circumstance (§ 423).

399. The Ablative is used to denote the relations expressed in English by the prepositions from; in, at; with, by: —

liberáre méttū, to deliver from fear.
excolúsus doctrínă, trained in learning.
hóc ipsō tempore, at this very time.
caecus avarítia, blind with avarice.
occíssus gladiō, slain by the sword.

USES OF THE ABLATIVE PROPER
Ablative of Separation

400. Words signifying Separation or Privation are followed by the ablative.

401. Verbs meaning to remove, set free, be absent, deprive, and want, take the Ablative (sometimes with ab or ex): —

oculís sé privátit (Fín. v. 87), he deprived himself of eyes.
onnī Gallī Rómānīs interdicit (B. G. i. 46), he (Ariovistus) bars the Romans from the whole of Gaul.
et aquā et igni interdicitur (Vell. ii. 45), he is debared the use of fire and water. [The regular formula of banishment.]
voluptátabus carére (Cat. M. 7), to lack enjoyments.
nōn egeō medicínā (Lael. 10), I want no physic.
levámur superstítiōne, liberámur mortis méttū (Fín. i. 63), we are relieved from superstition, we are freed from fear of death.
solútī a cupiditātabus (Leg. Agr. i. 27), freed from desires.
multōs ex his incommodis pecúniā sē liberássē (Verr. v. 23), that many have freed themselves by money from these inconveniences.

For the Genitive with verbs of separation and want, see § 356. n.
402. Verbs compounded with ā, ab, dē, ex, (1) take the simple Ablative when used figuratively; but (2) when used literally to denote actual separation or motion, they usually require a preposition (§ 426. 1): —

(1) cōnātū désistere (B. G. i. 8), to desist from the attempt.
dēsine commūnibus locīs (Acad. ii. 80), quit commonplaces.
abire magistrātū, to leave one's office.
abstinēre iniūriā, to refrain from wrong.

(2) ā prōpositō abervāre (Fin. v. 83), to wander from the point.
dē prōvinciā dēcēdere (Verr. ii. 48), to withdraw from one's province.
ab iūrē abire (id. ii. 114), to go outside of the law.
ex civitāte excessēre (B. G. vi. 8), they departed from the state. [But cf. finibus suis excesserant (id. iv. 18), they had left their own territory.]
ā māgnō dēnissum nómen Illū (Aen. i. 288), a name descended (sent down) from great Iulus.

For the Dative used instead of the Ablative of Separation, see § 381. For the Ablative of the actual place whence in rhymatic expressions, see §§ 427. 1, 428. f.

a. Adjectives denoting freedom and want are followed by the ablative: —

urbs nūda praesidīō (Att. vii. 13), the city naked of defence.
immūnis militiā (Liv. i. 43), free of military service.
plēbs orba tribūnīs (Leg. iii. 9), the people deprived of tribunes.

Note. — A preposition sometimes occurs: —
ā culpā vacuus (Sall. Cat. 14), free from blame.
liberi ā délicēs (Leg. Agr. i. 27), free from luxuries.
Messāna ab his rébus vacua atque nūda est (Verr. iv. 3), Messana is empty and bare of these things.

For the Genitive with adjectives of want, see § 349. a.

Ablative of Source and Material

403. The Ablative (usually with a preposition) is used to denote the Source from which anything is derived, or the Material of which it consists: —

1. Source: —
Rhēnus oritur ex Lepontiūs (B. G. iv. 10), the Rhine rises in (from) the country of the Lepontii.
ab his sermō oritur (Tael. 5), the conversation is begun by (arises from) them.
cānus ratiōnis vīn atque UTILITĀTEM ex illo caelestī Epicūrī volumine acceptum (N. D. i. 43), of this reasoning we have learned the power and advantage from that divine book of Epicurus.
suāvitātem odōrum qui affārentur ē dāribus (Cat. M. 59), the sweetness of the odors which breathed from the flowers.
2. Material:—

erat tōtus ex fraudē et mendāció factus (Ciu. 72), he was entirely made up of 

fraud and falsehood.

valvās māgnificiōrēs, ex aurō atque eborē perfectiōrēs (Verr. iv. 124),

more splendid doors, more finely wrought of gold and ivory.

factum dē cautiōbus autērum (Ov. M. i. 575), a cave formed of rocks.

templum dē marmore pōnam (Georg. iii. 13), I'll build a temple of marble.

Note 1.—In poetry the preposition is often omitted.

Note 2.—The Ablative of Material is a development of the Ablative of Source. For the Genitive of Material, see § 344.

a. Participles denoting birth or origin are followed by the Ablative of Source, generally without a preposition:— ¹

Iove nātus et Māiā (N. D. iii. 66), son of Jupiter and Maia.

ēdite rēgibus (Hor. Od. i. 1. 1), descendant of kings.

quō sanguine crētus (Aen. ii. 74), born of what blood.

genitae Pandionis (Ov. M. vi. 606), daughters of Pandion.

Note 1.—A preposition (ab, dē, ex) is usually expressed with pronouns, with the name of the mother, and often with that of other ancestors:—

ex me hic nātus nōn est sed ex frātre meō (Ter. Ad. 40), this is not my son, but

my brother's (not born from me, etc.).

cum ex utrāque [uxōre] filius nātus esset (De Or. i. 183), each wife having had

a son (when a son had been born of each wife).

Bēlus et omnēs ā Bēlō (Aen. i. 730), Bēlus and all his descendants.

Note 2.—Rarely, the place of birth is expressed by the ablative of source: as,—

dēsiderāvit C. Fleginātem Placentiā, A. Grānium Puteolī (B. C. iii. 71), he lost Caius

Flegius of Placentia, Aulus Granius of Puteoli.

Note 3.—The Roman tribe is regularly expressed by the ablative alone: as,—

Q. Verrem Rōmiliae (Verr. i. 23), Quintus Verres of the Romanian tribe.

b. Some verbs may take the Ablative of Material without a preposition. Such are cōnstaēre, cōnsistere, and continēri. ² But with cōn-

staēre, ex is more common:—

domūs amoenitās nōn aedificiō sed silvā cōnstaēbat (Nep. Att. 13), the charm

of the house consisted not in the buildings but in the woods.

ex animē cōnstaēmus et corpore (Fin. iv. 19), we consist of soul and body.

vita corpore et spiritū contīnētur (Marc. 28), life consists of body and spirit.

c. The Ablative of Material without a preposition is used with

facere, fieri, and similar words, in the sense of do with, become of:—

quid hoc homine faciātis (Verr. ii. 1. 42), what are you going to do with this

man?

quid Tulliōnā meā fiet (Pam. xiv. 4. 3), what will become of my dear Tullia?

quid tē futūrum est (Verr. ii. 155), what will become of you?

¹ As nātus, satus, eōtus, genitus, ortus, prōgnātus, generātus, crētus, creātus, oriundus.
² The ablative with cōnsistere and continēri is probably locative in origin (cf. § 431).
The Ablative of Material with ex, and in poetry without a preposition, sometimes depends directly on a noun:

nōn paucā pōcūla ex aurō (Verr. iv. 62), not a few cups of gold.
scopulis pendentibus antrum (Aen. i. 160), a cave of hanging rocks.

For Ablative of Source instead of Partitive Genitive, see § 346. c.

**Ablative of Cause**

404. The Ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to express Cause:—

neglegentiā plectimur (Lael. 85), we are chastised for negligence.
gubernātorīs ars utīlitāte nōn arte laudentur (Fin. i. 42), the pilot’s skill is praised for its service, not its skill.
certis dē causis, for cogent reasons.
ex vulnere aeger (Rep. ii. 38), disabled by (from) a wound.
mare ā sēle lucet (Acad. ii. 105), the sea gleams in the sun (from the sun).

a. The Ablative of Cause without a preposition is used with labōrō
(also with ex), exsiliō, exsultō, triumphō, lacrimō, ārdeō:

doleō tē aliis malis labōrāre (Fam. iv. 3), I am sorry that you suffer with other ills. [Cf. ex aere aliēnō labōrāre (B. C. iii. 22), to labor under debt (from another’s money).]
exsultāre laetitia, triumphāre gaudīō coepect (Clu. 14), she began to exult in gladness, and triumph in joy.
exsilī gaudīō (Fam. xvi. 16), I jumped for joy. [Cf. lacrimō gaudīō (Ter. Ad, 409), I weep for joy.]
ārdeō dolōre et irā (Att. ii. 19. 5), to be on fire with pain and anger.
For gaudeō and glōrior, see § 431.

b. The motive which influences the mind of the person acting is expressed by the ablative of cause; the object exciting the emotion often by ob 2 or propter with the accusative:

nōn ob praedam aut spoliandī cupīdine (Tac. H. i. 63), not for booty or through lust of plunder.
amicitia ex sē et propter sē expetenda (Fin. ii. 83), friendship must be sought of and for itself.

Note.—But those constructions are often confused: as,—pārēre lēgibus propter metum (Par. 34), to obey the laws on account of fear. [Here metum is almost equivalent to “the terrors of the law,” and hence propter is used, though the ablative would be more natural.]

1 The cause, in the ablative, is originally source, as is shown by the use of ab, dé, ex; but when the accusative with ad, ob, is used, the idea of cause arises from nearness. Occasionally it is difficult to distinguish between cause and means (which is the old Instrumental case) or circumstance (which is either the Locative or the Instrumental).
2 Originally a mercantile use: cf. ob decem minās, for the price of ten minae.
c. The ablatives causā and grātiā, for the sake of, are used with a genitive preceding, or with a pronoun in agreement:—
eā causā, on account of this; qua grātiā (Ter. Eun. 99), for what purpose?
meā causā, for my sake; meā grātiā (Plaut.), for my sake.
ex meā et reī públicae causā, for my own sake and the republic’s.
praedictiōnīs causā (N. D. iii. 5), by way of prophecy.
exempli grātiā (verbi grātiā), for example.
sui pūrgandrī grātiā, for the sake of clearing themselves.

Note.—But grātiā with possessives in this use is rare.

Ablative of Agent

405. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is expressed by the Ablative with ā or ab:—
laudātur ab his, culpātur ab illis (Hor. S. i. 2. 11), he is praised by these, blamed by those.
ab animō tuo quidquid agitur id agitur ā tē (Tusc. i. 52), whatever is done by your soul is done by yourself.
ā filiis in iūdicium vocātus est (Cat. M. 22), he was brought to trial by his sons.
cum ā cūntō cōnsessā plāsus esset multiplex datus (id. 94), when great applause had been given by the whole audience.
nē virtūs ab audāciā vinceretur (Sest. 92), that valor might not be overborne by audacity. [Audācia is in a manner personified.]

Note 1.—This construction is developed from the Ablative of Source. The agent is conceived as the source or author of the action.

Note 2.—The ablative of the agent (which requires ā or ab) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of instrument, which has no preposition (§ 409). Thus—occisīs gladiō, slain by a sword; but, occisās ab hoste, slain by an enemy.

Note 3.—The ablative of the agent is commonest with nouns denoting persons, but it occurs also with names of things or qualities when these are conceived as performing an action and so are partly or wholly personified, as in the last example under the rule.

a. The ablative of the agent with ab is sometimes used after intransitive verbs that have a passive sense:—
perīre ab hoste, to be slain by an enemy.

b. The personal agent, when considered as instrument or means, is often expressed by per with the accusative, or by operā with a genitive or possessive:—
ab explōrātoribus certior factus est (B. G. i. 21), he was informed by scouts (in person). But,—
per explōrātōres Caesar certior factus est (id. i. 12), Caesar was informed by (means of) scouts.
ēlautae operā Nepūnī (Plaut. Rud. 699), washed clean by the services of Neptune.
noē meā operā ēvēnit (Ter. Hec. 228), it hasn’t happened through me (by my exertions). [Cf. ēius operā, B. G. v. 27.]
Note 1.—The ablative of means or instrument is often used instead of the ablative of agent, especially in military phrases: as,—hac excubitoribus tenēbantur (B. C. v. i. 69), these (redoubts) were held by means of sentinels.

Note 2.—An animal is sometimes regarded as the means or instrument, sometimes as the agent. Hence both the simple ablative and the ablative with ab occur:—
equō vehi, to ride on horseback (be conveyed by means of a horse). [Not ab equō.]
clipeōs à mūribus esse dōrosōs (Div. i. 99), that the shields were gnawed by mice.
For the Dative of the Agent with the Gerundive, see § 374.

Ablative of Comparison

406. The Comparative degree is often followed by the Ablative 1 signifying than:—

Cato est Cicerōne eloquentior, Cato is more eloquent than Cicero.

quid nōbis duōbus laboriōsius est (Mil. 5), what more burdened with toil than
we two?

vilius argentum est aurō, virōtibus aurum (Hor. Ep. i. 1. 52), silver is less
precious than gold, gold than virtue.

a. The idiomatic ablatives opiniōne, spē, solitō, dictō, acquō, crédi-
bili, and iūstō are used after comparatives instead of a clause:—

celerius opiniōne (Fam. xiv. 23), faster than one would think.
sērius spē omnium (Liv. xxvi. 26), later than all hoped (than the hope of all).
amnis solitō citātor (id. xxiii. 19. 11), a stream swifter than its wont.
gravius acquō (Sall. Cat. 51), more seriously than was right.

407. The comparative may be followed by quam, than. When
quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case:

nōn callidior es quam hic (Rosc. Am. 49), you are not more cunning than he.
cōntīōnibus accommodātior est quam iūdiciās (Clu. 2), fitter for popular assem-
blies than for courts.
misericordiā dignior quam contumēliā (Pison. 32), more worthy of pity than of
disgrace.

a. The construction with quam is required when the first of the
things compared is not in the Nominative or Accusative.

Note 1.—There are several limitations on the use of the ablative of comparison, even when the first of the things compared is in the nominative or accusative. Thus
the quam construction is regularly used (1) when the comparative is in agreement
with a genitive, dative, or ablative: as,—senex est sō meliōre condiōne quam adulē-
cēns (Cat. M. 68), an old man is in this respect in a better position than a young man;
and (2) when the second member of the comparison is modified by a clause: as,—minor
fuit aliquantō quī prīmus fābulam dedit quam eī qui, etc. (Brut. 73), he who first
presented a play was somewhat younger than those who, etc.

1 This is a branch of the Ablative of Separation. The object with which anything
is compared is the starting-point from which we reckon. Thus, “Cicero is eloquent”;
but, starting from him, we come to Cato, who is “more so than he.”
NOTE 2.—The poets sometimes use the ablative of comparison where the prose construction requires quam: as,—pāne ego iam mellitis potère placentis (Hor. Ep. i. 10. 11), *I now want bread better than honey-cakes.*

Note 3.—Relative pronouns having a definite antecedent never take quam in this construction, but always the ablative: as,—réx erat Aenēas nóbus, quō iūstitior alter nec, etc. (Aen. i. 544), *Aenaeas was our king, than whom no other [was] more righteous.*

b. In sentences expressing or implying a general negative the ablative (rather than quam) is the regular construction when the first member of the comparison is in the nominative or accusative:—

nihil dētestābilis dēdecore, nihil foedius servitūte (Phil. iii. 36), *nothing is more dreadful than disgrace, nothing viler than slavery.*

nēminem esse cariōrem tē (Att. x. 8A. 1), *that no one is dearer than you.*

c. After the comparatives plús, minus, amplius, longius, without quam, a word of measure or number is often used with no change in its case:—

plús septingenti captī (Liv. xli. 12), *more than seven hundred were taken.*
[Nominative.]

plús tertii parte interfexit (B. G. iii. 6), *more than a third part being slain.*
[Ablative Absolute.]

aditus in lātitūdinem nōn amplius ducentōrum pedum relinquēbātur (id. ii. 29), *an approach of not more than two hundred feet in width was left.*
[Genitive of Measure: § 345. b.]

Note.—The noun takes the case required by the context, without reference to the comparative, which is in a sort of apposition: “seven hundred were taken [and] more.”

d. Alius is sometimes followed by the ablative in poetic and colloquial use; in formal prose it is followed by ac (atque); et, more rarely by nisi, quam:—

nee quicquam aliud libertāte commūni (Fam. xi. 2), *nothing else than the common liberty.*

alius Lýsippō (Hor. Ep. ii. 1. 240), *another than Lyssipus.*

num aliud vidētur esse ac meōrum bonōrum direptiō (Domi. 51), *does it seem anything different from the plundering of my property?*

erat historia nihil aliud nisi annālium consensus (De Or. ii. 52), *history was nothing else but a compiling of records.*

e. The comparative of an adverb is usually followed by quam, rarely by the ablative except in poetry:—

tempus tē citius quam orātiō deficeret (Rosc. Am. 89), *time would fail you sooner than words.* But,—
cur olivum sanguine vīperīnō cautius vitat (Hor. Od. i. 8. 9), *why does he shun oil more carefully than viper’s blood?*

Note.—Prepositions meaning before or beyond (as ante, praec, praetert, supra) are sometimes used with a comparative: as,—scelere ante aliōs immānior omnis (Aen. i. 347), *more monstrous in crime than all other men.*
USES OF THE ABLATIVE AS INSTRUMENTAL

408. Means, Instrument, Manner, and Accompaniment are denoted by the Instrumental Ablative (see § 398), but some of these uses more commonly require a proposition. As they all come from one source (the old Instrumental Case) no sharp line can be drawn between them, and indeed the Romans themselves can hardly have thought of any distinction. Thus, in omnis precibus óránt, they entreated with every [kind of] prayer, the ablative, properly that of means, cannot be distinguished from that of manner.

Ablative of Means or Instrument

409. The Ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action:—

certantēs pūgnīs, calcibus, unguibus, morsū dēnique (Tusc. v. 77), fighting with fists, heels, nails, and even teeth.
cum pūgnīs et calcibus concisus esset (Verr. iii. 56), when he had been powdered with their fists and heels.
meās labāribus interitū rem públicam liberāvi (Sull. 33), by my toils I have saved the state from ruin.
multae istārum arborum mēa manū sunt satae (Cat. M. 59), many of those trees were set out with my own hands.
vi victa vis, vel potius oppressa virtūte audācia est (Mil. 30), violence was overcome by violence, or rather, boldness was put down by courage.

α. The Ablative of Means is used with verbs and adjectives of filling, abounding, and the like:—

Deus bonis omnibus explēvit mundum (Tim. 3), God has filled the world with all good things.
aggre et crāthībus fossūs explent (B. G. vii. 86), they fill up the ditches with earth and fascines.
tōtum montem hominibus complēvit (id. i. 24), he filled the whole mountain with men.
opimus praedā (Verr. ii. 1. 132), rich with spoils.
vita plēna et confessa voluptātibus (Sest. 23), life filled and crowded with delights. Forum Appī differtium nautīs (Hor. S. i. 5. 4), Forum Appii crammed with bargemen.

Note.—In poetry the Genitive is often used with these words. Compleō and implēō sometimes take the genitive in prose (cf. § 356); so regularly plēnus and (with personal nouns) complētus and refertus (§ 349. α):—

omnia plēna luctūs et maerōris fuerunt (Sest. 128), everything was full of grief and mourning.
ollum dēnāriōrum implēre (Fam. ix. 18), to fill a pot with money. [Here evidently colloquial, otherwise rare in Cicero.]
convivium vicīnōrum complex (Cat. M. 46, in the mouth of Cato), I fill up the banquet with my neighbors.
eum complētus mercātōrum carcer esset (Verr. v. 147), when the prison was full of traders.
410. The deponents útor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, with several of their compounds,\(^1\) govern the Ablative: —

útor vestrā benignitāte (Arch. 18), I will avail myself of your kindness.
ita mihi salva rē públicā vōbiscum perfrui liceat (Cest. iv. 11), so may I enjoy with you the state secure and prosperous.
fungi ināni mūner (Aen. vi. 885), to perform an idle service.
aurō hērōs potitūr (Gay. M. vii. 156), the hero takes the gold.
lacte et ferina carne vescēbantur (Aug. 89), they fed on milk and game.

Note. — This is properly an Ablative of Means (instrumental) and the verbs are really in the middle voice (§ 156. a). Thus útor with the ablative signifies I employ myself (or avail myself) by means of, etc. But these earlier meanings disappeared from the language, leaving the construction as we find it.

\(\alpha\). Potior sometimes takes the Genitive, as always in the phrase potīrī rērūm, to get control or be master of affairs (§ 357. a): —
tōtius Galliāe sēsē potīrī possē spērānt (B. G. i. 3), they hope they can get possession of the whole of Gaul.

Note 1. — In early Latin, these verbs are sometimes transitive and take the accusative: —
fūnctus est officium (Ter. Ph. 281), he performed the part, etc.
ille patria potītūr commodā (Ter. Ad. 871), he enjoys his ancestral estate.

Note 2. — The Gerundive of these verbs is used personally in the passive as if the verb were transitive (but cf. § 500. 3): as, — Hērcliō omnē útēda ac possēdēna trā-diderat (Verr. ii. 46), he had given over everything to Hērclius for his use and possession (to be used and possessed).

411. Opus and ĕsus, signifying need, take the Ablative: —\(^2\)
magistrātibus opus est (Leg. iii. 5), there is need of magistrates.
nunc viribus ĕsus (Aen. viii. 441), now there is need of strength.

Note. — The ablative with ĕsus is not common in classic prose.

\(\alpha\). With opus the ablative of a perfect participle is often found, either agreeing with a noun or used as a neuter abstract noun: —
opus est tūā exprēmtā malitīā atque astūtiā (Ter. And. 723), I must have your best cunning and cleverness set to work.
properātō opus erat (cf. Mil. 49), there was need of haste.

Note 1. — So rarely with ĕsus in comedy: as, — quid istīs ĕsus cōnscriptīs (Pl. Bacch. 749), what’s the good of having them in writing?

Note 2. — The omission of the noun gives rise to complex constructions: as, — quid opus factōst (cf. B. G. i. 42), what must be done? [Cf. quid opus est fierī? with quō factō opus est ?]

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\(^1\) These are abūtor, deūtor (very rare), dēfungor, dēfruor, perfruor, perfungor.

\(^2\) This construction is properly an instrumental one, in which opus and ĕsus mean work and service, and the ablative expresses that with which the work is performed or the service rendered. The noun ĕsus follows the analogy of the verb útor, and the ablative with opus est appears to be an extension of that with ĕsus est.
b. Opus is often found in the predicate, with the thing needed in the nominative as subject: —

dux nóbis et auctor opus est (Fam. ii. 6. 4), we need a chief and responsible adviser (a chief, etc., is necessary for us).

si quid ipsi opus esset (B. G. i. 34), if he himself wanted anything (if anything should be necessary for him).

quae opus sunt (Cato R. R. 14. 3), things which are required.

Ablative of Manner

412. The Manner of an action is denoted by the Ablative; usually with cum, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun:

cum celeritāte vēnit, he came with speed. But, —

summā celeritāte vēnit, he came with the greatest speed.

quid rēfert quā mā ratiōne cōgātis (Lael. 26), what difference does it make in what way you compel me?

a. But cum is often used even when the ablative has a limiting adjective: —

quantō id cum periculō fēcerit (B. G. i. 17), at what risk he did this.

nōn minōre cum taeō recubant (Plin. Ep. ix. 17. 3), they recline with no less weariness.

b. With such words of manner as modō, pactō, ratiōne, rītū, vī, viā, and with stock expressions which have become virtually adverbs (as silentīō, iūre, iniūriā), cum is not used: —

apis Matinae mōre modōque carmina fingō (Hor. Od. iv. 2. 28), in the style and manner of a Matiian bee I fashion songs.

Note. — So in poetry the ablative of manner often omits cum: as, — insequitur cu.

mātō aquae mōns (Aen. i. 105), a mountain of water follows in a mass. [Cf. marmur (id. i. 124); rimis (id. i. 123).]

Ablative of Accompaniment

413. Accompaniment is denoted by the Ablative, regularly with cum: —

cum coniugibus ac liberis (Att. viii. 2. 3), with wives and children.

cum funditōribus sagittāriisque flūmen trāngressī (B. G. ii. 19), having crossed the river with the archers and slingers.

quae supplicātiō si cum cēteris cōnferātur (Cat. iii. 15), if this thanksgiving be compared with others.

quae [lēx] esse cum tēlo vetat (Mil. 11), the law which forbids [one] to go armed (be with a weapon).

si sēcum suōs edūserit (Cat. i. 30), if he leads out with him his associates.

[For sēcum, see § 144. b. n.1.]
a. The ablative is used without cum in some military phrases, and here and there by early writers:—
subsequēbatur omnibus cōpiis (B. G. ii. 19), *he followed close with all his forces.* [But also cum omnibus cōpiis, id. i. 26.]
hōc praesidiō protectus est (Verr. ii. 1. 86), *with this force he set out.*

Note. — Miscēō and rūnō, with some of their compounds, and contundō take either (1) the Ablative of Accompaniment with or without cum, or (2) sometimes the Dative (mostly poetical or late):—
mixta dōlōre voluptās (B. Al. 56), *pleasure mingled with pain.*
cūius animō cum suō miscetur (Lael. 81), *whose soul he may mingle with his own.*
fītunque crūōris miscerit (Ov. M. iv. 140), *and mingled tears with blood.*
Cæsar cūs cohortēs cum exercitū suō conjunxit (B. C. i. 18), *Caesar united those cohorts with his own army.*
āēr conjunctus terrīs (Lucr. v. 562), *air united with earth.*
hūmnō capiti cervicem equinam lugere (Hor. A. P. 1), *to join to a human head a horse's neck.*

b. Words of Contention and the like require cum:—
armīs cum hoste certāre (Off. iii. 87), *to fight with the enemy in arms.*
libenter hāec cum Q. Catulō disputārem (Manil. 66), *I should gladly discuss these matters with Quintus Catulus.*

Note. — But words of contention may take the Dative in poetry (see § 368. a).

Ablative of Degree of Difference

414. With Comparatives and words implying comparison the ablative is used to denote the Degree of Difference:—
quīnque māibus passuum distat, *it is five miles distant.*
ā māibus passuum circiter duōbus (B. G. v. 32), *at a distance of about two miles.* [For ā as an adverb, see § 433. 3.]
aliquot ante annōs (Tusc. i. 4), *several years before.*
aliquantō post suspexit (Rep. vi. 9), *a while after, he looked up.*
multō mē vigilāre acriūs (Cat. i. 8), *that I watch much more sharply.*
 nihilō erat ipse Cyclops quam ariōs prōdentior (Tusc. v. 115), *the Cyclops himself was not a whit wiser than the ram.*

a. The ablatives quō ... eō (hōc), and quantō ... tantō, are used corporatively with comparatives, like the English the ... the:—
quō minus cupiditātis, eō plus auctōritātis (Liv. xxiv. 28), *the less greed, the more weight* (by what the less, by that the more).
quantō erat gravior oppūgnātō, tantō erēbriōres litterae mittēbantur (B. G. v. 45), *the severer the siege was, the more frequently letters were sent.*

1 In this phrase the is not the definite article but a pronounal adverb, being the Anglo-Saxon thy, the instrumental case of the pronoun that, that. This pronoun is used both as relative (by which, by how much) and as demonstrative (by that, by so much). Thus the ... the corresponds exactly to quō ... eō.
Note.—To this construction are doubtless to be referred all cases of quō and eō (hēc) with a comparative, even when they have ceased to be distinctly felt as degree of difference and approach the Ablative of Cause:—

ēque mē minus paenitet (N. D. i. 8), and for that reason I regret less, etc. (by so much the less I regret).
hacē eō factūrīus faciēbant, quod (B. G. iii. 12), this they did the more easily for this reason, because, etc. [Cf. hēc mēiorē spē, quod (Id. iii. 9).]

b. The Ablative of Comparison (§ 406) and the Ablative of Degree of Difference are sometimes used together with the same adjective: —
paulē minus ducentis (B. C. iii. 28), a little less than two hundred.
patria, quae mihi vitā meā multō est cărior (Cat. i. 27), my country, which is much dearer to me than life.

But the construction with quam is more common.

Ablative of Quality

415. The quality of a thing is denoted by the Ablative with an adjective or genitive modifier.

This is called the Descriptive Ablative or Ablative of Quality: —

animō meliore sunt gladiatorēs (Cat. ii. 26), the gladiators are of a better mind.

quae cum esset civitās aliussiōm iūre ac foedere (Arch. 6), as this was a city with perfectly equal constitutional rights.

mulierem eximīa pulchritūdine (Verr. ii. i. 64), a woman of rare beauty.

Aristotelēs, vir summō ingeniō, scientiā, cōpiā (Tusc. i. 7), Aristotle, a man of the greatest genius, learning, and gift of expression.

dē Domitiō dixit versum Graecum eādem sententiā (Deiot. 25), concerning Domitius he recited a Greek line of the same tenor.

Note.—The Ablative of Quality (like the Genitive of Quality, § 345) modifies a substantive by describing it. It is therefore equivalent to an adjective, and may be either attributive or predicate. In this it differs from other ablatives, which are equivalent to adverbs.

a. In expressions of quality the Genitive or the Ablative may often be used indifferently; but physical qualities are oftener denoted by the Ablative (cf. § 345. n.): —

capillō sunt prōmissō (B. G. v. 14), they have long hair.

ut capite operātō sit (Cat. M. 34), to have his head covered (to be with covered head).

quam fuit inbēcillus P. Africānī filius, quam tenui aut nōlīa potius valētūdine (Id. 35), how weak was the son of Africanus, of what feeble health, or rather none at all!

1 It was originally instrumental and appears to have developed from accommodation (§ 413) and manner (§ 412).
Ablative of Price

416. The price of a thing is put in the Ablative: —

agrulam vendidit sestertium sex milibus, he sold the land for 6000 sesterces.
Antonius regna addixit pecuniā (Phil. vii. 15), Antony sold thrones for money.
logōs ridiculōs: quis cēnā poscit (Pl. Stich. 221), jokes: who wants them for
(at the price of) a dinner?
magnō illī ea cūntātiō stetit (Liv. ii. 36), that hesitation cost him dear.

Note. — To this head is to be referred the Ablative of the Penalty (§ 353. 1).

417. Certain adjectives of quantity are used in the Genitive to denote indefinite value. Such are magnī, parvī, tanti, quantī, plurīs, minōris: —

meā magnī interest, it is of great consequence to me.
illud parvī réfert (Manil. 18), this is of small account.
est mihi tanti (Cat. ii. 15), it is worth the price (it is of so much).
Verrēne tibi tanti fuit (Verr. ii. 1. 77), was Verres of so much account to
you?
tantōne minōris decem sunt vēniērant (id. iii. 106), were the tithes sold for so
much less?
ut tē redimās captūm quam queās minimō: si nequeās paululō, at quantō queās
(Ter. Eun. 74), to ransom yourself, when captured, at the cheapest rate
you can; if you can’t for a small sum, then at any rate for what you can.

Note. — These are really Genitives of Quality (§ 345. b).

a. The genitive of certain colorless nouns is used to denote indefinite value. Such are nihilī (nilī), nothing; assīs, a farthing (rare);
flocī (a lock of wool), a straw: —

nōh flocī faciō (Att. xiii. 50), I care not a straw. [Colloquial.]
utinam ego istuc abs tē factum nihil penderem (Ter. Eun. 94), O that I cared
nothing for this being done by you! [Colloquial.]

b. With verbs of exchanging, either the thing taken or the thing
given in exchange may be in the Ablative of Price. Such are mūtō,
commūtō, permūtō, vertō: —

fidem suam et religiōnem pecūniā commūtāre (Cln. 129), to barter his faith
and conscience for money.
exsiliōm patriā sēdē mutāvit (Q. C. iii. 7. 11), he exchanged his native land
for exile (he took exile in exchange for his native land).
vēłōx saepe Lucretiōm mūtāt Lycaeō Fannus (Hor. Od. i. 17. 1), nimble
Fannus often changes Lycaeus for Lucretius. [He takes Lucretius at
the price of Lycaeus, i.e. he goes from Lycaeus to Lucretius.]
vertere fānerības triumphōs (id. i. 35. 4), to change the triumph to the funeral
train (exchange triumphs for funerals). [Poetical.]
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Note. — With verbs of exchanging cum is often used, perhaps with a different conception of the action: as, — aries... cum croceo mutavit vellera lato (Ecl. iv. 44), the ram shall change his fleece for [one dyed with] the yellow saffron.

c. With verbs of buying and selling the simple Ablative of Price must be used, except in the case of tantī, quantī, plūris, minōris: —

quantī eam emit? vīlī... quot minīs? quadrāgingintā minīs (Pl. Epid. 51),
what did he buy her for? Cheap. For how many mina? Forty.

Ablative of Specification

418. The Ablative of Specification denotes that in respect to which anything is or is done: —

virtūte praeceδunt (B. G. i. 1), they excel in courage.
claudus alter pēdē (Nep. Ages. 8), lame of one foot.
linguā haesitantēs, vōce absonī (De Or. i. 115), hesitating in speech, harsh in voice.
sunt enim hominēs nōn ī sed nōmine (Off. i. 105), for they are men not in fact, but in name.
māior nātū, older; minor nātū, younger (cf. § 131. c).
paulum aetāte progressī (Cat. M. 33), somewhat advanced in age.
corporē senex esse poterit, animō numquam erit (id. 38), he may be an old man in body, he never will be [old] at heart.

a. To this head are to be referred many expressions where the ablative expresses that in accordance with which anything is or is done: —

meō iūre, with perfect right; but, meō modō, in my fashion.
meā sententiā, in my opinion; but also more formally, ex meā sententiā.
[Here the sense is the same, but the first ablative is specification, the second source.]
prophācitāte confluentōs atque nātārā (Lael. 50), closely allied by kindred and nature. [Here the ablative is not different in sense from those above, but no doubt is a development of means.]
qui vincit viribus (id. 55), who surpasses in strength. [Here it is impossible to tell whether viribus is the means of the superiority or that in respect to which one is superior.]

Note. — As the Romans had no such categories as we make, it is impossible to classify all uses of the ablative. The ablative of specification (originally instrumental) is closely akin to that of manner, and shows some resemblance to means and cause.

For the Supine in -ū as an Ablative of Specification, see § 510.

b. The adjectives dignus and indignus take the ablative: —

vir patre, avō, mājōribus suis dignissimus (Phil. iii. 25), a man most worthy of his father, grandfather, and ancestors.
tē omni honōre indignissimum iūdicāvit (Vat. 39), he judged you entirely unworthy of every honor.
Note 1. — So the verb dignor in poetry and later prose: as, — hand equidem tāli mé dignor honōre (Aen. i. 335), *I do not deem myself worthy of such an honor.*

Note 2. — Dignus and indignus sometimes take the genitive in colloquial usage and in poetry: —
cūram dignissimam tuae virtūtis (Balbus in Att. viii. 15), *care most worthy of your noble character.*
dignus salūtis (Plaut. Thur. 1153), *worthy of safety.*
magnorum haud unquam indignus avōrum (Aen. xii. 649), *never unworthy of my great ancestors.*

**Ablative Absolute**

**419.** A noun or pronoun, with a participle in agreement, may be put in the Ablative to define the *time* or *circumstances* of an action. This construction is called the Ablative Absolute: —

Caesar, acceptis litteris, nūtium mittit (B. G. v. 46), *having received the letter, Caesar sends a messenger* (the letter having been received).

quibus rēbus cōgnitis Caesar apud miliēs cōntiēnōtur (B. C. i. 7), *having learned this, Caesar makes a speech to the soldiers.*

fugātō omní eqūitātū (B. G. vii. 68), *all the cavalry being put to flight.*

interfectō Índūtiōmārō (id. vi. 2), *upon the death of Indutiomarus.*

nōndum hiemem confectā in finīs Nerviōrum contēnit (id. vi. 3), *though the winter was not yet over, he hastened into the territory of the Nervii.*

compressī [sunt] cōnātīs nullō tumultiū públicoē concitātō (Cat. i. 11), *the attempts were put down without exciting any general alarm.*

nē vobis quidem omnibus rē etiam tum probāta (id. ii. 4), *since at that time the facts were not yet proved even to all of you.*

Note. — The ablative absolute is an *adverbal modifier* of the predicate. It is, however, not grammatically dependent on any word in the sentence: hence its name *absolute* (*absolutus*, i.e. *free or unconnected*). A substantive in the ablative absolute very seldom denotes a person or thing elsewhere mentioned in the same clause.

**a.** An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the Ablative Absolute construction: —

exiguā parte aestātīs reliquā (B. G. iv. 20), *when but a small part of the summer was left* (a small part of the summer remaining).

L. Domitiō Ap. Claudīō consulibus (id. v. 1), *in the consulship of Lucius Domitius and Appius Claudius* (Lucius Domitius and Appius Claudius [being] consuls). [*The regular way of expressing a date, see § 424. g.*]

nil despērāndum Tectarō duce et auspice Tectarō (H. Od. i. 7. 27), *there should be no despair under Tectar’s leadership and auspices* (Tectar being leader, etc.).

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1 The Ablative Absolute is perhaps of *instrumental* origin. It is, however, sometimes explained as an outgrowth of the *locative*, and in any event certain locative constructions (of *place* and *time*) must have contributed to its development.

2 The present participle of esse, wanting in Latin (§ 170. b), is used in Sanskrit and Greek as in English.
b. A phrase or clause, used substantively, sometimes occurs as ablative absolute with a participle or an adjective: —

incertō quid penterent (Liv. xxviii. 36), as it was uncertain what they should aim at (it being uncertain, etc.).

compertō vanum esse formidinem (Tac. Ann. i. 66), when it was found that the alarm was groundless.

cūr praetereatūr dēmōnstrātō (Inv. ii. 34), when the reason for omitting it has been explained (why it is passed by being explained).

Note. — This construction is very rare except in later Latin.

c. A participle or an adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the ablative absolute without a substantive: —

cōnsultō (Off. i. 27), on purpose (the matter having been deliberated on).

mēhi optātō vēneris (Att. xiii. 28. 3), you will come in accordance with my wish.

sērēnō (Liv. xxxxi. 12), under a clear sky (it [being] clear).

nec auspīcitō nec lītātō (id. v. 38), with no auspices or favorable sacrifice.

trānuillō, ut ālunt, quilibet gubernātor est (Sen. Ep. 85. 34), in good weather, as they say, any man’s a pilot.

420. The Ablative Absolute often takes the place of a Subordinate Clause.

Thus it may replace —

1. A Temporal Clause (§ 541 ff.): —

pater interfecitō, [his] father having been killed. [This corresponds to cum pater interfecit esset, when his father had been killed.]

recentibus sceleris ēius vestigiis (Q. C. vii. 1. 1), while the traces of the crime were fresh. [Cf. dum recentia sunt vestigia.]


at eī quī Alesiae obsidēbantur praeteritā die quā auxilia suōrum expectāverant, cōnsumptō omū frūmentō, conciliō coāctō consultābant (B. G. vii. 77), but those who were under siege at Alesia, since the time, etc., had expired, and their grain had been exhausted, calling a council (see 5 below), consulted together. [Cf. cum diēs praeterisset, etc.]

Dārēus, dēspērātō pāce, ad reparandās virīs intendit animum (Q. C. iv. 6. 1), Darius, since he despaired of peace, devoted his energies to recruiting his forces. [Cf. cum pācem dēspērāret.]

3. A Concessive Clause (§ 527): —

at eō repugnānte fiēbat (cōnsul), inmo vērō eō fiēbat magis (Mil. 34), but though he (Clodius) opposed, he (Milo) was likely to be elected consul; nay, rather, etc.

turribus excitātis, tamen hās altītūdō puppium ex barbaris nāvibus superābat (B. G. iii. 14), although towers had been built up, still the high sterns of the enemy’s ships rose above them.
occurrebat ei, mancam et debilem praeturam futuram suam, consule Milone (Mil. 25), it occurred to him that his praetorship would be maimed and feeble, if Milo were consul. [si Milo consul esset.]
quā (regione) subactus licēbit decurrere in illud mare (Q. C. ix. 3. 13), if this region is subdued, we shall be free to run down into that sea.
quā quidem detractā (Arch. 28), if this be taken away.

5. A Clause of Accompanying Circumstance: —
ego haec Ā Chrysogonō meā sponte, remotō Sex. Rōsciō, quaerō (Rosc. Am. 130), of my own accord, without reference to Sextus Roscius (Sextus Roscius being put aside), I ask these questions of Chrysogonus.
nec imperante nec sciente nec praesente dominō (Mil. 29), without their master’s giving orders, or knowing it, or being present.

Note. — As the English Nominative Absolute is far less common than the Ablative Absolute in Latin, a change of form is generally required in translation. Thus the present participle is oftenest to be rendered in English by a relative clause with when or while; and the perfect passive participle by the perfect active participle. These changes may be seen in the following example: —
At illī, intermissō spatii, imprudentibus nostrīs atque occupātis in mūnitione castrōrum, subitō sé ex silvis cīcērunt; impetūque in cōs factō quī erant in statione prō castrīs conlocāti, ācerē pūgnāvērunt; duābusque missīs subsidīo cohortibus à Caesare, cum hae (perevisīguō intermissō locī spatii inter sē) con-
stitissent, novō generique pugnāe perterritīs nostrīs, per mediōs sudācissimē perrūpē-
rent sēque inde incolumīs recēpērunt.— Caesār, B. G. v. 15.

For the Ablative with Prepositions, see § 220.

THE ABLATIVE AS LOCATIVE

Ablative of Place

421. The Locative Case was originally used (literally) to denote the place where and (figuratively) to denote the time when (a development from the idea of place). But this case was preserved only in names of towns and a few other words, and the place where is usually denoted by the Ablative. In this construction the Ablative was, no doubt, used at first without a preposition, but afterwards it became associated in most instances with the preposition in.

422. In expressions of Time and Place the Latin shows a variety of idiomatic constructions (Ablative, Accusative, and Locative), which are systematically treated in § 423 ff.
TIME AND PLACE

Time

423. Time when, or within which, is expressed by the Ablative; time how long by the Accusative.

1. Ablative: —
consistētā die, on the appointed day; primā lūce, at daybreak.
quaṭā hōrā, at what o'clock? tertīā vigilīā, in the third watch.
trībus proximis annīs (Iug. 11), within the last three years.
dīēbus vigintī quīnque aggerem exstruērunt (B. G. vii. 24), within twenty-five days they finished building a mound.

2. Accusative: —
dīēs continuōs trigintā, for thirty days together.
cum tridūm iter fēcisset (B. G. ii. 16), when he had marched three days.

Note. — The Ablative of Time is locative in its origin (§ 421); the Accusative is the same as that of the extent of space (§ 425).

424. Special constructions of time are the following: —

a. The Ablative of time within which sometimes takes in, and the Accusative of time how long per, for greater precision: —
in dīēbus proximis decem (Iug. 28), within the next ten days.
lūdī per decem dīēs (Cat. iii. 20), games for ten days.

b. Duration of time is occasionally expressed by the Ablative: —
militēs quīnque hōrīs proelium sustinuerant (B. C. i. 47), the men had sustained the fight five hours.

Note. — In this use the period of time is regarded as that within which the act is done, and it is only implied that the act lasted through the period. Cf. inter annōs quattuordecim (B. G. i. 36), for fourteen years.

c. Time during which or within which may be expressed by the Accusative or Ablative of a noun in the singular, with an ordinal numeral: —
quintō dīē, within [just] four days (lit. on the fifth day). [The Romans counted both ends, see § 631, d.]
reğnat iam sextum annum, he has reigned going on six years.

d. Many expressions have in Latin the construction of time when, where in English the main idea is rather of place: —
pāgnā Camēnsī (or, apud Camēns), in the fight at Cannae.
lūdī Rōmānis, at the Roman games.
omnibus Gallicīs bellīs, in all the Gallic wars.
e. In many idiomatic expressions of time, the Accusative with _ad_,
in, or _sub_ is used. Such are the following:—

supplicatio decreta est in Kalendás Iúnúríás, a thanksgiving was voted for
the first of January.
convénerunt _ad diem_, they assembled on the [appointed] day.
ad _vesperum_, till evening; _sub vespérum_, towards evening.
sub _idem tempus_, about the same time; _sub noctem_, at nightfall.

f. Distance of time _before or after_ anything is variously expressed:
post (ante) tres annós, post tertium annum, tres post annós, tertium post
 annum, tribus post annís, tertio post annó (§ 414), three years after.
tribus annís (tertió annó) post exsilium (postquam éfectus est), three years
after his exile.
his tribus proximís annís, within the last three years.
pacís annís, a few years hence.
ab hinc annós tres (tribus annís), ante hós tres annós, three years ago.
tríennium est cum (trés anni sunt cum), it is three years since.
Octávo ménse quam, the eighth month after (see § 434. n.).

g. In Dates the phrase _ante diem_ (a. d.) with an ordinal, or the
ordinal alone, is followed by an accusative, like a preposition; and
the phrase itself may also be governed by a preposition.
The year is expressed by the names of the consuls in the ablative
absolute, usually without a conjunction (§ 419. a):—

is diés erat a. d. v. Kal. Apr. (quintum Kalendás Aprilis) L. Pisóne A. Gabinió
consulibus (B. G. i. 6), that day was the 5th before the calends of April
(March 28), in the consulship of Piso and Gabinius.
in a. d. v. Kal. Nov. (Cat. i. 7), to the 5th day before the calends of November
(Oct. 28).
xv. Kal. Sextílis, the 15th day before the calends of August (July 18). [Full
form: quintó décimó dié _ante_ Kalendás.]

For the Roman Calendar, see § 631.

Extent of Space

425. Extent of Space is expressed by the Accusative:—

fossás quíndecim pedós látás (B. G. vii. 72), trenches fifteen feet broad.
progressus mília passuum circiter duodecim (id. v. 9), having advanced about
twelve miles.
in omni vitá suá quemque á réctá conscientiá _transversum ungum_ non
oportet discédere (quoted in Att. xiii. 20), in all one's life, one should
not depart a nail's breadth from straightforward conscience.

Note. — This Accusative denotes the object _through_ or _over which_ the action takes
place, and is kindred with the Accusative of the End of Motion (§ 427. 2).
a. Measure is often expressed by the Genitive of Quality (§ 345. b):
vāllum duodecim pedum (B. G. vii. 72), a rampart of twelve feet (in height).

b. Distance when considered as extent of space is put in the Accusative; when considered as degree of difference, in the Ablative (§ 414):

milia passuum tria ab eorum castris castra pōnit (B. G. i. 22), he pitches his camp three miles from their camp.
quīnque diērum iter abest (Liv. xxx. 29), it is distant five days' march.
trigintā milibus passuum infra eum locum (B. G. vi. 35), thirty miles below that place (below by thirty miles).

Relations of Place

426. Relations of Place¹ are expressed as follows: —

1. The place from which, by the Ablative with ab, dē, or ex.
2. The place to which (or end of motion), by the Accusative with ad or in.
3. The place where, by the Ablative with in (Locative Ablative).

Examples are: —

1. Place from which:
   a septentrione, from the north.
   cum a vōbis discesserō (Cat. M. 79), when I leave you.
dē prōvinciā dēcēdere, to come away from one's province.
dē monte, down from the mountain.
   negotiātor ex Africa (Verr. ii. 1. 14), a merchant from Africa.
ex Britannia obsidēs misērunt (B. G. iv. 38), they sent hostages from Britain.
Mōsa prōfluit ex monte Voségō (id. iv. 10), the Meuse (flows from) rises in the Vosges mountains.

2. Place to which (end of motion): —
   nocte ad Nerviōs pervenērunt (B. G. ii. 17), they came by night to the Nervii.
adém ad istum fundum (Caec. 82), I was going to that estate.
in Africam nāvigavit, he sailed to Africa; in Itāliam profectus, gone to Italy.
lēgātum in Treverōs mittit (B. G. iii. 11), he sends his lieutenant into the [country of the] Treveri.

¹ Originally all these relations were expressed by the cases alone. The accusative, in one of its oldest functions, denoted the end of motion; the ablative, in its proper meaning of separation, denoted the place from which, and, in its locative function, the place where. The prepositions, originally adverbs, were afterwards added to define more exactly the direction of motion (as in to usward, toward us), and by long association became indispensable except as indicated below.
3. Place where:—

in hāc urbe vitam dēgit, he passed his life in this city.
si in Galliā remanērent (B. G. iv. 8), if they remained in Gaul.
dum haec in Venetis geruntur (id. iii. 17), while this was going on among the Veneti.
oppidum in īnsulā positum (id. vii. 58), a town situated on an island.

427. With names of towns and small islands, and with domus and rūs, the Relations of Place are expressed as follows:—

1. The place from which, by the Ablative without a preposition.
2. The place to which, by the Accusative without a preposition.
3. The place where, by the Locative.¹

Examples are:—

1. Place from which:—

Rōmā prefectus, having set out from Rome; Rōmā abesse, to be absent from Rome.
dōmō abīre, to leave home; rūre reversus, having returned from the country.

2. Place to which:—

cum Rōmanam sextō dīe Mutinā vēnisset (Pom. xi. 6. 1), when he had come to Rome from Modena in five days (on the sixth day).
Dēlō Rhōdum nāvīgāre, to sail from Delos to Rhodes.
rūs ībō, I shall go into the country.
domum itī, he went home.² [So, suās domōs abīre, to go to their homes.]

3. Place where (or at which):—

Rōmae, at Rome (Rōma).
Rhēdi, at Rhodes (Rhōdus).
Samō, at Samos.
Thurī or Thurē, at Thurē.
Philippēs, at Philippē.
dōmō (rarely dōmit), at home.

Athēnēs, at Athens (Athēnae).
Lānuvi, at Lanuvium.
Cyprī, at Cyprus.
Cūribēs, at Cures.
Capreis, at Capri (Capreae).
rūri, in the country.

α. The Locative Case is also preserved in the following nouns, which are used (like names of towns) without a preposition:—

belli, militiae (in contrast to dōmō), abroad, in military service.
humō, on the ground.
forēs, out of doors.
hērē (-ē), yesterday.

Cf. infelīcis arborē (Liv. i. 26), on the ill-omened (barren) tree; terrā marique, by land and sea.

¹ The Locative has in the singular of the first and second declensions the same form as the Genitive, in the plural and in the third declension the same form as the Dative or Ablative. (See p. 34, footnote.)
² The English home in this construction is, like domum, an old accusative of the end of motion.
428. Special uses of place from which, to which, and where are the following: —

a. With names of towns and small islands ab is often used to denote from the vicinity of; and ad to denote towards, to the neighborhood of: —

    ut à Mutina discenderet (Phil. xiv. 4), that he should retire from Modena (which he was besieging).
    erat à Gergovia densus in castra (B. G. vii. 45), there was from about Gergovia a view into the camp.
    ad Alesiam proficiscuntur (id. vii. 76), they set out for Alesia.
    ad Alesiam pervenient (id. vii. 79), they arrive at Alesia (i.e. in the neighborhood of the town).
    D. Laelius cum classe ad Brundisium venit (B. C. iii. 100), Decimus Laelius came to Brundisium with a fleet (arriving in the harbor).

b. The general words urbs, oppidum, insula require a preposition to express the place from which, to which, or where: —

    ab (ex) urbe, from the city. in urbe, in the city.
    ad urbe, to the city. Rōmae in urbe, in the city of Rome.
    in urbe, into the city. Rōmā ex urbe, from the city of Rome.
    ad urbe Rōmānī (Rōmānī ad urbe), to the city of Rome.

c. With the name of a country, ad denotes to the borders; in with the accusative, into the country itself. Similarly ab denotes away from the outside; ex, out of the interior.

    Thus ad Italiam pervenit would mean he came to the frontier, regardless of the destination; in Italiam, he went to Italy, i.e. to a place within it, to Rome, for instance.
    So ab Italiiā projecus est would mean he came away from the frontier, regardless of the original starting-point; ex Italiiā, he came from Italy, from within, as from Rome, for instance.

d. With all names of places at, meaning near (not in), is expressed by ad or apud with the accusative.

    pūgna ad Cannas, the fight at Cannae.
    conchas ad Caietam legitum (De Or. ii. 22), at Caieta (along the shore).
    ad (apud) inferos, in the world below (near, or among, those below).
    ad foris, at the doors. ad ianuam, at the door.

    Note 1. — In the neighborhood of may be expressed by circā with the accusative; among, by apud with the accusative: —
    apud Graecos, among the Greeks. apud me, at my house.
    apud Solēn̄s (Leg. ii. 41), at Sōli. circā Capuanam, round about Capua.

    Note 2. — In citing an author, apud is regularly used; in citing a particular work, in. Thus,—apud Xenophōntem, in Xenophon; but, in Xenophōntis Oeconomicō, in Xenophon’s Oeconomicus.
e. Large islands, and all places when thought of as a territory and not as a locality, are treated like names of countries: —

in Sicilia, in Sicily.

in Ithacae leporis illati moriuntur (Plin. H. N. viii. 226), in Ithaca hares, when carried there, die. [Ulysses lived at Ithaca would require Ithacae.]

f. The Ablative without a preposition is used to denote the place from which in certain idiomatic expressions: —

cessisset patria (Mil. 68), he would have left his country.
patria pellere, to drive out of the country.
manu mittere, to emancipate (let go from the hand).

g. The poets and later writers often omit the preposition with the place from which or to which when it would be required in classical prose: —

manis Acheronte remissus (Aen. v. 99), the spirits returned from Acheron.
Scythia profecti (Q. C. iv. 12. 11), setting out from Scythia.
Italiani Laviniaque venit litora (Aen. i. 2), he came to Italy and the Lavinian shores.
terram Hesperiam venies (id. ii. 781), you shall come to the Hesperian land.
Aegyptum proficiscitur (Tac. Ann. ii. 59), he sets out for Egypt.

h. In poetry the place to which is often expressed by the Dative, occasionally also in later prose: —

it clamor caelo (Aen. v. 451), a shout goes up to the sky.
facilis descensus Avernæ (id. vi. 126), easy is the descent to Avernus.
diademum capitii repone reussit (Val. Max. v. 1. 9), he ordered him to put back the diadem on his head.

i. The preposition is not used with the supine in -um (§ 509) and in the following old phrases: —

exsequiæ ire, to go to the funeral.

infiniæ ire, to resort to denial.
pessum ire, to go to ruin.
pessum dare, to ruin (cf. perdœ).
veniæ dare, to sell (give to sale). [Hence vendere.]
veniæ ire, to be sold (go to sale). [Hence venir.] foras (used as adverb), out: as, — foras egredi, to go out of doors.
suppelœ advenire, to come to one’s assistance.

j. When two or more names of place are used with a verb of motion, each must be under its own construction: —

quadriduo quo haec gesta sunt res ad Chrysogonum in castra L. Sullae Volaterræ défertur (Rosc. Ann. 20), within four days after this was done, the matter was reported to Chrysogonus in Sulla’s camp at Volaterræ.

Note.—The accusative with or without a preposition is often used in Latin when motion to a place is implied but not expressed in English (see k, n.).
k. Domum denoting the place to which, and the locative domi, may be modified by a possessive pronoun or a genitive:—

domum rēgis (Deiot. 17), to the king’s house. [But also in M. Laecae domum (Cat. i. 8), to Marcus Leca’s house.]
domi meae, at my house; domi Caesaris, at Caesar’s house.
domi suae vel alienae, at his own or another’s house.

NOTE. — At times when thus modified, and regularly when otherwise modified, in domum or in domī is used:—
in domum privātam conveniunt (Tac. H. iv. 55), they come together in a private house.
in Mārci Crassī castissimā domō (Caec. 9), in the chaste home of Marcus Crassus.
[Cf. ex Anniānū Milōsī domō, § 302. e.]

429. The place where is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition in the following instances:—

1. Often in indefinite words, such as locō, parte, etc.:—

quibus locō positis (De Or. iii. 153), when these are set in position.
quā parte bellī vicerant (Liv. xxii. 22), the branch of warfare in which they were victorious.
locīs certūs horrea constituit (B. C. iii. 32), he established granaries in particular places.

2. Frequently with nouns which are qualified by adjectives (regularly when tōtus is used):—

mediā urbe (Liv. i. 33), in the middle of the city.
tōtā Sicilīā (Verr. iv. 51), throughout Sicily (in the whole of Sicily).
tōtā Tarracīnā (De Or. ii. 240), in all Tarracina.
cūncētē Asīā atque Graeciā (Manil. 12), throughout the whole of Asia and Greece too.

3. In many idiomatic expressions which have lost the idea of place: pendēmus animis (Tusc. i. 96), we are in suspense of mind (in our minds).
socius periculis vōbiscum aderō (Ing. 85. 47), I will be present with you, a companion in dangers.

4. Freely in poetry:—

litore curvō (Aen. iii. 16), on the winding shore.
antrō sēclūsa relinquit (id. iii. 446), she leaves them shut up in the cave.
Epīrō, Hesperīa (id. iii. 503), in Epirus, in Hesperia.
premit altum corde dolorem (id. i. 200), he keeps down the pain deep in his heart.

a. The way by which is put in the Ablative without a preposition:
viā breviōre equitēs praemissī (Fam. x. 9), I sent forward the cavalry by a shorter road.
Aegaē mari trāiectit (Liv. xxxvii. 14), he crossed by way of the Aegaean Sea.
prōvehimur pelagō (Aen. iii. 506), we sail forth over the sea.

NOTE. — In this use the way by which is conceived as the means of passage.
b. Position is frequently expressed by the Ablative with ab (rarely ex), properly meaning from:—

ā tergō, in the rear; ā sinistrā, on the left hand. [Cf. hinc, on this side.]
ā parte Pompēiānā, on the side of Pompey.
ex alterā parte, on the other side.
magnā ex parte, in a great degree (from, i.e. in, a great part).

430. Verbs of placing, though implying motion, take the construction of the place where:—

Such are pōnō, locō, collōcō, statuō, cōnstituō, etc.:—

qui in sēde ac domō collocāvit (Var. 25), who put [one] into his place and home.
statuitur eques Rōmānus in Aprōni convivīō (Verr. iii. 62), a Roman knight is brought into a banquet of Apronius.
insula Delos in Μεσογείο marī posita (Manil. 55), the island of Delos, situated in the Μεσογείο Sea.
si in ūno Pompēiō omnia pōnerētis (id. 59), if you made everything depend on Pompey alone.

Note.—Compounds of pōnō take various constructions (see the Lexicon under each word).

431. Several verbs are followed by the Ablative.

These are acquiescō, dēlector, laetor, gaudeō, glōrior, nītor, stō, māneō, fidō, cōnfidō, cōnstitō, contineor.

nōminibus veterum gloriāntur (Or. 169), they glory in the names of the ancients.
[Also, de divitīs (in virtūte, circā rem, aliqūid, haec) gloriāri.] 
spē nīti (Att. iii. 9), to rely on hope.
prūtentiā fidēns (Off. i. 81), trusting in prudence.

Note.—The ablative with these verbs sometimes takes the preposition in (but fidū in is late), and the ablative with them is probably locative. Thus,—in quibus causa mutātur (Cael. 28), on whom the case depends.
With several of these verbs the neuter Accusative of pronouns is often found. For fidū and cōnfidū with the Dative, see § 367.

a. The verbals frētus, contentus, and laetus take the Locative Ablative:—

frētus grātiā Brūtī (Att. v. 21. 12), relying on the favor of Brutus.
laetus praedā, rejoicing in the booty.
contentus sorte, content with his lot. [Possibly Ablative of Cause.]
nōn fuit contentus gloriā (Dom. 101), he was not content with the glory.

Note.—So intexus, rarely: as,—aliqūi regōtō intentus (Sall. Cat. 2), intent
on some occupation.

1 Apparently the direction whence the sensuous impression comes.
SPECIAL USES OF PREPOSITIONS

Adverbs and Prepositions

432. Certain Adverbs and Adjectives are sometimes used as Prepositions:—

a. The adverbs pridie, postridie, propius, proxime, less frequently the adjectives propior and proximus, may be followed by the Accusative:—

pridie Nonas Maias (Att. ii. 11), the day before the Nones of May (see § 631).
postridie ndas (Att. xvi. 4), the day after the games.
propius periculum (Liv. xxi. 1), nearer to danger.
proximum montem (Jug. 49), nearer the hill.
proximus mare oceanum (B. G. iii. 7), nearest the ocean.

Note. — Pridie and postridie take also the Genitive (§ 359. b). Propior, propius, proximus, and proxime, take also the Dative, or the Ablative with ab:—

propius Tiberi quam Thermopylas (Nep. Hann. 8), nearer to the Tiber than to Thermopylae.
Sugambri qui sunt proximi Rheno (B. G. vi. 35), the Sugambri, who are nearest to the Rhine.
proximus a postremo (Or. 217), next to the last.

b. Úsque sometimes takes the Accusative, but Úsque ad is much more common:—

terminos usque Libyae (Inst. i. 1. 5), to the bounds of Libya.
usque ad castra hostium (B. G. i. 51), to the enemy’s camp.

c. The adverbs palam, procul, simul, may be used as prepositions and take the Ablative:—

rem creditóri palam populó solvit (Liv. vi. 14), he paid the debt to his creditor in the presence of the people.
hand procul castris in modum municipi exstrácta (Tac. H. iv. 22), not far from the camp, built up like a town.
simul nonis habitat barbarus (Ov. Tr. v. 10. 29), close among us dwells the barbarian.

Note. — But simul regularly takes cum; procul is usually followed by ad in classic writers; and the use of palam as a preposition is comparatively late.

d. The adverb clam is found in early Latin with the Accusative, also once with the Genitive and once in classical Latin with the Ablative:—

clam mátrem suam (Pl. Mil. 112), unknown to his mother.
clam patris (id. Merc. 43), without his father’s knowledge.
clam vóbis (B. C. ii. 32. 8), without your knowledge.

1 For a list of Prepositions with their ordinary uses, see § 221.
433. Prepositions often retain their original meaning as Adverbs:

1. Ante and post in relations of time:
   quōs paulō ante diximus (Brut. 32), whom I mentioned a little while ago.
   post tribus diēbus, three days after (cf. § 424. f).

2. Adversus, circiter, prope:
   nēmō adversus ibat (Liv. xxxvii. 13. 8), no one went out in opposition.
   circiter pars quārtā (Sall. Cat. 56), about the fourth part.
   prope examinātus, nearly lifeless.

3. Ā or ab, off, in expressions of distance, with the Ablative of Degree of Difference (§ 414):
   a millibus passuum circiter duōbus Rōmānōrum adventum expectābant
   (B. G. v. 32), at a distance of about two miles (about two miles off) they
   awaited the approach of the Romans.

4. In general, prepositions ending in -ā:
   Aeolus haec contrā (Aen. i. 76), thus Āeolus in reply.
   forte fuit iūxtā tumulus (id. iii. 22), there happened to be a mound close by.

434. Some Prepositions and Adverbs which imply comparison are followed, like comparatives, by quam, which may be separated by several words, or even clauses.

Such words are ante, prius, post, posteā, pridiē, postridiē; also magis and prae in compounds:
neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit (Liv. xxxix. 10), nor did he let him go until he gave a pledge.
post diem tertium quam dixerat (Mil. 44), the third day after he said it.
Catō ipse iam servire quam pāgnāre māvuit (Att. vii. 15), Cato himself by this time had rather be a slave than fight.
Gallōrum quam Rōmānōrum imperia praeferre (B. G. i. 17), [they] prefer the rule of Gauls to that of Romans.

Note.—The ablative of time is sometimes followed by quam in the same way (§ 424. f): as, — octāvō mēnse quam (Liv. xxi. 15), within eight months after, etc.

435. The following Prepositions sometimes come after their nouns: ad, citrā, circum, contrā, dē, ē (ex), inter, iūxtā, penes, propter, ultrā; so regularly tenus and versus, and occasionally others:
[ūsus] quem penes arbitrium est et īūs et normā loquendi (Hor. A. P. 72),
custom, under whose control is the choice, right, and rule of speech.
cūius ā mē corpus est cremātum, quod contrā decuit ab illō meum (Cat. M. 84), whose body I burned [on the funeral pile], while on the contrary (contrary to which) mine should have been burned by him.
SYNTAX OF THE VERB

Moods and Tenses

436. The Syntax of the Verb relates chiefly to the use of the Moods (which express the manner in which the action is conceived) and the Tenses (which express the time of the action). There is no difference in origin between mood and tense; and hence the uses of mood and tense frequently cross each other. Thus the tenses sometimes have modal significations (compare indicative in apodosis, § 517. c; future for imperative, § 449. b); and the moods sometimes express time (compare subjunctive in future conditions, § 516. b, and notice the want of a future subjunctive).

The parent language had, besides the Imperative mood, two or more forms with modal signification. Of these, the Subjunctive appears with two sets of terminations, -ām, -ās, in the present tense (moneam, dícam), and -ēm, -ēs, in the present (amem) or other tenses (essim, dixísem). The Optative was formed by īē-, ī-, with the present stem (sim, dūm) or the perfect (díxerim). (See details in §§ 168, 169.)

Each mood has two general classes or ranges of meaning. The uses of the Subjunctive may all be classed under the general ideas of will or desire and of action vividly conceived; and the uses of the Optative under the general ideas of wish and of action vaguely conceived.

It must not be supposed, however, that in any given construction either the subjunctive or the optative was deliberately used because it denoted conception or possibility. On the contrary, each construction has had its own line of development from more tangible and literal forms of thought to more vague and ideal; and by this process the mood used came to have in each case a special meaning, which was afterwards habitually associated with it in that construction. Similar developments have taken place in English. Thus, the expression I would do this has become equivalent to a mild command, while by analysis it is seen to be the apodosis of a present condition contrary to fact (§ 517): if I were you, etc. By further analysis, I would do is seen to have meant, originally, I should have wished (or I did wish) to do.

In Latin, the original Subjunctive and the Optative became confounded in meaning and in form, and were merged in the Subjunctive, at first in the present tense. Then new tense-forms of the subjunctive were formed, and to these the original as well as the derived meanings of both moods became attached (see § 438). All the independent uses of the Latin subjunctive are thus to be accounted for.

The dependent uses of the subjunctive have arisen from the employment of some independent subjunctive construction in connection with a main statement. Most frequently the main statement is prefixed to a sentence containing a subjunctive, as a more complete expression of a complex idea (§ 268). Thus a question implying a general negative (quint regem? why should n't I ask?) might have the general negative expressed in a prefixed statement (nulla causa est, there is no reason); or aseat, let him go away, may be expanded into sine aseat. When such a combination comes into habitual use, the original meaning of the subjunctive partially or wholly disappears and a new meaning arises by implication. Thus, in misit legatos qui dicent, he sent ambassadors to say (i.e. who should say), the original hortatory sense of the subjunctive is partially lost, and the mood becomes in part an expression of purpose. Similar processes may be seen in the growth of Apodosis. Thus, tolle hanc opinönum, luctum sustuleris, remove this notion, you will have done away with grief (i.e. if you remove, etc.).

1 For the signification of the tense-endings, see §§ 168, 169.
The Infinitive is originally a verbal noun (§ 451), modifying a verb like other nouns: 
volō vidēre, lit. "I wish for-seeing": compare English "what went ye out for to see?"
But in Latin it has been surprisingly developed, so as to have forms for tense, and some
proper modal characteristics, and to be used as a substitute for finite moods.
The other noun and adjective forms of the verb have been developed in various
ways, which are treated under their respective heads below.
The proper Verbal Constructions may be thus classified: —

I. Indicative: Direct Assertion or Question (§ 437).
   a. Independent Uses:
      1. Exhortation or Command (§ 439).
      2. Concession (§ 440).
      3. Wish (§ 441).
      4. Question of Doubt etc. (§ 444).
      5. Possibility or Contingency (§ 446).

II. Subjunctive:
   b. Dependent Uses:
      1. Conditions Contrary to Fact (§ 517).
      2. Purpose (with ut, uē) (§ 531).
      3. Characteristic (Relative Clause) (§ 535).
      4. Result (with ut, ut nēn) (§ 537).
      5. Time (with cum) (§ 546).
      7. Indirect Questions or Commands (§§ 574, 588).

III. Imperative:
   1. Direct Commands (often Subjunctive) (§ 448).
   3. Prohibitions (early or poetic use) (§ 450, a).
      a. Subject of esse and Impersonal Verbs (§§ 452, 454).
      b. Objective
         2. Indirect Discourse (with Subject Accusative) (§ 580).

IV. Infinitive:
    c. Idiomatic Uses:
      1. Purpose (poetic or Greek use) (§ 460).
      2. Exclamation (with Subject Accusative) (§ 462).
      3. Historical Infinitive (§ 463).

MOODS

INDICATIVE MOOD

437. The Indicative is the mood of direct assertions or questions when there is no modification of the verbal idea except that of time.

a. The Indicative is sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest the Subjunctive: —

longum est, it would be tedious [if, etc.]; satius erat, it would have been bet-
ter [if, etc.]; persequi possum, I might follow up [in detail].

Note. — Substitutes for the Indicative are (1) the Historical Infinitive (§ 463), and
(2) the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (§ 580).
For the Indicative in Conditions, see §§ 515, 516; for the Indicative in implied Com-
mands, see § 449. b.
SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

438. The Subjunctive in general expresses the verbal idea with some modification\(^1\) such as is expressed in English by auxiliaries, by the infinitive, or by the rare subjunctive (§ 157. b).

a. The Subjunctive is used independently to express —
1. An Exhortation or Command (Hortatory Subjunctive: § 439).
3. A Wish (Optative Subjunctive: § 441).
4. A Question of Doubt etc. (Deliberative Subjunctive: § 444).
5. A Possibility or Contingency (Potential Subjunctive: § 446).

For the special idiomatic uses of the Subjunctive in Apodosis, see § 514.

b. The Subjunctive is used in dependent clauses to express —
1. Condition: future or contrary to fact (§§ 516. b, c, 517).
2. Purpose (Final, § 531).
4. Result (Consecutive, § 537).
5. Time (Temporal, § 546).
6. Indirect Question (§ 574).

c. The Subjunctive is also used with Conditional Particles of Comparison (§ 524), and in subordinate clauses in the Indirect Discourse (§ 580).

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

Hortatory Subjunctive

439. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used in the present tense to express an exhortation or a command. The negative is nē.

hōs latrōnēs interficiamus (B. G. vii. 38), let us kill these robbers.
caveaet intertemperantium, meminēnti verēcundiae (Off. i. 122), let them shun excess and cherish modesty.

Note 1.—The hortatory subjunctive occurs rarely in the perfect (except in prohibitions: § 450): as, — Epicurus hōs viāruit (Acad. ii. 19), let Epicurus look to this.

Note 2.—The term hortatory subjunctive is sometimes restricted to the first person plural, the second and third persons being designated as the jussive subjunctive; but the constructions are substantially identical.

\(^1\) These modifications are of various kinds, each of which has had its own special development (cf. § 436). The subjunctive in Latin has also many idiomatic uses (as in clauses of Result and Time) where the English does not modify the verbal idea at all, but expresses it directly. In such cases the Latin merely takes a different view of the action and has developed the construction differently from the English.
Note 3. — Once in Cicero and occasionally in the poets and later writers the negative with the hortatory subjunctive is nōn: as, — ā légibus nōn recēdāmus (Chn. 155), let us not abandon the laws.

a. The Second Person of the hortatory subjunctive is used only of an indefinite subject, except in prohibitions, in early Latin, and in poetry:

inīriās fortūnae, quās ferre nequeās, dēfugiēndō relīquās (Tusc. v. 118), the wrongs of fortune, which you cannot bear, leave behind by flight.
exōriēre aliquis ulari (Aen. iv. 625), rise, some avenger.

istō bonō utāre ēum ādīt, cum absit nē requīrās (Cat. M. 33), use this blessing while it is present; when it is wanting do not regret it.
doceās iter et sacra ōstia pandās (Aen. vi. 109), show us the way and lay open the sacred portals.

For Negative Commands (prohibitions), see § 450.

b. The Imperfect and Pluperfect of the hortatory subjunctive denote an unfulfilled obligation in past time:

morrētur, inquiēs (Rab. Post. 29), he should have died, you will say.
potius docēret (Off. iii. 88), he should rather have taught.
nē poposcessēs (Att. ii. 1. 3), you should not have asked.
saltem aliquid de pondere dētrāxisset (Fin. iv. 57), at least he should have taken something from the weight.

Note 1. — In this construction the Pluperfect usually differs from the Imperfect only in more clearly representing the time for action as momentary or as past.

Note 2. — This use of the subjunctive is carefully to be distinguished from the potential use (§ 446). The difference is indicated by the translation, should or ought (not would or might).

440. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used to express a concession.1 The Present is used for present time, the Perfect for past. The negative is nē.

sit fār, sit sacrilegus: at est bonus imperātōr (Verr. v. 4), grant he is a thief, a godless wretch: yet he is a good general.

fuerit allēs; tibi quandō esse coepit (Verr. ii. 1. 37), suppose he was [so] to others; when did he begin to be to you?
nēmō is umquam fuit: nē fuerit (Or. 161), there never was such a one [you will say]: granted (let there not have been).
nē sit sumnum malum dolor, malum certē est (Tusc. ii. 14), granted that pain is not the greatest evil, at least it is an evil.

Note. — The concessive subjunctive with quamvis and licet is originally hortatory (§ 527. a, b).

For other methods of expressing Concession, see § 527.

For the Hortatory Subjunctive denoting a Proviso, see § 528. a.

1 Many scholars regard the concessive subjunctive as a development of the Optative Subjunctive in a wish.
Optative Subjunctive

441. The Optative Subjunctive is used to express a Wish. The present tense denotes the wish as possible, the imperfect as unaccomplished in present time, the pluperfect as unaccomplished in past time. The negative is ne:

ita vivam (Att. v. 15), as true as I live, so may I live.
ne vivam si sciō (id. iv. 16. 8), I wish I may not live if I know.
di tē perduint (Deiot. 21), the gods confound thee!
valent, valeant civēs meī; sint incolumēs (Mil. 93), farewell, farewell to my fellow-citizens; may they be secure from harm.
di fæcerent sine paire forem (Ov. M. viii. 72), would that the gods allowed me to be without a father (but they do not)!

a. The perfect subjunctive in a wish is archaic:—

di faxint (Fam. xiv. 3. 3), may the gods grant.
quod di ēnem āvererint (Phil. xii. 14, in a religious formula), and may the gods avert this omen.

442. The Optative Subjunctive is often preceded by the particle utinam; so regularly in the imperfect and pluperfect:—

falsus utinam vātēs sim (Liv. xxi. 10. 10), I wish I may be a false prophet.
utinam Clodius viveret (Mil. 103), would that Clodius were now alive.

utinam ne mortuum vidēssēs (Q. Fr. i. 3. 1), would you had seen me dead.

utinam ne verē scriberem (Fam. v. 17. 3), would that I were not writing the truth.

Note.—Utinam non is occasionally used instead of utinam ne: as, —utinam susceptus non essum (Att. ix. 9. 3), would that I had not been born.

a. In poetry and old Latin utī or ut often introduces the optative subjunctive; and in poetry sī or ò sī with the subjunctive sometimes expresses a wish:—

ut perēat positum rōbigine tēlum (Hor. S. ii. 1. 43), may the weapon unused perish with rust.
ò sī anguīs ille accēdat (id. ii. 6. 8), O if that corner might only be added!

sī nunc sē nōbis ille aureus rānum ostendat (Aen. vi. 187), if now that golden branch would only show itself to us!

Note 1.—The subjunctive with uti (ut) or utinam was originally deliberative, meaning how may I, etc. (§ 444). The subjunctive with si or ò si is a protasis (§ 512. a), the apodosis not being expressed.

Note 2.—The subjunctive of wish without a particle is seldom found in the imperfect or pluperfect except by sequence of tenses in Indirect Discourse (§ 583): as,—ac venerātā Cērōs, ita culmō surgeret altō (Hor. S. ii. 2. 124), and Cēres worshipped [with libations] that so she might rise with tall stalk. [In addressing the goddess directly the prayer would be: ita surgās.]
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b. Velim and vellem, and their compounds, with a subjunctive or infinitive, are often equivalent to an optative subjunctive:—

velim tibi persuādeās (Fam. ix. 13. 2), I should like to have you believe (I should wish that you would persuade yourself).

dē Menedēmō vellem vērum fuisset, dē rēgīnā velim vērum sit (Att. xv. 4. 4),

about Menedemus I wish it had been true; about the queen I wish it may be.

nōllēm accidisset tempus (Fam. iii. 10. 2), I wish the time never had come.

māllēm Corberum metuereō (Tusc. i. 12), I had rather have had you afraid of Cerberus (I should have preferred that you feared Cerberus).

Note.—Velim etc., in this use, are either potential subjunctives, or apodoses with the protasis omitted (§ 447. I. n.). The thing wished may be regarded as a substantive clause used as object of the verb of wishing (§ 565. n. 1).

Deliberative Subjunctive

443. The Subjunctive was used in sentences of interrogative form, at first when the speaker wished information in regard to the will or desire of the person addressed. The mood was therefore hortatory in origin. But such questions when addressed by the speaker to himself, as if asking his own advice, become deliberative or, not infrequently, merely exclamatory. In such cases the mood often approaches the meaning of the Potential (see § 445). In these uses the subjunctive is often called Deliberative or Dubitative.

444. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying (1) doubt, indignation, or (2) an impossibility of the thing’s being done. The negative is nōn.

quid agam, iūdicēs? quō mē vertam (Verr. v. 2), what am I to do, judges?

whither shall I turn?

etiamne eam salūtem (1st. Rud. 1275), shall I greet her?

quidā hoc hominē faciās? quod supplicium dignum libidini ēius inveniās (Verr. ii. 40), what are you to do with this man? what fit penalty can you devise for his wantonness?

an ego nōn venireō (Phil. ii. 3), what, should I not have come?

quid dicerem (Att. vii. 3. 9), what was I to say?

quis eīm cēlāverit ignem (Ov. ii. xv. 7), who could conceal the flame?

Note.—The hortatory origin of some of these questions is obvious. Thus,—quid faciāmus? =faciāmus [aiquid], what? let us do—what? (Compare the expanded form quid vis faciāmus? what do you wish us to do?) Once established, it was readily transferred to the past: quid faciām? what am I to do? quid facerem? what was I to do? Questions implying impossibility, however, cannot be distinguished from Apodosis (cf. § 517).

a. In many cases the question has become a mere exclamation, rejecting a suggested possibility:

mihi unquam honōrum praesidium défutūrum putārem (Mil. 94), could I think that the defence of good men would ever fail me!

Note.—The indicative is sometimes used in deliberative questions: as,—quid ēgō, what am I to do?
Potential Subjunctive

445. Of the two principal uses of the Subjunctive in independent sentences (cf. § 436), the second, or Potential Subjunctive, is found in a variety of sentence-forms having as their common element the fact that the mood represents the action as merely conceived or possible, not as desired (hortatory, optative) or real (indictative). Some of these uses are very old and may go back to the Indo-European parent speech, but no satisfactory connection between the Potential and the Hortatory and Optative Subjunctive has been traced. There is no single English equivalent for the Potential Subjunctive; the mood must be rendered, according to circumstances, by the auxiliaries would, should, may, would, can, could.

446. The Potential Subjunctive is used to suggest an action as possible or conceivable. The negative is nōn.

In this use the Present and the Perfect refer without distinction to the immediate future; the Imperfect (occasionally the Perfect) to past time; the Pluperfect (which is rare) to what might have happened.

447. The Potential Subjunctive has the following uses:

1. In cautious or modest assertions in the first person singular of expressions of saying, thinking, or wishing (present or perfect):
   pāce tuā dixerim (Mil. 103), I would say by your leave.
   haud sciam an (Lael. 51), I should incline to think.
   tū velim sic existimāre (Fam. xii. 6), I should like you to think so.
   certum affirmāre nōn ausim (Liv. iii. 23), I should not dare to assert as sure.

   Note. — velēm, nōlēm, or mālēm expressing an unfulfilled wish in present time may be classed as independent potential subjunctive or as the apodosis of an unexpressed condition (§ 521): as — velēm adesset M. Antōnius (Phil. i. 16), I could wish Antony were here.

2. In the indefinite second person singular of verbs of saying, thinking, and the like (present or imperfect):
   crēdās nōn dē puerō scriptum sed ā puerō (Plin. Ep. iv. 7. 7), you would think that it was written not about a boy but by a boy.
   crēdērēs victōs (Liv. ii. 43. 9), you would have thought them conquered.
   reōs dicereōs (id. ii. 35. 5), you would have said they were culprits.
   vidērēs susurrōs (Hor. S. ii. 8. 77), you might have seen them whispering (lit. whispers).
   fretō assimilāre possīs (Ov. M. v. 6), you might compare it to a sea.

3. With other verbs, in all persons, when some word or phrase in the context implies that the action is expressed as merely possible or conceivable:

1 The name Potential Subjunctive is not precisely descriptive, but is fixed in grammatical usage.
null ego contulerim iucundō sānus amīcō (Hor. S. i. 5. 44), when in my senses
I should compare nothing with an interesting friend.
fortūnam ciusus reperīas quam retineās (Pub. Syr. 168), you may sooner find
fortune than keep it.
hic quaeārat quispiam (N. D. ii. 133), here some one may ask.

Note.—In this use the subjunctive may be regarded as the apodosis of an undeveloped protasis. When the conditional idea becomes clearer, it finds expression in a formal protasis, and a conditional sentence is developed.

a. Forsitan, perhaps, regularly takes the Potential Subjunctive except in later Latin and in poetry, where the Indicative is also common:—

forsitan quaeāris quī ēst terōr sit (Rosc. Am. 5), you may perhaps inquire
what this alarm is.
forsitan temere fécerim (id. 31), perhaps I have acted rashly.

Note.—The subjunctive clause with forsitan (= fors sit an) was originally an Indirect Question: it would be a chance whether, etc.

b. Fortasse, perhaps, is regularly followed by the Indicative; sometimes, however, by the Subjunctive, but chiefly in later Latin:—

quaeāres fortasse (Fam. xv. 4. 13), perhaps you will ask.

Note.—Other expressions for perhaps are (1) forsān (chiefly poetical; construed with the indicative or the subjunctive, more commonly the indicative), fors (rare and poetical; construed with either the indicative or the subjunctive). Forsit (or fors sit) occurs once (Hor. S. i. 6. 49) and takes the subjunctive. Fortasse is sometimes followed by the infinitive with subject accusative in Plautus and Terence. Fortassīs (rare; construed like fortasse) and fortasse an (very rare; construed with the subjunctive) are also found.

**IMPERATIVE MOOD**

V 448. The Imperative is used in Commands and Entreaties:—
cōnsulite vōbis, prōspicite patriae, cōnservāte vōs (Cat. iv. 3), have a care for
yourselves, guard the country, preserve yourselves.
dīc, Mārcē Tulli, sententiam, Marcus Tullius, state your opinion.
tē ipsum concutē (Hor. S. i. 3. 35), examine yourself.
vive, vĕlēque (id. ii. 5. 110), farewelling, bless you (live and be well)!
miserēre animī nōn digna ferentis (Aen. ii. 144), pity a soul bearing undeserved misfortune.

a. The third person of the imperative is antiquated or poetic:—
ollis salūs populī suprēmā lēx estō (Legg. iii. 8), the safety of the people shall
be their first law.
iūsta imperiā suntō, eisque civēs modestē pārentō (id. iii. 6), let there be law-
ful authorities, and let the citizens strictly obey them.

Note.—In prose the Hortatory Subjunctive is commonly used instead (§ 439).
449. The Future Imperative is used in commands, etc., where there is a distinct reference to *future time*:

1. In connection with some adverb or other expression that indicates at what time in the future the action of the imperative shall take place. So especially with a future, a future perfect indicative, or (in poetry and early Latin) with a present imperative:

   cras petitō, dabitur (Pl. Merc. 769), *ask to-morrow* [and] *it shall be given.*
   cum valētūdinī cōnsulueris, tum cōnsulūtō nāvīgātiōni (Fam. xvi. 4. 3), *when you have attended to your health, then look to your sailing.*
   Phyllida mitte mihi, meus est nātalīs, Iōllā; cum faciam vitulā prō frūgibus,
   ipse vēnitō (Ecl. iii. 76), send Phyllis to me, it is my birthday, Iollas; *when I* [shall] *sacrifice a heifer for the harvest, come yourself.*
   dic quibus in terris, etc., et Phyllīda sōlus habētō (id. iii. 107), *tell in what lands, etc., and have Phyllis for yourself.*

2. In *general directions* serving for all time, as Precepts, Statutes, and Wills:

   is iūris cīvis cūstōs estō (Legg. iii. 8), *let him* (the prātor) *be the guardian of civic right.*
   Boreā flante, nē arātō, sēmen nē iacitō (Plin. H. N. xviii. 324), *when the north wind blows, plough not nor sow your seed.*

   a. The verbs *sciō, meminī, and habēō* (in the sense of *consider*) regularly use the Future Imperative instead of the Present:

   filiolō me auctum scītō (Att. i. 2), *learn that I am blessed with a little boy.*
   sic habētō, mi Tīrō (Fam. xvi. 4. 4), *so understand it, my good Tiro.*
   dē pāllā mēmentō, amābō (Pl. Asin. 933), *remember, dear, about the gown.*

   b. The Future Indicative is sometimes used for the imperative; and *quin* (*why not?*) with the Present Indicative may have the force of a command:

   sī quid acciderit novi, faciēs ut sciam (Fam. xiv. 8), *you will let me know if anything new happens.*
   quin accipīs (Ter. Haut. 832), *here, take it* (why not take it?).

   c. Instead of the simple Imperative, *cūrā ut, fac* (*fac ut*), or *velim,* followed by the subjunctive (§ 565), is often used, especially in colloquial language:

   cūrā ut Rōmae sīs (Att. i. 2), *take care to be at Rome.*
   fac ut valētūdinēm cūrēs (Fam. xiv. 17), *see that you take care of your health.*
   domī adsitīs facite (Ter. Enn. 506), *be at home, do.*
   cum mihi velim mittās (Att. viii. 11), *I wish you would send it to me.*

For commands in Indirect Discourse, see § 588.
For the Imperative with the force of a Conditional Clause, see § 521. b.
450. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose (1) by noni with the Infinitive, (2) by cave with the Present Subjunctive, or (3) by ne with the Perfect Subjunctive: —

(1) noni putare (Lig. 33), do not suppose (be unwilling to suppose).
noni impudens esse (Fam. xii. 30. 1), don’t be shameless.
noli coger socios (Verr. ii. 1. 82), do not compel the allies.

(2) cave putes (Att. vii. 20), don’t suppose (take care lest you suppose).
cave ignoscias (Lig. 14), do not pardon.
cave festinés (Fam. xvi. 12. 6), do not be in haste.

(3) ne necesse habueris (Att. xvi. 2. 5), do not regard it as necessary.
nè sis admiratus (Fam. vii. 18. 3), do not be surprised.
hoc facitó; hoc nè féceris (Div. ii. 127), thou shalt do this, thou shalt not do that.
nè Apellae quidem dixeris (Fam. vii. 25. 2), do not tell Apelles even.
nè vos quidem mortem timueritis (Tusc. i. 98), nor must you fear death.

All three of these constructions are well established in classic prose. The first, which is the most ceremonious, occurs oftener; the third, though not discourteous, is usually less formal and more peremptory than the others.

Note 1.—Instead of noni the poets sometimes use other imperatives of similar meaning (cf. § 437. a.):
pare pias seceraré manús (Aen. iii. 42), forbear to defile your pious hands.
cétera mitte liqui (Hor. Epod. 13. 7), forbear to say the rest.
fuge quaeerere (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13), do not inquire.

Note 2.—Cave ne is sometimes used in prohibitions; also vidi ne and (colloquially) fac ne: as, — fac ne quid aliud curés (Fam. xvi. 11), see that you attend to nothing else.

Note 3.—The present subjunctive with ne and the perfect with cave are found in old writers; ne with the present is common in poetry at all periods:
ne expectétis (Pl. Ps. 1234), do not wait.
nè metuás (Mart. Ep. i. 70. 13), do not fear.
cave quicquam responderis (Pl. Am. 606), do not make any reply.

Note 4.—Other negatives sometimes take the place of ne:
— nihil ignóveris (Mur. 65), grant no pardon (pardon nothing).
neque mihi illud dixeris (Fin. i. 23), and do not say this to me.

Note 5.—The regular connective, and do not, is nève.

a. The Present Imperative with ne is used in prohibitions by early writers and the poets:

ne timé (Pl. Curc. 520), don’t be afraid.
nillum ne creáre color (Ecl. ii. 17), trust not too much to complexion.
equó ne crédite (Aen. ii. 48), trust not the horse.

b. The Future Imperative with ne is used in prohibitions in laws and formal precepts (see § 449. 2).

1 In prohibitions the subjunctive with ne is hortatory; that with cave is an object clause (cf. §§ 450. n. 2, 505. n. 1).
INFinitive MOOD

451. The Infinitive is properly a noun denoting the action of the verb abstractly. It differs, however, from other abstract nouns in the following points: (1) it often admits the distinction of tense; (2) it is modified by adverbs, not by adjectives; (3) it governs the same case as its verb; (4) it is limited to special constructions.

The Latin Infinitive is the dative or locative case of such a noun and was originally used to denote Purpose; but it has in many constructions developed into a substitute for a finite verb. Hence the variety of its use.

In its use as a verb, the Infinitive may take a Subject Accusative (§ 397. e), originally the object of another verb on which the Infinitive depended. Thus inebē tē valērē is literally I command you for being well (cf. substantive clauses, § 562. n.).

Infinitive as Noun

452. The Infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used with est and similar verbs (1) as the Subject, (2) in Apposition with the subject, or (3) as a Predicate Nominative.2

1. As Subject: —

dolēre malum est (Fin. v. 84), to suffer pain is an evil.
bellum est sua vitia nōsse (Att. ii. 17), it's a fine thing to know one's own faults.
praestat compōnere fluctūs (Aen. i. 135), it is better to calm the waves.

2. In Apposition with the Subject: —

proinde quasi iniūriam facere id dānum esset imperiō ēt (Sall. Cat. 12),
just as if this and this alone, to commit injustice, were to use power.
[Here facere is in apposition with id.]

3. As Predicate Nominative: —
id est convenienter nātūræ vivere (Fin. iv. 41), that is to live in conformity with nature. [Cf. ēt in the last example.]

Note 1. — An infinitive may be used as Direct Object in connection with a Predicate Accusative (§ 393), or as Appositive with such Direct Object: —
istac ipsum nōn esse cum fuēris miserrimum putē (Tusc. i. 12), for I think this very thing most wretched, not to be when one has been. [Here istac ipsum belongs to the noun nōn esse.]
miserāri, invidēre, gestīre, laetāri, haece omnia morbōs Graecī appellant (id. iii. 7),
to feel pity, envy, desire, joy,— all these things the Greeks call diseases.
[Here the infinitives are in apposition with haece.]

1 The ending -ī (amāre, monēre, regere, audīre) was apparently locative, the ending -ī (amāri, monēri, regī, audīrī) apparently dative: but this difference of case had no significance for Latin syntax. The general Latin restriction of the -ī-infinitives to the passive was not a primitive distinction, but grew up in the course of time.

2 In these constructions the abstract idea expressed by the infinitive is represented as having some quality or belonging to some thing.
Note 2. — An Appositive or Predicate noun or adjective used with an infinitive in any of these constructions is put in the Accusative, whether the infinitive has a subject expressed or not. Thus,—nón esse cupidum pecúnia est (Par. 51), to be free from desires (not to be desirous) is money in hand. [No Subject Accusative.]

a. The infinitive as subject is not common except with est and similar verbs. But sometimes, especially in poetry, it is used as the subject of verbs which are apparently more active in meaning:

quōs omnis eadem cūpere, eadem òdisse, eadem metuere, in ðnum cógit (l.ug. 31), all of whom the fact of desiring, hating, and fearing the same things has united into one.

ingenuās òdisce fīdēliter artis émolliit mōrēs (Ov. P. ii. 9. 48), faithfully to have learned liberal arts softens the manners.

posse loqui éripitur (Ov. M. ii. 483), the power of speech is taken away.

453. Rarely the Infinitive is used exactly like the Accusative of a noun:

béatā vivere ãlii in aliō, vōs in volūptāte pōnitās (Fin. ii. 86), a happy life different [philosophers] base on different things, you on pleasure.

quam multa . . . faciāmus causā amicōrum, precārī ab indignō, suppīcārē, etc. (Lael. 57), how many things we do for our friends' sake, ask favors from an unworthy person, resort to entreaty, etc.

mīnil explōrātum habēās, nē amāre quīdem aut amārī (id. 97), you have nothing assured, not even loving and being loved.

Note.—Many complementary and other constructions approach a proper accusative use of the infinitive, but their development has been different from that of the examples above. Thus,—avāritiā . . . superbiām, crudelitātem, déōs neglegere, omnia vēnīlia habēre édocuit (Sall. Cat. 10), avarice taught pride, cruelty, to neglect the gods, and to hold everything at a price.

Infinitive as Apparent Subject of Impersonals

454. The Infinitive is used as the apparent Subject with many impersonal verbs and expressions:

Such are libet, licet, oportet, decet, placet, visum est, pudet, piget, necessē est, opus est, etc. :—

libet mihi cōnsiderāre (Quin. 48), it suits me to consider.
	necessē est mort (Tusc. ii. 2), it is necessary to die.

quid attinet gloriōse loqui nisi constantēri loquāre (Fin. ii. 89), what good does it do to talk boastfully unless you speak consistently?

neque mē vixīssē pænitēt (id. 84), I do not feel sorry to have lived.

guberrāre mē taedēbat (Att. ii. 7. 4), I was tired of being pilot.

Note.—This use is a development of the Complementary Infinitive (§ 456); but the infinitives approach the subject construction and may be conveniently regarded as the subjects of the impersonals.
455. With impersonal verbs and expressions that take the Infinitive as an apparent subject, the personal subject of the action may be expressed —

1. By a Dative, depending on the verb or verbal phrase: —
rogant ut id sibi facere liceat (B. G. i. 7), they ask that it be allowed them to do this.
non lubet enim mihi deplorare vitam (Cat. M. 84), for it does not please me to lament my life.
visum est mihi de senectute aliquid conscribere (id. 1), it seemed good to me to write something about old age.
quid est tam secundum natum quam senibus emor (id. 71), what is so much in accordance with nature as for old men to die?
exitu homin£ suum tempore optabile est (id. 85), for a man to die at the appointed time is desirable.

2. By an Accusative expressed as the subject of the infinitive or the object of the impersonal: —
si licet vivere eum quem Sex. Naevius non volt (Quinct. 94), if it is allowed a man to live against the will of Sex. Naevius.
nomen opportuit praescisse me ante (Ter. And. 239), ought I not to have known beforehand?
oratorem irasci minim£ deecet (Tusc. iv. 54), it is particularly unbecoming for an orator to lose his temper.
pudet me dicere (N. D. i. 109), I should be ashamed to say.
consilia inuent quorum est in vestigi£ pae nitere necesse est (B. G. iv. 5), they form plans for which they must at once be sorry.

Note. — Libet, placet, and visum est take the dative only; opertet, pudet, piget, and generally decet, the accusative only; licet and necesse est take either case.

a. A predicate noun or adjective is commonly in the Accusative; but with licet regularly, and with other verbs occasionally, the Dative is used: —
expedit bonas esse vobis (Ter. Haut. 388), it is for your advantage to be good.
licuit esse otiosi Themistocli (Tusc. i. 33), Themistocles might have been inactive (it was allowed to Themistocles to be inactive).
mihi neglegentem esse non licet (Att. i. 17. 6), I must not be negligent. [But also neglegentem.]
car his esse liberos non licet (Placc. 71), why is it not allowed these men to be free?
non est omnibus stantibus necesse dicere (Marc. 33), it is not necessary for all to speak standing.

Note. — When the subject is not expressed, as being indefinite (one, anybody), a predicate noun or adjective is regularly in the accusative (cf. § 452. 3. n.2): as, —vel paece vel bell® clarum fieri licet (Sall. Cat. 3), one can become illustrious either in peace or in war.
Complementary Infinitive

456. Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the Infinitive without a subject accusative.

Such are verbs denoting to be able, dare, undertake, remember, forget, be accustomed, begin, continue, cease, hesitate, learn, know how, fear, and the like: —

hoc queō dicere (Cat. M. 32), this I can say.
mittō quaerere (Rosc. Am. 53), I omit to ask.
vereor laudare praesentem (N. D. i. 58), I fear to praise a man to his face.
ōrō ut māturēs venire (Att. iv. 1), I beg you will make haste to come.
oblivisci non possum quae volō (Fin. ii. 104), I cannot forget that which I wish.
dēsine id mē docere (Tusc. ii. 20), cease to teach me that.
dicere solēbat, he used to say.
audeō dicere, I venture to say.
loqui posse coepi, I began to be able to speak.

Note. — The peculiarity of the Complementary Infinitive construction is that no Subject Accusative is in general admissible or conceivable. But some infinitives usually regarded as objects can hardly be distinguished from this construction when they have no subject expressed. Thus volō dicere and volō mē dicere mean the same thing, I wish to speak, but the latter is object-infinitive, while the former is not apparently different in origin and construction from queō dicere (complementary infinitive), and again volō eum dicere, I wish him to speak, is essentially different from either (cf. § 563. b).

457. Many verbs take either a Subjunctive Clause or a Complementary Infinitive, without difference of meaning.

Such are verbs signifying willingness, necessity, propriety, resolve, command, prohibition, effort, and the like (cf. § 563): —

dēcernere optābat (Q. C. iii. 11. 1), he was eager to decide.
optavit ut tolleretur (Off. iii. 94), he was eager to be taken up.
oppugnāre contendit (B. G. v. 21), he strove to take by storm.
contendit ut caperet (id. v. 8), he strove to take.
bellum gerere cōstituit (id. iv. 6), he decided to carry on war.
cōstitueram ut manērem (Att. xvi. 10. 1), I had decided to remain.

Notes 1. — For the infinitive with subject accusative used with some of these verbs instead of a complementary infinitive, see § 563.

Notes 2. — Some verbs of these classes never take the subjunctive, but are identical in meaning with others which do: —
eōs quōs tūtāri débent désérunt (Off. i. 28), they forsake those whom they ought to protect.
avēō pūgnāre (Att. ii. 18. 3), I'm anxious to fight.
a. In poetry and later writers many verbs may have the infinitive, after the analogy of verbs of more literal meaning that take it in prose: —

furit uē reperire (Hor. Od. i. 15. 27), he rages to find thee. [A forcible way of saying cupit (§§ 457, 563. b.).]
saevit existinguère nōmen (Ov. M. i. 200), he rages to blot out the name.
fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13), forbear to ask (cf. § 450. n. 1).
parce piās sclerāre manūs (Aen. iii. 42), forbear to defile your pious hands.

458. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after a complementary infinitive takes the case of the subject of the main verb: —

fierique studēbam ēris prūdentǐā ċōctor (Lael. 1), I was eager to become more wise through his wisdom.

scīō quam soleās esse occupātūs (Fam. xvi. 21. 7), I know how busy you usually are (are wont to be).

brevis esse labōrō, obscurus fīō (Hor. A. P. 25), I struggle to be brief, I become obscure.

Infinitive with Subject Accusative

459. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, § 579): —

dicit montem ab hostibus tenēri (B. G. i. 22), he says that the hill is held b. the enemy. [Direct: mōns ab hostibus tenētur.]

Infinitive of Purpose

460. In a few cases the infinitive retains its original meaning of Purpose.

a. The infinitive is used in isolated passages instead of a subjunctive clause after habēō, dō, ministrō: —

tantum habēō polliecērī (Fam. i. 5 a. 3), so much I have to promise. [Here the more formal construction would be quod pollicēar.]

ut lōvi bibēre ministrāret (Tusc. i. 65), to serve Jove with wine (to drink).

meridiē bibēre datō (Cato R. R. 89), give (to) drink at noonday.

b. Parātus, suētus, and their compounds, and a few other participles (used as adjectives), take the infinitive like the verbs from which they come: —

id quod parātī sunt facere (Quint. 8), that which they are ready to do.

adseāfactī superārī (B. G. vi. 24), used to being conquered.
currū succēdēre suētī (Aen. iii. 541), used to being harnessed to the chariot.
cōpiās bellāre consuētās (B. Afr. 73), forces accustomed to fighting.
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NOTE.—In prose these words more commonly take the Gerund or Gerundive construction (§ 503 ff.) either in the genitive, the dative, or the accusative with ad:—
insuēctus navigandi (B. G. v. 6), unused to making voyages.
alendis liberis suētī (Tac. Ann. xiv. 27), accustomed to supporting children.
corpora insuēctā ad onera portānda (B. G. i. 78), bodies unused to carry burdens.

C. The poets and early writers often use the infinitive to express purpose when there is no analogy with any prose construction:—
filius intrō iūt vidēre quid agat (Ter. Hec. 345), your son has gone in to see what he is doing. [In prose: the supine visum.]
nōn ferrō Libycōs populāre Penātīs vēnimus (Aen. i. 527), we have not come to lay waste with the sword the Libyan homes.
lūricam dōnat habēre virō (id. v. 262), he gives the hero a breastplate to wear.
[In prose: habendam.]

NOTE.—So rarely in prose writers of the classic period.
For the Infinitive used instead of a Substantive Clause of Purpose, see § 457.
For tempus est aūrē, see § 504. n. 2.

Peculiar Infinitives

461. Many Adjectives take the Infinitive in poetry, following a Greek idiom:—
dūrus compōnere versūs (Hor. S. i. 4. 8), harsh in composing verse.
cantāri dignus (Ecl. v. 54), worthy to be sung. [In prose: qui cantētur.]
fōrtis trācēre serpēntis (Hor. Od. i. 37. 26), brave to handle serpents.
cantāre periti (Ecl. x. 32), skilled in song.
faciles aurem praētēre (Prop. iii. 14. 15), ready to lend an ear.
nescia vincī pectora (Aen. xii. 527), hearts not knowing how to yield.
tē vidēre aegrōti (Plaut. Trin. 75), sick of seeing you.

A. Rarely in poetry the infinitive is used to express result:—
singit equum docilem magister ire viam quà mōnstret eques (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 64),
the trainer makes the horse gentle so as to go in the road the rider points out.
hīc levāre . . . puerperem labōribus vocātus audit (Hor. Od. ii. 18. 38), he, when called, hears, so as to relieve the poor man of his troubles.

NOTE.—These poetic constructions were originally regular and belong to the Infinitive as a noun in the Dative or Locative case (§ 451). They had been supplanted, however, by other more formal constructions, and were afterwards restored in part through Greek influence.

B. The infinitive occasionally occurs as a pure noun limited by a demonstrative, a possessive, or some other adjective:—
hōc nōn dolēre (Fin. ii. 18), this freedom from pain. [Cf. tōtum hōc beātē vivere (Tusc. v. 33), this whole matter of the happy life.]
nostrum vivere (Pers. i. 9), our life (to live).
scire tuum (id. i. 27), your knowledge (to know).
Exclamatory Infinitive

462. The Infinitive, with Subject Accusative,¹ may be used in Exclamations (cf. § 397. d): —

*tē in tantās aerumnās propter mē incidisse (Fam. xiv. 1), alas, that you should have fallen into such grief for me!*

*mēns inepto désistere victam (Aen. i. 37), what! I beaten desist from my purpose?*

Note 1. — The interrogative particle -ne is often attached to the emphatic word (as in the second example).

Note 2. — The Present and the Perfect Infinitive are used in this construction with their ordinary distinction of time (§ 486).

a. A subjunctive clause, with or without ut, is often used elliptically in exclamatory questions. The question may be introduced by the interrogative -ne: —

*quanquam quid loquor? tē ut ūlla rēs frangat (Cat. i. 22), yet why do I speak? [the idea] that anything should bend you!*

*egone ut tē interpellam (Tusc. ii. 42), what, I interrupt you?*

*ego tibi irāscerē (Q. Fr. i. 3), I angry with you?*

Note. — The Infinitive in exclamations usually refers to something actually occurring; the Subjunctive, to something contemplated.

Historical Infinitive

463. The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the Nominative: —

*tum Catilina pollicērī novās tabulās (Sall. Cat. 21), then Catiline promised abolition of debts (clean ledgers).*

*ego instāre ut nihī respondēret (Verr. ii. 188), I kept urging him to answer me.*

*pars cādere, alīī ēsequī; neque signa neque ordinēs observāre; ubi quemque periculum cēperat, ibi resistere ac prōpulsāre; arma, tēla, equī, virī, hostēs atque civēs permixi; nihil cōnsiliō neque imperiō agī; fors omnia regēre (Ing. 51), a part give way, others press on; they hold neither to standards nor ranks; where danger overtook them, there each would stand and fight; arms, weapons, horses, men, foe and friend, mingled in confusion; nothing went by counsel or command; chance ruled all.*

Note. — This construction is not strictly historical, but rather descriptive, and is never used to state a mere historical fact. It is rarely found in subordinate clauses. Though occurring in most of the writers of all periods, it is most frequent in the historians Sallust, Livy, Tacitus. It does not occur in Suetonius.

¹ This construction is elliptical; that is, the thought is quoted in Indirect Discourse, though no verb of saying etc. is expressed or even, perhaps, implied (compare the French dire que). Passages like hancīne ego ad rem nātam miseric mē memorābō? (Plaut. Rud. 188) point to the origin of the construction.
464. The number of possible Tenses is very great. For in each of the three times, Present, Past, and Future, an action may be represented as going on, completed, or beginning; as habitual or isolated; as defined in time or indefinite (aoristic); as determined with reference to the time of the speaker, or as not itself so determined but as relative to some time which is determined; and the past and future times may be near or remote. Thus a scheme of thirty or more tenses might be devised.

But, in the development of forms, which always takes place gradually, no language finds occasion for more than a small part of these. The most obvious distinctions, according to our habits of thought, appear in the following scheme:

1. **Definite (fixing the time of the action)**
   - **Incomplete**
     - Present: a. *I am writing.*
     - Past: b. *I was writing.*
     - Future: c. *I shall be writing.*
   - **Complete**
     - d. *I have written.*
     - e. *I had written.*
     - f. *I shall have written.*

2. **Indefinite**
   - **Narrative**
     - g. *I write.*
     - h. *I wrote.*
     - i. *I shall write.*

Most languages disregard some of these distinctions, and some make other distinctions not here given. The Indo-European parent speech had a Present tense to express a and g, a Perfect to express d, an Aorist to express h, a Future to express c and i, and an Imperfect to express b. The Latin, however, confounded the Perfect and Aorist in a single form (the Perfect scripsit), thus losing all distinction of form between d and h, and probably in a great degree the distinction of meaning. The nature of this confusion may be seen by comparing dixi, dicavi, and dixici (all Perfects derived from the same root, dic), with ṭāka, Skr. adiksham, ṭēkṣṇa, Skr. clideṣa. Latin also developed two new forms, those for c (scripturam) and f (scripturus), and thus possessed six tenses, as seen in § 154. c.

The lines between these six tenses in Latin are not hard and fast, nor are they precisely the same that we draw in English. Thus in many verbs the form corresponding to *I have written* (d) is used for those corresponding to *I am writing* (a) and *I write* (g) in a slightly different sense, and the form corresponding to *I had written* (e) is used in like manner for that corresponding to *I was writing* (b). Again, the Latin often uses the form for *I shall have written* (f) instead of that for *I shall write* (i). Thus, nōvi, *I have learned*, is used for *I know*; constitut, *he had taken his position*, for *he stood*; cognōverō, *I shall have learned*, for *I shall be aware*. In general a writer may take his own point of view.

### TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE

#### INCOMPLETE ACTION

#### PRESENT TENSE

465. The Present Tense denotes an action or state (1) as *now taking place* or existing, and so (2) as *incomplete* in present time, or (3) as *indefinite*, referring to no particular time, but denoting a *general truth*: —
syntaxis haec intellegit, consul videt, hic tamen vivit (Cat. i. 2), the senate knows this, the consul sees it, yet this man lives.

tibi concedö meäs sedis (Div. i. 104), I give you my seat (an offer which may or may not be accepted).

expectō quid vellis (Ter. And. 34), I await your pleasure (what you wish).

tū actionem instituis, ille aciem instruit (Mur. 22), you arrange a case, he arranges an army. [The present is here used of regular employment.]

minōra dī negleguēt (N. D. iii. 86), the gods disregard trifles. [General truth.]

obsequium amicos, veritas odium parit (Ter. And. 68), flattery gains friends, truth hatred. [General truth.]

Note.—The present of a general truth is sometimes called the Gnomic Present.

a. The present is regularly used in quoting writers whose works are extant:—

Epicurus vērō ea dicit (Tusc. ii. 17), but Epicurus says such things.
apud illum Ulixēs lāmentātur in volnerē (id. ii. 49), in him (Sophocles)
Ulysses laments over his wound.

Polyphemum Homērus cum arīte colloquētendent fact (id. v. 115), Homer brings in (makes) Polyphemus talking with his ram.

Present with iam diū etc.

466. The Present with expressions of duration of time (especially iam diū, iam dēdum) denotes an action continuing in the present, but begun in the past (cf. § 471. b).

In this use the present is commonly to be rendered by the perfect in English:—

iam diū ignarō quid agās (Tām. vii. 9), for a long time I have not known what you were doing.
tē iam dēdum hortor (Cat. i. 12), I have long been urging you.
patimur multōs iam annōs (Verr. v. 126), we suffer now these many years.
[The Latin perfect would imply that we no longer suffer.]
annō sunt octō cum ista causa versātur (cf. Clu. 82), it is now eight years that this case has been in hand.
amnum iam audīs Cratippum (Off. i. 1), for a year you have been a hearer of Cratippus.

adhuc Plancius me retinet (Fam. xiv. i. 3), so far Plancius has kept me here.

Note 1.—The difference in the two idioms is that the English states the beginning and leaves the continuance to be inferred, while the Latin states the continuance and leaves the beginning to be inferred. Compare he has long suffered (and still suffers) with he still suffers (and has suffered long).

Note 2.—Similarly the Present Imperative with iam dēdum indicates that the action commanded ought to have been done or was wished for long ago (cf. the Perfect Imperative in Greek): as,—iam dēdum sūmite poenās (Aen. ii. 103), exact the penalty long delayed.
Conative Present

467. The Present sometimes denotes an action attempted or begun in present time, but never completed at all (Conative Present, cf. § 471. c):

iam iamque manū teact (Aen. ii. 530), and now, even now, he attempts to grasp him.
dēnōs fertur in hostis (id. ii. 511), he starts to rush into the thickest of the foe.
dēcennō quinquāgintā dieōrum supplicatōnēs (Phil. xiv. 29), I move for fifty days' thanksgiving. [Cf. senātus dēcrēvit, the senate ordained.]

Present for Future

468. The Present, especially in colloquial language and poetry, is often used for the Future:

imōsus sessum (De Or. iii. 17), shall we take a seat? (are we going to sit?)
hōdiē uxōrem dācis (Ter. And. 321), are you to be married to-day?
quoq si sit, pereō funditus (id. 244), if this happens, I am utterly undone.
equid mē adivās (Clu. 71), won't you give me a little help?
in ūs vocō tē. nōn eō. nōn is (Pl. Asin. 480), I summon you to the court.
I won't go. You won't?

Note.—Eō and its compounds are especially frequent in this use (cf. where are you going to-morrow? and the Greek εἰμι in a future sense). Verbs of necessity, possibility, wish, and the like (as possum, volō, etc.) also have reference to the future.

For other uses of the Present in a future sense, see under Conditions (§ 516. a. n.), antequam and priusquam (§ 551. c), ānum (§ 553. n. 2), and § 444. a. n.

Historical Present

469. The Present in lively narrative is often used for the Historical Perfect:

affectur nāntius Syrācūsās; curritur ad praeōriō; Cleomenēs in pūblico esse nōn audet; inclusēt sē domī (Verr. v. 92), the news is brought to Syracuse: they run to headquarters; Cleomenes does not venture to be abroad; he shuts himself up at home.

Note.—This usage, common in all languages, comes from imagining past events as going on before our eyes (reposentatū, § 385. b. n.).

For the Present Indicative with ānum, while, see § 503.

a. The present may be used for the perfect in a summary enumeration of past events (Annalistic Present):

Rōma interim crēscit Albae ruinis: duplicātur civium numerus; Caelius addētūr urbi mōns (Liv. i. 80), Rome meanwhile grows as a result of the fall of Alba: the number of citizens is doubled; the Celian hill is added to the town.
IMPERFECT TENSE

470. The Imperfect denotes an action or a state as continued or repeated in past time:—

hunc audībant anteā (Maul. 13), they used to hear of him before.
[Socratēs] ita censēbat itaque disserruit (Tusc. i. 72), Socrates thought so (habitually), and so he spoke (then).
prūdēns esse putābat (Lael. 6), he was (generally) thought wise. [The perfect would refer to some particular case, and not to a state of things.]
iamque rubēscēbat Aurōra (Aen. iii. 521), and now the dawn was blushing.
āra vetus stābat (Ov. M. vi. 326), an old altar stood there.

Note.—The Imperfect is a descriptive tense and denotes an action conceived as in progress or a state of things as actually observed. Hence in many verbs it does not differ in meaning from the Perfect. Thus rēx erat and rēx fuit may often be used indifferently; but the former describes the condition while the latter only states it. The English is less exact in distinguishing these two modes of statement. Hence the Latin Imperfect is often translated by the English Preterite:—

Hædui graviter lēbēbant, neque lēgātōs ad Cæsarem mitērēbant (B. G. v. 6), the Hædui were displeased, and did not dare to send envoys to Caesar. [Here the Imperfects describe the state of things.] But,—
id tūtī fāctum gravītār Indūtionārnus (id. v. 4), Indūtionārnus was displeased at this action. [Here the Perfect merely states the fact.]
seidīcia vicīōque hādēbant (id. iv. 4), they had buildings and villages.

471. The Imperfect represents a present tense transferred to past time. Hence all the meanings which the Present has derived from the continuance of the action belong also to the Imperfect in reference to past time.

a. The Imperfect is used in descriptions:—
erant omnīna itinera duo ... mōns altissimus impedībatur (B. G. i. 6), there were in all two ways ... a very high mountain overhang.

b. With iam diū, iam dūdum, and other expressions of duration of time, the Imperfect denotes an action continuing in the past but begun at some previous time (cf. § 466).

In this construction the Imperfect is rendered by the English Pluperfect:—

iam dūdum sēbām (Ov. M. iii. 666), I had been weeping for a long time.
cōpiās quās diū comparābant (Fam. xi. 13. 5), the forces which they had long been getting ready.

c. The Imperfect sometimes denotes an action as begun (Inceptive Imperfect), or as attempted or only intended (Conative Imperfect; cf. § 467):—
in exsilium ciciëbam quem iam ingressum esse in bellum vidēbam (Cat. ii. 14), was I trying to send into exile one who I saw had already gone into war?
hunc igitur diem sibi prōpōnēns Milō, cruentūs manibus ad illa augusta centuriārum auspicia veniēbat (Mil. 43), was Milo coming (i.e. was it likely that he would come); etc.?
si licētum esset veniēbat (Verr. v. 129), they were coming if it had been allowed (they were on the point of coming, and would have done so if, etc.).

Note. — To this head may be referred the imperfect with iam, denoting the beginning of an action or state: as, — iamque arva tractēbant ultima (Aen. vi. 477), and now they were just getting to the farthest fields.

d. The Imperfect is sometimes used to express a surprise at the present discovery of a fact already existing: —
ō tū quoque aderās (Ter. Ph. 858), oh, you are here too!
ehem, tūn hic erās, mī Phaedrīa (Ter. Eun. 38), what! you here, Phaedria?
ā miser! quantā labōrābās Charybdī (Hor. Od. i. 27. 19), unhappy boy, what a whirlpool you are struggling in [and I never knew it]!

e. The Imperfect is often used in dialogue by the comic poets where later writers would employ the Perfect: —
ad amicum Callīcleam quōm rem aibat mandāssē hī suam (Pl. Trin. 956), to his friend Callicles, to whom, he said, he has intrusted his property.
piaesāgībat uī animas frūstrā mē ire quom exībam domō (Pl. Aul. 178), my mind mistrusted when I went from home that I went in vain.

Note. — So, in conversation the imperfect of verbs of saying (cf. as I was a-saying) is common in classic prose: —
at medici quoque, ita enim dīēbās, saepe falluntur (N. D. iii. 15), but physicians also,—for that is what you were saying just now,—are often mistaken.
haeo mihi ferē in mentem veniēbat (id. ii. 67. 168), this is about what occurred to me, etc. [In a straightforward narration this would be veniēbat.]

f. The Imperfect with negative words often has the force of the English auxiliary could or would: —
itaque (Dāmoclēs) nec pulchrōs illōs ministrātōrēs aspiciēbat (Tusc. v. 62), therefore he could not look upon those beautiful slaves. [In this case did not would not express the idea of continued prevention or enjoyment by the overhanging sword.]
nec enim dum eram volūscūm animum meum vidēbatis (Cat. M. 79), for, you know, while I was with you, you could not see my soul. [Here the Perfect would refer only to one moment.]

Lentulus satis erat fortīs orātor, sed cōgitandō nōn ferēbat labōrem (Brut. 268), Lentulus was bold enough as an orator, but could not endure the exertion of thinking hard.

For the Epistolary Imperfect, see § 479; for the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis contrary to fact, see § 517. b, c.
FUTURE TENSE

472. The Future denotes an action or state that will occur hereafter.

a. The Future may have the force of an Imperative (§ 449. b).

b. The Future is often required in a subordinate clause in Latin where in English futurity is sufficiently expressed by the main clause: cum aderit vidēbit, when he is there he will see (cf. § 547).

sānābimur si volēmus (Tusc. iii. 13), we shall be healed if we wish (cf. § 516. a).

Note.—But the Present is common in future apodoses (§ 516. a. n.).

COMPLETED ACTION

PERFECT TENSE

Perfect Definite and Historical Perfect

473. The Perfect denotes an action either as now completed (Perfect Definite), or as having taken place at some undefined point of past time (Historical or Aoristic Perfect).

The Perfect Definite corresponds in general to the English Perfect with have; the Historical Perfect to the English Preterite (or Past):

(1) ut ego fēci, qui Graecās litterās senex dīdī (Cat. M. 26), as I have done, who have learned Greek in my old age.

diūturni silentī fincem hodierum dīs attulit (Marc. 1), this day has put an end to my long-continued silence.

(2) tantum bellum extrēma hieme apparāvit, inuentē vēre suscēpit, media aestāte cŏnfēcit (Manil. 36), so great a war he made ready for at the end of winter, undertook in early spring, and finished by midsummer.

Note.—The distinction between these two uses is represented by two forms in most other Indo-European languages, but was almost if not wholly lost to the minds of the Romans. It must be noticed, however, on account of the marked distinction in English and also because of certain differences in the sequence of tenses.

a. The Indefinite Present, denoting a customary action or a general truth (§ 465), often has the Perfect in a subordinate clause referring to time antecedent to that of the main clause:—

qui in compedibus corporis semper fuērunt, etiam cum solūti sunt tardius ingrediēntur (Tusc. i. 75), they who have always been in the fotters of the body, even when released move more slowly.

simul ac mihi collībītum est, praestō est īmāgō (N. D. i. 108), as soon as I have taken a fancy, the image is before my eyes.
haec morte effugiuntur, etiam si non evénérunt, tamen quia possunt éveneri
(Tusc. i. 86), these things are escaped by death even if they have not [yet]
happened, because they still may happen.

Note. — This use of the perfect is especially common in the protasis of General
Conditions in present time (§ 518. b).

474. The Perfect is sometimes used emphatically to denote that
a thing or condition of things that once existed no longer exists:

fuit ista quondam in hæc rē públicā virtūs (Cat. i. 3), there was once such vir-
tūs in this commonwealth.

habuit, non habet (Tusc. i. 87), he had, he has no longer.

filium habēo . . . immo habui; nunc habeam necne incertumst (Ter. Haut.
93), I have a son, no, I had one; whether I have now or not is uncertain.

fuimus Trōes, fuit Ilium (Aen. ii. 325), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is
no more.

Special Uses of the Perfect

475. The Perfect is sometimes used of a general truth, espe-
cially with negatives (Gnomic Perfect): —

qui studet contingere mētam multa tuit fēcisse (Hor. A. P. 412), he who
aims to reach the goal, first bears and does many things.

nōn acris accurus est aurī dēdīxit corpore fēbris (id. Ep. i. 2. 47), the pile of
brass and gold removes not fever from the frame.

Note. — The gnomic perfect strictly refers to past time; but its use implies that
something which never did happen in any known case never does happen, and never
will (cf. the English “Faint heart never was fair lady”); or, without a negative,
that what has once happened will always happen under similar circumstances.

a. The Perfect is often used in expressions containing or implying
a negation, where in affirmation the Imperfect would be preferred: —

diciēbat melius quam scripsit Hortēnsius (Or. 132), Hortensius spoke better
than he wrote. [Here the negative is implied in the comparison: com-
pare the use of quisquam, ullus, etc. (§§ 311, 312), and the French ne
after comparatives and superlatives.]

476. The completed tenses of some verbs are equivalent to the
incomplete tenses of verbs of kindred meaning.

Such are the preteritive verbs ōdi, I hate; memini, I remember; nōvī,
I know; cōnsūēvi, I am accustomed,1 with others used preteritively,
as vēnerat ( = aderat, he was at hand, etc.), cōnstitērunt, they stand firm
(have taken their stand), and many inceptive (see § 263. 1): —

1 Cf. dētestor, reminiscor, scīō, soleō.
qui dies aestus maximus efficere consuevit (B. G. iv. 29), which day generally makes the highest tides (is accustomed to make).
cuius splendor obsoluit (Quinct. 59), whose splendor is now all faded.

NOTE.—Many other verbs are occasionally so used: as, — dum oculos certamen avererat (Liv. xiii. ii. 24), while the contest had turned their eyes (kept them turned). [Here avererat = tenebat.]

PLUPERFECT TENSE

477. The Pluperfect is used (1) to denote an action or state completed in past time; or (2) sometimes to denote an action in indefinite time, but prior to some past time referred to: —

(1) locis natura erat haec, quem locum nostrum castris deligerant (B. G. ii. 18), this was the nature of the ground which our men had chosen for a camp. Viridovix summum imperi tenebat eam omnium civitatum quae deditiam, Viridovix held the chief command of all those tribes which had revolted.

(2) neque vero cum aliquid mandaverat confectionem putabat (Cat. iii. i. 16), but when he had given a thing in charge he did not look on it as done.
quae si quandam adepta est id quod ei fuerat concupitum, tum furt alacritatem (Tusc. iv. 16), if it (desire) ever has gained what it had [previously] desired, then it produces joy.

For the Epistolary Pluperfect, see § 479.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

478. The Future Perfect denotes an action as completed in the future: —

ut seminatem feceris, ut metes (De Or. ii. 261), as you sow (shall have sown), so shall you reap.
carnina tum melius, cum veniret ipse, canesmus (Ecl. ix. 67), then shall we sing our songs better, when he himself has come (shall have come).
si ille insidiae clariores habet luce fuerint, tum denique obsecrabili (Mil. 6), when the plots of that man have been shown to be as clear as daylight, then, and not till then, shall I conjure you.
eg0 certe meum officium praestiteris (B. G. iv. 25), I at least shall have done my duty (i.e. when the time comes to reckon up the matter, I shall be found to have done it, whatever the event).

NOTE.—Latin is far more exact than English in distinguishing between mere future action and action completed in the future. Hence the Future Perfect is much commoner in Latin than in English. It may even be used instead of the Future, from the fondness of the Romans for representing an action as completed: —

quid inventum sit paulo post viderit (Acad. ii. 76), what has been found out I shall see presently.
qui Antonium oppresserit bellum taeterrimum confecerit (Pam. x. 19), whoever crushes (shall have crushed) Antony will finish (will have finished) a most loathsome war.
EPISTOLARY TENSES

479. In Letters, the Perfect Historical or the Imperfect may be used for the present, and the Pluperfect for any past tense, as if the letter were dated at the time it is supposed to be received:

neque tamen, haec cum scribēbam, eram nescius quantis oneribus premerēre (Fam. v. 12. 2), nor while I write this am I ignorant under what burdens you are weighed down.

ad tuās omnis [epistolās] rescripseram prōdē (Att. ix. 10. 1), I answered all your letters yesterday.

cum quod scriberem ad tē nihil habērem, tamen hās āeā litterās (Att. ix. 10), though I have nothing to write to you, still I write this letter.

Note.—In this use these tenses are called the Epistolary Perfect, Imperfect, and Pluperfect. The epistolary tenses are not employed with any uniformity, but only when attention is particularly directed to the time of writing (so especially scribēbam, dabam, etc.).

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

480. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Independent Clauses denote time in relation to the time of the speaker.

The Present always refers to future (or indefinite) time, the Imperfect to either past or present, the Perfect to either future or past, the Pluperfect always to past.

481. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Dependent Clauses were habitually used in certain fixed connections with the tenses of the main verb.

These connections were determined by the time of the main verb and the time of the dependent verb together. They are known, collectively, as the Sequence of Tenses.

Note.—The so-called Sequence of Tenses is not a mechanical law. Each tense of the subjunctive in dependent clauses (as in independent) originally denoted its own time in relation to the time of the speaker, though less definitely than the corresponding tenses of the indicative. Gradually, however, as the complex sentence was more strongly felt as a unit, certain types in which the tenses of the dependent clause seemed to accord with those of the main clause were almost unconsciously regarded as regular, and others, in which there was no such agreement, as exceptional. Thus a pretty definite system of correspondences grew up, which is codified in the rules for the Sequence of Tenses. These, however, are by no means rigid. They do not apply with equal stringency to all dependent constructions, and they were frequently disregarded, not only when their strict observance would have obscured the sense, but for the sake of emphasis and variety, or merely from carelessness.
Sequence of Tenses

482. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Dependent Clauses follow special rules for the Sequence of Tenses.

With reference to these rules all tenses when used in independent clauses are divided into two classes,—Primary and Secondary.

1. **Primary.**—The **Primary Tenses** include all forms that express present or future time. These are the Present, Future, and Future Perfect Indicative, the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, and the Present and Future Imperative.

2. **Secondary.**—The **Secondary Tenses** include all forms that refer to past time. These are the Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect Indicative, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, and the Historical Infinitive.

**Note.**—To these may be added certain forms less commonly used in independent clauses:—(1) Primary: Present Infinitive in Exclamations; (2) Secondary: Perfect Infinitive in Exclamations (see §§ 462, 485. a. n.).

The Perfect Definite is sometimes treated as primary (see § 485. a.).

For the Historical Present, see § 485. e; for the Imperfect Subjunctive in Apodosis, see § 483. a.

483. The following is the general rule for the Sequence of Tenses:—

In complex sentences a Primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect in the dependent clause, and a Secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect:

**Primary Tenses**

| rogō,  | I ask, am asking 
| rogābō, | I shall ask 
| rogāvi (sometimes), | I have asked 
| rogāverō, | I shall have asked 
| scribit, | he writes 
| scribet, | he will write 
| scribe (scribitā), | write 
| scribit, | he writes 
| quid faciās, what you are doing. |
| quid fēceris, what you did, were doing, have done, have been doing. |
| quid factūrus sis, what you will do. |
| ut nōs moneās, to warn us. |
| ut nōs moneat, to warn us. |
| quasi oblivus sit, as if he had forgotten. |

1 The term is sometimes extended to certain relations between the tenses of subordinate verbs in the indicative and those of the main verb. These relations do not differ in principle from those which we are considering; but for convenience the term Sequence of Tenses in this book restricted to subjunctives, in accordance with the usual practice.
Secondary Tenses

rogābam,
rogāvi,
rogāveram,
scirpsit,
scirpsit,

I asked, was asking I asked, have asked I had asked he wrote he wrote
quid facerēs, what you were doing quid fēcissēs, what you had done, had been doing quid factūrūs essēs, what you would do, ut nōs monēret, to warn us quasi oblītus esset, as if he had forgotten.

484. In applying the rule for the Sequence of Tenses, observe—

(1) Whether the main verb is (a) primary or (b) secondary.
(2) Whether the dependent verb is to denote completed action (i.e. past with reference to the main verb) or incomplete action (i.e. present or future with reference to the main verb). Then—

a. If the leading verb is primary, the dependent verb must be in the Present if it denotes incomplete action, in the Perfect if it denotes completed action.

b. If the leading verb is secondary, the dependent verb must be in the Imperfect if it denotes incomplete action, in the Pluperfect if it denotes completed action:

(1) He writes [primary] to warn [incomplete action] us, scribit ut nōs moneat.
I ask [primary] what you were doing [now past], rogō quid fēcēris.
(2) He wrote [secondary] to warn [incomplete] us, scripsit ut nōs monēret.
I asked [secondary] what you were doing [incomplete], rogāvi quid facerēs.

c. Notice that the Future Perfect denotes action completed (at the time referred to), and hence is represented in the Subjunctive by the Perfect or Pluperfect:

He shows that if they come (shall have come), many will perish, dēmōnstrat, si vēnerint, multōs interitusōs.
He showed that if they should come (should have come), many would perish, dēmōnstrāvit, si vēnissent, multōs interitusōs.

485. In the Sequence of Tenses the following special points are to be noted:

a. The Perfect Indicative is ordinarily a secondary tense, but allows the primary sequence when the present time is clearly in the writer's mind:

ut satis esset præsidii prōvisum est (Cat. ii. 26), provision has been made that there should be ample guard. [Secondary sequence.]
addōxī hominem in quō satisfacere exteris nātiōnibus possestis (Verr. i. 2), I have brought a man in whose person you can make satisfaction to foreign nations. [Secondary sequence.]
est enim rēs iam in eum locum adducta, utquamquam multum inter sit inter
ēorum causās qui dimicant, tamen inter victoriās non multum interfutu-
tūrum putem (Fam. v. 21. 3), for affairs have been brought to such a pass
that, though there is a great difference between the causes of those who are
fighting, still I do not think there will be much difference between their vic-
tories. [Primary sequence.]

ea adhibita doctrīna est quae vel vitioāssinam nāturām excolare possit (Q. Fr.
i. 1. 7), such instruction has been given as can train even the faulcest
nature. [Primary sequence.]

Note.—The Perfect Infinitive in exclamations follows the same rule:—
quamquamne fuisse tam scelerātum qui hoc fīngernet (Phil. xiv. 14), was any one so
abandoned as to imagine this? [Secondary.]

adeōn rem redisse patronum ut extimēscam (Ter. Ph. 153), to think that things have
come to such a pass that I should dreads my father! [Primary.]

6. After a primary tense the Perfect Subjunctive is regularly used to
denote any past action. Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent—

1. A Perfect Definite:—
nōn dubitō quin omnēs tuī scripserint (Fam. v. 8), I do not doubt that all
your friends have written. [Direct statement: scripsērunt.]
quā rē nōn ignōrō quid accidat in ultimās terrīs, cum audierim in Italīā que-
rellās civīnum (Q. Fr. i. 1. 33), therefore I know well what happens at the
ends of the earth, when I have heard in Italy the complaints of citizens.
[Direct statement: audīvi.]

2. A Perfect Historical:—
mē autem hic laudat quod rettulerim, nōn quod patefēcerim (Att. xii. 21), me
he praises because I brought the matter [before the senate], not because I
brought it to light. [Direct statement: rettulīt.]

3. An Imperfect:—
si forte cecidērunt, tum intellegitur quam fuerint inopēs amicīorum (Lael. 53),
if perchance they fall (have fallen), then one can see how poor they were
in friends. [Direct question: quam inopēs erant?]
qui status rērum fuerit cum hās litterās dēdi, scire poteris ex C. Titī Strā-
obōne (Fam. xii. 6), what the condition of affairs was when I wrote this
letter, you can learn from Strabo. [Direct question: qui status erat?]
quam civitātī cārus fuerit maerōre funerārum indicātum est (Lael. 11), how dea
he was to the state has been shown by the grief at his funeral. [Direct
question: quam cārus erat?]
ex epistulis intellegi licet quam frequēns fuerit Platōnis auditor (Or. 15), it
may be understood from his letters how constant a hearer he was of Plato.
[Direct question: quam frequēns erat?]

Note.—Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent, not only a Perfect Definite
or a Perfect Historical of a direct statement or question, but an Imperfect as well.
This comes from the want of any special tense of the subjunctive to express continued
action after a primary tense. Thus, mīnor quīd fēcerit may mean (1) I wonder what he
has done, (2) I wonder what he did (hist. perf.), or (3) I wonder what he was doing.
c. In clauses of Result, the Perfect Subjunctive is regularly (the Present rarely) used after secondary tenses: —

Hortensius ardēbat dicendi cupiditāte sic ut in nūllō unquam flagrantius studium viderim (Brut. 302), Hortensius was so hot with desire of speaking that I have never seen a more burning ardor in any man.

[Siciliam Verres] per triennium ita vexāvit ac perdīdit ut ea restitui in antiquum statum nūllō modō possit (Verr. i. 12), for three years Verres so racked and ruined Sicily that she can in no way be restored to her former state. [Here the Present describes a state of things actually existing.]

videor esse consecūtus ut nōn possit Dolabella in Italiam pervenire (Fam. xii. 14. 2), I seem to have brought it about that Dolabella cannot come into Italy.

Note 1.—This construction emphasizes the result; the regular sequence of tenses would subordinate it.

Note 2.—There is a special fondness for the Perfect Subjunctive to represent a Perfect Indicative: —

Thorius ērat ita nōn superstitiosus ut illa plurima in suā patriā et sacrificia et fāna contemneret; ita nōn timidus ad mortem ut in acē sit ob rem públicam interfactus (Pīn. ii. 63), Thorius was so little superstitious that he despised [contemnēbat] the many sacrifices and shrines in his country; so little timorous about death that he was killed [interfectus est] in battle, in defence of the state.

d. A general truth after a past tense follows the sequence of tenses:

ex his quae tribuisset, sibi quam mūtabilis esset reputābat (Q. C. iii. 8. 20), from what she (Fortune) had bestowed on him, he reflected how inconstant she is. [Direct: mūtabilis est.]

ibī quantum vīm ad stimulandōs animōs īra ĥabērēt appāruit (Liv. xxxiii. 37), here it appeared what power anger has to good the mind. [Direct: ĥabēt.]

Note.—In English the original tense is more commonly kept.

e. The Historical Present (§ 469) is sometimes felt as a primary, sometimes as a secondary tense, and accordingly it takes either the primary or the secondary sequence: —

rogāt ut cūret quod ā dixisset (Quinct. 18), he asks him to attend to the thing he had spoken of. [Both primary and secondary sequence.]

Note.—After the historical present, the subjunctive with cum temporal must follow the secondary sequence: —

quō cum vēnisset dōgnōsit (B. C. i. 34), when he had come there he learns.

cum esset pūgnātum hōrīs quīnicē, nostrique gravissim premerērunt, impetum in cohortēs faciunt (id. i. 41), when they had fought for five hours, and our men were pretty hard pressed, they make an attack on the cohorts.

f. The Historical Infinitive regularly takes the secondary sequence: —

interim cótidiē Caesar Haeduōs frumentum, quod essent policiti, fāgitāre (B. G. i. 16), meanwhile Caesar demanded of the Haudui every day the grain which they had promised.
g. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in conditions contrary to fact (§ 517) and in the Deliberative Subjunctive (§ 444) are not affected by the sequence of tenses:—

quia tāle sit, ut vel si ignōrarent id hominēs vel si obmutuissent (Fin. ii. 49),
because it is such that even if men were ignorant of it, or had been
silent about it.
quaeāredā te ĉur C. Cornelium nōn défenderem (Vat. 5), I ask you why I was
not to defend Caius Cornelius? [Direct: ĉur nōn défenderem?]

h. The Imperfect Subjunctive in present conditions contrary to fact (§ 517) is regularly followed by the secondary sequence:—

si aliī consultēs essent, ad té potissimum, Paule, mitterem, ut eōs mīhi quam
amicissimōs redderēs (Fam. xv. 13. 3), if there were other consults, I should
send to you, Paulus, in preference to all, that you might make them as
friendly to me as possible.
si sōlōs eōs dicerēs miserōs quibus moriendum esset, nēminem excipērēs
(Tusc. i. 9), if you were to call only those wretched who must die, you
would except no one.

i. The Present is sometimes followed by a secondary sequence, seemingly because the writer is thinking of past time:—

sed si rēs cōget, est quiddam tertium, quod neque Seliciō nec mīhi displicē-
bat: ut neque iacēre rem paterēmur, etc. (Fam. i. 5 a. 3), but if the case
shall demand, there is a third [course] which neither Selicius nor myself
disapproved, that we should not allow, etc. [Here Cicero is led by the
time of displicēbat.]
sed tamen ut scriēs, hac tua scribē (Fam. xiii. 47), but yet that you may know, I
write thus. [As if he had used the epistolary imperfect scribēbam (§ 479).]
ctius praecipient tanta vis est ut ea nōn homini cuiplām sed Delphicō deō
tribuerētur (Legg. i. 58), such is the force of this precept, that it was
ascribed not to any man, but to the Delphic god. [The precept was an
old one.]

j. When a clause depends upon one already dependent, its se-
quence may be secondary if the verb of that clause expresses past
time, even if the main verb is in a primary tense:—

sed tamen quā rē acciderit ut ex maiōs superiores litterīs id suspicārēre nesciō
(Fam. ii. 16), but yet how it happened that you suspected this from my
previous letter, I don’t know.
tantum profecisse vidēmur ut ē Graecīs nē verbōrum quidem cópiā vincē-
mur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in abundance
of words we are not surpassed by the Greeks.

Note. — So regularly after a Perfect Infinitive which depends on a primary tense
(§ 585. a).
§ 486. TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE

486. Except in Indirect Discourse, only the Present and Perfect Infinitives are used.

The Present represents the action of the verb as in progress without distinct reference to time, the Perfect as completed.

For the Tenses of the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse see § 584.

a. With past tenses of verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility (as débui, oportuit, potui), the Present Infinitive is often used in Latin where the English idiom prefers the Perfect Infinitive:—

numme, si Coriolánus habuit amicos, ferre contra patriam arma illi cum Coriolánō débuerunt (Lael. 36), if Coriolanus had friends, ought they to have borne arms with him against their fatherland?

pecúnia, quam his oportuit civitātibus prō frūmentō dāri (Verr. iii. 174), money which ought to have been paid to these states for grain.

cōnsul esse qui potui, nisi eum vitae cursum tenuissem ā puérītā (Rep. i. 10), how could I have become consul had I not from boyhood followed that course of life?

b. With verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility, the Perfect Infinitive may be used to emphasize the idea of completed action:—

tametsī statim viciisse débeō (Rosc. Am. 73), although I ought to win my case at once (to be regarded as having won it).

bellum quod possimus ante hiemem perfecisse (Liv. xxxvii. 19. 5), a war which we can have completed before winter.

nil ego, si peccem, possum necisse (Ov. H. xvi. 47), if I should go wrong, I cannot have done it in ignorance (am not able not to have known).

NOTR. — With the past tenses of these verbs the perfect infinitive is apparently due to attraction:—

quod iam pridem factum esse oportuit (Cat. i. 5), (a thing) which ought to have been done long ago.

haec facta ab illō oportēbat (Ter. Hact. 538), this ought to have been done by him.

tum decuit metuisset (Aen. x. 94), then was the time to fear (then you should have feared).

c. In archaic Latin and in legal formulas the Perfect Active Infinitive is often used with nōlō or volō in prohibitions:—

Chaldaeum nēquem cōnsulisse velit (Cat. R. R. v. 4), let him not venture to have consulted a soothsayer.

nōlītō devellisse (Pl. Poen. 872), do not have them plucked.

nēquis humāsse velit Āiācem (Hor. S. ii. 3. 187), let no one venture to have buried Ajax.

NEQVIS EORVM BACANAL HABVISE VELET (S. C. de Bac. 1), let no one of them venture to have had a place for Bacchanalian worship.
With verbs of *wishing* the Perfect Passive Infinitive (commonly without *esse*) is often used emphatically instead of the Present:

domesticā cūrā tē levātum volō (Q. Fr. iii. 9. 3), *I wish you relieved of private care.*
illōs monitōs volō (Cat. ii. 27), *I wish them thoroughly warned.*
qui illum [patriam] extinctam cupidit (Fin. iv. 66), *who is eager for her utter destruction.*
illud tē esse admonitum volō (Caec. 8), *I wish you to be well advised of this.*
qui sē ab omnibus dēsertōs potius quam abs tē dēfēnsōs esse mālunt (Caecil. 21), *who prefer to be deserted by all rather than to be defended by you.*

**Note.**—The participle in this case is rather in predicate agreement (with or without *esse*) than used to form a strict perfect infinitive, though the full form can hardly be distinguished from that construction.

e. In late Latin, and in poetry (often for metrical convenience), rarely in good prose, the Perfect Active Infinitive is used emphatically instead of the Present, and even after other verbs than those of *wishing*:

nēmō eōrum est quī non perisse tē cupiāt (Verr. ii. 149), *there is no one of them who is not eager for your death.*
hand equidem premendō alium mē extulisse velim (Liv. xxii. 59. 10), *I would not by crushing another exalt myself.*
sunt quī nōlīnt tē tigisse (Hor. S. i. 2. 28), *there are those who would not touch.*
commisīssē cavet (Hor. A. P. 168), *he is cautious of doing.*
nunc quēm tē tigisse timērēnt, anguis erās (Ov. M. viii. 733), *again you became a serpent which they dreaded to touch.*
frātrēsque tendentēs opāsō Pēlion imposīssē Olympō (Hor. Od. iii. 4. 51), *and the brothers striving to set Pélion on dark Olympus.*

After verbs of *feeling* the Perfect Infinitive is used, especially by the poets, to denote a completed action.

So also with *satis est*, *satis habeō*, *melius est*, *contentus sum*, and in a few other cases where the distinction of time is important:

nōn paenitēbat intercapēdinem scribendi fēcisse (Fam. xvi. 21), *I was not sorry to have made a respite of writing.*
pudet mē nōn praestītīssē (id. xiv. 3), *I am ashamed not to have shown.*
sunt quōs pulverem Olympicum collegisse iuvat (Hor. Od. i. 1. 3), *some delight to have stirred up the dust at Olympia.*
quīēsse erit melius (Liv. iii. 48), *it will be better to have kept quiet.*
ac si quis amet scriptīssē (Hor. S. i. 10. 60), *than if one should choose to have written.*
id sōlūm ādīisse satis habeō (Vell. ii. 124), *I am content to have said only this.*

1 *Volō*, and less frequently *nōō*, *māū*, and *cupīō.*
NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB

487. The several Noun and Adjective forms associated with the verb are employed as follows:—

I. Participles:

- Present and Perfect:
  1. Attributive (§ 494).
  2. Simple Predicate (§ 495).
  3. Periphrastic Perfect (passive) (§ 495. x.).
  4. Predicate of Circumstance (§ 496).
  5. Descriptive (Indirect Discourse) (§ 497 a).

- Future:
  1. Periphrastic with esse (§ 498. c).
  2. Periphrastic with fui (= Pluperfect Subjunctive) (§ 498. b).

- Gerundive:
  1. As Descriptive Adjective (§ 500. 1).
  2. Periphrastic with esse (§ 500. 2).
  3. Of Purpose with certain verbs (§ 500. 4).

II. Gerund or Gerundive:

- 1. Genitive as Subjective or Objective Genitive (§ 504).
- 2. Dative, with Adjectives (of Fitness), Nouns, Verbs (§ 505).
- 3. Accusative, with certain Prepositions (§ 506).
- 4. Ablative, of Means, Comparison, or with Prepositions (§ 507).

III. Supine:

- 1. Accusative Supine (in -am), with Verbs of Motion (§ 509).

PARTICIPLES

488. The Participle expresses the action of the verb in the form of an Adjective, but has a partial distinction of tense and may govern a case.

Note.—Thus the participle combines all the functions of an adjective with some of the functions of a verb. As an Adjective, it limits substantives and agrees with them in gender, number, and case (§ 286). As a Verb, it has distinctions of time (§ 489) and often takes an object.

Distinctions of Tense in Participles

489. Participles denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause.

Thus the Present Participle represents the action as in progress at the time indicated by the tense of the verb, the Perfect as completed, and the Future as still to take place.

490. The Present Participle has several of the special uses of the Present Indicative. Thus it may denote—

1. An action continued in the present but begun in the past (§ 466):
   quaerent mihi iam diu certa res nullam veniebat in mentem (Fam. iv. 13),
   though I had long sought, no certain thing came to my mind.

3 For the Syntax of the Infinitive, see §§ 451 ff., 486.
2. Attempted action (§ 467):—
C. Flaminio restitit agrum Picentem dividentī (Cat. M. 11), he resisted Flaminius when attempting to divide the Picene territory.

3. Rarely (in poetry and later Latin) futurity or purpose, with a verb of motion:—
Euryperylo sciantem oracula mittimus (Aen. ii. 114), we send Euryperylus to consult the oracle. [Cf. § 468.]

491. The Perfect Participle of a few deponent verbs is used nearly in the sense of a Present.
Such are, regularly, ratus, solitus, veritus; commonly, arbitratūs, fisus, ausus, secūtus, and occasionally others, especially in later writers:—
rem incrēdibilem ratī (Sall. Cat. 48), thinking the thing incredible.
Insidiās veritus (B. G. ii. 11), fearing an ambuscade.
cohortātus militēs docuit (B. C. iii. 89), encouraging the men, he showed.
irātus dixisti (Mur. 62), you spoke in a passion.
ad pāgnām congressī (Liv. iv. 10), meeting in fight.

492. The Latin has no Present Participle in the passive.
The place of such a form is supplied usually by a clause with dum or cum:—
obīre dum calciātur mātātinō duo Caesarēs (Plin. N. H. vii. 181), two Cæsars died while having their shoes put on in the morning.
mēque ista dēlectant cum Latinē dicuntur (Acad. i. 18), those things please me when they are spoken in Latin.

Note. — These constructions are often used when a participle might be employed:—
dic, hospes, Spartae nōs tē hic vidisse iacentis, dum sānicis patricēs lēgibus obsēquimur (Tusc. i. 101), tell it, stranger, at Sparta, that you saw us lying here obedient to our country’s sacred laws. [Here dum obsēquimur is a translation of the Greek present participle πατησίαν.]
dum [Ulixēs] sibi, dum sōcīs reditum parat (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 21), Ulysses, while securing the return of himself and his companions. [In Greek: ἀπάντασεν.]

493. The Latin has no Perfect Participle in the active voice.
The deficiency is supplied —
1. In deponents by the perfect passive form with its regular active meaning:—
nam singulās [nāvis] nostī cōnsecrāti expūgnāvērunt (B. G. iii. 15), for our men, having overtaken them one by one, captured them by boarding.

Note. — The perfect participle of several deponent verbs may be either active or passive in meaning (§ 190. b).
USES OF PARTICIPLES

2. In other verbs, either by the perfect passive participle in the ablative absolute (§ 420. n.) or by a temporal clause (especially with cum or postquam):

itaque convocātis centurionibus mīlitēs certiōrēs facit (B. G. iii. 5), and so, having called the centurions together, he informs the soldiers (the centurions having been called together).
cum vēnisset animadvertit collem (id. vii. 44), having come (when he had come), he noticed a hill.
postquam id animum advertit cōpiās suās Cæsar in proximum collem subdēcit (B. G. i. 24), having observed this (after he had observed this) Cæsar led his troops to the nearest hill.

Uses of Participles

494. The Present and Perfect Participles are sometimes used as attributives, nearly like adjectives:

aeger et flagrāns animus (Tac. Ann. iii. 54), his sick and passionate mind.
cum antiquissimam sententiam tum comprobātam (Div. i. 11), a view at once most ancient and well approved.
signa numquam fērē mentientia (id. i. 15), signs hardly ever deceitful.
auspiciis ütuntur coāctis (id. i. 27), they use forced auspices.

α. Participles often become complete adjectives, and may be compared, or used as nouns:

quō mulierē esset rēs cautior (Cacc. 11), that the matter might be more secure for the woman.
in illis artibus praestantissimīs (De Or. i. 217), preëminent in those arts.
sibi indulgentēs et corporī déservientēs (Legg. i. 39), the self-indulgent, and slaves to the body (indulging themselves and serving the body).
rēctē factura paria essē débent (Par. 22), right deeds (things rightly done) ought to be like in value (see § 321. b).
males partae male dilābuntur (Phil. ii. 65), ill got, ill spent (things ill acquired are ill spent).
cōnsuetūdō valentis (De Or. ii. 186), the habit of a man in health.

495. Participles are often used as Predicate Adjectives. As such they may be joined to the subject by esse or a copulative verb (see § 283):

Gallia est divīsa (B. G. i. 1), Gaul is divided.
locus qui nunc saecptus est (Liv. i. 8), the place which is now enclosed.
vidētis ut senectus sit operōsa et semper agēns alicquid et mūlēns (Cat. M. 26), you see how busy old age is, always aiming and trying at something.
nēmō adhuc convenire mē voluit cui fuerim occupātus (id. 32), nobody hitherto has [ever] wished to converse with me, to whom I have been "engaged."
Note.—From this predicate use arise the compound tenses of the passive,—the participle of completed action with the incomplete tenses of esse developing the idea of past time: as, interfectus est, he was (or has been) killed, lit. he is having-been-killed (i.e. already slain).

The perfect participle used with fut. etc. was perhaps originally an intensified expression in the popular language for the perfect, pluperfect, etc.

At times these forms indicate a state of affairs no longer existing:—
côteu quoque eōdem locō sitam fauisset memorant (Liv. i. 36. 5), they say that a wheistone was (once) deposited in this same place. [At the time of writing it was no longer there.]
arma quae fissa in paricibus fuerant, humi inventa sunt (Div. i. 71), the arms which had been fastened on the walls were found upon the ground.

But more frequently they are not to be distinguished from the forms with sum etc.
The construction is found occasionally at all periods, but is most common in Livy and later writers.

496. The Present and Perfect Participles are often used as a predicate, where in English a phrase or a subordinate clause would be more natural.

In this use the participles express time, cause, occasion, condition, concession, characteristic (or description), manner, means, attendant circumstances:—
volventés hostilia cadavera amicum reperiébant (Sall. Cat. 81), while rolling over the corpses of the enemy they found a friend. [Time.]
paæulum commorātus, signa canero iubet (id. 59), after delaying a little while, he orders them to give the signal. [Time.]
longius prósequi veritus, ad Cicerōnem pervénit (B. G. v. 52), because he feared to follow further, he came to Cicero. [Cause.]
qui secrēt laxās dare iussus habēnās (Aen. i. 63), who might know how to give them loose when hidden. [Occasion.]
damnātum poenāvi sequi oportēbat (B. G. i. 4), if condemned, punishment must overtake him. [Condition.]
salūtem inspērantibus reddidisti (Marc. 21), you have restored a safety for which we did not hope (to us) not hoping. [Concession.]
Dardanius caput ecce puer dēctētus (Aen. x. 133), the Trojan boy with his head uncovered. [Description.]
nec trepidēs in úsum poscentis aevi paucâ (Hor. Od. ii. 11. 5), be not anxious for the needs of age that demands little. [Characteristic.]
incitāti fugā montis altissimæ pætellant (B. C. iii. 98), in headlong flight they made for the highest mountains. [Manner.]
mihiōs subieātī aliō ab aliis mágnam partem lúneris cónficerent (id. i. 68), the soldiers, helped up by each other, accomplished a considerable part of the route. [Means.]
hóc laudānūs, Pompeius idem iūrāvit (id. iii. 87), approving this, Pompey took the same oath. [Attendant Circumstance.]
un sedēns ant ambulāns disputābam (Tusc. i. 7), I conducted the discussion either sitting or walking. [Attendant Circumstance.]
Note 1. — These uses are especially frequent in the Ablative Absolute (§ 420).
Note 2. — A coordinate clause is sometimes compressed into a perfect participle: —

instructōs ordīnēs in locum aequum dēdīci: (Sall. Cat. 59), he draws up the lines,
and leads them to level ground.

ut hōs trāductōs necaret (B. G. v. 6), that he might carry them over and put them
to death.

Note 3. — A participle with a negative often expresses the same idea which in
English is given by without and a verbal noun: as, — miserum est nihil prōficientem
angī (N. D. iii. 14), it is wretched to vex oneself without effecting anything.

Note 4. — Acceptum and expēnsum as predicates with ferre and referre are book-
keeping terms: as, — quās pecūniās ferēbat eis expēnsum (Verr. ii. 170), what sums he
charged to them.

497. A noun and a passive participle are often so united that
the participle and not the noun contains the main idea: —

ante conditam condīdīmve urbem (Liv. Pref.), before the city was built or
building.

illī libertātem immīnūtam civium Rōmānōrum nōn tulerunt; vōs ēreptam
vitam neglegetis (Manil. 11), they did not endure the infringement of the
citizens' liberty; will you disregard the destruction of their lives?

post nātōs hominēs (Brut. 224), since the creation of man.

iam ā conditā urbe (Phil. iii. 8), even from the founding of the city.

a. The perfect participle with a noun in agreement, or in the
neuter as an abstract noun, is used in the ablative with opus, need
(cf. § 411. a): —

opus factō est viāticō (Pl. Trin. 887), there is need of laying in provision.
māturātō opus est (Liv. viii. 13. 17), there is need of haste.

b. The perfect participle with habeō (rarely with other verbs) has
almost the same meaning as a perfect active, but denotes the continu-
ed effect of the action of the verb: —

fīdem quam habent spectātam iam et diū cōgnītām (Caecil. 11), my fidelity,
which they have proved and long known.
cohortēs in aērē lxxx cōnstitūtās habēbat (B. C. iii. 89), he had eighty cohorts
stationed in line of battle.

nefāriōs duces captōs iam et comprehēnsōs tenētis (Cat. iii. 16), you have now
captured the infamous leaders and hold them in custody.

c. A verb of effecting or the like may be used in combination with
the perfect participle of a transitive verb to express the action of that
verb more forcibly: —

1 Compare the participle in indirect discourse in Greek (Goodwin's Greek Grammar,
§ 1588); and the English "'T was at the royal feast for Persia won" (Dryden), i.e. for
the conquest of Persia.

2 The perfect with have, in modern languages of Latin stock, has grown out of this
use of habeō.
praefectos suos multi missos fecerunt (Verr. iii. 134), many discharged their officers (made dismissed).

hic transactum reddet omne (Pl. Capt. 345), he will get it all done (restore it finished).

ademptum tibi iam faxō omnem metum (Ter. Haut. 341), I will relieve you of all fear (make it taken away).

illum tibi incensam dabō (Ter. Ph. 974), I will make her angry with you.

Nota. — Slightly voā (with its compounds) and cupīō, with a perfect participle without esse (cf. § 486. a).

a. After verbs denoting an action of the senses the present participle in agreement with the object is nearly equivalent to the infinitive of indirect discourse (§ 580), but expresses the action more vividly:

ut eum nemo unquam in equo sedentem viderit (Verr. v. 27), so that no one ever saw him sitting on a horse. [Cf. Tusc. iii. 31.]

Nota. — The same construction is used after facio, ināceō, and the like, with the name of an author as subject: as,—Xenophōn facit Sōcraēm disputātem (N. D. i. 31), Xenophōn represents Socrates disputing.

Future Participle (Active)

498. The Future Participle (except futūrus and ventūrus) is rarely used in simple agreement with a noun, except by poets and later writers.

a. The future participle is chiefly used with the forms of esse (often omitted in the infinitive) in the Active Periphrastic Conjugation (see § 195): —

morere, Diagōra; non enim in caelum adscensus es (Tusc. i. 111), die, Diagoras, for you are not likely to rise to heaven.

spērat adulēscens diū sē victūrum (Cat. M. 68), the young man hopes to live long (that he shall live long).

neque petitūrus umquam cōnsulātum vidēretur (Off. iii. 79), and did not seem likely ever to be a candidate for the consulship.

b. With the past tenses of esse in the indicative, the future participle is often equivalent to the pluperfect subjunctive (§ 517. d). For futūrum fierce, see § 589. b.

499. By later writers and the poets the Future Participle is often used in simple agreement with a substantive to express —

1. Likelihood or certainty: —

rem ausus plōs fāmae habērām (Liv. ii. 10), having dared a thing which would have more repute.
2. Purpose, intention, or readiness:—

ēgreditur castris Rōmānus vāllum invāsūrus (Liv. iii. 60. 8), the Roman comes out of the camp with the intention of attacking the rampart.
dispersūs per agrōs militēs equitūbus invāsūris (id. xxxi. 36), while the horse were ready to attack the soldiers scattered through the fields.
sī peritūrus abīs (Aen. ii. 675), if you are going away to perish.

3. Apodosis:—
dedit mihi quantum maximum potuit, datūrus amplius si potuisset (Plin. Ep. iii. 21. 6), he gave me as much as he could, ready to give me more if he had been able. [Here datūrus is equivalent to dedisset.]

Gerundive (Future Passive Participle)

Note.—The participle in -dus, commonly called the Gerundive, has two distinct uses:—

(1) Its predicate and attribute use as Participle or Adjective (§ 500).

(2) Its use with the meaning of the Gerund (§ 503). This may be called its gerundive use.

500. The Gerundive when used as a Participle or an Adjective is always passive, denoting necessity, obligation, or propriety.

In this use of the Gerundive the following points are to be observed:—

1. The gerundive is sometimes used, like the present and perfect participles, in simple agreement with a noun:—

fortem et cōnservandum virum (Mil. 104), a brave man, and worthy to be preserved.
gravis injūria facta est et nōn ferenda (Flacc. 84), a grave and intolerable wrong has been done.

2. The most frequent use of the gerundive is with the forms of esse in the Second (or passive) Periphrastic Conjugation (see § 196):—
nōn agitanda rēs erit (Verr. v. 179), will not the thing have to be agitated?

3. The neuter gerundive of both transitive and intransitive verbs may be used impersonally in the second periphrastic conjugation.

With verbs that take the dative or ablative, an object may be expressed in the appropriate case; with transitive verbs, an object in the accusative is sometimes found:—
tempori servīendum est (Fam. ix. 7. 2), one must obey the time.
lēgibus pārendum est, the laws must be obeyed.
ūtendum exercītātiōnibus modicis (Cat. M. 30), we must use moderate exercise.
agitandum est vigiliās (Pl. Trin. 809), I have got to stand guard.
via quam nōbis ingrediendum sit (Cat. M. 6), the way we have to enter.
4. After verbs signifying to give, deliver, agree for, have, receive, undertake, demand, a gerundive in agreement with the object is used to express purpose:

redemptor qui columnam illam conduxerat faciendam (Div. ii. 47), the contractor who had undertaken to make that column. [The regular construction with this class of verbs.]

aedem Castoris habuit tuendam (Verr. ii. 1. 150), he had the temple of Castor to take care of.

nāvis atque onera adservanda cūrābat (id. v. 146), he took care that the ships and cargoes should be kept.

GERUND

501. The Gerund is the neuter of the Gerundive, used substantively in the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative.

502. The Gerund expresses an action of the verb in the form of a verbal noun.

As a noun the gerund is itself governed by other words; as a verb it may take an object in the proper case:

ars bene disserendi et vera ac falsa āuādīcandi (De Or. ii. 157), the art of discoursing well, and distinguishing the true and the false.

Note.—The Nominative of the gerund is supplied by the Infinitive. Thus in the example above, the verbal nouns discoursing and distinguishing, if used in the nominative, would be expressed by the infinitives disserere and diūdicāre.

The Gerund is the neuter of the gerundive used impersonally, but retaining the verbal idea sufficiently to govern an object. It may therefore be regarded as a noun (cf. māturātō opus est, § 497. a) with a verbal force (cf. istanc tāctō, p. 240, footnote).

GERUND AND GERUNDIVE

503. When the Gerund would have an object in the Accusative, the Gerundive is generally used instead. The gerundive agrees with its noun, which takes the case that the gerund would have had:

parātiōrēs ad omnia pericula subeunda (B. G. i. 5), readier to undergo all dangers. [Here subeunda agrees with pericula, which is itself governed by ad. The (inadmissible) construction with the gerund would be ad subeundum pericula; ad governing the gerund, and the gerund governing the accusative pericula.] For details, see §§ 504-507.

1 Such verbs are accipiō, adnōtiō, attribūō, condūcō, cūrō, dēnōtō, dēposcō, dō, dividō, dūnō, ēdicō, ēdōcō, fērō, habēō, locō, mandō, obiciō, permittō, petō, pōnō, praebeō, prōpōnō, relinquō, rogō, susticiō, trādō, voveō.

2 The gerundive construction is probably the original one.
Note 1.—In this use the gerund and the gerundive are translated in the same way, but have really a different construction. The gerundive is a passive participle, and agrees with its noun, though in translation we change the voice, just as we may translate vigiliae agitandae sunt (guard must be kept) by I must stand guard.

Note 2.—In the gerundive construction the verbs útor, fruar, etc., are treated like transitive verbs governing the accusative, as they do in early Latin (§ 410. a. n. 1): as, —ad perfuendás voluptátès (Off. i. 25), for enjoying pleasures.

α. The following examples illustrate the parallel constructions of Gerund and Gerundive:

Gen. cōnsilium
{ urbem capiendī
urbis capiendae } a design of taking the city.

Dat. dat operam
{ agrōs colendō
agris colendis } he attends to tilling the fields.

Acc. veniunt ad
{ mihi pārendum
pācem petendam } they come { to obey me.
to seek peace.

Abl. terit tempus
{ scribendō epistulās
scribendīs epistulīs } he spends time in writing letters.

Note 1.—The gerund with a direct object is practically limited to the Genitive and the Ablative (without a preposition); even in these cases the gerundive is commoner.

Note 2.—The gerund or gerundive is often found coordinated with nominal constructions, and sometimes even in apposition with a noun: —

(1) in forō, in cūrā, in amicōrum periculōs propulsandōs (Phil. vii. 7), in the forum, in the senate-house, in defending my friends in jeopardy.

(2) ad rēs diversissimās, pārendum atque imperānūm (Liv. xxi. 4), for the most widely different things, obeying and commanding.

Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive

504. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after nouns or adjectives, either as subjective or objective genitive: —

vivendi finis est optimus (Cat. M. 72), it is the best end of living. [Subjective.]

neque cōnsili habendī neque arma capitendi spatiodatō (B. G. iv. 14), time being given neither for forming plans nor for taking arms. [Objective.]

nōn tam commūtandārum quam évertendārum rērum cupidōs (Off. ii. 3), desirous not so much of changing as of destroying the state. [Objective.]

Note 1.—In these uses the gerund and the gerundive are about equally common.

Note 2.—In a few phrases the Infinitive is used with nouns which ordinarily have the genitive of the gerund or gerundive: as, —tempus est abire, it is time to go.

α. The genitive of the gerund sometimes takes a direct object, especially a neuter pronoun or a neuter adjective used substantively: —

nulla causa iūsta cuiquam esse potest contrā patriam arma capitendi (Phil. ii. 53), no one can have a just cause for taking up arms against his country.

artem vēra ac falsa diūnicandī (De Or. ii. 157), the art of distinguishing true from false.
Note 1. — The genitive of the gerund or gerundive is used (especially in later Latin) as a predicate genitive. When so used it often expresses purpose: —

quae postquam gloriôsa modo neque bellî patrândi cōgnîvit (Iug. 88), when he perceived that these were only brilliant deeds and not likely to end the war.
Aegyptum proficiscitur cōgnoscendae antiquitâtis (Tac. Ann. ii. 59), he sets out for Egypt to study old times.

b. The genitive of the gerund or gerundive with causă or gratiā expresses purpose (§ 533. b): —

pābulandi aut frîmentandi causă prōgressī (B. C. i. 48), having advanced for the purpose of collecting fodder or supplies.
vitandae suspicionis causă (Cat. i. 19), in order to avoid suspicion.
simulandi grātiā (Iug. 37), in order to deceive.
exercendae memoriâe grātiā (Cat. M. 38), for the sake of training the memory.

c. The genitive of the gerund is occasionally limited by a noun or pronoun (especially a personal pronoun in the plural) in the objective genitive instead of taking a direct object: —

rēiciendī trium iūdicum potestās (Verr. ii. 77), the power of challenging three jurors (of the rejecting of three jurors).
sui colligendi facultās (B. G. iii. 6), the opportunity to recover themselves.

Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive

505. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used in a few expressions after verbs: —

diem praestitit operi faciendō (Verr. ii. 1. 148), he appointed a day for doing the work.
praesesse agrō colendō (Rosc. Am. 50), to take charge of cultivating the land.
esse solvendō, to be able to pay (to be for paying).

Note. — The dative of the gerund with a direct object is never found in classic Latin, but occurs twice in Plautus.

a. The dative of the gerund and gerundive is used after adjectives,² especially those which denote fitness or adaptability: —

genus armōrum aptum tegendis corporibus (Liv. xxxii. 10), a sort of armor suited to the defence of the body.
reliqua tempora dēmetendis fructibus et perciπndīs accommodate sunt (Cat. M. 70), the other seasons are fitted to reap and gather in the harvest.
perferendīs militum mandātis idōneus (Tac. Ann. i. 23), suitable for carrying out the instructions of the soldiers.

Note. — This construction is very common in Livy and later writers, infrequent in classical prose.

1 Such are praesesse, operam dâre, diem dicere, locum capere.
2 Such are accommodâtus, aptus, ineptus, bonus, habilis, idōneus, pār, utīlis, inūtilis. But the accusative with ad is common with most of these (cf. § 385. a).
The dative of the gerund and gerundive is used in certain legal phrases after nouns meaning officers, offices, elections, etc., to indicate the function or scope of the office etc.:—
comitia consilii bus rogandis (Div. i. 33), elections for nominating consuls.
triumviris coloniae deducundis (Iug. 42), a triumvir for planting colonies.
triumviris rei publicae constituendae (title of the Triumvirate), triumvirs (a commission of three) for settling the government.

Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive

506. The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after the preposition ad, to denote Purpose (cf. § 533):—
me vocâs ad scribendum (Or. 34), you summon me to write.
vivis non ad depôndam sed ad confirmandam audaciam (Cat. i. 4), you live not to put off but to confirm your daring.
nactus aditâs ad ea cōnandâ (B. C. i. 31), having found means to undertake these things.

Note 1.—Other prepositions appear in this construction; inter and ob a few times, circa, in, ante, and a few others very rarely: as, inter agendum (Ecl. ix. 24), while driving.

Note 2.—The Accusative of the gerund with a preposition never takes a direct object in classic Latin.

Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive

507. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used (1) to express manner,1 means, cause, etc.; (2) after Comparatives; and (3) after the prepositions ab, de, ex, in, and (rarely) pró:—
(1) multa pollicendû persuâdet (Iug. 40), he persuades by large promises.
Latinû loquendû cuvis pâr (Brut. 128), equal to any man in speaking Latin.
his ipsis legendûs (Cat. M. 21), by reading these very things.
obscûram atque humilem conciendû ad sé multitudinem (Liv. i. 8), calling to them a mean and obscure multitude.
(2) nûllum officiûm referendû gràtiû magis necessàriûm est (Off. i. 47), no duty is more important than repaying favors.
(3) in re gerendû versâri (Cat. M. 17), to be employed in conducting affairs.

Note 1.—The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is also very rarely used with verbs and adjectives: as, — nec continuando abstitit magistratu (Liv. ix. 34), he did not desist from continuing his magistracy.

Note 2.—The ablative of the gerund rarely takes a direct object in classic prose.

1 In this use the ablative of the gerund is, in later writers nearly, and in medieval writers entirely, equivalent to a present participle: as, — cum ùna dierum plendû sedisset, quidam miles generosûs iuxtû cem equitandum venit (Gesta Romanorum, 66 [58]), as one day she sat weeping, a certain knight came riding by (compare § 507, fourth example). Hence come the Italian and Spanish forms of the present participle (as mandando, esperando), the true participial form becoming an adjective in those languages.
SUPINE

508. The Supine is a verbal abstract of the fourth declension (§ 94, b), having no distinction of tense or person, and limited to two uses. (1) The form in -um is the Accusative of the end of motion (§ 429, 4). (2) The form in -ā is usually Dative of purpose (§ 382), but the Ablative was early confused with it.

509. The Supine in -um is used after verbs of motion to express purpose. It may take an object in the proper case: —

quid est, imusne sessum? est adhæmitum veniamus te, non flagitatum (De Or. iii. 17), how now, shall we be seated? though we have come to remind, not to entreat you.

nuptum dare (collocare), to give in marriage.

venerunt questum iniurias (Liv. iii. 25), they came to complain of wrongs.

Note 1.—The supine in -um is especially common with eo, and with the passive infinitive ēr forms the future infinitive passive: —

fuére civés qui rem públicam perdìtum ērent (Sall. Cat. 30), there were citizens who went about to ruin the republic.

si secret se trucidatum ēr (Div. ii. 22), if he (Pompey) had known that he was going to be murdered. [Rare except in Cicero. For the more usual way of expressing the future passive infinitive, see § 369, 3, a.]

Note 2.—The supine in -um is occasionally used when motion is merely implied.

510. The Supine in -ā¹ is used with a few adjectives and with the nouns fas, nefas, and opus, to denote an action in reference to which the quality is asserted: —

rem non modo visi foedam, sed etiam auditus (Phil. ii. 63), a thing not only shocking to see, but even to hear of.

quireant quid optimum factū sit (Verr. ii. 1, 68), they ask what is best to do. sī hoc fas est dicitā (Fusc. v. 38), if this is lawful to say.

vidētis nefas esse 'ācticā miseram fuisset tālem senectūtem (Cat. M. 13), you see it is a sin to say that such an old age was wretched.

Note 1.—The supine in -ā is thus in appearance an Ablative of Specification (§ 418).

Note 2.—The supine in -ā is found especially with such adjectives as indicate an effect on the senses or the feelings, and those which denote ease, difficulty, and the like. But with faciūs, difficilis, and incéndus, ad with the gerund is more common: —

nec visiā faciūs nec dicitā adfabilis ālē (Aen. iii. 621), he is not pleasant for any man to look at or address.

difficilis ad distinguendum similītūdō (De Or. ii. 212), a likeness difficult to distinguish.

Note 3.—With all these adjectives the poets often use the Infinitive in the same sense: as, — faciūs aurem praebēre (Prop. ii. 21, 15), indulgent to lend an ear.

Note 4.—The supine in -ā with a verb is extremely rare: as, — pudē dictā (Tac. Agr. 32), it is a shame to tell. [On the analogy of pudendum dicitā.]

¹ The only common supines in -ā are audītā, dicitā, factū, inventū, memorātū, nātū, visū. In classic use this supine is found in comparatively few verbs. It is never followed by an object-case.
§ 511. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

511. The Conditional Sentence differs from other complex sentences in this, that the form of the main clause (apodosis) is determined in some degree by the nature of the subordinate clause (protasis) upon the truth of which the whole statement depends. Like all complex sentences, however, the Conditional Sentence has arisen from the use of two independent sentence-forms to express the parts of a thought which was too complicated to be fully expressed by a simple sentence. But because the thoughts thus expressed are in reality closely related, as parts of a single whole, the sentences which represent them are also felt to be mutually dependent, even though the relation is not expressed by any connecting word. Thus, *Speak the word: my servant shall be healed* is a simpler and an earlier form of expression than *If thou speak the word, etc.*

The Conditional Particles were originally pronouns without conditional meaning: thus, *si, if* is a weak demonstrative of the same origin as *sic*, so (*si*-ce like *hi*-ce, see § 215. 5), and had originally the meaning of *in that way, or in some way.* Its relative sense (*if*) seems to come from its use with *sic* to make a pair of correlatives: *thus... thus* (see § 512 b).

In its origin the Conditional Sentence assumed one of two forms. The condition was from the first felt to be a condition, not a fact or a command; but, as no special sentence-form for a condition was in use, it employed for its expression either a statement of *fact* (with the Indicative) or a form of *mild command* (the Subjunctive). From the former have come all the uses of the Indicative in protasis; from the latter all the uses of the Subjunctive in protasis. The Apodosis has either (1) the Indicative, expressing the conclusion as *a fact*, and the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, expressing it originally as *future*—and hence more or less *doubtful*—or (2) the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive expressing it as *futūrum in praeteritō,*1 and so *unfulfilled* in the present or past. Thus,—*ridēs, māiōre cachinnō concutitur, you laugh, he shakes with more boisterous laughter,* is the original form for the Indicative in protasis and apodosis; *si ridēs* originally means *merely you laugh in some way or other,* and so, later, *if you laugh.* So *rogēs Aristōncem, neget, ask Aristo, he would say no,* is the original form of the subjunctive in protasis and apodosis; *si rogēs* would mean *ask in some way or other.* In *si regāres, negāret,* the Imperfect *rogāres* transfers the command of *rogēs* to past time,2 with the meaning *suppose you had asked,* and *si* would have the same meaning as before; while *negāret* transfers the future idea of *neget* to past time, and means *he was going to deny.* Now the stating of this supposition at all gives rise to the implication that it is *untrue in point of fact,—* because, if it were true, there would ordinarily be no need to state it as a supposition: for it would then be a simple *fact,* and as such would be put in the indicative.3 Such a condition or conclusion

1 The *futūrum in praeteritō* is a tense *future relatively to a time absolutely past.* It denotes a future act transferred to the point of view of past time, and hence is naturally expressed by a past tense of the Subjunctive: thus *dixisset, he would have said—dictāre fuit, he was about to say* [but did not]. As that which looks towards the future from some point in the past has a natural limit in present time, such a tense (the imperfect subjunctive) came naturally to be used to express a *present condition* purely ideal, that is to say, contrary to fact.

2 Compare *petitus diceret, he should rather have said* (§ 439. b).

3 There are, however, some cases in which this implication does not arise: as,—*decēns centēnae esseās, nil erat in locis* (Hor. S. i. 3. 15), *if you’d given him a million, there was nothing in his coffers.*
(originally past, meaning suppose you had asked [yesterday], he was going to deny) came to express an unfulfilled condition in the present; suppose (or if) you were now asking, he would [now] deny—just as in English ought, which originally meant owed, has come to express a present obligation.

For the classification of Conditional Sentences, see § 513.

PROTASIS AND APODOsis

512. A complete Conditional Sentence consists of two clauses, the Protasis and the Apodosis.

The clause containing the condition is called the Protasis; the clause containing the conclusion is called the Apodosis:—

si qui exire voluerit [protasis], cōnīvere possum [apodosis] (Cat. ii. 27), if any wish to depart, I can keep my eyes shut.

si est in exsilii [protasis], quid amplius postulātis [apodosis] (Lig. 13), if he is in exile, what more do you ask?

It should be carefully noted that the Apodosis is the main clause and the Protasis the dependent clause.

a. The Protasis is regularly introduced by the conditional particle si, if, or one of its compounds.

Note.—These compounds are sin, nisi, etiam si, etsi, tametsi, tamenetsi (see Conditional and Concessive Particles, p. 138). An Indefinite Relative, or any relative or concessive word, may also serve to introduce a conditional clause: see Conditional Relative Clauses (§§ 519, 542); Concessive Clauses (§ 521).

b. The Apodosis is often introduced by some correlative word or phrase: as, ita, tum (rarely sic), or eā condicionē etc.:—

ita enim senectūs honesta est, si sē ipsa defendit (Cat. M. 38), on this condition is old age honorable, if it defends itself.

si quidem me amāret, tum istuc prōdesset (Ter. Enu. 446), if he loved me, then this would be profitable.

sic scribēs aliquid, si vacābis (Att. xii. 38. 2), if you are (shall be) at leisure, then you will write something.

c. The Apodosis is the principal clause of the conditional sentence, but may at the same time be subordinate to some other clause, and so appear in the form of a Participle, an Infinitive, or a Phrase:—

sepultūrā quoque prohibītūrī, ni rēx humāri inssisset (Q. C. viii. 2. 12), intending also to deprive him of burial, unless the king had ordered him to be interred.

1 "There was a certain lender which ought him five hundred pieces."—Tyndale’s New Testament.
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quod si praeterea nemo sequatur, tamen se cum sola decima legione iturum [esse] (B. G. i. 40. 14), but if no one else should follow, he would go with the tenth legion alone.

si quos adversum proelium commoveret, hos reperire posse (id. 40. 8), if the loss of a battle alarmed any, they might find, etc.

Note. — When the Apodosis itself is in Indirect Discourse, or in any other dependent construction, the verb of the Protasis is regularly in the Subjunctive (as in the above examples, see § 589).

CLASSIFICATION OF CONDITIONS

513. Conditions are either (1) Particular or (2) General.

1. A Particular Condition refers to a definite act or series of acts occurring at some definite time.

2. A General Condition refers to any one of a class of acts which may occur (or may have occurred) at any time.

514. The principal or typical forms of Conditional Sentences may be exhibited as follows: —

PARTICULAR CONDITIONS

A. SIMPLE CONDITIONS (nothing implied as to fulfilment).

1. Present Time

Present Indicative in both clauses: —

si adest, bene est, if he is [now] here, it is well.

2. Past Time

Imperfect or Perfect Indicative in both clauses: —

si aderat, bene erat, if he was [then] here, it was well.

si adfuit, bene fuit, if he has been [was] here, it has been [was] well.

B. FUTURE CONDITIONS (as yet unfulfilled)

1. More Vivid

a. Future Indicative in both clauses: —

si aderit, bene erit, if he is (shall be) here, it will be well.

b. Future Perfect Indicative in protasis, Future Indicative in apodosis: —

si adfuerit, bene erit, if he is (shall have been) here, it will [then] be well.
2. Less Vivid

a. Present Subjunctive in both clauses:—

si adsit, bene sit, *if he should be (or were to be) here, it would be well.*

b. Perfect Subjunctive in protasis, Present Subjunctive in apodosis:—

si adfuerit, bene sit, *if he should be (should have been) here, it would [then] be well.*

C. CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT

1. Present Time

Imperfect Subjunctive in both clauses:—

si adesset, bene esset, *if he were [now] here, it would be well (but he is not here).*

2. Past Time

Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses:—

si adfuissest, bene fuisset, *if he had [then] been here, it would have been well (but he was not here).*

Note.—The use of tenses in Protasis is very loose in English. Thus *if he is alive now* is a present condition, to be expressed in Latin by the Present Indicative; *if he is alive next year* is a future condition, expressed in Latin by the Future Indicative. Again, *if he were here now* is a present condition contrary to fact, and would be expressed by the Imperfect Subjunctive; *if he were to see me thus* is a future condition less vivid, to be expressed by the Present Subjunctive; and so too, *if you advised him, he would attend may be future less vivid.*

D. GENERAL CONDITIONS

General Conditions do not usually differ in form from Particular Conditions (*A, B, and C*), but are sometimes distinguished in the cases following:—

1. Present General Condition (Indefinite Time)

a. Present Subjunctive second person singular (Indefinite Subject) in protasis, Present Indicative in apodosis:—

si hoc dicás, créditur, *if any one [ever] says this, it is [always] believed.*

b. Perfect Indicative in protasis, Present Indicative in apodosis:

si quid dixit, créditur, *if he [ever] says anything, it is [always] believed.*

1 In most English verbs the Preterite (or Past) Subjunctive is identical in form with the Preterite Indicative. Thus in such a sentence as *if he loved his father, he would not say this*, the verb loved is really a Preterite Subjunctive, though this does not appear from the inflection. In the verb to be, however, the Subjunctive were has been preserved and differs in form from the indicative was.
2. Past General Condition (Repeated Action in Past Time)

a. Pluperfect Indicative in protasis, Imperfect Indicative in apodosis:

si quid dixerat, crédēbātur, if he [ever] said anything, it was [always] believed.

b. Imperfect Subjunctive in protasis, Imperfect Indicative in apodosis:

si quid diceret, crédēbātur, if he [ever] said anything, it was [always] believed (= whatever he said was always believed). ¹

PARTICULAR CONDITIONS

Simple Present and Past Conditions — Nothing Implied

515. In the statement of Present and Past conditions whose falsity is not implied, the Present and Past tenses of the Indicative are used in both Protasis and Apodosis:

si tū exercitusque valētis, bene est (Fam. v. 2), if you and the army are well, it is well. [Present Condition.]

haec igitur, si Rōmæ es; sin abes, aut etiam si ades, haec negōtia sic sec habent (Att. v. 18), this, then, if you are at Rome; but if you are away — or even if you are there — these matters are as follows. [Present Condition.]

si Caesarem probātis, in mē offenditis (B. C. ii. 82. 10), if you favor Caesar, you find fault with me. [Present Condition.]

si qui māgnis ingenii in eō genere existitērunt, non satis Graecōrum gloriæ respondērunt (Tusc. i. 3), if any have shown themselves of great genius in that department, they have failed to compete with the glory of the Greeks. [Past General Condition, not distinguished in form from Particular.]

accepī Rōmā sine epistolā tuā fasciculum litterārum in quo, si modo valuisti et Rōmæ fuisti, Philotīni dūcē esse culpam nōn tuam (Att. v. 17), I have received from Rome a bundle of letters without any from you, which, provided you have been well and at Rome, I take to be the fault of Philotinus, not yours. [Mixed: Past condition and Present conclusion.]

quās litterās, si Rōmæ es, vidēbis putēsne reddendās (id. v. 18), as to this letter, if you are at Rome, you will see whether in your opinion it ought to be delivered. [Mixed: Present and Future.]

si nēmō impetrāvit, adrograntem rogō (Lig. 30), if no one has succeeded in obtaining it, my request is presumpτious. [Past and Present.]

¹ Cf. the Greek forms corresponding to the various types of conditions: --

A. 1. ei πράσσει τὸῦτο, καλῶς ἔχει. 2. ei ἔπρασσε τὸῦτο, καλῶς ἔχειν.

B. 1. εἶν πράσσῃ τὸῦτο, καλῶς ἔγει. 2. εἰ πράσσει τὸῦτο, καλῶς ἀν ἔχει.

C. 1. ei ἔπρασσε τὸῦτο, καλῶς ἄν ἔχειν. 2. ei ἔπραξε τὸῦτο, καλῶς ἄν ἔσχεν.

D. 1. εἶν τίς κλέπτῃ, κολάζεται. 2. εἴ τίς κλέπτῃ, κολάζετο.
a. In these conditions the apodosis need not always be in the Indicative, but may assume any form, according to the sense: —

si placet . . . videámus (Cat. M. 15), if you please, let us see. [Hortatory Subjunctive, § 438.]
si nóndum satis cernitis, recordámini (Mil. 61), if you do not yet see clearly, recollect. [Imperative.]
si quid habēs certius, velim scire (Att. iv. 10), if you have any trustworthy information, I should like to know it. [Subjunctive of Modesty, § 447. 1.]

Note. — Although the form of these conditions does not imply anything as to the truth of the supposition, the sense or the context may of course have some such implication: —

nōlīte, si in nostro omnium fīētā nūllam lacrimām aspexitis Milonis, hoc minus eī pare (Mil. 98), do not, if amid the weeping of us all you have seen no tear [in the eyes] of Milo, spare him the less for that.

petimus à vōbis, iūndēs, si qua divīna in tantās ingenīs commendātās dēbet esse, ut cum in vestram accipiatis fidem (Arch. 31), we ask you, judges, if there ought to be anything in such genius to recommend it to us as by a recommendation of the gods, that you receive him under your protection.

In these two passages, the protasis really expresses cause: but the cause is put by the speaker in the form of a non-committal condition. His hearers are to draw the inference for themselves. In this way the desired impression is made on their minds more effectively than if an outspoken causal clause had been used.

Future Conditions

516. Future Conditions may be more vivid or less vivid.

1. In a more vivid future condition the protasis makes a distinct supposition of a future case, the apodosis expressing what will be the logical result.

2. In a less vivid future condition, the supposition is less distinct, the apodosis expressing what would be the result in the case supposed.

a. In the more vivid future condition the Future Indicative is used in both protasis and apodosis: —

sánābimur, si volēmus (Tusc. iii. 18), we shall be healed if we wish.
quod sī legere aut audire vōlēitis, . . . repēritās (Cat. M. 20), if you will [shall wish to] read or hear, you will find.

Note. — In English the protasis is usually e.xpressed by the Present Indicative, rarely by the Future with shall. Often in Latin the Present Indicative is found in the protasis of a condition of this kind (cf. § 468): —

si vincimus, omnia nōbis tīta erunt; si manū cesserimus, eadem illa adversa sīent (Sull. Cat. 58), if we conquer, all things will be safe for us; but if we yield through fear, those same things will become hostile.
si perēs, hominum manibus perisse iuβăbit (Aen. iii. 606), if I perish, it will be pleasant to have perished at the hands of men.
b. In the **less vivid** future condition the Present Subjunctive is used in both protasis and apodosis:

*haec si tunc patria loquatur, nonne impetrare deberet* (Cat. i. 19), *if your country should speak with you, ought she not to prevail?*
*quod si quis deus mihi largiatur, . . . valde recuset* (Cat. M. 83), *but if some god were to grant me this, I should stoutly refuse.*

**Note.** — The Present Subjunctive sometimes stands in protasis with the Future (or the Present) Indicative in apodosis from a change in the point of view: —

*sic diligenter attendamus, intellegemus* (Inv. ii. 41), *if we attend (should attend) carefully, we shall understand.*
*nisi hic dicat, "iure feci," non habet defensionem* (id. i. 18), *unless he should say this, "I acted justifiably," he has no defence.*

c. If the conditional act is regarded as **completed** before that of the apodosis begins, the Future Perfect is substituted for the Future Indicative in protasis, and the Perfect Subjunctive for the Present Subjunctive:

*sin cum poterit non venerit, tum erit minucus* (Att. ix. 2 x. 2), *but if I do not come when I can, he will be unfriendly.*
*si a coronâ relicta sim, non quacum dicere* (Brut. 192), *if I should be deserted by the circle of listeners, I should not be able to speak.*

**Note.** — The Future Perfect is often used in the apodosis of a future condition: —

*as, —vehementer misi gratum feceris, si hunc adolescentem humanitate tuæ comprehendideris* (Pam. xiii. 15), *you will do (will have done) me a great favor, if you receive this young man with your usual courtesy.*

d. Any form denoting or implying future time may stand in the apodosis of a future condition. So the Imperative, the participles in **-dus and -rus**, and verbs of **necessity, possibility**, and the like: —

*alius finis constituendus est, si prius quid maximé reprehenderes Scipio solitus sit dixerat* (Lael. 59), *another limit must be set, if I first state what Scipio was wont most to find fault with.*
*si me praecipserit fatum, vís mandássesse mementó* (Q. C. ix. 6. 26), *if fate cuts me off too soon, do you remember that I ordered this.*
*nisi oculis visitátis insidias Milóni à Clodio factás, nec deprecáturí sumus nec postuláturí* (Mil. 6), *unless you see with your own eyes the plots laid against Milo by Clodius, I shall neither beg nor demand, etc.*
*nón possúm istum accusare, si cupidam* (Verr. iv. 87), *I cannot accuse him, if I should (so) desire.*

1 It often depends entirely upon the view of the writer at the moment, and not upon the nature of the condition, whether it shall be stated vividly or not; as in the proverbial "If the sky falls, we shall catch larks" the impossible condition is ironically put in the vivid form, to illustrate the absurdity of some other supposed condition stated by some one else.
e. Rarely the Perfect Indicative is used in apodosis with a Present or even a Future (or Future Perfect) in protasis, to represent the conclusion rhetorically as already accomplished: —

si hoc bene fixum in animō est, vicistis (Liv. xxi. 44), if this is well fixed in your minds, you have conquered. [For you will have conquered.]
si eundem [animum] habueritis, vicimus (id. xxi. 43), if you shall have kept the same spirit, we have conquered.

f. A future condition is frequently thrown back into past time, without implying that it is contrary to fact (§ 517). In such cases the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive may be used: —

nōn poterat, nisi dēcertāre vellet (B. C. iii. 44), he was not able, unless he wished to fight.
tumulus appāruit, ... si lūce palam īrētur hostis praeventūrus erat (Liv. xxii. 24), a hill appeared ... if they should go openly by daylight, the enemy would prevent. [The first two appear like Indirect Discourse, but are not. An observer describing the situation in the first example as present would say nōn potest nisi velit (see d), and no indirect discourse would be thought of.]

Caesar si pēteret, ... nōn quicquam prōficēret (Hor. S. i. 3. 4), if even Cæsar were to ask, he would gain nothing. [Here the construction is not contrary to fact, but is simply sī pētat, nōn prōficiat, thrown into past time.]

Conditions Contrary to Fact

517. In the statement of a supposition impliedly false, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in both protasis and apodosis. The Imperfect refers to present time, the Pluperfect to past: —

sī vīveret, verba ēius audīrētis (Rosc. Com. 42), if he were living, you would hear his words. [Present.]
nisi tū āmisisset, numquam recēpisset (Cat. M. 11), unless you had lost it, I should not have recovered it. [Past.]
sī meum cōnsilium valūisset, tū hodie egérēs, rēs pūblīca nōn tot ducēs āmisisset (Phil. ii. 37), if my judgment had prevailed [as it did not], you would this day be a beggar, and the republic would not have lost so many leaders. [Mixed Present and Past.]

1 The implication of falsity, in this construction, is not inherent in the subjunctive; but comes from the transfer of a future condition to past time. Thus the time for the happening of the condition has, at the moment of writing, already passed; so that, if the condition remains a condition, it must be contrary to fact. So past forms of the indicative implying a future frequently take the place of the subjunctive in apodosis in this construction (see e, d, below, and § 511).
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a. In conditions contrary to fact the Imperfect often refers to past time, both in protasis and apodosis, especially when a repeated or continued action is denoted, or when the condition if true would still exist:

si nihil litteris adiuvárentur, nunquam sē ad earum studium contulissent (Arch. 18), if they had not been helped at all by literature, they never would have given their attention to the study of it. [Without the condition, adiuvābantur.]

hic si mentis esset sua, ausus esset ēducere exercitum (Pison. 50), if he were of sane mind, would he have dared to lead out the army? [Here esset denotes a continued state, past as well as present.]

nōn concidisset, nisi illud receptāculum classibus nostrīs pateret (Verr. ii. 3), [the power of Carthage] would not have fallen, unless that station had been [constantly] open to our fleets. [Without the condition, patēbat.]

b. In the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact the past tenses of the Indicative may be used to express what was intended, or likely, or already begun. In this use, the Imperfect Indicative corresponds in time to the Imperfect Subjunctive, and the Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative to the Pluperfect Subjunctive:

si lievitum esset, mātrēs veniēbant (Verr. v. 129), the mothers were coming if it had been allowed.

in amplexās filiae ruēbat, nisi lictorēs obstīsissent (Tac. Ann. xvi. 32), he was about rushing into his daughter’s arms, unless the lictors had opposed.

iam tūta teōbant, nē gēns crūdēlis ferrō invāsisset (Aen. vi. 358), I was just reaching a place of safety, had not the fierce people attacked me.

Note 1. — Here the apodosis may be regarded as elliptical. Thus, — mātrēs veniēbant (et vēnisissent), the matrons were coming (and would have kept on) if, etc.

Note 2. — With pāne (and sometimes prope), almost, the Perfect Indicative is used in the apodosis of a past condition contrary to fact: as, — pōns iter pāne hostibus dēavit, nī ūnus vir fuissest (Liv. ii. 10), the bridge had almost given a passage to the foe, if it had not been for one hero.

c. Verbs and other expressions denoting necessity, propriety, possibility, duty, when used in the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact, may be put in the Imperfect or Perfect Indicative.

Such are oportet, decet, dēbēū, possum, necesse est, opus est, and the Second Periphrastic Conjugation: —

nōn potuit fieri sapiēns, nisi nātus esset (Fin. ii. 108), he could not have become a sage, if he had not been born.

si privātus esset hoc tempore, tamen erat dēligendus (Manil. 50), if he were at this time a private citizen, yet he ought to be appointed.

1 Observe that all these expressions contain the idea of futurity (cf. p. 328, footnote). Thus, decet mē [hodie] ire crās, means it is proper for me [to-day] to go to-morrow; and, dēcēbat mē [heri] ire hodie, it was proper for me [yesterday] to go to-day, usually with the implication that I have not gone as I was bound to do.
quod esse caput dēbēbat, sī probāri posset (Fin. iv. 23), what ought to be the
main point, if it could be proved.
sī ita putāsset, certē optābilius Milōni fuit (Mil. 31), if he had thought so, surely
it would have been preferable for Milo.

Note 1.—In Present conditions the Imperfect Subjunctive ( opportet, possem, etc.)
is the rule, the Indicative being rare; in Past conditions both the Subjunctive (usually
Pluperfect) and the Indicative (usually Perfect) are common.

For pār erat, melius fuit, and the like, followed by the infinitive, see § 521. n.

Note 2.—The indicative construction is carried still farther in poetry: as,—sī
non alium inācertēt odōrem, haurus erat (Georg. ii. 133), it were a laurel, but for giving
out a different odor.

d. The participle in -ūrus with eram or fui may take the place of
an Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the apodosis of a condition
contrary to fact:—

quid enim futūrum fuit [fuscisset], sī . . . (Liv. ii. 1), what would have hap-
pened if, etc.
relictūri agrōs erant, nisi ad cōs Metellus litterās misisset (Verr. iii. 121), they
would have abandoned their fields, if Metellus had not sent them a letter.
neque ambiguitur quia . . . id factūrus fuerit, sī . . . (Liv. ii. 1), nor is there
any question that he would have done it, if, etc. [Direct: fсisisset.]
adesō parātā sēdiō fuit ut Othōnem raptūri fuerint, nī incerta noctis timuit-
sent (Tac. ii. 26), so far advanced was the conspiracy that they would
have seized upon Otho, had they not feared the hazards of the night. [In
a main clause: rapuisissent, nī timuisissent.]

e. The Present Subjunctive is sometimes used in poetry in the
protasis and apodosis of conditions contrary to fact:—

nī comes acmonēat, inuat (Aen. vi. 293), had not his companion warned him,
he would have rushed on. [Cf. tū sī hic sis, aliter sentiēs (Ter. And. 319),
if you were in my place, you would think differently.]

Note 1.—This is probably a remnant of an old construction (see next note).

Note 2.—In old Latin the Present Subjunctive (as well as the Imperfect) is used
in present conditions contrary to fact and the Imperfect (more rarely the Pluperfect)
in past conditions of the same kind. Thus it appears that the Imperfect Subjunctive,
like the Imperfect Indicative, once denoted past time, even in conditional sentences.
Gradually, however, in conditional sentences, the Present Subjunctive was restricted
to the less vivid future and the Imperfect (in the main) to the present contrary to fact,
while the Pluperfect was used in past conditions of this nature. The old construction,
however, seems to have been retained as an archaism in poetry.

f. In Plautus and Terence absque mē (tē, etc.) is sometimes used to
introduce conditions contrary to fact:—

absque tē esset, hodie musquam vīverem (Pl. Men. 1022), if it were not for
you, I should not be alive to-day.
absque éō esset, rectē ego mihi vīdissem (Ter. Ph. 158), if it had not been for
him, I should have looked out for myself.
GENERAL CONDITIONS

518. General Conditions (§ 513. 2) have usually the same forms as Particular Conditions. But they are sometimes distinguished in the following cases: —

a. The Subjunctive is often used in the second person singular, to denote the act of an indefinite subject (you = any one). Here the Present Indicative of a general truth may stand in the apodosis: —

vitā humānā prope utī fērunt est: si exerēs, constiterit; si nōn exerēs, tamen rōbīgō interficit (Cato de M.), human life is very like iron: if you use it, it wears away; if you don’t use it, rust still destroys it.

virtūtem necessāriō gloria, etiam si nōn agēs, consequitor (Tusc. i. 91), glory necessarily follows virtue, even if that is not one’s aim.

si prohibita impūne trānscederis, neque metus ultrā neque pudor est (Tac. Ann. iii. 54), if you once overstep the bounds with impunity, there is no fear or shame any more.

b. In a general condition in present time, the protasis often takes the Perfect Indicative, and the apodosis the Present Indicative. For past time, the Pluperfect is used in the protasis, and the Imperfect in the apodosis: —

si quōs aliquā parte membrōrum inūtīs nōtāvērunt, necāri iūbēnt (Q. C. ix. 1. 25), if they [ever] mark any infirm in any part of their limbs, they [always] order them to be put to death. [Present.]

si a perseverāndo hostis dētērēre nequīverant, ab tērgō circūmveniēbant (Ing. 50), if [ever] they were unable to prevent the enemy from pursuing, they [always] surrounded them in the rear. [Past.]

c. In later writers (rarely in Cicero and Caesar), the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in protasis, with the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis, to state a repeated or customary action in past time (Iterative Subjunctive): —

si quis à dominō prehenderēt, concatenā militūm ēripīēbatūr (B. C. iii. 116), if any (runaway) was arrested by his master, he was (always) rescued by a mob of soldiers.

accusātōres, si facultās inciderēt, poenīs adiēbantūr (Tac. Ann. vi. 30), the accusers, whenever opportunity offered, were visited with punishment.

si quis collegām appelleāset, ab eō īa discēdēbat; ut paeitēret nōn priōris dēreō stetisse (Liv. iii. 36. 8), if any one appealed to a colleague, he [always] came off in such case that he repented not having submitted to the decree of the former decemvir. [Cf. Sōcratēs, quam sē cūmque in partem dedisse, omnium fuit facie principēs (De Or. iii. 69), in whatever direction Socrates turned himself, he was (always) easily the foremost (if in any, etc.).]
Conditional Relative Clauses

519. A clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb may express a condition and take any of the constructions of Protasis\(^1\) (§ 514):

- qui enim vitiiis modum adpónit, is partem suscipit vitiorum (Tusc. iv. 42), he who [only] sets a limit to faults, takes up the side of the faults. [\(=\) sī quis adpónit. Present, nothing implied.]
- qui mentiri solet, pēierāre cōnsūevit (Rosc. Com. 46), whoever is in the habit of lying, is accustomed to swear falsely. [\(=\) sī quis solet. Present, nothing implied.]
- quicquid potuit, potuit ipsa per sē (Leg. Agv. i. 20), whatever power she had, she had by herself. [\(=\) sī quid potuit. Past, nothing implied.]
- quod qui faciet, non aegritūdine sōlum vacābit, sed, etc. (Tusc. iv. 38), and he who does (shall do) this, will be free not only, etc. [\(=\) sī quis faciet. Future, more vivid.]
- quisquīs húc vēnerit, vāpulābit (Pl. Am. 309), whoever comes here shall get a thrashing. [\(=\) sī quis vēnerit. Future, more vivid.]
- quō volēs, sequar (Clu. 71), whithersoever you wish (shall wish), I will follow. [\(=\) sī quō volēs. Future, more vivid.]
- philosophia, cui qui pāreart, omne tempus actātissine molestiā possit dēgere(Cat. M. 2), philosophy, which if any one should obey, he would be able to spend his whole life without vacation. [\(=\) sī quis pāreart. Future, less vivid.]
- quaecumque vós causa húc attulisset, laetārer (De Or. ii. 15), I should be glad, whatever cause had brought you here (i.e. if any other, as well as the one which did). [\(=\) sī ... attulisset. Contrary to fact.]

The relative in this construction is always indefinite in meaning, and very often in form.

520. The special constructions of General Conditions are sometimes found in Conditional Relative Clauses:

1. The Second Person Singular of the Subjunctive in the protasis with the Indicative of a general truth in the apodosis (§ 518. a):

- bonus tantum modo sēgnior fit ubi neglegās, at malus improbior (Iug. 31. 28), a good man merely becomes less diligent when you don't watch him, but a bad man becomes more shameless. [Present General Condition.]

2. The Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative in the protasis and the Present or Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 518. b):

- cum huc vēni, hoc ipsum nihil agere mē dēetectat (De Or. ii. 24), whenever I come here, this very doing nothing delights me (whenever I have come, etc.). [Present General Condition.]

\(^1\) As in the Greek \(\text{	extalpha v}\), \(\text{	exteta r}\), etc.; and in statutes in English, where the phrases if any person shall and whoever shall are used indifferently.
cum rosam viderat, tum incipere ver arbitrabatur (Verr. v. 27), whenever he saw (had seen) a rose, then he thought spring was beginning. [Past General Condition.]

3. In later writers (rarely in Cicero and Caesar) the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the protasis and the Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 518. c): —

ubi imbécillitás materiae postulare videretur, pilae interpōnuntur (B. C. ii. 16), wherever the weakness of the timber seemed to require, piles were put between. [Past General Condition: interpōnuntur = interpōnēbantur.]
quōcumque sé intulisset, victoriam sēcum trahēbat (Liv. vi. 8), wherever he advanced, he carried victory with him. [Past General Condition.]

Condition Disguised

521. In many sentences properly conditional, the Protasis is not expressed by a conditional clause, but is stated in some other form of words or implied in the nature of the thought.

α. The condition may be implied in a Clause, or in a Participle, Noun, Adverb, or some other word or phrase: —

facile me paterer — illō ipsī iūdice quaerente — prō Sex. Rōscior dicere (Rosc. Am. 85), I should readily allow myself to speak for Roscius if that very judge were conducting the trial. [Present contrary to fact: si quaereret, paterer.]
nōn mihi, nisi admonētō, vēnisset in mentem (De Or. ii. 180), it would not have come into my mind unless [I had been] reminded. [Past contrary to fact: nisi admonētus esset.]
nūlla alia gens tantā mole clādis nōn obrūta esset (Liv. xxii. 54), there is no other people that would not have been crushed by such a weight of disaster. [Past contrary to fact: si alia fūisset.]
nēmō unquam sine māgnā spē immortalitātis sē prō patriā offerret ad mortem (Tusc. i. 32), no one, without great hope of immortality, would ever expose himself to death for his country. [Present contrary to fact: nisi māgnam spem habēret.]

quid hunc paucōrum annōrum accessió iuvāre potuisset (Lael. 11), what good could the addition of a few years have done him (if they had been added)? [Past contrary to fact: si accessissent.]

quid igitur mihi ferārum laniātus obèrit nihil sentiēnti (Tusc. i. 104), what harm will the mangling by wild beasts do me if I don’t feel anything (feeling nothing)? [Future more vivid: si nihil sentiām.]

incitāta semel prōclivi lābuntur sustinērique nūlō modō possunt (id. iv. 42), if once given a push, they slide down rapidly and can in no way be checked. [Present General: si incitāta sunt.]
NOTE. — In several phrases denoting *necessity, propriety, or the like, the Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect Indicative of esse is used in the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact, the protasis being implied in a subject infinitive (cf. 517. c): —
quanquam melius fuerat prōmissum nōn esse servātum (Off. iii. 94), how much better would it have been if the promise had not been kept! [prōmissum ...
serōvātum = si prōmissum nōn esse servātum.]

mori praelārum fuit (Att. viii. 2. 2), it would have been honorable to die.

sed erat acquis Titārinum aliquid dē dissōlūione nostrā iūdicāre (Fin. ii. 119), but it would be more equitable if Titarius passed judgment on our dispute. [Titārinum iūdicāre = si Titarius iūdicāret.]
satisfuit admittere mīlitēs (Inv. ii. 73), it would have been better to lose the soldiers. [admittere = si amisset.]

b. The condition may be contained in a wish (Optative Subjunctive), or expressed as an exhortation or command (Hortatory Subjunctive or Imperative): —

utinam quidem fuissem! molestus nōbis nōn esset (Fam. xii. 3), I wish I had been [chief]: he would not now be troubling us (i.e. if I had been). [Optative Subjunctive.]

nāturām expellās furcā, tamen ūsque recursēt (Hor. Ep. i. 10. 24), drive out nature with a pitchfork, still she will ever return. [Hortatory.]

regēs enim Aristōnem, neget (Fin. iv. 69), for ask Aristoc, he would deny.

manent ingenia senibus, modo permanēat studium et industria (Cat. M. 22),
old men keep their mental powers, only let them keep their zeal and diligence (§ 528. n.). [Hortatory.]

tolle hanc opinionem, lūctum sustuleris (Tusc. i. 30), remove this notion, and
you will have done away with grief. [Imperative.]

NOTE. — The so-called Concessive Subjunctive with at and nē often has the force of protasis (§ 527. a. n.): as, — ut enim ražōnem Plātō nullum adferret, ipsa auctōritāte nē frangeret (Tusc. i. 49), even if Plate gave no reasons, [still] he would overpower me by his mere authority.

c. Rarely the condition takes the form of an independent clause:

ridēs: māiore cachinō concētūrītur (Inv. iii. 100), you laugh; he shakes with louder laughter (= if you laugh, he shakes).

commovē: sentēs (Tusc. iv. 54), stir him up, [and] you'll find, etc.

dē paupertāte agitur: multē patientēs pauperēs commemorantur (id. iii. 57),
we speak of poverty; many patient poor are mentioned.

For Conditional Relative Clauses, see §§ 519, 520.

Condition Omitted

522. The Protasis is often wholly omitted, but may be inferred from the course of the argument: —
poterat Sextīlius impunē negāre: quis enim redargueret (Fin. ii. 55), Sextilius might have denied with impunity; for who would prove him wrong (if he had denied)?
**Complex Conditions**

523. Either the Protasis or the Apodosis may be a complex idea in which the main statement is made with expressed or implied qualifications. In such cases the true logical relation of the parts is sometimes disguised:

si quis hœrum dixisset . . . si verbum dē rē pública fēcisset . . . multa plūra dixisse quam dixisset putārētur (Rosc. Am. 2), if any of these had spoken, in case he had said a word about politics he would be thought to have said much more than he did say. [Here the apodosis of dixissent is the whole of the following statement (si . . . putārētur), which is itself conditioned by a protasis of its own: si verbum, etc.].

quod si in hœc mundō fieri sine déō nōn potest, nē in sphærā quidem ēsdem mōtās sine divinō ingeniō potuisset imitāri (Tusc. i. 63), now if that cannot be done in this universe without divine agency, no more could [Archimeodes] in his orrery have imitated the same revolutions without divine genius. [Here si potest (a protasis with nothing implied) has for its apodosis the whole clause which follows, but potuisset has a contrary-to-fact protasis of its own implied in sine . . . ingeniō.]

peream male si nōn optimum erat (Hor. S. ii. 1. 6), confound me (may I perish wretchedly) if it would not be better. [Here peream is apodosis to the rest of the sentence, while the true protasis to optimum erat, contrary to fact, is omitted.]
Clauses of Comparison (Conclusion Omitted)

524. Conditional Clauses of Comparison take the Subjunctive, usually in the Present or Perfect unless the sequence of tenses requires the Imperfect or Pluperfect.

Such clauses are introduced by the comparative particles tamquam, tamquam si, quasi, ac si, ut si, velut si (later velut), poetic ceu (all meaning as if), and by quam si (than if): —

tamquam ciausa sit Asia (Fam. xii. 9), as if Asia were closed.
tamquam si claudus sim (Pl. Asin. 427), just as if I were lame.
ita hōs [honōrēs] petunt, quasi honestē vixerint (Iug. 85), they seek them (offices) just as if they had lived honorably.

quasi vero nōn specē vīsā iūdicentur (Acad. ii. 58), as if forsooth visible things were not judged by their appearance.
similiter facis ac si mē rogēs (N. D. iii. 8), you do exactly as if you asked me.
crūdēlitātem horrērent velut si cōrum adesse (B. G. i. 32), they dreaded his cruelty (they said), as if he were present in person.

hic ingenti pūgnam cernimus ceu cōtera musquam bella forent (Aen. ii. 438), here we saw a great battle, as if there were no fighting elsewhere. [But sometimes with the indicative in poetry, as id. v. 88.]
magis a mē absesse vidēbare quam si domi essēs (Att. vi. 5), you seemed to be absent from me more than if you were at home.

Note 1. — These subjunctive clauses are really future conditions with apodosis implied in the particle itself. Thus in tamquam si claudus sim the protasis is introduced by si, and the apodosis implied in tamquam.

Note 2. — The English idiom would lead us to expect the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive (contrary to fact) with these particles; but the point of view is different in the two languages. Thus the second example above is translated just as if I were lame,—as if it were a present condition contrary to fact; but it really means just as [it would be] if I should [at some future time] be lame, and so is a less vivid future condition requiring the Present Subjunctive. Similarly quasi honestē vixerint, as if they had lived honorably, is really as [they would do in the future] if they should have lived honorably and so requires the Perfect Subjunctive (§ 516. c).

α. Even after a primary tense, the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive (contrary to fact) is often used in conditional clauses of comparison: —

aequē a tē petō ac si mea negotia essent (Fam. xiii. 43); I entreat you as much as if it were my own business.

eius negotiōnum sic velim suscipiās ut si esset rēs mea (id. vii. 20. 1), I would have you undertake his business as though it were my affair.

Note. — The practice differs with the different particles. Thus in Cicero a clause with tamquam or quasi almost always observes the sequence of tenses, but with quam si the Imperfect or Pluperfect is the rule.
Use of *si* and its Compounds

§ 525. The uses of some of the more common Conditional Particles may be stated as follows: —

*a.* *Si* is used for *affirmative*, nisi (nī) and *si non* for *negative* conditions.

1. With nisi (generally *unless*) the apodosis is stated as *universally true except* in the single case supposed, in which case it is (impliedly) *not true*: —
   nisi Conōn adest, maereō, *unless Conon is here, I mourn* (i.e. I am always in a state of grief except in the single case of Conon's presence, in which case I am not).

2. With *si non* (*if not*) the apodosis is only stated as true *in the (negative) case supposed*, but as to other cases no statement is made: —
   *si* Conōn nōn adest, maereō, *if Conon is not here, I mourn* (i.e. I mourn in the single case of Conon's absence, nothing being said as to other cases in which I may or may not mourn).

   **Note.** It often makes no difference in which of these forms the condition is stated.

3. Sometimes nisi *si*, except *if*, unless, occurs: —
   nōlī putāre mē ad quemquam longiōres epistulās scribere, nisi *si* quis ad mē plūra scriptis (Pam. xiv. 2), . . . *except in case one writes more to me.*

   **Note.** Nī is an old form surviving in a few conventional phrases and reappearance in poets and later writers.

*b.* *Nisi vērō* and *nisi forte* regularly introduce an objection or exception *ironically*, and take the Indicative: —

   nisi vērō L. Caesar crūdelior *visus est* (Cat. iv. 13), *unless indeed Lucius Caesar seemed too cruel.*

   nisi forte *volumus* Epicūrēorum opiniōnem sequī (Fat. 37), *unless, to be sure, we choose to follow the notion of the Epicureans.*

   **Note.** This is the regular way of introducing a *reductio ad absurdum* in Latin. Nisi alone is sometimes used in this sense: as, — nisi *unum hōc faciam ut in puto cēnam coquant* (Pl. Aul. 355), *unless I do this one thing, [make them] cook dinner in the well.*

*c.* *Sīve (seu) . . . sīve (seu), whether . . . or*, introduce a condition in the form of an *alternative*. They may be used with any form of condition, or with different forms in the two members. Often also they are used without a verb: —

   nam illō locō libentissimē soleō ītū, *sīve quid mēcum ipse cōgitō, sīve quid scribō aut legō* (Legg. ii. 1), *for I enjoy myself most in that place, whether I am thinking by myself, or am either writing or reading.*

   **Note.** *Sīve . . . seu and seu . . . sīve are late or poetic.*
a. Sin, but if, often introduces a supposition contrary to one that precedes:—

accusātor illum dēfendet si poterit; sī minus poterit, negābit (Inv. ii. 88),
the accuser will defend him if he can; but if he cannot, he will deny.

b. Nisi is often used loosely by the comic poets in the sense of only when a negative (usually nesciō) is expressed, or easily understood, in the main clause:—

nesciō: nisi mē dixisse nēminī certō sciō (Ter. Ph. 952), I don’t know: only
I am sure that I haven’t told anybody.

CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

526. The concessive idea is rather vague and general, and takes a variety of forms, each of which has its distinct history. Sometimes concession is expressed by the Horticatory Subjunctive in a sentence grammatically independent (§ 440), but it is more frequently and more precisely expressed by a dependent clause introduced by a concessive particle. The concessive force lies chiefly in the Conjunctions (which are indefinite or conditional in origin), and is often made clearer by an adversative particle (tamen, certe) in the main clause. As the Subjunctive may be used in independent clauses to express a concession, it is also employed in concessive clauses, and somewhat more frequently than the indicative.

527. The Particles of Concession (meaning although, granting that) are quamvis, ut, licet, etsi, tametsi, etiam sī, quamquam, and cum. Some of these take the Subjunctive, others the Indicative, according to the nature of the clause which each introduces.

a. Quamvis and ut take the Subjunctive:—

quamvis ipsī infantēs sint, tamen . . . (Or. 78), however incapable of speaking
they themselves may be, yet, etc.
quamvis sceletāti illī fuissent (De Or. i. 230), however guilty they might have
been.
quamvis cōnis in amīcis tuendīs fūerit (Fin. ii. 80), amiable as he may have
been in keeping his friends.

ut nēminem alium rogāset (Mil. 43), even if he had asked no other.

ut enim nōn efficiās quod vīs, tamen mors ut malum nōn sit efficiēs (Tusc. i. 16),
for even if you do not accomplish what you wish, still you will prove
that death is not an evil.

ut rationem Plató nūllam adferret (id. i. 49), though Plato adduced no reasons.

Note. — Quamvis means literally as much as you will. Thus in the first example above, let them be as incapable as you will, still, etc. The subjunctive with quamvis is hortatory, like that with nē (§ 440); that with ut (ut nōn) is of uncertain origin.

b. Licet, although, takes the Present or Perfect Subjunctive:—
licet omnes mihi terrōres periculoque impendēant (Rosc. Am. 31), though all
terrors and perils should menace me.
Note. — Licet is properly a verb in the present tense, meaning it is granted. Hence the subjunctive is by the sequence of tenses limited to the Present and Perfect. The concessive clause with licet is hortatory in origin, but may be regarded as a substantive clause serving as the subject of the impersonal verb (§ 565. n. 1).

c. Etsi, etiam sī, tametsi, even if, take the same constructions as sī (see § 514): —

etsi abest mātūritās, tamen nōn est inūtile (Fam. vi. 18. 4), though ripeness of age is wanting, yet it is not useless, etc.

etsi numquam dubium fuit, tamen perspicīō (id. v. 19), although it has never been doubtful, yet I perceive, etc.

etsi statueram (id. v. 5), though I had determined.

etsi nihil aliud absūlissētis, tamen contentōs vōs esse oportēbat (Sull. 90), even if you had taken away nothing else, you ought to have been satisfied.

etiam sī quod scribēs nōn habēbis, scribitō tamen (Fam. xvi. 26), even if you [shall] have nothing to write, still write.

sed ca tametsi vōs parvi pendēbātis (Sull. Cat. 52. 9), but although you regarded those things as of small account.

Note 1. — Tametsi with the subjunctive is very rare.

Note 2. — A protasis with sī often has a concessive force: as, — ego, sī essent inimicitiae mihi cum C. Caesare, tamen hoc tempore rei publicae consulere . . . debērem (Prov. Cons. 47), as for me, even if I had private quarrels with Caesar, it would still be my duty to serve the best interests of the state at this crisis.

d. Quamquam, although, introduces an admitted fact and takes the Indicative: —

omnibus — quamquam ruit ipse suis clādibus — pestem dēnuntiat (Phil. xiv. 8), though he is breaking down under his disasters, still he threatens all with destruction.

Note. — Quamquam more commonly means and yet, introducing a new proposition in the indicative: as, — quamquam haece quidem iam tolerābilis videbantur, etsi, etc. (Mil. 76), and yet these, in truth, seemed now bearable, though, etc.

e. The poets and later writers frequently use quamvis and quamquam like etsi, connecting them with the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according to the nature of the condition: —

quamquam movērētur (Liv. xxxvi. 34), although he was moved.

Pollīo amat nostram, quamvis est rūstica, nūsām (Ecl. iii. 84), Pollīo loves my muse, though she is rustic.

quamvis pervēnērās (Liv. ii. 40), though you had come.

f. Ut, as, with the Indicative, may be equivalent to a concession: vērum ut errāre potuisti, sic dēcīpī tē nōn potuisse quis nōn vidēt (Fam. x. 20. 2), suppose you could have been mistaken, who does not see that you cannot have been deceived in this way?

For cum concessive, see § 549; for qui concessive, see § 535. e. For concession expressed by the Hortatory Subjunctive (negative nē), see § 440.
CLAUSES OF PROVISO

528. Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum ut, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive. The negative with these particles is nē:
őderint dum metuant (Off. i. 97), let them hate, if only they fear.
valētūdō modo bona sit (Brut. 64), provided the health be good.
dummodo inter nē atque tē mūrus intersit (Cat. i. 10), provided only the wall (of the city) is between us.
tantum ut sciant (Att. xvi. 11. 1), provided only they know.
modo nē sit ex pseudum generes (Off. i. 105), provided [in pleasure] he be not of the herd of cattle.
id faciat saepē, dum nē lassus fiat (Cato R. R. v. 4), let him do this often, provided he does not get tired.
dummodo ea (severitas) nē variētur (Q. Fr. i. 1. 20), provided only it (strictness) be not allowed to suffer.
tantum nē noceat (Ov. M. ix. 21), only let it do no harm.

Note.—The Subjunctive with modo is hortatory or optative; that with dum and dummodo, a development from the use of the Subjunctive with dum in temporal clauses, § 553 (compare the colloquial so long as my health is good, I don’t care).

a. The Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle sometimes expresses a proviso:—
sint Maecenas, nōn deernunt Marōnēs (Mart. viii. 56. 5), so there be Maccenas, Virgil’s will not be lacking.

b. The Subjunctive with ut (negative nē) is sometimes used to denote a proviso, usually with ita in the main clause:—
probātā condiciō est, sed ita ut ille praesidia dēdiceret (Att. vii. 14. 1), the terms were approved, but only on condition that he should withdraw the garrisons.

Note.—This is a development of the construction of Characteristic or Result.
For a clause of Characteristic expressing Proviso, see § 535. d.

CLAUSES OF PURPOSE (FINAL CLAUSES)

529. The Subjunctive in the clause of Purpose is hortatory in origin, coming through a kind of indirect discourse construction (for which see § 592). Thus, misit legātōs qui dicerent means he sent ambassadors who should say, i.e. who were directed to say: in the direct orders the verb would be dicētis, which would become dicant in the Indirect Discourse of narrative (§ 588) or dicerent in the past (cf. hortatory subjunctive in past tenses, § 439. b). The Subjunctive with ut and nē is, in general, similar in origin.

530. A clause expressing purpose is called a Final Clause.
531. Final Clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (uti), negative nē (ut nē), or by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb:—
1. Pure Clauses of Purpose, with ut (uti) or nē (ut nē), express the purpose of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause:—

ab arātrō abdūxerunt Cincinnatūm, ut dictātor esset (Fin. ii. 12), they brought Cincinnatus from the plough that he might be dictator.

ut sint auxiliō suīs, subsistunt (B. C. i. 80), they halt in order to support (be an aid to) their own men.

nē miliēs oppidum inremperent, portās obstruāt (id. i. 27), he barricaded the gates, in order that the soldiers might not break into the town.

scyllas parārī inbet, nē quam facultātem dimittat (id. i. 28), he orders scaling-ladders to be got ready, in order not to let slip any opportunity.

ut nē sit impūne (Mil. 31), that it be not with impunity.

Note 1. — Sometimes the conjunction has a correlative (ideō, idcirco, eō cōnsīliō, etc.) in the main clause (cf. § 561. a) :—

lēgum idcirco servi sumus, ut liberī sumus (Chu. 146), for this reason we are subject to the laws, that we may be free.

cōpīās trasūxīt eō cōnsīliō, ut castellum exānchāret (cf. B. G. ii. 9), he led the troops across with this design — to storm the fort.

Note 2. — Ut nōn sometimes occurs in clauses of purpose when nōn belongs to some particular word: as,—ut plārā nōn dicām (Manil. 44), to avoid unnecessary talk.

2. Relative Clauses of Purpose are introduced by the relative pronoun qui or a relative adverb (ubi, unde, quō, etc.). The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause:—

mittitur L. Dēcīdīus Saxa qui locī nātūram perspiciat (B. C. i. 66), Lucius Dēcīdīus Saxa is sent to examine the ground (who should examine, etc.).

serūbat orātiōnēs quās aliī discerent (Brut. 206), he wrote speeches for other men to deliver.

eō extinctō fore unde discerem nēminem (Cat. M. 12), that when he was dead there would be nobody from whom (whence) I could learn.

huīc nē ubi cōnsisteret quidem contrā tē locum reliquisti (Quinct. 73), you have left him no ground even to make a stand against you.

habēbam quō cōnfigerem (Fam. iv. 6. 2), I had [a retreat] whither I might flee.

Note. — In this construction qui = ut is (etc.), ubi = ut ubi, and so on (§ 537. 2).

a. The ablative quō (= ut eō) is used as a conjunction in final clauses which contain a comparative:—

comprihère eōrum andāciam, quō facilius cēterōrum animi frangerentur (Fam. xvi. 4. 10), to repress their audacity, that the spirit of the others might be broken more easily (by which the more easily).

libertāte ēsas est, quō impūnissī dieāx esset (Quinct. 11), he took advantage of liberty, that he might bustle with more impunity.

Note. — Occasionally quō introduces a final clause that does not contain a comparative: as,—L. Sulīa exercitām, quō sībī sīdam faceret, īxurīōse habuerat (Sall. Cat. 11), Lucius Sulīa had treated the army luxuriously, in order to make it devoted to him.

For quōminus (= ut eō minus) after verbs of hindering, see § 558. b.
532. The principal clause, on which a final clause depends, is often to be supplied from the context:—

ac nē longum sit . . . iussimus (Cat. iii. 10), and, not to be tedious, we ordered,
etc. [Strictly, in order not to be tedious. I say we ordered.]
sed ut ad Dionysium redeamus (Tusc. v. 63), but to return to Dionysius.
sed ut eodem revertar, causa haec fuit timoris (Fam. vi. 7. 3), but, to return
to the same point, this was the cause of fear.
satis incōnsideratī fuit, nē dicam audācis (Phil. xiii. 12), it was the act of one
rash enough, not to say daring.

Note 1.—By a similar ellipsis the Subjunctive is used with nēīōm (sometimes nē),
still less, not to mention that:—
nēīōm salvi esse possimus (Clu. 95), much less could we be safe.
nēīōm isti non statim conquīsītūri sint aliqüid sceleris et flagītī (Leg. Agr. ii. 97),
far more will they hunt up at once some sort of crime and scandal.
nēīōm in mari et viā sit facile (Fam. xvi. 8), still less is it easy at sea and on a
journey.
quippe secundae rēs sapientium animōs fatigant; nē illi corruptīs mōribus victōriāe
temperant (Sall. Cat. 11), for prosperity outmasters the soul even
of the wise; much less did they with their corrupt morals put any check on
victory.

Note 2.—With nēīōm the verb itself is often omitted: as,—aptius lāmānītātī
tuae quam tōta Peloponnesus, nēīōm Patrae (Fam. vii. 28. 1), fitter for your refine-
ment than all Peloponnesus, to say nothing of Patrae.
For Substantive Clauses involving purpose, see §§ 563-566.

533. The Purpose of an action is expressed in Latin in various
ways; but never (except in idiomatic expressions and rarely in
poetry) by the simple Infinitive as in English (§ 460).

The sentence, they came to seek peace, may be rendered—

(1) vēnērunt ut pācem peterent. [Final clause with ut (§ 531. 1).]
(2) vēnērunt qui pācem peterent. [Final clause with Relative (§ 531. 2).]
(3) [vēnērunt ad petaendum pācem.] Not found with transitive verbs (§ 506,
x. 2), but cf. ad pārendum sænātūrī. [Gerund with ad (§ 506).]
(4) vēnērunt ad petaendum pācem. [Gerundive with ad (§ 506).]
(5) vēnērunt pācem petendī causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerund with causā
(§ 504. b).]
(6) vēnērunt pācis petendae causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerundive with causā
(§ 504. b).]
(7) vēnērunt pācem petīturī. [Future participle (§ 499. 2); in later writers.]
(8) vēnērunt pācem petītum. [Supine in -um (§ 509).]

These forms are not used indifferently, but—

a. The usual way of expressing purpose is by ut (negative nē),
unless the purpose is closely connected with some one word, in which
case a relative is more common:—
lēgātōs ad Dumnorīgem mittunt, ut eō déprecationēr ā Sēquanīs impetrārent (B. G. i. 9), they send envoys to Dumnorix, in order through his intercession to obtain (this favor) from the Sequani.
militēs missīt ut eōs qui fūgerant persequerentur (id. v. 10), he sent the soldiers to follow up those who had fled.
Cūrū praemittit equitēs qui primum impetum sustineant (B. C. ii. 26), Curio sends forward cavalry to withstand the first attack.

b. The Gerund and Gerundive constructions of purpose are usually limited to short expressions, where the literal translation, though not the English idiom, is nevertheless not harsh or strange.

c. The Supine is used to express purpose only with verbs of motion, and in a few idiomatic expressions (§ 509).

d. The Future Participle used to express purpose is a late construction of inferior authority (§ 499. 2).

For the poetical Infinitive of Purpose, see § 460. c. For the Present Participle in a sense approaching that of purpose, see § 490. 3.

**CLAUSES OF CHARACTERISTIC**

534. The relative clause of Characteristic with the Subjunctive is a development peculiar to Latin. A relative clause in the Indicative merely states something as a fact which is true of the antecedent; a characteristic clause (in the Subjunctive) defines the antecedent as a person or thing of such a character that the statement made is true of him or it and of all others belonging to the same class. Thus,—nōn potest exercitum est continēre imperātor qui sē ipse nōn contineat (indicative) means simply, that commander who does not (as a fact) restrain himself cannot restrain his army; whereas nōn potest exercitum est continēre imperātor qui sē ipse nōn contineat (subjunctive) would mean, that commander who is not such a man as to restrain himself, etc., that is, who is not characterized by self-restraint.

This construction has its origin in the potential use of the subjunctive (§ 445). Thus, in the example just given, qui sē ipse nōn contineat would mean literally, who would not restrain himself (in any supposable case), and this potential idea passes over easily into that of general quality or characteristic. The characterizing force is most easily felt when the antecedent is indefinite or general. But this usage is extended in Latin to cases which differ but slightly from statements of fact, as in some of the examples below.

The use of the Subjunctive to express Result comes from its use in Clauses of Characteristic. Thus, nōn sum ita hebes ut hæc dicam means literally, I am not dull in the manner (degree) in which I should say this, hence, I am not so dull as to say this. Since, then, the characteristic often appears in the form of a supposed result, the construction readily passes over into Pure Result, with no idea of characteristic; as,—tans in cūriā clamor factus est ut populus concureret (Verr. ii. 47), such an outcry was made in the senate-house that the people hurried together.

535. A Relative Clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a characteristic of the antecedent, especially where the antecedent is otherwise undefined:
neque enim tā est qui nesciās (Fam. v. 12. 6), for you are not such a one as not to know. [Here is is equivalent to such, and is defined only by the relative clause that follows.]

multa dicunt quae vix intellegam (Fin. iv. 2), they say many things which (such as) I hardly understand.

pauci quae nihil habitūra sit insidiārum semper est cōnsulendum (Off. i. 35),
we must always aim at a peace which shall have no plots.

a. A Relative Clause of Characteristic is used after general expressions of existence or non-existence, including questions which imply a negative.

So especially with sunt qui, there are [some] who; quis est qui, who is there who? —

sunt qui discessum animā à corpore putent esse mortem (Tusc. i. 18), there are some who think that the departure of soul from body constitutes death.

erant qui censērent (B. C. ii. 30), there were some who were of the opinion, etc.

erant qui Helvidium miserārentur (Tac. Ann. xvi. 29), there were some who pitied Helvidius. [Cf. est cum (n. 3, below).]

quis est qui id nōn maximis effert laudibus (Lael. 24), who is there that does not extol it with the highest praise?

nihil videō quod timeam (Fam. ix. 16. 3), I see nothing to fear.

nihil est quod adventum nostrum extimēscās (Fam. ix. 20. 4), there is no reason why you should dread my coming.

unde agger comportāri possēt nihil erat reliquum (B. C. ii. 15), there was nothing left from which an embankment could be got together.

Note 1. — After general negatives like nēmō est qui, the Subjunctive is regular; after general affirmatives like sunt qui, it is the prevailing construction, but the Indicative sometimes occurs; after muti (nōn nālii, quidam) sunt qui, and similar expressions in which the antecedent is partially defined, the choice of mood depends on the shade of meaning which the writer wishes to express: —

sunt bēstiae quaedam in quibus inest aliquid similē virtūtis (Fin. v. 38), there are certain animals in which there is something like virtue.

But, — inventī muti sunt qui vitam profundere prō patriā parāti essent (Off. i. 84), many were found of such a character as to be ready to give their lives for their country.

Note 2. — Characteristic clauses with sunt qui etc. are sometimes called Relative Clauses with an Indefinite Antecedent, but are to be carefully distinguished from the Indefinite Relative in protasis (§ 520).

Note 3. — The phrases est cum, fuit cum, etc. are used like est qui, sunt qui: as, —

ac fuit cum nihil quoque initium requīscēndi fore istum arbītrāre (De Or. i. 1), and there was a time when I thought a beginning of rest would be justifiable on my part.

b. A Relative Clause of Characteristic may follow unus and sōlus:

nil admīrāri prope rēs est una sūlaque quae possit facere et servāre bēstum (Hor. Ep. i. 6. 1), to wonder at nothing is almost the sole and only thing that can make and keep one happy.

sōlus es cāius in victūrā ceciderit nēmō nisi armātus (Deiot. 34), you are the only man in whose victory no one has fallen unless armed.
c. A clause of Result or Characteristic with quam ut, quam qui (rarely with quam alone), may be used after comparatives:

Canachi signa rigidiora sunt quam ut imitentur veritatem (Brut. 70), the statues of Canaclus are too stiff to represent nature (stiffer than that they should).
maioribus arboribus caedebant quam quas ferre miles possit (Liv. viii. 5), they cut trees too large for a soldier to carry (larger than what a soldier could carry).

Note. — This construction corresponds in sense to the English too...to.

a. A relative clause of characteristic may express restriction or proviso (cf. § 528, b):

quod sciam, so far as I know (lit. as to what I know).
Catonis orationes, quas quidem invecerim (Brut. 65), the speeches of Cato, at least such as I have discovered.
servus est nemo, qui modo tolerabili condicione sit servitutis (Cat. iv. 16), there is not a slave, at least in any tolerable condition of slavery.

c. A Relative Clause of Characteristic may express cause or concession:

peccasse mihi videor qui a te discesserim (Fam. xvi. 1), I seem to myself to have done wrong because I have left [Causal.] you.
— virum simpliciorem qui nos nihil cellet (Or. 230), O guileless man, who hides nothing from us? [Causal.]
egemet qui sero Graecas litteras attigessem, tamem complurres Athenis diem sum commoratus (De Or. i. 82), I myself, though I began Greek literature late, yet, etc. (lit. [a man] who, etc.). [Concessive.]

Note 1. — In this use the relative is equivalent to cum is etc. It is often preceded by ut, utpotest, or quippe:

— nec eonsul, ut qui id ipsum quaesisset, moram certaminis fecit (Liv. xlii. 7), nor did the consul delay the fight, since he had sought that very thing [being] one who had sought, etc.
Lucius, frater eius, utpotest qui pergere cepsignavit, familiae ductit (Phil. v. 30),
Lucius, his brother, leads his household, inasmuch as he is a man who has fought it out abroad.

— convivia cum patre non inbat, quippe qui ne in oppidum quidem nisi errare veniret (Rosc. Am. 52), he did not go to dinner parties with his father, since he did not even come to town except very rarely.

Note 2. — The Relative of Cause or Concession is merely a variety of the Characteristic construction. The quality expressed by the Subjunctive is connected with the action of the main verb either as cause on account of which (since) or as hindrance in spite of which (although).

f. Dignus, indignus, aptus, idoneus take a subjunctive clause with a relative (rarely ut). The negative is non:

digna in quibus elaboraret (Tusc. i. 1), (things) worth spending their toil on (worthy on which they should, etc.).
digna res est ubi tuum intendas teos (Ter. Eun. 312), the affair is worthy of your stretching your sinews (worthy wherein you should, etc.).
idoneus qui impetret (Manil. 57), fit to obtain.

indigni ut redimeremur (Liv. xxii. 59. 17), unworthy to be ransomed.

**Note 1.** — This construction is sometimes explained as a relative clause of purpose, but it is more closely related to characteristic.

**Note 2.** — With dignus etc., the poets often use the Infinitive:—

fons rivö dare nomen idoneus (Hor. Ep. i. 16. 12), a source fit to give a name to a stream.

aetás mollis et apta regi (Ov. A. A. i. 10), a time of life soft and easy to be guided.

vivere dignus eräs (Ov. M. x. 633), you were worthy to live.

**CLAUSES OF RESULT (CONSECUTIVE CLAUSES)**

536. The Subjunctive in Consecutive Clauses is a development of the use of that mood in Clauses of Characteristic (as explained in § 534).

537. Clauses of Result take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut non), or by a relative pronoun or relative adverb.

1. Pure Clauses of Result, with ut or ut non, express the result of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause:—

tanta vis probitätes est ut eam in hoste diligamus (Lael. 29), so great is the power of goodness that we love it even in an enemy.

pugnabant acriter ad novissimum agmen, adeò ut paene terga convertant (B. C. i. 80), there is sharp fighting in the rear, so (to such a degree) that they almost take flight.

nulla rumor addingebat, ut paene bellum confectum videaretur (id. i. 58), rumor added many false reports, so that the war seemed almost ended.

2. Relative Clauses of Result are introduced by the relative pronoun qui or a relative adverb (ubi, unde, quo, etc.). The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.

The Relative in this construction is equivalent to ut with the corresponding demonstrative:—qui = ut is (etc.), ubi = ut ibi, and so on:

nam est innocencia affectiō tali animi quae noceat nēminī (Tusc. iii. 16), for innocence is such a quality of mind as to do harm to no one.

sunt aliae causae quae plānē efficiant (Top. 59), there are other causes such as to bring to pass.

nulla est celeritās quae possit cum animi celeritate contendere (Tusc. i. 43), there is no swiftness which can compare with the swiftness of the mind.

quis nāvīgāvit qui nōn sē mortis periculō committeret (Manil. 31), who went to sea who did not incur the peril of death?

**Note 1.** — Since the relative clause of Result is a development from the relative clause of Characteristic (§ 534), no sharp line can be drawn between the two constructions. In doubtful cases, it is better to attempt no distinction or to describe the clause as one of Characteristic.

**Note 2.** — Clauses of Result are often introduced by such correlative words as tam, tālis, tāntus, ita, sic, adeō, üsque eō, which belong to the main clause.
a. A Negative Result is introduced by ut non, ut nēmō, qui non, etc., not by nē: —

mulīs gravibusque vulneribus confectus ut iam sē sustinēre non posset (B. G. ii. 25), used up with many severe wounds so that he could no longer stand.
tantā vī in Pompeii equitēs impētum fecērunt ut eōrum nēmō consisteret (B. C. iii. 93), they attacked Pompey’s cavalry with such vigor that not one of them stood his ground.

nēmō est tam senex quī sē annuin non putet posse vivere (Cat. M. 24), nobody is so old as not to think that he can live a year.

Note. — When the result implies an effect intended (not a simple purpose), ut nē or nē is sometimes used as being less positive than ut non: — [librum ita corrigēs nē mihi nœcat (Caecina, Fam. vi. 7. 6), correct the book so that it may not hurt me.

b. Frequently a clause of result or characteristic is used in a restrictive sense, and so amounts to a Proviso (cf. § 535. d): —
hoc ita est ëtūle ut nē plane inlūdamur ab accusātōribus (Rosc. Am. 55), this is so far useful that we are not utterly mocked by the accusers (i.e. useful only on this condition, that, etc.).
nihil autem est molestum quod nōn désiderēs (Cat. M. 47), but nothing is troublesome which (= provided that) you do not miss.

c. The clause of result is sometimes expressed in English by the Infinitive with to or so as to or an equivalent: —
tam longē aberam ut nōn vidērem, I was too far away to see (so far that I did not see; cf. § 535. c).

Note. — Result is never expressed by the Infinitive in Latin except by the poets in a few passages (§ 461. a).

§ 538. The constructions of Purpose and Result are precisely alike in the affirmative (except sometimes in tense sequence, § 485. c); but, in the negative, Purpose takes nē, Result ut non etc.: —
custōditus est nē effugēret, he was guarded in order that he might not escape.
custōditus est ut nōn effugēret, he was guarded so that he did not escape.

So in negative Purpose clauses nē quis, nē quid, nē ullus, nē quō, nē quandō, nēcubi, etc. are almost always used; in negative Result clauses, ut nēmō, ut nihil, ut nūllus, etc.: —

(1) cernere nē quis eōs, nee quis contingere posset (Aen. i. 413), that no one might see them, no one touch them. [Purpose.]
nē quandō liberis prōscriptōrum bona patris reddantur (Rosc. Am. 145), lest at some time the patrimony of the proscribed should be restored to their children.
ipse nē quō inciderem, revertī Formiās (Att. viii. 3. 7), that I might not come upon him anywhere, I returned to Formiae.
dispositis explōrātoribus nēcubi Rōmāni cōpiās trādūcerent (B. G. vii. 35), having stationed scouts here and there in order that the Romans might not lead their troops across anywhere.

(2) multi ita sunt imbēcilli senēs ut nūllum offici mūnus exsequī possint (Cat. M. 35), many old men are so feeble that they cannot perform any duty to society. [Result.]

qui summum bonum sic instituit ut nihil habēat cum virtūte conjunctum (Off. i. 5), who has so settled the highest good that it has nothing in common with virtue.

For clauses of Result or Characteristic with quīn, see § 559. For Substantive Clauses of Result, see §§ 567-571.

CAUSAL CLAUSES

539. Causal Clauses take either the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according to their construction; the idea of cause being contained, not in the mood itself, but in the form of the argument (by implication), in an antecedent of causal meaning (like propterēa), or in the connecting particles.

Quod is in origin the relative pronoun (stem que-) used adverbially in the accusative neuter (cf. § 214. d) and gradually sinking to the position of a colorless relative conjunction (cf. English that and see § 222). Its use as a causal particle is an early special development. Quia is perhaps an accusative plural neuter of the relative stem qui-, and seems to have developed its causal sense more distinctly than quod, and at an earlier period. It is used (very rarely) as an interrogative, why? (so in classical Latin with nam only), and may, like quandō, have developed from an interrogative to a relative particle.

Quoniam (for quom iam) is also of relative origin (quom being a case-form of the pronominal stem que-). It occurs in old Latin in the sense of when (cf. quom, cum), from which the causal meaning is derived (cf. cum causal). The Subjunctive with quod and quia depends on the principle of Informal Indirect Discourse (§ 592).

Quandō is probably the interrogative quām (how?) compounded with a form of the pronominal stem ā– (cf. ām, ā-nec). It originally denoted time (first interrogatively, then as a relative), and thus came to signify cause. Unlike quod and quia, it is not used to state a reason in informal indirect discourse and therefore is never followed by the Subjunctive.

540. The Causal Particles quod and quia take the Indicative, when the reason is given on the authority of the writer or speaker; the Subjunctive, when the reason is given on the authority of another: —

1. Indicative: —

cum tibi agam grātiās quod mē vivēre coēgisti (Att. iii. 3), when I may thank you that you have forced me to live.
cūr igitur pācem nōlō? quia turpis est (Phil. vii. 9), why then do I not wish for peace? Because it is disgraceful.

ita fit ut adsint propterea quod officium sequuntur, taceant autem quia periculum vivant (Rose. Am. 1), so it happens that they attend because they follow duty, but are silent because they seek to avoid danger.
2. Subjunctive:—

mihi gratulabat quod audisset mea nostrum dignitatem obtinere (Fam. iv. 14. 1), you congratulated me because [as you said] you had heard that I had regained my former dignity.

nocte ambulabat Themistocles quod somnum capere non posset (Tusc. iv. 44). Themistocles used to walk about at night because [as he said] he could not sleep.

mea mater irata est quia non redderim (Pl. Cist. 101), my mother is angry because I didn't return.

Note 1.—Quod introduces either a fact or a statement, and accordingly takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Quia regularly introduces a fact; hence it rarely takes the Subjunctive. Quoniam, inasmuch as, since, when now, none that, has reference to motives, excuses, justifications, and the like and takes the Indicative.

Note 2.—Under this head what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the Subjunctive (§ 592. 3. x.): as, — ego laeta visa sum quia soror vénisset (Pl. Mil. 387), I seemed (in my dream) glad because my sister had come.

So with quod even a verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive: —

quod sé oblitum nescio quid diceret (Off. i. 40), he returned because he said he had forgotten something.

Note 3.—Non quod, non quia, non quō, introducing a reason expressly to deny it, take the Subjunctive; but the Indicative sometimes occurs when the statement is in itself true, though not the true reason. In the negative, non quia (with the Subjunctive) may be used in nearly the same sense as non quod non. After a comparative, quam quō or quam quod is used: —

pugnās ingenīscunt, non quō dēsunt, sed quia profusiō vocē omne corpus inteminitur (Tusc. ii. 56), boxers groan, not because they are in pain, but because by giving vent to the voice the whole body is put in a state of tension.

nān quia réctor ad Alps via esset, sed crūdēns (Liv. xxi. 31. 2), not because the route to the Alps was more direct, but believing, etc.

nān quia pārī victūre et voluntāte alli suerint, sed tantum causam non habuerunt (Phil. vii. 6), not that there were not others of equal courage and good-will, but they had not so strong a reason.

haec amōres magis impulsus scribenda ad te putavi, quam quō te arbitrarer monitis et praecipitó egérē (Fam. x. 3. 4), this I thought I ought to write to you, rather from the impulse of (prompted by) affection than because I thought that you needed advice and suggestion.

a. Quoniam and quando, since, introduce a reason given on the authority of the writer or speaker, and take the Indicative: —

locus est a me, quoniam ita Murēna voluit, retractorandum (Mur. 54), I must revise the point, since Murēna has so wished.

quando ita vis, di bene vortant (Pl. Tvin. 513), since you so wish, may the gods bless the undertaking.

quando ad māèra nātī sumus (Plin. v. 21), since we are born for greater things.

Note.—The Subjunctive with quoniam is unclassical. Quando, since, in the causal sense, is mostly archaic or late. Quando, when, is used as interrogative, relative, and indefinite: as, — quando? hodie, when? to-day; si quando, if ever.
SYNTAX: TEMPORAL CLAUSES

|§§ 540-542|

b. Causal clauses introduced by quod, quia, quoniam, and quando take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse, like any other dependent clause (see § 580).

c. A Relative, when used to express cause, regularly takes the Subjunctive (see § 535. e).

d. Cum causal takes the Subjunctive (see § 549).

For Substantive Clauses with quod, see § 572.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES

541. Temporal Clauses are introduced by particles which are almost all of relative origin. They are construed like other relative clauses, except where they have developed into special idiomatic constructions.1 For list of Temporal Particles, see p. 138.

Temporal Clauses may be classified as follows: —

I. Conditional Relative Clauses: ubi, ut, cum, quando, in Protasis (§ 542).

II. Clauses with postquam, ubi, etc. (Indicative), (§ 543).

III. Clauses with cum (1. cum temporal (§§ 545-548).

IV. Clauses with antequam and priusquam (Indicative or Subjunctive) (§ 551).

V. Clauses with dum, eōnēc, and quod (Indicative or Subjunctive) (§§ 552-556).

Conditional Relative Clauses

542. The particles ubi, ut, cum, quando, either alone or compounded with -cumque, may be used as Indefinite Relatives (in the sense of whenever), and have the constructions of Protasis (cf. § 514): —

cum id malum negas esse, capior (Tusc. ii. 29), whenever you (the individual disputant) deny it to be an evil, I am misled. [Present general condition.]

quod profectō cum mē nūlla vis cōgeret, facere nōn audērem (Phil. v. 51), which I would surely not venture to do, as long as no force compelled me. [Present, contrary to fact: cf. § 517.]

cum videās eōs dōlōre nōn frangī, dēbēas existimāre, etc. (Tusc. ii. 66), when you see that those are not broken by pain, you ought to infer, etc. [Present general condition: cf. § 518. a.]

cum rosam viderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābatur (Verr. v. 27), whenever he saw a rose he thought spring had begun. [Past general condition: cf. § 518. b.]

id ubi dīxisset, hastam in finīs eōrum ēmittēbat (Liv. i. 32. 13), when he had said this, he would cast the spear into their territories. [Past General Condition, repeated action: see § 518. c.]

1 With all temporal particles the Subjunctive is often found depending on some other principle of construction. (See Intermediate Clauses, § 591.)
Temporal Clauses with *postquam*, *ubi*, etc.

543. The particles *postquam* (posteāquam), *ubi*, *ut* (ut primum, ut semel), simul atque (simul ac, or simul alone), take the Indicative (usually in the perfect or the historical present):

mīlitēs postquam victoriam adepti sunt, nihil reliqui victis fēcērē (Sall. Cat. 11), when the soldiers had won the victory, they left nothing to the vanquished.

posteāquam forum attigistī, nihil fēcistī nisi, etc. (Fam. xv. 10. 3), since you came to the forum, you have done nothing except, etc.

ubi omnis idem sentire intellexit, posterior diem pugnae cons tituit (B. G. iii. 23), when he understood that all agreed (thought the same thing), he appointed the next day for the battle.

Catilīna, ubi eōs convĕnisse vidēt, sēcēdit (Sall. Cat. 20), when Catiline sees that they have come together, he retires.

Pompeius ut equitātum suum pulsum vīdit, acie excessit (B. C. iii. 94), when Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the field.

ut semel e Piraeō eloquentia evecta est (Brut. 51), as soon as eloquence had set sail from the Piraeus.

nostri simul in āridō consitērunt, in hostīs impertum fēcērunt (B. G. iv. 26), our men, as soon as they had taken a position on dry ground, made an attack on the enemy.

simul atque introductus est, rem cōnfēcit (Clu. 40), as soon as he was brought in, he did the job.

*a.* These particles less commonly take the Imperfect or Pluperfect Indicative. The Imperfect denotes a past state of things; the Pluperfect, an action completed in past time:

postquam stricti utrīque stābant, ducēs in medium prōcēdunt (Liv. i. 23), when they stood in array on both sides, the generals advance into the midst.

P. Afrīcānus posteāquam bis cōnsul et censor fuerat (Caecil. 69), when Africānus had been (i.e. had the dignity of having been) twice consul and censor.

postquam id difficilius visum est, neque facultās perficiendi dabātur, ad Pompeium trānsīrunt (B. C. iii. 60), when this seemed too hard, and no means of effecting it were given, they passed over to Pompey.

post diem quintum quam iterum barbarī male pāgnāverant (= victi sunt), légati à Bocchō venīunt (Lug. 102), the fifth day after the barbarians were beaten the second time, envoys come from Bocchus.

haec iuventūtem, ubi familiārēs opēs dēfēcerant, ad facinora incendēbant (Sall. Cat. 13), when their inherited resources had given out, etc.

ubi pericula virtūte prōplerant (id. 6), when they had dispelled the dangers by their valor.

For the use of *ubi*, *ut*, either alone or compounded with -cumque, as Indefinite Relatives, see § 542.
USES OF CUM

544. The conjunction cum (quom) is a case-form of the relative pronoun qui. It inherits from qui its subordinating force, and in general shares its constructions. But it was early specialized to a temporal meaning (cf. tum, dum), and its range of usage was therefore less wide than that of qui; it could not, for example, introduce clauses of purpose or of result.

With the Indicative, besides the simple expression of definite time (corresponding to simple relative clauses with the Indicative), it has a few special uses,—conditional, explicative, cum inversum,—all easily derived from the temporal use.

With the Subjunctive, cum had a development parallel to that of the qui-clause of Characteristic,—a development not less extensive and equally peculiar to Latin. From defining the time the cum-clause passed over to the description of the time by means of its attendant circumstances of cause or concession (cf. since, while).

In particular, cum with the Subjunctive was used in narrative (hence the past tenses, Imperfect and Pluperfect) as a descriptive clause of time. As, however, the present participle in Latin is restricted in its use and the perfect active participle is almost wholly lacking, the historical or narrative cum-clause came into extensive use to supply the deficiency. In classical writers the narrative cum-clause (with the Subjunctive) has pushed back the defining clause (with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Indicative) into comparative infrequency, and is itself freely used where the descriptive or characterizing force is scarcely perceptible (cf. the qui-clause of Characteristic, § 534).

Cum Temporal

545. A temporal clause with cum, when, and some past tense of the Indicative dates or defines the time at which the action of the main verb occurred:—

eō [i]nīō regionēs dirēxit tum cum urbem condidit (Div. i. 30), he traced with it the quarters [of the sky] at the time he founded the city.

cum occiditur Sex. Rōscius, ibidem fuērunt servi (Rosc. Ann. 120), when Roscius was slain, the slaves were on the spot. [occiditur is historical present.]

quem quidem cum ex urbe pellēbam, hōc prōvidēbam animō (Cat. iii. 16), when I was trying to force him (coative imperfect) from the city, I looked forward to this.

fulgentēs gladiōs hostiam vidēbant Dēclī cum in aciem cōrum intrēbant (Tusc. ii. 59), the Decii saw the flashing swords of the enemy when they rushed upon their line.

 tum cum in Asīa rēs māgnās permulti ānīserant (Manil. 19), at that time, when many had lost great fortunes in Asia.

NOTE 1.—This is the regular use with all tenses in early Latin, and at all times with the Perfect and the Historical Present (as with postquam etc.). With the Imperfect and Pluperfect the Indicative use is (in classical Latin) much less common than the Subjunctive use defined below (§ 546).

NOTE 2.—This construction must not be confused with that of cum, whenever, in General Conditions (§ 542).
a. When the time of the main clause and that of the temporal clause are absolutely identical, cum takes the Indicative in the same tense as that of the main verb:—

maximà sum laetitia affectus cum audivi cónsulém té factum esse (Fam. xv. 7), I was very much pleased when I heard that you had been elected consul.

546. A temporal clause with cum and the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive describes the circumstances that accompanied or preceded the action of the main verb:—

cum essem ôtiosus in Tusculānō, accépi tuás litterās (Fam. ix. 18. 1), when I was taking my case in my house at Tusculum, I received your letter.

cum servilī bellō premerētur (Manil. 30), when she (Italy) was under the load of the Servile War.

cum id nūntiâtum esset, māturat (B. G. i. 7), when this had been reported, he made (makes) haste.

cum ad Cybis tra quīnque dīēs essem morātus, rēgem Ariobarzānem insidēs liberāvī (Fam. xv. 4. 6), after remaining at Cybistra for five days, I freed King Ariobarzanes from plots.

is cum ad me Lāodiceam vēnisset mēcunque ego eum vellem, repente perculus est atrōcissimīs litteris (id. ix. 25. 2), when he had come to me at Lāodicea and I wished him to remain with me, he was suddenly, etc.

Note 1.—This construction is very common in narrative, and cum in this use is often called narrative cum.

Note 2.—Cum with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Indicative does not (like cum with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive) describe the time by its circumstances; it defines the time of the main verb by denoting a coïncident state of things (Imperfect Indicative) or a result attained when the action of the main verb took place (Pluperfect). Thus the construction is precisely that of postquam etc. (§ 543. a).

Note 3.—The distinction between the uses defined in §§545, 546, may be illustrated by the following examples: (1) He had a fever when he was in Spain (Shakespeare). Here the when-clause defines the time when Caesar had the fever,—namely, in the year of his Spanish campaign (a.c. 49). In Latin we should use cum with the Imperfect Indicative. (2) Columbus discovered America when he was seeking a new route to India; here the when-clause does not define or date the time of the discovery; it merely describes the circumstances under which America was discovered,—namely, in the course of a voyage undertaken for another purpose. In Latin we should use the Imperfect Subjunctive.

Note 4.—The distinction explained in Note 3 is unknown to early Latin. In Plautus quem cum always has the Indicative unless the Subjunctive is required for some other reason.

a. When the principal action is expressed in the form of a temporal clause with cum, and the definition of the time becomes the main clause, cum takes the Indicative.

Here the logical relations of the two clauses are inverted; hence cum is in this use called cum inversum:—
dies nondum decem intercesserant, cum ille alter filius infans necatus (Clu. 28), ten days had not yet passed, when the other infant son was killed. [Instead of when ten days had not yet passed, etc.]

[Quaque laxa apparabat cum procedit ad milites (Q. C. vii. S. 3), and day was already dawning when he appears before the soldiers.

Hoc facere nocte apparabant, cum matres familias repente in publicum prae-currerunt (B. G. vii. 26), they were preparing to do this by night, when the women suddenly ran out into the streets.

547. Present time with cum temporal is denoted by the Present Indicative; future time, by the Future or Future Perfect Indicative: —

incidunt tempora, cum ea, quae maximè videntur dignè esse iustù homine,

fiant contraria (Off. i. 31), times occur when those things which seem especially worthy of the upright man, become the opposite.

non dubitabo dare operam ut te videam, cum id satis commodè facere poterò (Fam. xii. 1), I shall not hesitate to take pains to see you, when I can do it conveniently.

longum illud tempus cum non erò (Att. xii. 18), that long time when I shall be no more.

cum veneris, cognoscès (Fam. v. 7. 3), when you come (shall have come). you will find out.

548. Cum, whenever, takes the construction of a relative clause in a general condition (see § 542).

For present time, either the Present or the Perfect Indicative is used; for past time, regularly the Pluperfect Indicative.

For est cum etc., see § 535. a. n. a.

Cum Causal or Concessive

549. Cum causal or concessive takes the Subjunctive: —

id difficile non est, cum tantum equitatae valeamus (B. C. iii. 86), this is not difficult since we are so strong in cavalry. [Causal.]

cum solitudo insidiarum et metus plea sit, ratio ipse monet amiciam comparare (Fin. i. 66), since solitude is full of treachery and fear, reason itself prompts us to contract friendships. [Causal.]

cum primi ordinés concidissent, tamen acerimè reliqui resistébant (B. G. vii. 62), though the first ranks had fallen, still the others resisted vigorously. [Concessive.]

brevi spatio legionés numerò hominum expléverat, cum inicior non amplius duo bus milibus habiisset (Sall. Cat. 56). in a short time he had filled out the legions with their complement of men, though at the start he had not had more than two thousand. [Concessive.]
Cum causal may usually be translated by since; cum concessive by although or while; either, occasionally, by when.

Note 1. — Cum in these uses is often emphasized by ut, utpote, quippe, praesertim: as, — nec reprehendo: quippe cum ipse istam reprehensionem non fugerim (Att. x. 3 A), I find no fault; since I myself did not escape that blame.

Note 2. — These causal and concessive uses of cum are of relative origin and are parallel to qui causal and concessive (§ 553. c). The attendant circumstances are regarded as the cause of the action, or as tending to hinder it.

Note 3. — In early Latin cum (quem) causal and concessive usually takes the Indicative: as, — quem tua res distribuitur, utnum videam (Pl. Trin. 617), since your property is being torn in pieces, O that I may see, etc.

a. Cum with the Indicative frequently introduces an explanatory statement, and is sometimes equivalent to quod, on the ground that: —

cum tacent, clamant (Cat. i. 21), when they are silent, they cry out (i.e. their silence is an emphatic expression of their sentiments).

gratulor tibi cum tantum valet apud Dolabella (Fam. ix. 14. 3), I congratulate you that you are so strong with Dolabella.

Note. — This is merely a special use of cum temporal expressing coincident time (§ 545. a).

b. Cum . . . tum, signifying both . . . and, usually takes the Indicative; but when cum approaches the sense of while or though, the Subjunctive is used (§ 549): —

cum multa non proba, tum illud in primis (Fin. i. 16), while there are many things I do not approve, there is this in chief. [Indicative.]

cum difficile est, tum ne aequum quidem (Lael. 26), not only is it difficult but even unjust.

cum res tota ficta sit pueriliter, tum ne efferit quidem quod vult (Fin. i. 19), while the whole thing is childishy got up, he does not even make his point (accomplish what he wishes). [Subjunctive; approaching cum causal.]

Antequam and Priusquam

550. Antequam and priusquam, before, introduce Clauses of Time which resemble those with cum temporal in their constructions. Priusquam consists of two parts (often written separately and sometimes separated by other words), the comparative adverb prius, sooner (before), which really modifies the main verb, and the relative particle quam, than, which introduces the subordinate clause. The latter is therefore a relative clause, and takes the Indicative or the Subjunctive (like other relative clauses) according to the sense intended. The Subjunctive with priusquam is related to that of purpose (§ 529) and is sometimes called the Anticipatory or Prospective Subjunctive. Antequam, like priusquam, consists of two words, the first of which is the adverb ante, before, modifying the main verb. Its constructions are the same as those of priusquam, but the latter is commoner in classic prose.

551. Antequam and priusquam take sometimes the Indicative, sometimes the Subjunctive.
a. With antequam and priusquam, before, the Perfect Indicative states a fact which preceded the action of the main verb:—

antequam tuâs légì litterâs, hominèm ire cupìébam (Att. ii. 7. 2), before I read your letter, I wished the man to go.

neque ante démisit cum quâm fidem dedit aduléscéns (Liv. xxxix. 10), and she did not let the young man go till he pledged his faith.

neque prius fugere déstítérunt quâm ad flúmen pervénérunt (B. G. i. 53), nor did they stop running until they reached the river.

Note.—The Perfect Indicative in this construction is regular when the main clause is negative and the main verb is in an historical tense. The Imperfect Indicative is rare; the Pluperfect Indicative, very rare. The Perfect Subjunctive is rare and ante-classical, except in Indirect Discourse.

b. With antequam or priusquam the Imperfect Subjunctive is common when the subordinate verb implies purpose or expectancy in past time, or when the action that it denotes did not take place:—

ante púgnâri coeptum est quâm satis insïncrètùr aciès (Liv. xxii. 4. 7), the fight was begun before the line could be properly formed.

priusquam tû suum sibi vendérês, ipse possêdit (Phil. ii. 96), before you could sell him his own property, he took possession of it himself.

priusquam tê noni abici posset aut nostrî proprius accèderent, omnis Varî aciès terga vertit (B. C. ii. 34), before a weapon could be thrown or our men approached nearer, the whole line about Varus took flight.

Note 1.—The Pluperfect Subjunctive is rare, except in Indirect Discourse by sequence of tenses for the Future Perfect Indicative (§ 481. c): as, —antequam hominès nefârii dê meô adventû audiôre potüissent, in Macedonian perrêxì (Planc. 98), before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia.

Note 2.—After an historical present the Present Subjunctive is used instead of the Imperfect: as, —neque ab eô prius Domitiânî militès discêdunt quâm in conspectum Caesaris dêducâtur (B. C.'i. 22), and the soldiers of Domitian did not leave him until he was (is) conducted into Caesar's presence. So, rarely, the Perfect Subjunctive (as B. G. iii. 18).

c. Antequam and priusquam, when referring to future time, take the Present or Future Perfect Indicative; rarely the Present Subjunctive:

priusquam dê cûtère rébus respondès, dê amicità paúca dicam (Phil. ii. 3), before I reply to the rest, I will say a little about friendship.

nôn défatigábor antequâm illòrum ancîpitès viás percéperô (De Or. iii. 145), I shall not weary till I have traced out their doubtful ways.

antequam veniat litterâs mittet (Leg. Agr. ii. 53), before he comes, he will send a letter.

Note 1.—The Future Indicative is very rare.

Note 2.—In a few cases the Subjunctive of present general condition is found with antequam and priusquam (cf. § 518. a): as, —in omnîbus negótiis priusquam aggrédiâre, adhibenda est praepàratio diligéns (Off. i. 73), in all undertakings, before you proceed to action, careful preparation must be used.
552. As an adverb meaning *for a time, awhile*, *dum* is found in old Latin, chiefly as an exclam (cf. *vixudum, nonudum*). Its use as a conjunction comes either through correlation (*cum... num, si... sic*) or through substitution for a conjunction, as in the English *the moment I saw it, I understood*. *Quoad* is a compound of the relative *qua*, *up to which point*, with *ad*. The origin and early history of *dōnec* are unknown.

553. *Dum and quoad, until*, take the Present or Imperfect Subjunctive in temporal clauses implying *intention or expectancy*:—

exspectās fortasse *dum* dīcāt (Tusc. ii. 17), *you are waiting perhaps for him to say* (until he say). [**Dum** is especially common after *exspectō*.]

*dum* reliquae nāvēs conveniendērunt, ad hōram nōnēm exspectāvīt (B. G. iv. 23), *he waited till the ninth hour for the rest of the ships to join him.*

comitia diētā [sum] *dum* lex fērētur (Att. iv. 17. 3), *the election was postponed until a law should be passed.*

an id exspectāmus, quoad nē vestigium quidem Asiae civitātum atque urbiōn reiningvatūr (Phil. xi. 25), *shall we wait for this until not a trace is left of the states and cities of Asia?*

Epaminondas exercēbātur plīrimum luctandō ad eum finem quoad stāns complessī posset atque contendere (Nep. Epam. 2), *Epaminondas trained himself in wrestling so far as to be able (until he should be able) to grapple standing and fight* (in that way).

**Note 1.** — *Dōnec* is similarly used in poetry and later Latin: as, — et dūxit longē dōnec curvāta coērent inter sē capita (Aen. xi. 800), *and drew it (the bow) until the curved tips touched each other.*

**Note 2.** — *Dum, until*, may be used with the Present or Future Perfect Indicative to state a future fact when there is no idea of intention or expectancy; but this construction is rare in classic prose. The Future is also found in early Latin. *Dōnec, until*, is similarly used, in poetry and early Latin, with the Present and Future Perfect Indicative, rarely with the Future:—

ego in Arcadō opperīv dum ista cōgnōscō (Att. x. 3), *I am waiting in the villa at Arcas until I find this out.* [This is really *dum, while.*]

mihi üsque cūræ crit quid agūs, dum quid ēgeris sciēr (Fam. xii. 19. 3), *I shall always feel anxious as to what you are doing, until I actually know (shall have known) what you have done.*

dēheo māiōrum luēs dōnec templā rēfēceris (Hor. Od. iii. 6. 1), *you shall suffer for the sins of your ancestors until you rebuild the temples.*

tercentum régnaūtrum annōs, dōnec gemīnum parā dabit Iīa proīem (Aen. i. 272), *sway shall be held for threc a hundred years, until Iīa shall give birth to twin offspring.*

554. *Dōnec and quoad, until*, with the Perfect Indicative denote an *actual fact in past time*:—

dōnec rediūt silentium fuit (Liv. xxiii. 31. 9), *there was silence until he returned.*

ūsque ēō timui dōnec ad ōrīenciōs iūdiciōs venimus (Verr. ii. 1. 17), *I was anxious until we came to the moment when we could challenge the jurors.*

Rōmāe fuērunt quoad L. Metellus in prōvinciam prefectus est (id. ii. 62), *they remained at Rome until Lucius Metellus set out for the province.*
555. *Dum, dōnec, and quoad, as long as, take the Indicative:—*

*dum anima est, spēs esse dicitur (Att. ix. 10. 3), as long as there is life, there is said to be hope.*

*dum praevidit otta fuērat, in Sullae præsidēs fuit (Rosc. Am. 126), so long as there were any garrisons, he was in the garrisons of Sulla.*

*dum longius a mūnitione aberant Galli, plus multātūdine telorum prōfejēbant (B. G. vii. 82), so long as the Gauls were at a distance from the fortifications, they had the advantage because of their missiles.*

*dōnec grātus eram tibi, Persārum vigil rēge bētior (Hor. Od. iii. 9. 1), as long as I enjoyed thy favor, I flourished happier than the king of the Persians.*

*quoad putuit fortissimē restitit (B. G. iv. 12), he resisted bravely as long as he could.*

**Note 1.** —Dōnec in this use is confined to poetry and later writers.

**Note 2.** —Quam diū, as long as, takes the Indicative only: as,—sē oppidē tam diū tenuit quam diū in provincia Parthī fuērat (Fam. xii. 19. 2), he kept himself within the town as long as the Parthians were in the province.

556. *Dum, while, regularly takes the Present Indicative to denote continued action in past time.*

In translating, the English Imperfect must generally be used:

*dum haec geruntur, Caesari nūntiātum est (B. G. i. 46), while this was going on, a message was brought to Caesar.*

*haec dum aguntur, interea Cleomenēs iam ad Eliōri litus pervēnerat (Verr. v. 91), while this was going on, Cleomenes meanwhile had come down to the coast at Elymen.*

*hoc dum narrat, forte audīvi (Ter. Haut. 272), I happened to hear this while she was telling it.*

**Note.** —This construction is a special use of the Historical Present (§ 469).

*α. A past tense with dum (usually so long as) makes the time emphatic by contrast; but a few irregular cases of dum with a past tense occur where no contrast is intended:*  

*nec enim dum eram vēhīscum, aūtīnum mēnnum vidēbātīs (Cat. M. 79), for while I was with you, you could not see my soul. [Here the time when he was alive is contrasted with that after his death.]*

*corūtā est pūgna, pār dum constābant ordīnēs (Liv. xxii. 47), a conflict began, well matched as long as the ranks stood firm.*

*But, dum oculōs hostium certāmen āverterat (id. xxxii. 24), while the struggle kept the eyes of the enemy turned away.*

*dum ānum adscendere gradum cōnātus est, vēnit in periculum (Muc. 55), while he attempted to climb one step [in rank] he fell into danger.*
Note. — In later writers, *dum* sometimes takes the Subjunctive when the classical usage would require the Indicative, and *dōnec*, *until*, is freely used in this manner (especially by Tacitus): —

*dum ea in Samnium gerentur*, in Etruria interim bellum ingēns concitatur (Liv. x. 18), *while this was being done in Samnium, meanwhile a great war was stirred up in Etruria.*

illa quidem *dum tē fugeret*, hydram nōn vīdit (Georg. iv. 457), *while she was fleeing from you she did not see the serpent.*

*dum per vicūs ādportātur*, condormiēbat (Suet. Aug. 78), *while he was being carried through the streets he used to fall dead asleep.*

Rhēmus servat nōmen et violentiam cursūs (quā Germaniam praebetur) dōnec Oceānō miscētur (Tac. Ann. ii. 6), *the Rhine keeps its name and rapid course (where it borders Germany) until it mingles with the ocean.*

temporibusque Augustī dicendīs nōn dēnērē decora ingenia dōnec gliscēnte audūlōtione dēterērentur (id. i. 1), *for describing the times of Augustus there was no lack of talent until it was frightened away by the increasing servility of the age.*

For *dum*, *provided that*, see § 528.

**Clauses with *quīn* and *quōminus***

557. The original meaning of *quīn* is *how not?* *why not?* (*quī-ānē*), and when used with the Indicative or (rarely) with the Subjunctive it regularly implies a general negative. *Thus, quīn ego hōc rogem? why shouldn't I ask this?* implies that there is no reason for not asking. The implied negative was then expressed in a main clause, *like nāla causa est or fieri nōn potest.* Hence come the various dependent constructions introduced by *quīn*.

*Quōminus* is really a phrase (*quō minus*), and the dependent constructions which it introduces have their origin in the relative clause of purpose with *quō* and a comparative (see § 531. a).

558. A subjunctive clause with *quīn* is used after verbs and other expressions of *hinderings, resisting, refusing, doubting, delaying*, and the like, when these are *negatived*, either expressly or by implication: —

*nōn hūmāna tīlla neque divina obstant quīn sociōs amīcōs trahant excidendant* (Sall. Ep. Mith. 17), *no human or divine laws prevent them from taking captive and exterminating their friendly allies.*

ut nē Suessionēs quidem dēterēre potuerint quīn cum hīs consentirent (B. G. ii. 3), *that they were unable to hinder even the Suessiones from making common cause with them.*

*nōn posse militēs continēri quīn in urbem irrumperent* (B. C. ii. 12), *that the soldiers could not be restrained from bursting into the city.*

*nōn recūsāt quīn īūdīcēs* (Deiot. 43), *he does not object to your judging.*

neque recūsāre quīn armīs contendant (B. G. iv. 7), *and that they did not refuse to fight.*

praetereī nōn potui quīn scriberem ad tē (Caesar ap. Cic. Att. ix. 6 α), *I could not neglect to write to you.*
Trèveri tòtiis hiemis nûllum tempus intermissârunt quin lêgâtûs mitterent (B. G. v. 55), the Treveri let no part of the winter pass without sending ambassadors. [Cf. B. G. v. 53; B. C. i. 78.]
nôn eûtandum existimâvit quin pûgnâ dêcêrât (B. G. iii. 23), he thought he ought not to delay risking a decisive battle.
paulum âruit quin Vârum interficeret (B. C. ii. 35), he just missed killing Varus (it lacked little but that he should kill).
neque multum âruit quin castris expellerentur (id. ii. 36), they came near being driven out of the camp.
facere nû possum quin cotidiê ad tê mitam (Att. xii. 27. 2), I cannot help sending to you every day.
fieri nûlô modô poterat quin Cleomeni parcerât (Verr. v. 104), it was out of the question that Cleomenes should not be spared.
ut effici nôn possit quin eós ôderim (Phil. xi. 36), so that nothing can prevent my hating them.

α. Quin is especially common with nôn dubitô, I do not doubt, nôn est dubium, there is no doubt, and similar expressions:—
nôn dubitât quin ei crêdêmus (Att. vi. 2. 3), he did not doubt that we believed him.
il lud cavè dubites quin ego omnia faciam (Fam. v. 20. 6), do not doubt that I will do all.
quia ignôrat quin tria Graecôrum genera sint (Flacc. 64), who is ignorant that there are three races of Greeks?
nôn erat dubium quin Helvêti plûrumum posserant (cf. B. G. i. 3), there was no doubt that the Helvetians were most powerful.
neque Caesarem fêellit quin ab is cohortibus iniitium victûrûs orérât (B. C. iii. 94), and it did not escape Caesar’s notice that the beginning of the victory came from those cohorts.

Note 1.—Dubitô without a negative is regularly followed by an Indirect Question; so sometimes nôn dubitô and the like:—
nôn nûlii dubiant an per Sardiniam veniat (Fam. ix. 7), some doubt whether he is coming through Sardinia.
dubitât, si potestis, a quô sit Sex. Rôsciús occisus (Rose. Am. 78), doubt, if you can, by whom Sextus Roscius was murdered.
dubitâbam tû hûs ipsas litterâs esse è esse acceptûrus (Att. xv. 9), I doubt whether you will receive this very letter. [Epistolary Imperfect (§ 479).]
quâlis sit futûrus, nê vos quidem dubitâtis (B. C. ii. 32), and what it (the outcome) will be, you yourselves do not doubt.
nôn dubitô quid sentiant (Fam. xv. 9), I do not doubt what they think.
dubium illi nôn erat quid futûrum esset (id. viii. 8. 1), it was not doubtful to him what was going to happen.

Note 2.—Nôn dubitô in the sense of I do not hesitate commonly takes the Infinitive, but sometimes quin with the Subjunctive:—
nec dûlitûrûs illûm appellât sapientem (Lael. 1), and not to hesitate to call him a sage.
dubitandum nôn existimât quin proficiscêretur (B. G. ii. 2), he did not think he ought to hesitate to set out.
quia dubitât is ti temporis opportunitât (B. C. ii. 34), why do you hesitate to take advantage of the favorable moment? [A question implying a negative.]
CLAUSES WITH QUIN AND QUOMINUS

6. Verbs of hindering and refusing often take the subjunctive with nē or quōminus (= ut eō minus), especially when the verb is not negated:

plūra nē dicam tuae nē lacrimae impeditum (Planc. 104), your tears prevent me from speaking further.

e nec aetās impedit quōminus agrī colendi studia teneāmus (Cat. M. 60), nor
does age prevent us from retaining an interest in tilling the soil.
nihil impedit quōminus id facere possimus (Fin. i. 33), nothing hinders us
from being able to do that.

obstisti nē trànsire cópiæ possent (Verr. v. 5), you opposed the passage of
the troops (opposed lest the troops should cross).

Note.—Some verbs of hindering may take the Infinitive:
nihil obstet dicere (Fam. ix. 13. 4), there is nothing to prevent my saying it.
prohibet accēdere (Caec. 46), prevents him from approaching.

559. A clause of Result or Characteristic may be introduced by quin after a general negative, where quin is equivalent to qui (quae, quod) nōn:

1. Clauses of Result:

nēmō est tam fortis quin [= qui nōn] rei novitātē perturbētur (B. G. vi. 39),
no one is so brave as not to be disturbed by the unexpected occurrence.
nēmō erat adeō tardus quin putāret (B. C. i. 69), no one was so slothful as not
to think, etc.

quis est tam dēmēns quin sentiat (Balb. 43), who is so senseless as not to
think, etc.?
nil tam difficilest quin quacrendō investigāri possit (Tor. Haut. 675), noth-
ing’s so hard but search will find it out (Herrick).

2. Clauses of Characteristic:

nēmō nostrum est quin [= qui nōn] sciat (Rosc. Am. 55), there is no one of
us who does not know.

nēmō fuit milliām quin vulnerārētur (B. C. iii. 53), there was not one of the
soldiers who was not wounded.

ecquis fuit quin lacrimāret (Verr. v. 121), was there any one who did not shed
tears?

quīs est quin intellegat (Fin. v. 64), who is there who does not understand?
hōrum nihil est quin [= quod nōn] interērat (N. D. iii. 30), there is none of
those (elements) which does not perish.
nihil est illōrum quin [= quod nōn] ego illi dixerim (Pl. Bae. 1012), there is
nothing of this that I have not told him.

Note.—Quin sometimes introduces a pure clause of result with the sense of ut nōn:
as,—numquam tam male est Siculis quin aliquid facētē et commolē dicat (Verr. iv.
95), things are never so bad with the Sicilians but that they have something pleasant
or witty to say.

For quin in independent constructions, see § 449. b.
SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

560. A clause which is used as a noun may be called a Substantive Clause, as certain relative clauses are sometimes called adjective clauses. But in practice the term is restricted to clauses which represent a nominative or an accusative case, the clauses which stand for an ablative being sometimes called adverbial clauses.

Even with this limitation the term is not quite precise (see p. 367, footnote 1). The fact is rather that the clause and the leading verb are mutually complementary; each reinforces the other. The simplest and probably the earliest form of such sentences is to be found in the paratactic use (see § 208) of two verbs like volō absās, dicāmus cēnsēō, adēm optimum est. From such verbs the usage spread by analogy to other verbs (see lists on pp. 363, 367, footnotes), and the complementary relation of the clause to the verb came to resemble the complementary force of the accusative, especially the accusative of cognate meaning (§ 300).

561. A clause used as a noun is called a Substantive Clause.

α. A Substantive Clause may be used as the Subject or Object of a verb, as an Appositive, or as a Predicate Nominative or Accusative.

Note 1.—Many ideas which in English take the form of an abstract noun may be rendered by a substantive clause in Latin. Thus, he demanded an investigation may be postulābat ut quaestió habēatur. The common English expression for with the infinitive also corresponds to a Latin substantive clause: as,—it remains for me to speak of the piratic war, reliquum est ut dē bello dicam pirāticō.

Note 2.—When a Substantive Clause is used as subject, the verb to which it is subject is called impersonal, and the sign of the construction in English is commonly the so-called expletive it.

562. Substantive Clauses are classified as follows:—

1. Subjunctive Clauses { a. Of purpose (command, wish, fear) (§§ 563, 564). (ut, rē, ut nōn, etc.). b. Of result (happen, effect, etc.) (§ 568).


4. Infinitive Clauses { a. With verbs of ordering, wishing, etc. (§ 563). b. Indirect Discourse (§ 579 ff.).

Note.—The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is not strictly a clause, but in Latin it has undergone so extensive a development that it may be so classed. The uses of the Infinitive Clause are of two kinds: (1) in constructions in which it replaces a subjunctive clause with ut etc.; (2) in the Indirect Discourse. The first class will be discussed in connection with the appropriate subjunctive constructions (§ 563); for Indirect Discourse, see § 579 ff.

Substantive Clauses of Purpose

563. Substantive Clauses of Purpose with ut (negative nē) are used as the object of verbs denoting an action directed toward the future.
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Such are, verbs meaning to admonish, ask, bargain, command, decree, determine, permit, persuade, resolve, urge, and wish: —

monet ut omnes suspicientes vitet (B. G. i. 20), he warns him to avoid all suspicion.

hortatūr eos nē animō déficiant (B. C. i. 19), he urges them not to lose heart.

nē rogō atque órō ut eum invēs (Fam. xiii. 66), I beg and pray you to aid him.

his uti conquerent imperāvit (B. G. i. 28), he ordered them to search.

persuādet Castiōn ut rēgnum occupāret (id. i. 3), he persuades Castius to usurp royal power.

suis imperāvit nē quod omhōnum résum récercet (id. i. 40), he ordered his men not to throw back any weapon at all.

Note. — With any verb of these classes the poets may use the Infinitive instead of an object clause: —

hortāmur fārī (Aen. ii. 74), we urge [him] to speak.

nē quaere doceāri (id. vi. 614), seek not to be told.

temptat praevertere (id. i. 721), she attempts to turn, etc.

For the Subjunctive without ut with verbs of commanding, see § 565. a.

a. Iubēō, order, and vetēō, forbid, take the Infinitive with Subject Accusative: —

Labiēnum iugum montis ascendere iubet (B. G. i. 21), he orders Labicius to ascend the ridge of the hill.

liberōs ad sē addūci iussit (id. ii. 5), he ordered the children to be brought to him.

ab opere légātōs discēdere vetuerat (id. ii. 20), he had forbidden the lieutenants to leave the work.

vetuērē [bona] reddī (Liv. ii. 5), they forbade the return of the goods (that the goods be returned).

Note. — Some other verbs of commanding etc. occasionally take the Infinitive: —

pontem imperant fieri (B. C. i. 61), they order a bridge to be built.

rēs monet cavēre (Sall. Cat. 52. 3), the occasion warns us to be on our guard.

b. Verbs of wishing take either the Infinitive or the Subjunctive.

With volō (nolō, mālō) and cupiō the Infinitive is commoner, and the subject of the infinitive is rarely expressed when it would be the same as that of the main verb.

With other verbs of wishing the Subjunctive is commoner when the subject changes, the Infinitive when it remains the same.

1. Subject of dependent verb same as that of the verb of wishing: —

angur fieri voluī (Fam. xv. 4. 13), I wished to be made augur.

cupidō vigiliam meam tibi trādere (id. xi. 24), I am eager to hand over my watch to you.

1 Such verbs or verbal phrases are id agō, ad id venīō, caveō (nē), cēnsō, cōgō, concedō, constītūō, cūrō, dēcernō, edēcō, fāgitō, hortō, imperō, instō, mandō, metuō (nē), moneō, negātiōn dō, operam dō, orō, persuādiō, petō, postulō, præcipiō, precōr, prōnūntiō, quaerō, rogō, sciscō, timeō (nē), vēceō (nē), videō, volō.
iūdicem mé esse, non doctorem volō (Or. 117), I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.

mē Caesaris mīlitēm dīci volūi (B. C. ii. 32. 13), I wished to be called a soldier of Caesar.
cupiō mē esse clēmentem (Cat. i. 4), I desire to be merciful. [But regularly, cupiō esse clēmēns (see § 457).]

omnīs hominēs, qui sēsē student praestāre cēterīs animālibus (Sall. Cat. 1),
all men who wish to excel other living creatures.

2. Subject of dependent verb different from that of the verb of wishing:
volō tē scire (Fam. ix. 24. 1), I wish you to know.
vim volumus exstinguī (Sest. 92), we wish violence to be put down.
tē tuā fruī virtūte cupidūm (Brut. 331), we wish you to reap the fruits of your virtue.
cupiō ut īmpetret (Pl. Capt. 102), I wish he may get it.
numquam optābō ut audiātis (Cat. ii. 15), I will never desire that you shall hear.

For volō and its compounds with the Subjunctive without ut, see § 565.

c. Verbs of permitting take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. Patiōr takes regularly the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; so often sinō: --

permīsit ut faceret (De Or. ii. 366), permitted him to make.
concēdō tibi ut ea praetereās (Rose. Am. 54), I allow you to pass by these matters.
tabernācula statui passus nōn est (B. C. i. 81), he did not allow tents to be pitched.
vinum importāri nōn sinunt (B. G. iv. 2), they do not allow wine to be imported.

d. Verbs of determining, decreeing, resolving, bargaining, take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive: --

constituerant ut L. Bēstia querētur (Sall. Cat. 43), they had determined that Lucius Bestia should complain.
proelīo supersedēre statuīt (B. G. ii. 8), he determined to refuse battle.
dē bonis rēgis quae reddi cēnsuerant (Liv. ii. 5), about the king’s goods, which they had decreed should be restored.
decernīt uti cōnsulēs dīlectum habeant (Sall. Cat. 34), decrees that the consuls shall hold a levy.
ēdēctō nē quīs inīussā pūgnāret (Liv. v. 19), having commanded that none should fight without orders.

Note 1.—Different verbs of these classes with the same meaning vary in their construction (see the Lexicon). For verbs of bargaining etc. with the Gerundive, see § 500. 4.

Note 2.—Verbs of decreeing and voting often take the Infinitive of the Second Periphrastic conjugation: — Regulus captivōs redendōs [esse] nōn cēnsit (Off. i. 39),
Regulus voted that the captives should not be returned. [He said, in giving his formal opinion: captīvī nōn redendī sunt.]
e. Verbs of caution and effort take the Subjunctive with ut. But cōnor, try, commonly takes the Complementary Infinitive: —

curā ut quam primum intellegam (Fam. xiii. 10. 4), let me know as soon as possible (take care that I may understand).

dant operam ut habeant (Sall. Cat. 41), they take pains to have (give their attention that, etc.).

impellere uti Caesar nōminārētur (id. 49), to induce them to name Caesar (that Caesar should be named).

cōnātus est Caesar réficere pontis (B. C. i. 50), Caesar tried to rebuild the bridges.

Note 1.—Cōnor also occurs (as B. G. i. 8); cf. mīror si etc., § 572. b. n.

Note 2.—Ut nē occurs occasionally with verbs of caution and effort (cf. § 531): —
curā ut providē ut aequitātī um désit (Att. xi. 3. 3), take care and see that he lacks nothing.

For the Subjunctive with quīn and quōminus with verbs of hindering etc., see § 538.

564. Verbs of fearing take the Subjunctive, with nē affirmative and nē nōn or ut negative.

In this use nē is commonly to be translated by that, ut and nē nōn by that not: —

timeō nē Verrēs fēcerit (Verr. v. 3), I fear that Verres has done, etc.

nē animīnum offendarer verēbātur (B. G. i. 19), he feared that he should hurt the feelings, etc.

nē exhorērētur veritus est (Rosc. Am. 58), he feared that he should be disinherit.

ōrātor menstruō nē lānguēscat senectūte (Cat. M. 28), I fear the orator grows feeble from old age.

vereor ut tibi possim concēdere (De Or. i. 35), I fear that I cannot grant you.

hand sānē periculum est nē nōn mortem optandum putet (Tusc. v. 118), there is no danger that he will not think death desirable.

Note.—The subjunctive in nē-clauses after a verb of fearing is optative in origin. To an independent nē-sentence, as nē accidat, may it not happen, a verb may be prefixed (cf. § 560), making a complex sentence. Thus, vidē nē accidat; ōrō nē accidat; cavet nē accidat; when the prefixed verb is one of fearing, timeō nē accidat becomes let it not happen, but I fear that it may. The origin of the ut-clause is similar.

565. Volō and its compounds, the impersonals licet and oportēt, and the imperatives dic and fac often take the Subjunctive without ut: —

volō amēs (Att. ii. 10), I wish you to love.

quam vellem nē invitāssēs (Fam. x. 28. 1), how I wish you had invited me!

mālem Cerberum metuerēs (Tusc. i. 12), I had rather you feared Cerberus.

sint enim oportet (id. 1. 12), for they must exist.

querāmur licet (Caec. 41). we are allowed to complain.

fac diligās (Att. iii. 13. 2), do love! [A periphrasis for the imperative diligere.

love (cf. § 449. c.)]

dic exeat, tell him to go out.
NOTE 1. — In such cases there is no ellipsis of ut. The expressions are idiomatic remnants of an older construction in which the subjunctives were hortatory or optative and thus really independent of the verb of wishing etc. In the classical period, however, they were doubtless felt as subordinate. Compare the use of cæpē and the subjunctive (without nē) in Prohibitions (§ 450), which appears to follow the analogy of facē.

NOTE 2. — Līcēt may take (1) the Subjunctive, usually without ut; (2) the simple Infinitive; (3) the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; (4) the Dative and the Infinitive (see § 455. 1). Thus, I may go is līcēt eam, līcēt ēre, līcēt mē ēre, or līcēt mihi ēre.

For līcēt in concessive clauses, see § 527. b.

NOTE 3. — Oportēt may take (1) the Subjunctive without ut; (2) the simple Infinitive; (3) the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. Thus I must go is oportēt eam, oportēt ēre, or oportēt mē ēre.

a. Verbs of commanding and the like often take the subjunctive without ut: —


imē mandat Rēmōs adeat (B. G. iii. 11), he orders him to visit the Remi.
rogaē finēm faciēt (id. i. 20), he asks him to cease.
Mnēstēthēa vocēt, classēm aptēt socē (Aen. iv. 289), he calls Mnēstēthēus [and orders that] his comrades shall make ready the fleet.

Note. — The subjunctive in this construction is the hortatory subjunctive used to express a command in Indirect Discourse (§ 588).

Substantive Clauses of Purpose with Passive Verbs

566. A Substantive Clause used as the object of a verb becomes the subject when the verb is put in the passive (*Impersonal Construction*): —

Caesar ut cōgnōscere postulātum est (B. C. i. 87), Caesar was requested to make an investigation (it was requested that Caesar should make an investigation).

si erat Heraclīō ab senātū mandātum ut emerēt (Verr. iii. 88), if Heraclius had been instructed by the senate to buy.

si persuāsum erat Cluvius ut mentirētūr (Rosco. Com. 51), if Cluvius had been persuaded to lie.

putō concedēt nōbis oportēre ut Graecō verbō utāmūr (Fin. iii. 15), I think we must be allowed to use a Greek word.

nē quid eis nocētūr ā Caesare cævētur (B. C. i. 86), Caesar takes care that no harm shall be done them (care is taken by Caesar lest, etc.).

a. With verbs of admonishing, the personal object becomes the subject and the object clause is retained: —

admonētū sumus ut cāvētēmus (Att. viii. 11 ν. 3), we were warned to be careful.
cum monētētur ut cautōr esset (Div. i. 51), when he was advised to be more cautious.

monērī visūs est nē id facēret (id. 56), he seemed to be warned not to do it.
b. Some verbs that take an infinitive instead of a subjunctive are used impersonally in the passive, and the infinitive becomes the subject of the sentence:

\[\text{loqui nōn concēditur (B. G. vi. 20), it is not allowed to speak.}\]

c. With iubeō, vetō, and cōgō, the subject accusative of the infinitive becomes the subject nominative of the main verb, and the infinitive is retained as complementary (Personal Construction):

\[\text{adesse inbēntur postrūdē (Verr. ii. 41), they are ordered to be present on the following day.}\]

\[\text{in exsilium iussus est (Cat. ii. 12), he was ordered to go into exile.}\]

\[\text{Simōnīdes vētilus est nāvīgāre (Div. ii. 134), Simonides was forbidden to sail.}\]

\[\text{Mandubīi exīre cōguntur (B. G. vii. 78), the Mandubīi are compelled to go out.}\]

Substantive Clauses of Result (Consecutive Clauses)

567. Clauses of Result may be used substantively, (1) as the object of faciō etc. (§ 568); (2) as the subject of these same verbs in the passive, as well as of other verbs and verbal phrases (§ 569); (3) in apposition with another substantive, or as predicate nominative etc. (see §§ 570, 571).\(^1\)

568. Substantive Clauses of Result with ut (negative ut nōn) are used as the object of verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort.\(^2\)

Such are especially faciō and its compounds (efficiō, conficiō, etc.): —

\[\text{efficiam ut intellegātis (Chu. 7), I will make you understand (lit. effect that you, etc.). [So, faciam ut intellegātis (id. 9).]}\]

\[\text{commātīs ut portānī possent efficiēbat (B. G. ii. 5), made it possible that supplies could be brought.}\]

\[\text{perfīci at ē rēgnō ille discēderet (Fam. xv. 4. 6), I brought about his departure from the kingdom.}\]

\[\text{quae libertās ut lacticō esset rēgis superbia sēcerat (Liv. ii. 1), the arrogance of the king had made this liberty more welcome.}\]

\[\text{ēvīcunt instānō ut litterae darentur (id. ii. 4), by insisting they gain their point, — that letters should be sent. [Here ēvīcunt = efficiēunt.]}\]

\(^1\) In all these cases the clause is not strictly subject or object. The main verb originally conveyed a meaning sufficient in itself, and the result clause was merely complementary. This is seen by the frequent use of ita and the like with the main verb (ita accidit ut, etc.). In like manner purpose clauses are only apparently subject or object of the verb with which they are connected.

\(^2\) Verbs and phrases taking an ut-clause of result as subject or object are accidit, additur, altera est réē, committē, consēquor, contingit, efficiē, ēvenitur, faciō, fit, fieri potēst, forē, impetrō, integrum est, mōs est, mūnus est, necesse est, prope est, réctum est, relinquētur, reliquum est, restāt, tantī est, tantum abest, and a few others.
569. Substantive Clauses of Result are used as the subject of the following:

1. Of passive verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort:—

impetrātum est ut in senātū recitārentur (litterae) (B. C. i. 1), they succeeded in having the letter read in the senate (it was brought about that, etc.).

ita effectūr ut omne corpus mortāle sit (N. D. iii. 30), it therefore is made out that every body is mortal.

2. Of Impersonals meaning it happens, it remains, it follows, it is necessary, it is added, and the like (§ 568, footnote):—

accidit ut esset lūna plēna (B. G. iv. 29), it happened to be full moon (it happened that it was, etc.). [Here ut esset is subject of accidit.]

reliquum est ut officiīs certēmus inter nōs (Fam. vii. 31), it remains for us to vie with each other in courtesies.

restat ut hōc dubītēmus (Rosc. Am. 88), it is left for us to doubt this.

sequitur ut doceam (N. D. ii. 81), the next thing is to show (it follows, etc.).

Note 1.—The infinitive sometimes occurs: as,—nec enim acciderat mīhi opus esse (Fam. vi. 11. 1), for it had not happened to be necessary to me.

Note 2.—Necesse est often takes the subjunctive without ut: as,—concēdās necesse est (Rosc. Am. 87), you must grant.

3. Of est in the sense of it is the fact that, etc. (mostly poetic):—
est ut virō vir lātius ōrdinet arbusta (Hor. Od. iii. 1. 9), it is the fact that one man plants his vineyards in wider rows than another.

a. Fore (or futūrum esse) ut with a clause of result as subject is often used instead of the Future Infinitive active or passive; so necessarily in verbs which have no supine stem:—

spērō fore ut contingat id nōbīs (Tusc. i. 82), I hope that will be our happy lot.

cum vidērem fore ut nōn possem (Cat. ii. 4), when I saw that I should not be able.

570. A substantive clause of result may be in apposition with another substantive (especially a neuter pronoun):—

illud etiam restiterat, ut te in īs ēducērent (Quinct. 33), this too remained—
for them to drag you into court.

571. A substantive clause of result may serve as predicate nominative after mōs est and similar expressions:—
est mōs homīnum, ut nōlīnt eundem plūribus rēbus excellere (Brut. 84), it is the way of men to be unwilling for one man to excel in several things.
A. A result clause, with or without ut, frequently follows quam after a comparative (but see § 583. c):

Canachi signa rigidiora sunt quam ut imitantur veritatem (Brut. 70), the statues of Canachus are too stiff to represent nature (stiffer than that they should). perpessus est omnium potius quam indicaret (Tusc. ii. 52), he endured all rather than betray, etc. [Regularly without ut except in Livy.]

b. The phrase tantum abest, it is so far [from being the case], regularly takes two clauses of result with ut: one is substantive, the subject of abest; the other is adverbial, correlative with tantum:

tantum abest ut nostris mirēmur, ut usque eō difficilese ac morosī simus, ut nōbis nōn satis faciat ipse Dēmosthenēs (Or. 104), so far from admiring my own works, I am difficult and cautious to that degree that not Dēmosthenēs himself satisfies me. [Here the first ut-clause is the subject of abest (§ 569. 2); the second, a result clause after tantum (§ 537); and the third, after usque eō.]

c. Rarely, a thought or an idea is considered as a result, and is expressed by the subjunctive with ut instead of the accusative and infinitive (§ 580). In this case a demonstrative usually precedes:

praecērēs illud est, ut eōs... amēmus (Tusc. iii. 73), this is a noble thing, that we should love, etc.

vērī similē nōn est ut ille antepōneret (Verr. iv. 11), it is not likely that he preferred.

For Relative Clauses with quīn after verbs of hindering etc., see § 558.

Indicative with Quod

572. A peculiar form of Substantive Clause consists of quod (in the sense of that, the fact that) with the Indicative.

The clause in the Indicative with quod is used when the statement is regarded as a fact:

alterum est vitium, quod quidam nīmis māgnūm studium cōnferant (Off. i. 19), it is another fault that some bestow too much zeal, etc. [Here ut cōnferant could be used, meaning that some should bestow; or the accusative and infinitive, meaning to bestow (abstractly); quod makes it a fact that men do bestow, etc.]

inter inanimum et animal hōc maximē interest, quod animal agit aliquid (Acad. ii. 37), this is the chief difference between an inanimate object and an animal, that an animal aims at something.

quod redēit nōbis mirābile vidētur (Off. iii. 111), that he (Regulus) returned seems wonderful to us.

accidit pericunnodē quod eum quisquam vidēstī (Att. i. 17. 2), it happened very unluckily that you nowhere saw him.
opportūnissima rès accidit quod Germāni vēnērunt (B. G. iv. 13), a very fortunate thing happened, (namely) that the Germans came.
praeterō quod eam sibi domum sēdēnque dēlēgit (Clu. 188), I pass over the fact that she chose that house and home for herself.
mittō quod possessa per vim (Flacc. 79), I disregard the fact that they were seized by violence.

Note. — Like other substantive clauses, the clause with quod may be used as subject, as object, as appositive, etc., but it is commonly either the subject or in apposition with the subject.

a. A substantive clause with quod sometimes appears as an accusative of specification, corresponding to the English whereas or as to the fact that:

quod mihi dē nostō statū grātulāris, minēm mirāmur tē tuis praeclāris operibus laetāri (Fam. i. 7. 7), as to your congratulating me on our condition, we are not at all surprised that you are pleased with your own noble works.
quod dē domō scribis, ego, etc. (Fam. xiv. 2. 3), as to what you write of the house, I, etc.

b. Verbs of feeling and the expression of feeling take either quod (quia) or the accusative and infinitive (Indirect Discourse):
quod scribis ... gandeō (Q. Fr. iii. 1. 9), I am glad that you write.
faciō libenter quod eam nōn possim praeiterire (Legg. i. 63), I am glad that I cannot pass it by.
quae perfecta esse vehementer laetor (Rosc. Am. 130), I greatly rejoice that this is finished.
qui quia nōn habuit ā mé turmās equitum fortasse suscēnset (Att. vi. 3. 5), who perhaps feels angry that he did not receive squadrons of cavalry from me.
molestē tuli tē senātūrī grātiās nōn ēgisse (Fam. x. 27. 1), I was displeased that you did not return thanks to the senate.

Note. — Mīror and similar expressions are sometimes followed by a clause with sī. This is apparently substantive, but really protasis (cf. § 563, e. n. 1). Thus, — mīror sī quemquam amīcum habēre potuit (Lael. 54), I wonder if he could ever have a friend. [Originally, If this is so, I wonder at it.]

Indirect Questions

573. An Indirect Question is any sentence or clause which is introduced by an interrogative word (pronoun, adverb, etc.), and which is itself the subject or object of a verb, or depends on any expression implying uncertainty or doubt.
In grammatical form, exclamatory sentences are not distinguished from interrogative (see the third example below).

Cf. the Greek θαυμάζω εἰ.
574. An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive:

quid ipse sentiam expōnam (Div. i. 10), I will explain what I think. [Direct: quid sentiō?]

id possetne fieri consuluit (id. i. 32), he consulted whether it could be done. [Direct: potestne?]

quam sis audāx omnēs intellegere potuērunt (Rosc. Am. 87), all could understand how bold you are. [Direct: quam es audāx?]

doleam necne doleam nihil interest (Tusc. ii. 29), it is of no account whether I suffer or not. [Double question.]

quaevisi ā Catilīnā in conventū apud M. Laecam fuisset necne (Cat. ii. 13), I asked Catiline whether he had been at the meeting at Marcus Laca's or not. [Double question.]

rogat mē quid sentiam, he asks me what I think. [Cf. rogat mē sententiam, he asks me my opinion.]

hōc dubium est, uter nostrum sit inverēcundior (Acad. ii. 126), this is doubtful, which of us two is the less modest.

incerti quātēnus Volerō exercērēt victoriam (Liv. ii. 55), uncertain how far Volero would push victory. [As if dubitātēs quātēnus, etc.]

Note. — An Indirect Question may be the subject of a verb (as in the fourth example), the direct object (as in the first), the secondary object (as in the sixth), an appositive (as in the seventh).

575. The Sequence of Tenses in Indirect Question is illustrated by the following examples:

dicō quid faciam, I tell you what I am doing.

dicō quid factūrus sim, I tell you what I will (shall) do.

dicō quid fecerim, I tell you what I did (have done, was doing).

dicē quid facerem, I told you what I was doing.

dici quid fecisses, I told you what I had done (had been doing).

disci quid factūrus essēm, I told you what I would (should) do (was going to do).

dici quid factūrus fuisse, I told you what I would (should) have done.

a. Indirect Questions referring to future time take the subjunctive of the First Periphrastic Conjugation:

prōspiciō quī concursūs futūri sint (Caecil. 42), I foresee what throngs there will be. [Direct: quī erunt?]

quid sit futūrum erēs, fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13), forbear to ask what will be on the morrow. [Direct: quī erit or futūrum est?]

posthac nōn scribam ad tē quid factūrus sim, sed quid fecerim (Att. x. 18), hereafter I shall not write to you what I am going to do, but what I have done. [Direct: quī facīs (or factūrus eris)? quī fecisti?]

Note. — This Periphrastic Future avoids the ambiguity which would be caused by using the Present Subjunctive to refer to future time in such clauses.

b. The Deliberative Subjunctive (§ 444) remains unchanged in an Indirect Question, except sometimes in tense:
quō mé vertam nesciō (Clu. 4), I do not know which way to turn. [Direct:
quō mé vertam?]
neque satis cōnstābat quid agerent (B. G. iii. 14), and it was not very clear what
they were to do. [Direct: quid agāmus?]
neque satis certum habet, quid aut spēret aut timeat (Liv. xxii. 7. 10),
nor is anyone well assured what he shall hope or fear. [Here the future
participle with sit could not be used.]
incertō quid pereant aut vitāreant (id. xxviii. 36. 12), since it was doubtful
(ablative absolute) what they should seek or shun.

c. Indirect Questions often take the Indicative in early Latin and
in poetry: —
vinca am quō in agrō consēri oportet sic observātō (Cato R. R. 6. 4), in what
soil a vineyard should be set you must observe thus.

d. Nesciō quīs, when used in an indefinite sense (somebody or other),
is not followed by the Subjunctive.
So also nesciō quō (unde, etc.), and the following idiomatic phrases
which are practically adverbs: —
mirum (nimīrum) quam, marvellously (marvellous how).
mirum quantum, tremendously (marvellous how much).
immāne quantum, monstrously (monstrous how much).
sānē quam, immensely.
valdē quam, enormously.

Examples are: —
quī istam nesciō quam indolentiam māgnopere laudant (Tusc. iii. 12), who
greatly extol that freedom from pain, whatever it is.
mirum quantum prōfuit (Liv. ii. 1), it helped prodigiously.
ita fātō nesciō quō contingisse arbitror (Fam. xv. 13), I think it happened so
by some fatality or other.
nam suōs valdē quam paucōs habet (id. xi. 13 A. 3), for he has uncommonly
few of his own.
sānē quam sum gāvisus (id. xi. 13 A. 4), I was immensely glad.
immāne quantum discrepat (Hor. Od. i. 27. 5), is monstrously at variance.

576. In colloquial usage and in poetry the subject of an In-
direct Question is often attracted into the main clause as object
(Accusative of Anticipation): —
nōstī Mārcellum quam tardus sit (Fam. viii. 10. 3), you know how slow Mar-
cellus is. [For nōstī quam tardus sit Mārcellus. Cf. “I know thee who
thou art.”]
Cf. potestne igitur eārum rērum, quā rē futūrae sint, ulla esse praesēnsīō (Div.
ii. 15), can there be, then, any foreknowledge as to those things, why they
will occur? [A similar use of the Objective Genitive.]
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NOTE.—In some cases the Object of Anticipation becomes the Subject by a change of voice, and an apparent mixture of relative and interrogative constructions is the result:—

quidam saepe in parva pecunia perspicuntur quam sint levēs (Lael. 63), it is often seen, in a trifling matter of money, how unprincipled some people are (some people are often seen through, how unprincipled they are).

quem ad modum Pompēium oppugnarent à me indicās sunt (Iug. Agr. i. 5), it has been shown by me in what way they attacked Pompey (they have been shown by me, how they attacked).

a. An indirect question is occasionally introduced by si in the sense of whether (like if in English, cf. § 572. 4. n.):—

circumfunduntur hostēs si quem aditum reprehendā possent (B. G. vi. 37), the enemy pour round [to see] if they can find entrance.

visam si domī est (Ter. H. 170), I will go see if he is at home.

NOTE.—This is strictly a Protasis, but usually no Apodosis is thought of, and the clause is virtually an Indirect Question.

For the Potential Subjunctive with forsitān (originally an Indirect Question), see § 447. a.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE

577. The use of the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (ōrātiō obliqua) is a comparatively late form of speech, developed in the Latin and Greek only, and perhaps separately in each of them. It is wholly wanting in Sanskrit, but some forms like it have grown up in English and German.

The essential character of Indirect Discourse is, that the language of some other person than the writer or speaker is compressed into a kind of Substantive Clause, the verb of the main clause becoming Infinitive, while modifying clauses, as well as all hortatory forms of speech, take the Subjunctive. The person of the verb necessarily conforms to the new relation of persons.

The construction of Indirect Discourse, however, is not limited to reports of the language of some person other than the speaker; it may be used to express what any one—whether the speaker or some one else—says, thinks, or perceives, whenever that which is said, thought, or perceived is capable of being expressed in the form of a complete sentence. For anything that can be said etc. can also be reported indirectly as well as directly.

The use of the Infinitive in the main clause undoubtedly comes from its use as a case-form to complete or modify the action expressed by the verb of saying and its object together. This object in time came to be regarded as, and in fact to all intents became, the subject of the infinitive. A transition state is found in Sanskrit, which, though it has no indirect discourse proper, yet allows an indirect predication after verbs of saying and the like by means of a predicative apposition, in such expressions as "The maids told the king [that] his daughter [was] bereft of her senses."

The simple form of indirect statement with the accusative and infinitive was afterwards amplified by introducing dependent or modifying clauses; and in Latin it became a common construction, and could be used to report whole speeches etc., which in other languages would have the direct form. (Compare the style of reporting speeches in English, where only the person and tense are changed.)

The Subjunctive in the subordinate clauses of Indirect Discourse has no significance except to make more distinct the fact that these clauses are subordinate; consequently no direct connection has been traced between them and the uses of the mood in simple
sentences. It is probable that the subjunctive in indirect questions (§ 574), in informal indirect discourse (§ 593), and in clauses of the integral part (§ 593) represents the earliest steps of a movement by which the subjunctive became in some degree a mood of subordination.

The Subjunctive standing for hortatory forms of speech in Indirect Discourse is simply the usual hortatory subjunctive, with only a change of person and tense (if necessary), as in the reporter’s style.

578. A Direct Quotation gives the exact words of the original speaker or writer (Òratiō Rēcta).

An Indirect Quotation adapts the words of the speaker or writer to the construction of the sentence in which they are quoted (Òratiō Obliqua).

Note.—The term Indirect Discourse (Òratiō obliqua) is used in two senses. In the wider sense it includes all clauses—of whatever kind—which express the words or thought of any person indirectly, that is, in a form different from that in which the person said the words or conceived the thought. In the narrower sense the term Indirect Discourse is restricted to those cases in which some complete proposition is cited in the form of an Indirect Quotation, which may be extended to a narrative or an address of any length, as in the speeches reported by Cæsar and Livy. In this book the term is used in the restricted sense.

**FORMAL INDIRECT DISCOURSE**

579. Verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving,¹ govern the Indirect Discourse.

Note.—Inquam, said I (etc.) takes the Direct Discourse except in poetry.

Declaratory Sentences in Indirect Discourse

580. In Indirect Discourse the main clause of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive:—

sciō mé paene increādībīlem rem pollicēri (B. C. iii. 86), I know that I am promising an almost incredible thing. [Direct: pollicēr.]
nōn arbitrō tē ita sentire (Pom. x. 26. 2), I do not suppose that you feel thus. [Direct: sentiēs.]
spēro mē liberātum [esse] dē metū (Tusc. ii. 67), I trust I have been freed from fear. [Direct: liberātus sum.]

¹ Such are: (1) knowing, sciō, cōgnōscō, compertum habēō, etc.; (2) thinking, putō, existimō, arbitrōr, etc.; (3) telling, dicō, nūntiō, referē, pollicēr, prōmittō, certīōrem faciō, etc.; (4) perceiving, sentiō, compertiō, videō, audiō, etc. So in general any word that denotes thought or mental and visual perception or their expression may govern the Indirect Discourse.
Indirect Discourse

(dicit) esse non nullōs quorum auctoritās plurimum valeat (B. G. i. 17), he says there are some, whose influence most prevails. [Direct: sunt non nullī... valet.]

nisi inrāsset, scelus sem factūrum [esse] arbitrābatur (Verr. ii. 1. 123), he thought he should incur guilt, unless he should take the oath. [Direct: nisi inrāverō, faciam.]

α. The verb of saying etc. is often not expressed, but implied in some word or in the general drift of the sentence: —

cōnsulis alterius nōmen invisum cīvitātī fuit: nīnimium Tarquiniōs rēgnō adsuēsse; initiō a Prīscō factum; rēgnasse deīn Ser. Tullium, etc. (Liv. ii. 2), the name of the other consul was hateful to the state; the Tarquins (they thought) had become too much accustomed to royal power, etc. [Here invisum implies a thought, and this thought is added in the form of Indirect Discourse.]

ōrantēs ut urbibus saltem — iam enim agrōs déplorātōs esse — opem senātus ferret (id. xii. 6), praying that the senate would at least bring aid to the cities — for the fields [they said] were already given up as lost.

β. The verb negō, deny, is commonly used in preference to dicō with a negative: —

[Stōici] negant quidquām [esse] bonum nisi quod honestum sit (Fin. ii. 68), the Stoics assert that nothing is good but what is right.

γ. Verbs of promising, hoping, expecting, threatening, swearing, and the like, regularly take the construction of Indirect Discourse, contrary to the English idiom: —

minātur sēsē abīre (Pl. Asin. 604), he threatens to go away. [Direct: abēo, I am going away.]

spērant sē maximum frāctum esse captūrōs (Lael. 79), they hope to gain the utmost advantage. [Direct: cāpiēmus.]

spērat sē absolūtum irī (Sull. 21), he hopes that he shall be acquitted. [Direct: absolvar.]

quem inimicissimum futūrum esse prōmittō ac spondeō (Mur. 90), who I promise and warrant will be the bitterest of enemies. [Direct: erit.]

dolor fortitūdinem sē dēbīlitāturum minātur (Tusc. v. 76), pain threatens to wear down fortitude. [Direct: dēbītābō.]

confido mé quod vēlim facile à tē imperāturum (Fam. xi. 10. 1), I trust I shall easily obtain from you what I wish. [Direct: quod volō, imperātrō.]

Note.—These verbs, however, often take a simple Complementary Infinitive (§ 456). So regularly in early Latin (except spērō): —
pollicitur obsidēs dare (B. G. iv. 21), they promise to give hostages.
prōmissī dōlīum vini dare (Pl. Cist. 542), I promised to give a jar of wine.

1 Compare the Greek aorist infinitive after similar verbs.
a. Some verbs and expressions may be used either as verbs of saying, or as verbs of commanding, effecting, and the like. These take as their object either an Infinitive with subject accusative or a Substantive clause of Purpose or Result, according to the sense.

1. Infinitive with Subject Accusative (Indirect Discourse): —
laudem sapientiae statuō esse maximam (Fam. v. 13), I hold that the glory of wisdom is the greatest. [Indirect Discourse.]
rés ipsa monēbat tempus esse (Att. x. 8. 1), the thing itself warned that it was time. [Cf. monēre ut, warn to do something.]
fac mihi esse persuāsum (N. D. i. 75), suppose that I am persuaded of that. [Cf. facere ut, bring it about that.]
hóc volunt persuādere, non interire animās (B. G. vi. 14), they wish to convince that souls do not perish.

2. Subjunctive (Substantive Clause of Purpose or Result): —
statuunt ut decem milia hominum mittantur (B. G. vii. 21), they resolve that 10,000 men shall be sent. [Purpose clause (cf. § 563).]
lunīc persuādet ut ad hostis trāneat (id. iii. 18), he persuades him to pass over to the enemy.
Pompeius suis praedixerat ut Caesaris impetum excipierent (B. C. iii. 92), Pompey had instructed his men beforehand to await Caesar's attack.
dēnuntiāvit ut essent animō parāti (id. iii. 86), he bade them be alert and steadfast (ready in spirit).

Note. — The infinitive with subject accusative in this construction is Indirect Discourse, and is to be distinguished from the simple infinitive sometimes found with these verbs instead of a subjunctive clause (§ 563. d).

§ 581. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is regularly expressed in Indirect Discourse, even if it is wanting in the direct:
ōrātor sum, I am an orator; dicit sē esse ōrātorem, he says he is an orator.

Note 1. — But the subject is often omitted if easily understood: —
ignōscere imprudentiae dixit (B. G. iv. 27), he said he pardoned their rashness.
eadem ab aliis queritur: reprehēs esse vēra (id. i. 18), he inquires about these same things from others; he finds that they are true.

Note 2. — After a relative, or quam (than), if the verb would be the same as that of the main clause, it is usually omitted, and its subject is attracted into the accusative: —
tē suspicor eisdem ōbūs qualibus mē ipsum commovēri (Cat. M. 1), I suspect that you are disturbed by the same things as I.
confūdō tamen haec quoque tibi nōn minus grāta quam ipsōs librōs futūra (Plin. Ep. iii. 5. 20), I trust that these facts too will be no less pleasing to you than the books themselves.

Note 3. — In poetry, by a Greek idiom, a Predicative Noun or Adjective in the indirect discourse sometimes agrees with the subject of the main verb: —
vir bonus et sapientēs ait esse parātus (Hor. Ep. i. 7. 22), a good and wise man says he is prepared, etc. [In prose: ait sē esse parātum.]
sēnit mediōs delāpsus in hostīs (Aen. ii. 377), he found himself fallen among the foe. [In prose: sē esse delāpsum.]
582. When the verb of *saying* etc. is passive, the construction may be either Personal or Impersonal. But the Personal construction is more common and is regularly used in the tenses of incomplete action:—

beāte víxiisse *vidéor* (Lael. 15), *I seem to have lived happily.*

Epaminondás fidibus praecláre cécinisse *dicitur* (Tusc. i. 4), *Epaminondas is said to have played excellently on the lyre.*

multi idem factúri esse *dicuntur* (Fam. xvi. 12. 4), *many are said to be about to do the same thing.* [Active: *dicuntur multós factúros* (esse).]

prími tráduntur arte quádam verba víxiisse (Or. 40), *they first are related to have joined words with a certain skill.*

Bibulus audíbátur esse in Syriá (Att. v. 18), *it was heard that Bibulus was in Syria* (Bibulus was heard, etc.). [Direct: *Bibulus est.*]

cèterae Illyrí ci legiúnes secútúras spérábuntur (Tac. H. ii. 74), *the rest of the Legions of Illyricum were expected to follow.*

vidémus enim quiétūri fuisse, nisi essémus laccésiti (De Or. ii. 230), *it seems that we should have kept quiet, if we had not been molested (we seem, etc.).*

[Direct: *quiéssémus . . . nisi essémus laccésiti.*]

Note.—The poets and later writers extend the personal use of the passive to verbs which are not properly *verba sentiendi* etc.: as,— *colliger domínæ placuísse* (Ov. Am. ii. 6. 61), *it is gathered [from this memorial] that I pleased my mistress.*

α. In the compound tenses of verbs of *saying* etc., the impersonal construction is more common, and with the gerundive is regular:—

*tráditum est étiam Homérum cæcum fuisse* (Tusc. v. 114), *it is a tradition, too, that Homer was blind.*

ubi tyrannus est, ibi non vitiosam, sed *ácidum est plánē nullam esse rem publicam* (Rep. iii. 43), *where there is a tyrant, it must be said, not that the commonwealth is evil, but that it does not exist at all.*

Note.—An indirect narrative begun in the personal construction may be continued with the *Infinitive* and *Accusative* (as De Or. ii. 299; Liv. v. 41. 9).

Subordinate Clauses in Indirect Discourse

583. A Subordinate Clause _merely explanatory_, or containing statements which are regarded as true independently of the quotation, takes the Indicative:—

*quis negát habe omnia quae vídémus déorum potestáte administrári* (Cat. iii. 21), *who can deny that all these things we see are ruled by the power of the gods?*

quid ingeníu putábatur quae gesserat posse celebrári (Arch. 20), *by whose genius he thought that those deeds which he had done could be celebrated.* [Here the fact expressed by *quae gesserat*, though not explanatory, is felt to be true without regard to the quotation: _quae gessisset_ would mean, _what Marius claimed to have done._]
NOTE.—Such a clause in the indicative is not regarded as a part of the Indirect Discourse; but it often depends merely upon the feeling of the writer whether he shall use the Indicative or the Subjunctive (cf. §§ 591–593).

a. A subordinate clause in Indirect Discourse occasionally takes
the Indicative when the fact is emphasized:—

factum éius hostis perículum . . . cum, Cimbris et Teutonis . . . pulsís, non
minórem laudem exercitus quam ipse imperátor meritus vidébátur (B. G.
i. 40), that a trial of this enemy had been made when, on the defeat of the
Cimbrì and Teutoni, the army seemed to have deserved no less credit than
the commander himself.

b. Clauses introduced by a relative which is equivalent to a
demonstrative with a conjunction are not properly subordinate, and
hence take the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (see
§ 308. f):—

Marcellus requisísse dicitur Archimédem illum, quem cum audisset inter-
fectum permolestæ tulisse (Verr. iv. 131), Marcellus is said to have sought
for Archimedes, and when he heard that he was slain, to have been greatly
distressed. [quem = et eum.]
cénsent únus quemque nostrum mundi esse partem, ex quó [= et ex eō]
illud náttūrā cónsegui (Fin. iii. 64), they say that each one of us is a part
of the universe, from which this naturally follows.

NOTE.—Really subordinate clauses occasionally take the accusative and infinitive:
as,—quem a d modo si non dédatur obsés pró rupto foedus sē habitūrum, sic dédítam
inviolātum ad snōs remissārum (Liv. ii. 13), [he says] as in case the hostage is not
given up he shall consider the treaty as broken, so if given up he will return her
unharmed to her friends.

c. The infinitive construction is regularly continued after a com-
parative with quam:—

addit sē prius occisum iri ab eō quam mé violātum iri (Att. ii. 20. 2), he adds
that he himself will be killed by him, before I shall be injured.
nōnne adfirmāvi quidvis mé potius perpessārum quam ex Ītāliā exitūrum
(Fam. ii. 16. 3), dūd I not assert that I would endure anything rather
than leave Italy?

NOTE.—The subjunctive with or without ut also occurs with quam (see § 535. c).

Tenses of the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse

584. The Present, the Perfect, or the Future Infinitive¹ is used
in Indirect Discourse, according as the time indicated is present,
past, or future with reference to the verb of saying etc. by which
the Indirect Discourse is introduced:—

¹ For various ways of expressing the Future Infinitive, see § 164. 3. c.
cadō, I am falling.
dicit se cadere, he says he is falling.
dicit se cadere, he said he was falling.

cadēbam, I was falling; cecidi, I fell, have fallen;
cecideram, I had fallen.
dicit se cecidisse, he says he was falling, fell, has fallen, had fallen.
dicit se cecidisse, he said he fell, had fallen.

cadam, I shall fall.
dicit secasūrum [esse], he says he shall fall.
dicit secasūrum [esse], he said he should fall.

ceciderō, I shall have fallen.
dicit fore ut ceciderit [rare], he says he shall have fallen.
dicit fore ut cecidisset [rare], he said he should have fallen.

a. All varieties of past time are usually expressed in Indirect Discourse by the Perfect Infinitive, which may stand for the Imperfect, the Perfect, or the Pluperfect Indicative of the Direct.

Note. — Continued or repeated action in past time is sometimes expressed by the Present Indicative, which in such cases stands for the Imperfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse and is often called the Imperfect Infinitive.

This is the regular construction after memini when referring to a matter of actual experience or observation: as,—tē memini habeāre dicere, I remember your saying this (that you said this). [Direct: dixisti or dixēbās.]

b. The present infinitive posse often has a future sense:

tōlius Galliæ sēcet potīrī posse spērant (B. G. 1. 3), they hope that they shall be able to get possession of all Gaul.

Tenses of the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse

585. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse follow the rule for the Sequence of Tenses (§ 482). They depend for their sequence on the verb of saying etc. by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced.

Thus in the sentence, dicit se Rōmam itūrum ut cōnsulem vidēret, he said he should go to Rome in order that he might see the consul, vidēret follows the sequence of dicit without regard to the Future Infinitive, itūrum [esse], on which it directly depends.

Note. — This rule applies to the subjunctive in subordinate clauses, to that which stands for the imperative etc. (see examples, § 588), and to that in questions (§ 586).

a. A subjunctive depending on a Perfect Infinitive is often in the Imperfect or Pluperfect, even if the verb of saying etc. is in a primary tense (cf. § 485. f); so regularly when these tenses would have been used in Direct Discourse:
Tarquinium dixisse ferunt tum exsulatam sem intellectisse quos fidos amicos habuisset (Lact. 53), they tell us that Tarquin said that then in his exile he had found out what faithful friends he had had. [Here the main verb of saying, ferunt, is primary, but the time is carried back by dixisse and intellectisse, and the sequence then becomes secondary.]

tantum profeciisse videmur ut a Graecis ne verborum quidem copia vinceremur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in abundance of words we are not surpassed by the Greeks.

**Note 1.**—The proper sequence may be seen, in each case, by turning the Perfect Infinitive into that tense of the Indicative which it represents. Thus, if it stands for an imperfect or an historical perfect, the sequence will be secondary; if it stands for a perfect definite, the sequence may be either primary or secondary (§ 485. a).

**Note 2.**—The so-called imperfect infinitive after memini (§ 584. a. n.) takes the secondary sequence: ad met adire quodam memini, qui dicere (Faen. iii. 10. 6), I remember that some persons visited me, to tell me, etc.

b. The Present and Perfect Subjunctive are often used in dependent clauses of the Indirect Discourse even when the verb of saying etc. is in a secondary tense:—

dicebant . . . totidem Nervios (polliceris) qui longissime absint (B. G. ii. 4), they said that the Nervii, who live furthest off, promised as many.

**Note.**—This construction comes from the tendency of language to refer all time in narration to the time of the speaker (repraesentatio). In the course of a long passage in the Indirect Discourse the tenses of the subjunctive often vary, sometimes following the sequence, and sometimes affected by repraesentatio. Examples may be seen in B. G. i. 13, vii. 20, etc.

Certain constructions are never affected by repraesentatio. Such are the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive with cum temporal, antequam, and priusquam.

**Questions in Indirect Discourse**

586. A Question in Indirect Discourse may be either in the Subjunctive or in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

A *real question*, asking for an answer, is generally put in the Subjunctive; a *rhetorical question*, asked for effect and implying its own answer, is put in the Infinitive:—

quid sibi vellet? cur in suas possessiones veniret (B. G. i. 44), what did he want? why did he come into his territories? [Real question. Direct: quid vellet? cur venisset?]

num recentium iniuriarum memoriam se depone posse (id. i. 14), could he lay aside the memory of recent wrongs? [Rhetorical Question. Direct: num posse?]

quem signum daturum fugientibus? quem austrum Alexandrum succedere (Q. C. iii. 5. 7), who will give the signal on the retreat? who will dare succeed Alexander? [Rhetorical. Direct: quis dabit . . . audiet.]
NOTES 1. — No sharp line can be drawn between the Subjunctive and the Infinitive in questions in the Indirect Discourse. Whether the question is to be regarded as rhetorical or real often depends merely on the writer’s point of view:—

utrum partem regni petitorum esse, an totum creaturum (Liv. xlv. 19. 15), will you ask part of the regal power (he said), or seize the whole?

quid tandem praetori faciendum fuisse (id. xxxi. 48), what, pray, ought a praetor to have done?

quid repente factum esse, etc. (id. xxxiv. 54), what had suddenly happened, that, etc.?

NOTE 2. — Questions coming immediately after a verb of asking are treated as Indirect Questions and take the Subjunctive (see § 574). This is true even when the verb of asking serves also to introduce a passage in the Indirect Discourse. The question may be either real or rhetorical. See quaevis, etc. (Liv. xxxvii. 15).

For the use of tenses, see § 585.

587. A Deliberative Subjunctive (§ 444) in the Direct Discourse is always retained in the Indirect:—
cum aliquos ex suis amitteret (B. C. i. 72), why (thought he) should he lose some of his men? [Direct: curr amittere?]

Commands in Indirect Discourse

588. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse:—

reminisceretur veteris incommodi (B. G. i. 13), remember (said he) the ancient disaster. [Direct: reminiscere.]

finera faciat (id. i. 20), let him make an end. [Direct: fac.]

ferrent opem, adiuvent (Liv. ii. 6), let them bring aid, let them help.

α. This rule applies not only to the Imperative of the direct discourse, but to the Hortatory and the OPTATIVE Subjunctive as well.

NOTE 1. — Though these subjunctives stand for independent clauses of the direct discourse, they follow the rule for the sequence of tenses, being in fact dependent on the verb of saying etc. (cf. §§ 483, 585).

NOTE 2. — A Prohibition in the Indirect Discourse is regularly expressed by nē with the present or imperfect subjunctive, even when nēi with the infinitive would be used in the Direct: as,—nēperturbāretur (B. G. vii. 25), do not (he said) be troubled. [Direct: nēi perturbāre. But sometimes nēlet is found in Indirect Discourse.]

Conditions in Indirect Discourse

589. Conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are expressed as follows:—

1. The Protasis, being a subordinate clause, is always in the Subjunctive.

2. The Apodosis, if independent and not hortatory or OPTATIVE, is always in some form of the Infinitive.
**a.** The Present Subjunctive in the apodosis of *less vivid* future conditions (§ 516. b) becomes the Future Infinitive like the Future Indicative in the apodosis of *more vivid* future conditions.

Thus there is no distinction between more and less vivid future conditions in the Indirect Discourse.

Examples of Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse are —

1. **Simple Present Condition** (§ 515): —

(dixit) si ipse populō Rōmānō nōn praescriberet quem ad modum suō iūre uterētur, nōn oportēre sēsē ā populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impediri (B. G. i. 30), he said that if he did not dictate to the Roman people how they should use their rights, he ought not to be interfered with by the Roman people in the exercise of his rights. [Direct: si nōn praescribō... nōn oportet.]

praedicavit... sī pāce ēst, inquinum esse, etc. (id. i. 44), he asserted that if they wished to enjoy peace, it was unfair, etc. [Direct: si volunt... est. Present tense kept by repraesentātiō (§ 585. b. n.).]

2. **Simple Past Condition** (§ 515): —

nōn dicam nē illud quidem, sī maximē in culpā fuerit Apollōnius, tamen in hominem honestissimae civitātis honestissimum tam graviter animadverī, causā indicā, nōn oportuisset (Verr. v. 20), I will not say this either, that, even if Apollōnius was very greatly in fault, still an honorable man from an honorable state ought not to have been punished so severely without having his case heard. [Direct: si fuit... nōn oportuit.]

3. **Future Conditions** (§ 516): —

(dixit) quod sī praetērē nēmō sequātur, tamen sē cum sōlā decimā legiōne itūrum (B. G. i. 40), but if nobody else should follow, still he would go with the tenth legion alone. [Direct: si sequētur... ibō. Present tense by repraesentātiō (§ 585. b. n.).]

Haeduī sē obsiōdes reddītūrum nōn esse, neque eīs... bellum illātūrum, sī in eīs manērent, quod convēnisset, stipendiumque quotannis penderent: sī id nōn fīcissent, longē eīs frāternum nōmen populī Rōmānī āfūtūrum (id. i. 36), he said that he would not give up the hostages to the Haeduī, but would not make war upon them if they observed the agreement which had been made, and paid tribute yearly; but that, if they should not do this, the name of brothers to the Roman people would be far from aiding them. [Direct: reddam... inferam... sī manēbunt... pendent: sī nōn fēcissent... aberit.]

id Damāsēs ut audīvit, sēnsit, sī in turbam exīset ab homine tam necessāriō sē reliquit. futūrum [esse] ut cēteri cūsilium sequantur (Nep. Dat. 6), when Damāsēs heard this, he saw that, if it should get abroad that he had been abandoned by a man so closely connected with him, everybody else would follow his example. [Direct: sī exierit... sequantur.]
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(putāverunt) nisi mē civitāte expulissent, obtinēre sē nōn posse licetiam cupiditātum suārum (Att. x. 4), they thought that unless they drove me out of the state, they could not have free play for their desires. [Direct: nisi (Cicerōnem) expulerimus, obtinēre nōn poterimus.]

6. In changing a Condition contrary to fact (§ 517) into the Indirect Discourse, the following points require notice:—

1. The Protasis always remains unchanged in tense.
2. The Apodosis, if active, takes a peculiar infinitive form, made by combining the Participle in -ārus with fuisse.
3. If the verb of the Apodosis is passive or has no supine stem, the periphrasis futūrum fuisset ut (with the Imperfect Subjunctive) must be used. 4. An Indicative in the Apodosis becomes a Perfect Infinitive.

Examples are:—
nec sē superstītem filiæ futūrum fuisset, nisi spem aesculapianae mortis ēius in auxiliō commilitōnūm habuisset (Liv. iii. 50. 7), and that he should not now be a survivor, etc., unless he had had hope, etc. [Direct: nōn superstes essēs, nisi habuisset.]

illud Asia cōgitet, nūllam sē se neque bellī externī neque discordiārum domīsticārum calamitātem futūrum fuisset, si hoc imperiō nōn tenēretur (Q. Fr. i. 1. 34), let Asia (personified) think of this, that no disaster, etc., would not be hers, if they were not held by this government. [Direct: absēsset, si nōn tenēret.]

quod inimicīdīrūm crēditis [mē] exceptūrum fuisset, si insuntīs laccēssisset

(Q. C. vi. 19. 18), what enmities do you think I should have incurred, if I had wantonly assailed the innocent? [exceptisse... si laccēssisset.]

invītum sē dicere, nec dictūrum fuisset, ut cōrātīs rei publicae vinceret (Liv. ii. 2), that he spoke unwillingly and should not have spoken, did not love for the state prevail. [Direct: nec dixisset... nē vinceret.]

nisi eō tempore quidam nūntii de Caesariō victoriā... essent allāti, existi-
mābant plērque futūrum fuissent ut [oppidum] āmitteretur (B. C. iii. 101), most people thought that unless at that time reports of Caesar's victory had been brought, the town would have been lost. [Direct: nisi essent allāti... āmissum essēt.]

quōrum sī actūs potuisset esse longinquier, futūrum fuisset ut omnībus per-
fīctis artībus hominum vita ērudīrētur (Tusc. iii. 69), if life could have been longer, human existence, would have been embellished by every art in its perfection. [Direct: si potuisset... ērudīta esset.]

at plērque existimabant, sī acrius inscui voluisset, bellum eō dīe potuisset finire (B. C. iii. 51), but most people think that, if he had chosen to follow up the pursuit more vigorously, he could have ended the war on that day. [Direct: si voluisset... potuisset.]

Caesar respondit... sī alicuius intimāriē sībī conscius fuisset, nōn fuisset di-
ficile cavēre (B. G. i. 14), Caesar replied that if [the Roman people] had been aware of any wrong act, it would not have been hard for them to take precautions. [Direct: si fuisset, nōn difficile fuit (§ 517. c.).]
Note 1.—In Indirect Discourse Present Conditions contrary to fact are not distinguished in the apodosis from Past Conditions contrary to fact, but the protasis may keep them distinct.

Note 2.—The periphrasis futūrum fuisset ut is sometimes used from choice when there is no necessity for resorting to it, but not in Caesar or Cicero.

Note 3.—Very rarely the Future Infinitive is used in the Indirect Discourse to express the Apodosis of a Present Condition contrary to fact. Only four or five examples of this use occur in classic authors: as,—Titurius clamabat si Caesar adesset neque Carnutes, etc., neque Eburones tantum cum contemptione nostra ad castra venturos esse (B. G. v. 29), Titurius cried out that if Caesar were present, neither would the Carnutes, etc., nor would the Eburones be coming to our camp with such contempt. [Direct: si adesset . . . venirent.]

590. The following example illustrates some of the foregoing principles in a connected address:—

INDIRECT DISCOURSE

Si pœcem populus Römænus cum Helvētiiis faceret, in eam partem itūros atque ibi futūros Helvētios, ubi eōs Caesar constituentisset atque esse voluisset: sīn bellō persequī perseverāret, reminiscētur et veteris incommodi populi Römāni, et pristinae virtūtis Helvētiorum. Quod imprōvisō unum pāgum adortus esset, cum eī qui flūmen trānsisset suis auxiliōm ferre nōn possent, nē ob eam rem aut suae māgnō operē virtūtī tribueret, aut ipsōs déspiceret: sē ītā a pātrībus mālōribusque suis diācisse, ut magis virtūtē quam dolō contendenter, aut īnsidīās niterentur. Quā rē nē committeret, ut īs locus ubi cons titissent ex calamitāte populi Römāni et internicēone exercītūs nōmen caperet, aut memoriam prōderet.

—B. G. i. 13.

DIRECT DISCOURSE

Si pœcem populus Römænus cum Helvētiiis faceret, in eam partem ibunt atque ibi erant Helvētīi, ubi eōs tū constitueris atque esse volueris: sīn bellō persequī perseverābis, reminiscēre [inquit] et veteris incommodi populi Römāni, et pristinae virtūtis Helvētiorum. Quod imprōvisō unum pāgum adortus esset, cum eī qui flūmen trānsierant suis auxiliōm ferre nōn possent, nē ob eam rem aut tuae māgnō operē virtūtū tribueris, aut nōs despexeris: nōs ītā a pātrībus mālōribusque nostrīs diācīmus, ut magis virtūtē quam dolō contendāmus, aut īnsidīās nītāmur. Quā rē nōli committere, ut hīs locus ubi consistimus ex calamitāte populi Römāni et internicēone exercītūs nōmen capiat, aut memoriam prōdat.

INTERMEDIATE CLAUSES

591. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive—

1. When it expresses the thought of some other person than the speaker or writer (Informal Indirect Discourse), or

2. When it is an integral part of a Subjunctive clause or equivalent Infinitive (Attraction).¹

¹ See note on Indirect Discourse (§ 577).
Informal Indirect Discourse

592. A Subordinate Clause takes the Subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker:—

1. When the clause depends upon another containing a wish, a command, or a question, expressed indirectly, though not strictly in the form of Indirect Discourse:—

animal sentit quid sit quod deceat (Off. i. 14), an animal feels what it is that is fit.

hic imperat quæs possit adeat civitātēs (B. G. iv. 21), he orders him to visit what states he can.

hunc sibi ex animō scrūpulum, qui sē diēs noctisque stimulat ac pungit, ut ēvellātis postulat (Rosc. Am. 6), he begs you to pluck from his heart this doubt that goads and stings him day and night. [Here the relative clause is not a part of the Purpose expressed in ēvellātis, but is an assertion made by the subject of postulat.]

2. When the main clause of a quotation is merged in the verb of saying, or some modifier of it:—

sī quid dē his rēbus dicere vellet, fēcī postestātem (Cat. iii. 11), if he wished to say anything about these matters, I gave him a chance.

tulit dē caede quae in Apπā viā facta esset (Mil. 15), he passed a law concerning the murder which (in the language of the bill) took place in the Appian Way.

nisi restituisset statuās, vehementer minātur (Verr. ii. 162), he threatens them violently unless they should restore the statues. [Here the main clause, “that he will inflict punishment,” is contained in minātur.]

īs auxilium suum pollicitus si at Suēbis præmeretur (B. G. iv. 19), he promised them his aid if they should be molested by the Suevi. [= pollicitus sē auxilium lātūrum, etc.]

prohibitiō tollendi, nisi pactus esset, vim adhibēbat pactōni (Verr. iii. 37), the forbidding to take away unless he came to terms gave force to the bargain.

3. When a reason or an explanatory fact is introduced by a relative or by quod (rarely quia) (see § 540):—

Pactus omnis librōs quēs frāter suus reliquisset mihi dōnāvit (Att. ii. 1. 12),

Pactus presented to me all the books which (he said) his brother had left.

Note. — Under this head even what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the Subjunctive. So also with quod even the verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive (§ 540. n. 2). Here belong also nōn quia, nōn quod, introducing a reason expressly to deny it. (See § 540. n. 3.)
Subjunctive of Integral Part (Attraction)

593. A clause depending upon a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an integral part of that clause: —

imperat, dum res iudicetur, ilmineum adservent: cum indicata sit, ad se ut adducant (Verr. iii. 55), he orders them, till the affair should be decided, to keep the man; when it is judged, to bring him to him.

etenim quis tam dissoluto animo est, qui haec cum videat, tacere ac neglegere possit (Rosc. Am. 32), for who is so reckless of spirit that, when he sees these things, he can keep silent and pass them by?

mos est Athenis laudari in contione eos qui sint in proelii interfecti (Or. 151), it is the custom at Athens for those to be publicly eulogized who have been slain in battle. [Here laudari is equivalent to ut laudentur.]

a. But a dependent clause may be closely connected grammatically with a Subjunctive or Infinitive clause, and still take the Indicative, if it is not regarded as a necessary logical part of that clause: —

quodam modò postulat ut, quem ad modum est, sic etiam appelletur, tyrannus (Att. x. 4. 2), in a manner he demands that as he is, so he may be called, a tyrant.

natura fert ut etsi faveamus qui eadem pericula quibus nos perfundit sumus ingrediuntur (Mur. 4), nature prompts us to feel friendly towards those who are entering on the same dangers which we have passed through.

dē hostēs, quod tantum multitūdine pōterant, saēs circumvenire possent (B. G. ii. 8), lest the enemy, because they were so strong in numbers, should be able to surround his men.

si mea in tē essent officia sōlum tanta quanta magis ă tē ipsō praedicāri quam ā mē ponderāri solent, verēcundius ā tē . . . pāterem (Fam. ii. 6), if my good services to you were only so great as they are wont rather to be called by you than to be estimated by me, I should, etc.

Note 1.—The use of the Indicative in such clauses sometimes serves to emphasize the fact, as true independently of the statement contained in the subjunctive or infinitive clause. But in many cases no such distinction is perceptible.

Note 2.—It is often difficult to distinguish between Informal Indirect Discourse and the Integral Part. Thus in imperāvit ut ea fierent quae opus esset, essent may stand for sunt, and then will be Indirect Discourse, being a part of the thought, but not a part of the order; or it may stand for erant, and then will be Integral Part, being a part of the order itself. The difficulty of making the distinction in such cases is evidence of the close relationship between these two constructions.

1 The subjunctive in this use is of the same nature as the subjunctive in the main clause. A dependent clause in a clause of purpose is really a part of the purpose, as is seen from the use of should and other auxiliaries in English. In a result clause this is less clear, but the result construction is a branch of the characteristic (§ 534), to which category the dependent clause in this case evidently belongs when it takes the subjunctive.
594. IMPORTANT RULES OF SYNTAX

1. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case (§ 282).
2. Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case (§ 286).
3. Superlatives (more rarely Comparatives) denoting order and succession—also medius, (ceterus), reliquus—usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant (§ 293).
4. The Personal Pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -um being used partitively, and that in -i oftenest objectively (§ 295. b).
5. The Reflexive Pronoun (sé), and usually the corresponding possessive (suus), are used in the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause (§ 299).
6. To express Possession and similar ideas the Possessive Pronouns must be used, not the genitive of the personal or reflexive pronouns (§ 302. a).
7. A Possessive Pronoun or an Adjective implying possession may take an appositive in the genitive case agreeing in gender, number, and case with an implied noun or pronoun (§ 302. e).
8. A Relative Pronoun agrees with its Antecedent in Gender and Number, but its Case depends on its construction in the clause in which it stands (§ 305).
9. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person (§ 316).
10. Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs (§ 321).
11. A Question of simple fact, requiring the answer yes or no, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word (§ 332).
12. When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word,—as in nōnne,—an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer (§ 332. b).
13. The Subject of a finite verb is in the Nominative (§ 339).
14. The Vocative is the case of direct address (§ 340).
15. A noun used to limit or define another, and not meaning the same person or thing, is put in the Genitive (§ 342).
16. The Possessive Genitive denotes the person or thing to which an object, quality, feeling, or action belongs (§ 343).
17. The genitive may denote the Substance or Material of which a thing consists (§ 344).

18. The genitive is used to denote Quality, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective (§ 345).

19. Words denoting a part are followed by the Genitive of the whole to which the part belongs (Partitive Genitive, § 346).

20. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the Genitive of the object (Objective Genitive, § 348).

21. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, fullness, power, sharing, guilt, and their opposites; participles in -ns when used as adjectives; and verbals in -āx, govern the Genitive (§ 349. a, b, c).

22. Verbs of remembering and forgetting take either the Accusative or the Genitive of the object (§ 350).

23. Verbs of reminding take with the Accusative of the person a Genitive of the thing (§ 351).

24. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting take the Genitive of the charge or penalty (§ 352).

25. The Dative is used of the object indirectly affected by an action (Indirect Object, § 361).

26. Many verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also, to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the Dative (§ 367).

27. Many verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, praec, prō, sub, super, and some with circum, admit the Dative of the indirect object (§ 370).

28. The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession (§ 373).

29. The Dative of the Agent is used with the Gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests (§ 374).

30. The Dative often depends, not on any particular word, but on the general meaning of the sentence (Dative of Reference, § 376).

31. Many verbs of taking away and the like take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 381).

32. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End, often with another Dative of the person or thing affected (§ 382).

33. The Dative is used with adjectives (and a few adverbs) of fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination, and their opposites (§ 384).
34. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusative (§ 387).

35. An intransitive verb often takes the Accusative of a noun of kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or in some other manner (Cognate Accusative, § 390).

36. Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object (§ 393).

37. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take (in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition (§ 394).

38. Some verbs of asking and teaching may take two Accusatives, one of the Person, and the other of the Thing (§ 395).

39. The subject of an Infinitive is in the Accusative (§ 397 e).

40. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (§§ 424 e, 425).

41. Words signifying separation or privation are followed by the Ablative (Ablative of Separation, § 400).

42. The Ablative, usually with a preposition, is used to denote the source from which anything is derived or the material of which it consists (§ 403).

43. The Ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to express cause (§ 404).

44. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is expressed by the Ablative with ā or ab (§ 405).

45. The Comparative degree is often followed by the Ablative signifying than (§ 406).

46. The Comparative may be followed by quam, than. When quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case (§ 407).

47. The Ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action (§ 409).

48. The deponents, ātor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vēscor, with several of their compounds, govern the Ablative (§ 410).

49. Opus and usus, signifying need, are followed by the Ablative (§ 411).

50. The manner of an action is denoted by the Ablative, usually with cum unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun (§ 412).
51. Accompaniment is denoted by the Ablative, regularly with cum (§ 413).

52. With Comparatives and words implying comparison the Ablative is used to denote the degree of difference (§ 414).

53. The quality of a thing is denoted by the Ablative with an adjective or genitive Modifier (§ 415).

54. The price of a thing is put in the Ablative (§ 416).

55. The Ablative of Specification denotes that in respect to which anything is or is done (§ 418).

56. The adjectives dignus and indignus take the Ablative (§ 418, b).

57. A noun or pronoun, with a participle in agreement, may be put in the Ablative to define the time or circumstances of an action (Ablative Absolute, § 419).

An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the ablative absolute construction (§ 419, a).

58. Time when, or within which, is denoted by the Ablative; time how long by the Accusative (§ 423).

59. Relations of Place are expressed as follows:—

1. The place from which, by the Ablative with ab, dé, ex.
2. The place to which (or end of motion), by the Accusative with ad or in.
3. The place where, by the Ablative with in (Locative Ablative). (§ 426.)

60. With names of towns and small islands, and with domus and rūs, the relations of place are expressed as follows:—

1. The place from which, by the Ablative without a preposition.
2. The place to which, by the Accusative without a preposition.
3. The place where, by the Locative. (§ 427.)

61. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used in the present tense to express an exhortation, a command, or a concession (§§ 439, 440).

62. The Optative Subjunctive is used to express a wish. The present tense denotes the wish as possible, the imperfect as unaccomplished in present time, the pluperfect as unaccomplished in past time (§ 441).

63. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying (1) doubt, indignation, or (2) an impossibility of the thing’s being done (Deliberative Subjunctive, § 444).
64. The Potential Subjunctive is used to suggest an action as possible or conceivable (§ 446).

65. The Imperative is used in commands and entreaties (§ 448).

66. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose (1) by nолī with the Infinitive, (2) by cavē with the Present Subjunctive, (3) by nē with the Perfect Subjunctive (§ 450).

67. The Infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used with est and similar verbs (1) as the Subject, (2) in Opposition with the subject, or (3) as a Predicate Nominative (§ 452).

68. Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the Infinitive without a subject accusative (Complementary Infinitive, § 456).

69. The Infinitive, with subject accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, see § 459).

70. The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the Nominative (Historical Infinitive, § 463).

71. Sequence of Tenses. In complex sentences, a primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect Subjunctive in the dependent clause; a secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect (§ 483).

72. Participles denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause (§ 489).

73. The Gerund and the Gerundive are used, in the oblique cases, in many of the constructions of nouns (§§ 501–507).

74. The Supine in -um is used after verbs of motion to express Purpose (§ 509).

75. The Supine in -ū is used with a few adjectives and with the nouns fās, nefās, and opus, to denote Specification (§ 510).

76. Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum ut, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive (§ 528).

77. Final clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (utī), negative nē (ut nē), or by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb (§ 531).

78. A Relative Clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a characteristic of the antecedent, especially where the antecedent is otherwise undefined (§ 535).

79. Dignus, indignus, aptus, and idoneus, take a Subjunctive clause with a relative (rarely with ut) (§ 535. f).
80. Clauses of Result take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut non), or by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb (§ 537).

81. The Causal Particles quod, quia, and quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is given on the authority of the writer or speaker; the Subjunctive when the reason is given on the authority of another (§ 540).

82. The particles postquam (posteāquam), ubi, ut (ut primum, ut semel), simul atque (simul ac, or simul alone) take the Indicative (usually in the perfect or the historical present) (§ 543).

83. A Temporal clause with cum, when, and some past tense of the Indicative dates or defines the time at which the action of the main verb occurred (§ 545).

84. A Temporal clause with cum and the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive describes the circumstances that accompanied or preceded the action of the main verb (§ 546).

85. Cum Causal or Concessive takes the Subjunctive (§ 549).

For other concessive particles, see § 527.

86. In Indirect Discourse the main clause of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive (§ 580).

87. The Present, the Perfect, or the Future Infinitive is used in Indirect Discourse, according as the time indicated is present, past, or future with reference to the verb of saying etc. by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced (§ 584).

88. In Indirect Discourse a real question is generally put in the Subjunctive; a rhetorical question in the Infinitive (§ 586).

89. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse (§ 588).

90. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker (Informal Indirect Discourse, § 592).

91. A clause depending on a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an integral part of that clause (Attraction, § 593).

For Prepositions and their cases, see §§ 220, 221.
For Conditional Sentences, see § 512 ff. (Scheme in § 514.)
For ways of expressing Purpose, see § 533.
ORDER OF WORDS

595. Latin differs from English in having more freedom in the arrangement of words for the purpose of showing the relative importance of the ideas in a sentence.

596. As in other languages, the Subject tends to stand first, the Predicate last. Thus,—

Pausânias Lacedaemonius magnus homō sed varius in omni genere vitae fuit
(Nep. Paus. 1), Pausanias the Lacedaemonian was a great man, but inconsistent in the whole course of his life.

Note.—This happens because, from the speaker's ordinary point of view, the subject of his discourse is the most important thing in it, as singled out from all other things to be spoken of.

α. There is in Latin, however, a special tendency to place the verb itself last of all, after all its modifiers. But many writers purposely avoid the monotony of this arrangement by putting the verb last but one, followed by some single word of the predicate.

597. In connected discourse the word most prominent in the speaker's mind comes first, and so on in order of prominence.

This relative prominence corresponds to that indicated in English by a graduated stress of voice (usually called emphasis).

α. The difference in emphasis expressed by difference in order of words is illustrated in the following passages:—

apud Xenophontem autem moriēns Cyrōs māior haec dicit (Cat. M. 79), in
Xenophon too, on his death-bed Cyrus the elder utters these words.
Cyrōs quidem haec moriēns; hās, si placet, nostrā videāmus (id. 82), Cyrus,
to be sure, utters these words on his death-bed; let us, if you please, con-
sider our own case.
Cyrōs quidem apud Xenophontem eō sērmōnc, quem moriēns habuit (id.
30), Cyrus, to be sure, in Xenophon, in that speech which he uttered on
his death-bed.

Note.—This stress or emphasis, however, in English does not necessarily show any violent contrast to the rest of the words in the sentence, but is infinitely varied, constantly increasing and diminishing, and often so subtle as to be unnoticed except in careful study. So, as a general rule, the precedence of words in a Latin sentence is not mechanical, but corresponds to the prominence which a good speaker would mark by skillfully managed stress of voice. A Latin written sentence, therefore, has all the clearness and expression which could be given to a spoken discourse by the best actor in English. Some exceptions to the rule will be treated later.

The first chapter of Cæsar's Gallie War, if rendered so as to bring out as far as possible the shades of emphasis, would run thus:—
GAUL, in the widest sense, is divided into three parts, which are inhabited (as follows): one by the Belgians, another by the Aquitani, the third by a people called in their own language Celts, in ours Gauls. These in their language, institutions, and laws are all of them different. The GAULS (proper) are separated from the Aquitani by the river Garonne, from the Belgians by the Marne and Seine. Of these (tribes) the bravest of all are the Belgians, for the reason that they live farthest away.

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1 GAUL: emphatic as the subject of discourse, as with a title or the like.
2 Divided: opposed to the false conception (implied in the use of omnis) that the country called Gallia by the Romans is one. This appears more clearly from the fact that Caesar later speaks of the Galli in a narrower sense as distinct from the other two tribes, who with them inhabit Gallia in the wider sense.
3 Parts: continuing the emphasis begun in divisa. Not three parts as opposed to any other number, but into parts at all.
4 Inhabited: emphatic as the next subject, "The inhabitants of these parts are, etc."
5 One: given more prominence than it otherwise would have on account of its close connection with quārum.
6 Another, etc.: opposed to one.
7 Their own, ours: strongly opposed to each other.
8 These (tribes): the main subject of discourse again, collecting under one head the names previously mentioned.
9 Language, etc.: these are the most prominent ideas, as giving the striking points which distinguish the tribes. The emphasis becomes natural in English if we say "these have a different language, different institutions, different laws."
10 All of them: the emphasis on all marks the distributive character of the adjective, as if it were "every one has its own, etc."
11 GAULS: emphatic as referring to the Gauls proper in distinction from the other tribes.
12 Separated: though this word contains an indispensable idea in the connection, yet it has a subordinate position. It is not emphatic in Latin, as is seen from the fact that it cannot be made emphatic in English. The sense is: The Gauls lie between the Aquitani on the one side, and the Belgians on the other.
13 Of these: the subject of discourse.
14 All: emphasizing the superlative idea in "bravest"; they, as Gauls, are assumed to be warlike, but the most so of all of them are the Belgians.
15 Farthest away: one might expect absent (are away) to have a more emphatic place, but it is dwarfed in importance by the predominance of the main idea, the effacing influences from which the Belgians are said to be free. It is not that they live farthest off that is insisted on, but that the civilization of the Province etc., which would soften them, comes less in their way. It is to be noticed also that absent has already been anticipated by the construction of cultū and still more by longissimē, so that when it comes it amounts only to a formal part of the sentence. Thms,—"because the civilization etc. of the Province (which would soften them) is farthest from them."
from the civilization and refinement of the Province, and because they are least of all of them subject to the visits of traders, and to the consequent importation of such things as tend to soften their warlike spirit; and are also nearest to the Germans, who live across the Rhine, and with whom they are incessantly at war. For the same reason the Helvetians, as well as superior to all the other Gauls in valor, because they are engaged in almost daily battles with the Germans, either defending their own boundaries from them, or themselves making war on those of the Germans. Of all this country, one part—the one which, as has been said, the Gauls (proper) occupy—begins at the river Rhine. Its boundaries are the river Garonne, the ocean, and the confines of the Belgians. It even reaches on the side of the Sequani and Helvetians the river Rhine. Its general direction is towards the north. The Belgians begin at the extreme limits of Gaul; they reach (on this side) as far as the lower part of the Rhine. They spread to the northward and eastward.

Aquitania extends from the Garonne to the Pyrenees, and that part of the ocean that lies towards Spain. It runs off westward and northward.

b. The more important word is never placed last for emphasis. The apparent cases of this usage (when the emphasis is not misconceived) are cases where a word is added as an afterthought, either real or affected, and so has its position not in the sentence to which it is appended, but, as it were, in a new one.

1 Least: made emphatic here by a common Latin order, the chiasmus (§ 598. f).
2 Traders: the fourth member of the chiasmus, opposed to culte and humanitate.
3 Such things as: the importance of the nature of the importations overshadows the fact that they are imported, which fact is anticipated in traders.
4 Soften: cf. what is said in note 15, p. 394. They are brave because they have less to soften them, their native barbarity being taken for granted.
5 Nearest: the same idiomatic prominence as in note 1 above, but varied by a special usage combining chiasmus and anaphora (§ 598. f).
6 Across the Rhine: i.e. and so are perfect savages.
7 Incessantly: the continuance of the warfare becomes the all-important idea, as if it were “and not a day passes in which they are not at war with them.”
598. The main rules for the Order of Words are as follows:—

a. In any phrase the determining and most significant word comes first:—

1. Adjective and Noun:—

omnīs hominēs decet, every man ought (opposed to some who do not).
Lūcīus Catilīna nōbiī genere nātus fuit, māgnā vi et animī et corporīs,
sed ingenīō malō prāvōque (Sall. Cat. 5), Lucius Catiline was born of a
noble family, with great force of mind and body, but with a nature
that was evil and depraved. [Here the adjectives in the first part are
the emphatic and important words, no antithesis between the nouns
being as yet thought of; but in the second branch the noun is meant
to be opposed to those before mentioned, and immediately takes
the prominent place, as is seen by the natural English emphasis, thus mak-
ing a chiōsmus.]

2. Word with modifying case:—

quid magis Epaminōndam, Thēbānōrum imperātorem, quam victōriae Thē-
banōrum consulere decuit (Inv. i. 69), what should Epaminondas, com-
mander of the Thebans, have aimed at more than the victory of the
Thebans?
lacrimā nihil citius ārēscit (id. i. 109), nothing dries quicker than a tear.
nēmō fērē laudis cupidus (De Or. i. 14), hardly any one desirous of glory
(cf. Manil. 7, avidi laudis, eager for glory).

b. Numerical adjectives, adjectives of quantity, demonstrative, relative,
and interrogative pronouns and adverbs, tend to precede the word or words
to which they belong:—

cum alīquā perturbātiōne (Off. i. 137), with some disturbance.
hōc īnō praestāmus (De Or. i. 32), in this one thing we excel.
cēteraē fērē arēs, the other arts.

Note. — This happens because such words are usually emphatic; but often the
words connected with them are more so, and in such cases the pronouns etc. yield the
emphatic place:—

causa alīqua (De Or. i. 250), some case.
stilus ille tuns (id. i. 257), that well-known style of yours (in an antithesis; see
passage). [Ille is idiomatic in this sense and position.]
Rōman quae apportāta sunt (Verr. iv. 121), what were carried to Rome (in contrast
to what remained at Syracusae).

c. When sum is used as the Substantive verb (§ 284. b), it regularly
stands first, or at any rate before its subject:—

est virī māgnī pūniōrē sonās (Off. i. 82), it is the duty of a great man to pun-
ish the guilty.

1 So called from the Greek letter X (chι), on account of the criss-cross arrangement
of the words. Thus, $a^b$ (see $\mathcal{J}$ below).
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d. The verb may come first, or have a prominent position, either (1) because the idea in it is emphatic; or (2) because the predication of the whole statement is emphatic; or (3) the tense only may be emphatic:—

(1) dicēbat idem Cotta (Off. ii. 59), Cotta used to say the same thing (opposed to others' boasting).

idem fecit adulēscēns M. Antonius (id. ii. 49), the same thing was done by Mark Antony in his youth. [Opposed to dixi just before.]

facis amicē (Lael. 9), you act kindly. [Cf. amicē facis, you are very kind (you act kindly).]

(2) propēsionis benigntās esse dēbēbit in calamitōs nisī forte erunt digni calamitāte (Off. ii. 62), liberality ought to be readier toward the unfortunate unless perchance they really deserve their misfortune.

praesertim cum scribat (Pametius) (id. iii. 8), especially when he does say (in his books). [Opposed to something omitted by him.]

(3) fuimus Trōes, fuit Ilīum (Aen. ii. 325), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is now no more.

loquor autem dē communibus amicītīs (Off. iii. 45), but I am speaking now of common friendships.

c. Often the connection of two emphatic phrases is brought about by giving the precedence to the most prominent part of each and leaving the less prominent parts to follow in inconspicuous places:—

plurēs solent esse causae (Off. i. 28), there are usually several reasons.

quōs amīsimus civis, eōs Martis vis percūlit (Marc. 17), what fellow-citizens we have lost, have been stricken down by the violence of war.

maximās tibi omnēs grātiās agimus (id. 33), we all render you the warmest thanks.

hac rēs ānīus est propria Caesaris (id. 11), this exploit belongs to Caesar alone.

obīngōtiones etiam nōn nunquam incidunt necessāriae (Off. i. 136), occasions for reprehense also sometimes occur which are unavoidable.

f. Antithesis between two pairs of ideas is indicated by placing the pairs either (1) in the same order (anaphora) or (2) in exactly the opposite order (chiasmus):—

(1) rērum cōpiā verborūm cōpiām gignit (De Or. iii. 125), abundance of matter produces copiousness of expression.

(2) lēgēs supplicatione improbōs afficiunt, defendunt ac fuentur bonōs (Legg. ii. 13), the laws visit punishments upon the wicked, but the good they defend and protect.

Notre. — Chiasmus is very common in Latin, and often seems in fact the more inartificial construction. In an artless narrative one might hear, “The women were all drowned, they saved the men.”

nōn igitur utilitātem amācitia sed utilitās amācitiam cōnsecūta est (Lael. 51), it is not then that friendship has followed upon advantage, but advantage upon friendship. [Here the chiasmus is only grammatical, the ideas being in the parallel order.] (See also p. 395: longissimē, minimē, proximē.)
g. A modifier of a phrase or some part of it is often embodied within the phrase (cf. a):

dē commūni hominum memorīa (Tusc. i. 59), in regard to the universal memory of man.

h. A favorite order with the poets is the interlocked, by which the attribute of one pair comes between the parts of the other (synchysis):

et superiectō pavidae natārun taeaeque damnae (Hor. Od. i. 2. 11).

Note.—This is often joined with chiasmus: as,—arma non düm expiātās unēta erūribus (id. ii. 1. 5).

i. Frequently unimportant words follow in the train of more emphatic ones with which they are grammatically connected, and so acquire a prominence out of proportion to their importance:

dictābat sē hortūlōs aliqūōs emere velle (Off. iii. 58), he gave out that he wanted to buy some gardens. [Here aliqūōs is less emphatic than emere, but precedes it on account of the emphasis on hortūlōs.]

j. The copula is generally felt to be of so little importance that it may come in anywhere where it sounds well; but usually under cover of more emphatic words:

cōnsul ego quaēsivī, cum vōs mīhi essēis in cōnsiliō (Rep. iii. 28), as consul I held an investigation in which you attended me in council.

falsum est id tōtum (id. ii. 28), that is all false.

k. Many expressions have acquired an invariable order:

rēs pūblīca; populus Rōmānus; honōris causa; pāce tanti virī.

Note.—These had, no doubt, originally an emphasis which required such an arrangement, but in the course of time have changed their shade of meaning. Thus, senātus populusque Rōmānus originally stated with emphasis the official bodies, but became fixed so as to be the only permissible form of expression.

l. The Romans had a fondness for emphasizing persons, so that a name or a pronoun often stands in an emphatic place:

[dīxit] vēnālis quidem sē hortūs nōn habēre (Off. iii. 58), [said] that he did n’t have any gardens for sale, to be sure.

m. Kindred words often come together (figūra etymologica):

inā sēnsim sine sēnsit aētās senēscit (Cat. M. 38), thus gradually, without being perceived, man’s life grows old.

Special Rules

599. The following are special rules of arrangement:

a. The negative precedes the word it especially affects; but if it belongs to no one word in particular, it generally precedes the verb; if it is especially emphatic, it begins the sentence. (See example, 598. f. x.)
b. _Itaque_ regularly comes first in its sentence or clause; _enim, autem, vērō, quoque_, never first, but usually second, sometimes third if the second word is emphatic; _quidem_ never first, but after the emphatic word; _igitur_ usually second; _nē . . . quidem_ include the emphatic word or words.

c. _Inquam, inquit_, are always used parenthetically, following one or more words. So often _credō, opinor_, and in poetry sometimes _precor._

d. (1) Prepositions (except _tenus_ and _versus_) regularly precede their nouns; (2) but a monosyllabic preposition is often placed between a noun and its adjective or limiting genitive:—

   _quem ad modum_; _quam ob rem_; _magnō cum metē_; _omnibus cum cōpiās_; _nullā in rē_ (cf. § 598. i).

e. In the arrangement of clauses, the Relative clause more often comes first in Latin, and usually contains the antecedent noun:—

   _quōs āmisimus civis_, _eos Mārtis viam perculsit_ (Marc. 17), _those citizens whom we have lost_, etc.

f. Personal or demonstrative pronouns tend to stand together in the sentence:—

   _cum vōs mini essētis in cōnsiliō_ (Rep. iii. 28), _when you attended me in counsel._

**Structure of the Period**

600. Latin, unlike modern languages, expresses the relation of words to each other by _inflexion_ rather than by _position_. Hence its structure not only admits of great variety in the arrangement of words, but is especially favorable to that form of sentence which is called a _Period_. In a period, the sense is expressed by the sentence _as a whole_, and is held in suspense till the delivery of the last word.

An English sentence does not often exhibit this form of structure. It was imitated, sometimes with great skill and beauty, by many of the earlier writers of English prose; but its effect is better seen in poetry, as in the following passage:—

   _High on a throne of royal state, which far_  
   _Outshone the wealth of Omnus and of Ind,_  
   _Or where the gorgeous East with richest hand_  
   _Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold,_  
   _Sataa exalted sat._ — _Paradise Lost_, ii. 1-5.

But in argument or narrative, the best English writers more commonly give short clear sentences, each distinct from the rest, and saying one thing by itself. In Latin, on the contrary, the story or argument is viewed as a whole; and the logical relation among all its parts is carefully indicated.

601. In the structure of the Period, the following rules are to be observed:—

a. In general the main subject or object is put in the main clause, not in a subordinate one:—

   _Hannibal cum recēnsuisset auxilia Gādēs profectus est_ (Liv. xxi. 21), _when Hannibal had reviewed the auxiliaries, he set out for Cadiz._
Volsci exiguam spem in armis, aliā undique abscissā, cum tentāssent, prae-
ter cētera adversa, locō quoque iniquō ad pīgnam congressi, iniquō
ad fugam, cuu ab omni parte caederentur, ad precēs ā certāmine versī
dēditō imperatōre trāditionisque armis, sub iugum missi, cum singulis
vestimentis, ignōminiae clādisque plēni dimittuntur (Liv. iv. 10). [Here
the main fact is the return of the Volsciands. But the striking circum-
stances of the surrender etc., which in English would be detailed in a
number of brief independent sentences, are put into the several subor-
dinate clauses within the main clause so that the passage gives a com-
plete picture in one sentence.]

b. Clauses are usually arranged in the order of prominence in the mind
of the speaker; so, usually, cause before result; purpose, manner, and the
like, before the act.

c. In coördinate clauses, the copulative conjunctions are frequently
omitted (asynetton). In such cases the connection is made clear by some
antithesis indicated by the position of words.

da. A change of subject, when required, is marked by the introduction
of a pronoun, if the new subject has already been mentioned. But such
change is often purposely avoided by a change in structure,—the less
important being merged in the more important by the aid of participles
or of subordinate phrases:

quem ut barbarī incendium effūgisse vidērunt, tellīs ēminus missīs inter-
fecērunt (Nep. Ael. 10), when the barbarians saw that he had escaped,
they threw darts at him at long range and killed him.

celeriter confectō negotiō, in hiberna legiōnēs redūxīt (B. G. vi. 3), the mat-
ter was soon finished, and he led the legions, etc.

e. So the repetition of a noun, or the substitution of a pronoun for it,
is avoided unless a different case is required:

dolōrem sī nōn potuerō frangere occultābō (Phil. xii. 21), if I cannot conquer
the pain, I will hide it. [Cf. if I cannot conquer I will hide the pain.]

f. The Romans were careful to close a period with an agreeable succes-
sion of long and short syllables. Thus,—

quod sēs nihil prōdest, quod nescis multum obst (Or. 166), what you know
is of no use, what you do not know does great harm.

Note. — In rhetorical writing, particularly in oratory, the Romans, influenced by
their study of the Greek orators, gave more attention to this matter than in other
forms of composition. Quintilian (ix. 4. 72) lays down the general rule that a clause
should not open with the beginning of a verse or close with the end of one.
§§ 602, 603] QUANTITY OF VOWELS 401

PROSODY

QUANTITY

602. The poetry of the Indo-European people seems originally to have been somewhat like our own, depending on accent for its metre and disregarding the natural quantity of syllables. The Greeks, however, developed a form of poetry which, like music, pays close attention to the natural quantity of syllables; and the Romans borrowed their metrical forms in classical times from the Greeks. Hence Latin poetry does not depend, like ours, upon accent and rhyme; but is measured, like musical strains, by the length of syllables. Especially does it differ from our verse in not regarding the prose accent of the words, but substituting for that an entirely different system of metrical accent or iectus (see § 611. a). This depends upon the character of the measure used, falling at regular intervals of time on a long syllable or its equivalent. Each syllable is counted as either long or short in Quantity; and a long syllable is generally reckoned equal in length to two short ones (for exceptions, see § 608. c–e).

The quantity of radical (or stem) syllables — as of short a in pæter or of long a in mæter — can be learned only by observation and practice, unless determined by the general rules of quantity. Most of these rules are only arbitrary formulas devised to assist the memory; the syllables being long or short because the ancients pronounced them so. The actual practice of the Romans in regard to the quantity of syllables is ascertained chiefly from the usage of the poets; but the ancient grammarians give some assistance, and in some inscriptions long vowels are distinguished in various ways, — by the apex, for instance, or by doubling (§10. c. n.).

Since Roman poets borrow very largely from the poetry and mythology of the Greeks, numerous Greek words, especially proper names, make an important part of Latin poetry. These words are generally employed in accordance with the Greek, and not the Latin, laws of quantity. Where these laws vary in any important point, the variations will be noticed in the rules below.

GENERAL RULES

603. The following are General Rules of Quantity (cf. §§ 9–11):

Quantity of Vowels

a. Vowels. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as, via, trāhō.

Exceptions. — 1. In the genitive form -ius, i is long: as, utrius, nūlius. It is, however, sometimes short in verse (§ 113. c).

2. In the genitive and dative singular of the fifth declension, é is long between two vowels: as, diē; otherwise usually short, as in fidēi, rēi, spēi.

Note. — It was once long in these also: as, plēnum, fidēi (Emilius, at the end of a hexameter). A is also long before i in the old genitive of the first declension: as, aulāi.

3. In the conjugation of fidē, i is long except when followed by er. Thus, fidē, fiēbam, fiam, but fieri, fierem; so also fit (§ 603. a. 3).

4. In many Greek words the vowel in Latin represents a long vowel or diphthong, and retains its original long quantity: as, Trōes (Trōes), Thalia (Thalēia), hērōas (ηρωας), āer (āēr).
Note.—But many Greek words are more or less Latinized in this respect: as, Académia, chorée, Malēa, platēa.

5. In dius, in ēheu usually, and sometimes in Diāna and ōne, the first vowel is long.

b. Diphthongs. A Diphthong is long: as, fōēdus, cūi, āula.

Exception. — The preposition praē in compounds is generally shortened before a vowel: as, praē-ustis (Aen. vii. 524), praē-eunte (id. v. 186).

Note.—U following q, s, or g, does not make a diphthong with a following vowel (see § 5. N. 2). For a-iō, ma-iō, pē-iō, etc., see § 11. d and n.

c. Contraction. A vowel formed by contraction (crasis) is long: as, nil, from nihil; cōgō for ūco-agō; mālō for mā-volō.

Note.—Two vowels of different syllables may be run together without full contraction (synizesis, § 642): as, deīnē (for deīnē), meīs (for meīs); and often two syllables are united by Synaeresis (§ 642) without contraction: as when pārētībus is pronounced pārgētībus.

d. A vowel before ns, nf, gn is long: as, ĭstō, ĭnfāns, signum.

Quantity of Syllables

e. A syllable is long if it contains a long vowel or a diphthong: as, cărus, ē-men, foe-dus.

f. Position. A syllable is long by position if its vowel, though short, is followed by two consonants or a double consonant: as, adventus, cortex.

But if the two consonants are a mute followed by l or r the syllable may be either long or short (common): as, alacris or alācris; patris or pātris.

Vowels should be pronounced long or short in accordance with their natural quantity without regard to the length of the syllable by position.

Note 1.—The rules of Position do not, in general, apply to final vowels before a word beginning with two consonants.

Note 2.—A syllable is long if its vowel is followed by consonant i (except in bisingis, quadringis): see § 11. d.

Note 3.—Compounds of iacīō, though written with one i, commonly retain the long vowel of the prepositions with which they are compounded, as if before a consonant, and, if the vowel of the preposition is short, the first syllable is long by position on the principle of § 11. e.

obiēs hostī (at the end of a hexameter, Aen. iv. 549).

imīcit et saldū (at the beginning of a hexameter, Aen. ix. 552).

proīce tēla manū (at the beginning of a hexameter, Aen. vi. 836).

Later poets sometimes shorten the preposition in trisyllabic forms, and prepositions ending in a vowel are sometimes contracted as if the verb began with a vowel: (1) căr anūrūs obiectis (Claud. Cons. Hon. iv. 264).
(2) reīcē cālpellās (Ecl. iii. 96, at end).

Note 4.—The y or w sound resulting from Synaeresis (§ 642) has the effect of a consonant in making position: as, abīetis (abyetis), ëuviōrum (fluvyōrum). Conversely, when the semivowel becomes a vowel, position is lost: as, silvēae, for silvēae.

1 Rarely disyllabic cū (as Mart. i. 104. 22).
FINAL SYLLABLES

604. The Quantity of Final Syllables is as follows: —

a. Monosyllables ending in a vowel are long: as, mē, tū, hi, nē.

1. The attached particles -nē, -quē, -vē, -cē, -ptē, and ré- (repid-) are short; sé-(sēd-) and di- are long. Thus, secēdit, sedētiō, exercitumquē réducit, dīmittō. But re- is often long in religāō (relligio), rētuli (rettuli), rēpuli (reppuli).

b. Nouns and adjectives of one syllable are long: as, sōl, õs (ōris), bōs, pār, vās (vāsis), vér, vis.

Exceptions. — cōr, fēl, lāc, mēl, õs (ossis), vās (vādis), vīr, tēt, quēt.

c. Most monosyllabic Particles are short: as, ān, in, cīs, nēc. But crās, cūr, ēn, nōn, quīn, sīn — with adverbs in c: as, hīc, hūc, sīc — are long.

d. Final a in words declined by cases is short, except in the ablative singular of the first declension; in all other words final a is long. Thus, cā stellā (nominative), cum cā stellā (ablative); frīstrā, vocā (imperative), posteā, trīgintā.

Exceptions. — ēiā, itā, quiā, putā (suppōse): and, in late use, trīgintā etc.

e. Final e is short: as in nūbē, dūcitē, saepē.

Exceptions. — Final e is long — 1. In adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, with others of like form: as, altē, longē, miserē, apertē, saepissimē. So ferē, fermē.

But it is short in bēnē, mālē; inferē, supernē.

2. In nouns of the fifth declension: as, fidē (also famē), faciē, hodiē, quārē (qua rē).

3. In Greek neuters plural of the second declension: as, cētē; and in some other Greek words: Phoēbē, Circē, Andramachē, etc.

4. In the imperative singular of the second conjugation: as, vidē.

But sometimes cāvē, habē, tacē, vaē, vidē (cf. § 629. b. 1).

f. Final i is long: as in turī, filī, audi.

Exceptions. — Final i is common in mēhi, tibi, sībi, ibi, ubi; and short in nisi, quasi, sīcūti, calī (when making two syllables), and in Greek vocatives: as, Alexī.

g. Final o is common: but long in datives and ablatives; also in nouns of the third declension. It is almost invariably long in verbs before the time of Ovid.

Exceptions. — cītō, modō (dummodō), immō, prefectō, ego, duō, cēdō (the imperative); so sometimes octō, ilīcō, etc., particularly in later writers.

h. Final u is long: Final y is short.

i. Final as, es, os, are long; final is, us, ys, are short: as, nefās, rūpes, servōs (accusative); honōs; hostīs, amīcās, Tethyōs.
**Exceptions.** — 1. as is short in Greek plural accusatives: as, lampadhās; and in anās.

2. es is short in the nominative of nouns of the third declension (lingual) having a short vowel in the stem: ας, μῖλης (-ίτης), ὄβδης (-τις), — except abēs, arēs, pēs; in the present of esse (ēs, adēs); in the preposition penēs, and in the plural of Greek nouns: as, hēρēs, lampadhēs.

3. os is short in compōs, impōs; in the Greek nominative ending: as, barbitōs; in the old nominative of the second declension: as, servōs (later servus).

4. is in plural cases is long: as in bonis, nōbis, vēbis, omnis (accusative plural).

5. is is long in the verb forms fis, sis, vis (with quīvis etc.), velis, mālis, nōlis, edis; in the second person singular of the present indicative active in the fourth conjugation: as, audīs; and sometimes in the forms in -erīs (future perfect indicative or perfect subjunctive).

6. us is long in the genitive singular and nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension; and in nouns of the third declension having ū (long) in the stem: as, virtūs (-ūtis), incūs (-ūdis). But pecūs, -ūdis.

7. Of other final syllables, those ending in a single consonant are short. Thus, amāt, amātūr; dōnēc, fāc, procūl, iubār.

**Exceptions.** — hic (also hīc); allēc; the ablatives illēc, etc.; certain adverbs in -c: as, illic, istorc, liēn, and some Greek nouns: as, aēr, aethēr, crātēr.

### Perfects and Perfect Participles

**605.** Perfects and Perfect Participles of two syllables have the first syllable long: as, iūvi, iūtum (iūvō), vidi, visum (vidēō); fūgi (fūgiō); vēnī (vēniō).

**Exceptions.** — bībī, dēdī, fīdī, scīdī, stītī, sūtī, tūlī; cītum, dātum, ītum, ītum, quītum, rātum, rūtum, sātum, situm, stātum. In some compounds of stō, stātum is found (long), as praestātum.

**a.** In reduplicated perfects the vowel of the reduplication is short; the vowel of the following syllable is also, usually short: as, cēcidī (cādō), didīcī (discō), pūpūgī (pungō), cūcūrī (currō), tētēndī (tendō), mōmōrdī (mor deō). But cēcidī from caedo, pepēdī from pēdō.

### Derivatives

**606.** Rules for the Quantity of Derivatives are: —

**a.** Forms from the same stem have the same quantity: as, āmō, āmāvisti; gēnus, gēneris.

**Exceptions.** — 1. bōs, lār, mās, pār, pēs, sāl, — also arbōs, — have a long vowel in the nominative, though the stem-vowel is short (cf. genitive bōvis etc.).

1 The quantity of the stem-vowel may be seen in the genitive singular.
2. Nouns in -ör, genitive -ōris, have the vowel shortened before the final r: as, honēr. (But this shortening is comparatively late, so that in early Latin these nominatives are often found long.)

3. Verb-forms with vowel originally long regularly shorten it before final m, r, or t: as, amēm, amēr, dicerēr, amēt (compare amēmus), dicerēt, audit, fit.

Note. — The final syllable in t of the perfect was long in old Latin, but is short in the classic period.

4. A few long stem-syllables are shortened: as, ācer, ācerbus. So āĉērō and āĉērō, weakened from āūro.

b. Forms from the same root often show inherited variations of vowel quantity (see § 17): as, dīcō (cf. maledicus); dūcō (dux, dūcis); fidō (perfidus);
vōx, vōcis (vōcō); lēx, lēgis (lēgō).

c. Compounds retain the quantity of the words which compose them: as, oc-cidō (cādō), oc-cidō (caedō), in-īquus (āequus).

Note. — Greek words compounded with πό have o short: as, πρῆφῆτα, πρῶγγος. Some Latin compounds of πō have o short: as, prōnicōr, prōnter. Compounds with ne vary: as, nētās, nēgā, nēqueō, nēquam.

RHYTHM

607. The essence of Rhythm in poetry is the regular recurrence of syllables pronounced with more stress than those intervening. To produce this effect in its perfection, precisely equal times should occur between the recurrences of the stress. But, in the application of rhythm to words, the exactness of these intervals is sacrificed somewhat to the necessary length of the words; and, on the other hand, the words are forced somewhat in their pronunciation, to produce more nearly the proper intervals of time. In different languages these adaptations take place in different degrees; one language disregarding more the intervals of time, another the pronunciation of the words.

The Greek language early developed a very strict rhythmical form of poetry, in which the intervals of time were all-important. The earliest Latin, on the other hand, — as in the Saturnian and Fescennine verse, — was not so restricted. But the purely metrical forms were afterwards adopted from the Greek, and supplanted the native forms of verse. Thus the Latin poetry with which we have to do follows for the most part Greek rules, which require the formal division of words (like music) into measures of equal times, technically called Feet. The strict rhythm was doubtless more closely followed in poetry that was sung than in that which was declaimed or intoned. In neither language, however, is the time perfectly preserved, even in single measures; and there are some cases in which the regularity of the time between the ietauses is disturbed.

The Greeks and Romans distinguished syllables of two kinds in regard to the time required for their pronunciation, a long syllable having twice the metrical value of a short one. But it must not be supposed that all long syllables were of equal length, or even that in a given passage each long had just twice the length of the contiguous shorts. The ratio was only approximate at best, though necessarily more exact in singing than in recitation. Nor are longs and shorts the only forms of syllables that are found. In some cases a long syllable was protracted, so as to have the time of three or even of four shorts, and often one long or two shorts were pronounced in less than their proper time, though they were perhaps distinguishable in time from one
short (see § 608. c, d). Sometimes a syllable naturally short seems to have been slightly prolonged, so as to represent a long, though in most (not all) cases the apparent irregularity can be otherwise explained. In a few cases, also, a pause takes the place of one or more syllables to fill out the required length of the measure. This could, of course, take place only at the end of a word: hence the importance of Caesura and Diacresis in prosody (§ 611. b, c).

Measures

608. Rhythm consists of the division of musical sound into equal intervals of time called Measures or Feet.

The most natural division of musical time is into measures consisting of either two or three equal parts. But the ancients also distinguished measures of five equal parts.

Note.—The divisions of musical time are marked by a stress of voice on one or the other part of the measure. This stress is called the Ictus (beat), or metrical accent (see § 611. a).

a. The unit of length in Prosody is one short syllable. This is called a Mora. It is represented by the sign \( \circ \), or in musical notation by the eighth note or quaver (\( \cdot \)).

b. A long syllable is regularly equal to two moræ, and is represented by the sign \( \underline{\;} \), or by the quarter note or crotchet (\( \cdot \)).

c. A long syllable may be protracted, so as to occupy the time of three or four moræ. Such a syllable, if equal to three moræ, is represented by the sign \( \underline{\underline{\;}} \) (or dotted quarter \( \cdot \cdot \cdot \)); if equal to four, by \( \underline{\underline{\underline{\;}}} \) (or the half note or minim, \( \, \)).

d. A long syllable may be contracted, so as to take practically the time of a short one. Such a syllable is sometimes represented by the sign \( \, \).  

e. A short syllable may be contracted so as to occupy less than one mora.

f. A pause sometimes occurs at the end of a verse or a series of verses, to fill up the time. A pause of one mora in a measure is indicated by the sign \( \, \); one of two moræ by the sign \( \, \).

g. One or more syllables are sometimes placed before the proper beginning of the measure. Such syllables are called an Anacrusis or prelude.\(^1\)

The anacrusis is regularly equal to the unaaccented part of the measure.

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\(^1\) The same thing occurs in modern poetry, and in modern music any unaaccented syllables at the beginning are treated as an anacrusis, i.e. they make an incomplete measure before the first bar. This was not the case in ancient music. The ancients seem to have treated any unaaccented syllable at the beginning as belonging to the following accented ones, so as to make with them a foot or measure. Thus it would seem that there was an original form of Indo-European poetry which was iambic in its structure, or which, at least, accented the second syllable rather than the first.
609. The feet most frequently employed in Latin verse, together with their musical notation, are the following:—

\(\text{a. Triple or Unequal Measures (§)}\)

1. Trochee \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\_\bigcirc\)} \\
\text{\(\_\bigcirc\)} \\
\text{\(\_\bigcirc\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{rēgōs}\).

2. Iambus \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\bigcirc\_\)} \\
\text{\(\bigcirc\_\)} \\
\text{\(\bigcirc\_\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{dūcēs}\).

3. Tribrach\(\text{\(\bigcirc\_\bigcirc\_\)}\): as, \(\text{hōminīs}\).

\(\text{b. Double or Equal Measures (\(\ddot{\text{s}}\))}\)

1. Dactyl \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\_\)} \\
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\_\)} \\
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\_\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{cōnsūlis}\).

2. Anapæst \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\)} \\
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\)} \\
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{mōntōs}\).

3. Spondee \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\_\_\)} \\
\text{\(\_\_\)} \\
\text{\(\_\_\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{rēgōs}\).

\(\text{c. Six-timed Measures (\(\dddot{\text{s}}\))}\)

1. Ionic \(\text{ā māiōre}\) \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\_\_\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\)} \\
\text{\(\_\_\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\)} \\
\text{\(\_\_\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{cōnfēcērāt}\).

2. Ionic \(\text{ā mīnōre}\) \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\_\_\_\)} \\
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\_\_\_\)} \\
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\_\_\_\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{rētulissent}\).

3. Choriambus \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\\)} \\
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\\)} \\
\text{\(\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{contulērant}\).

\(\text{d. Quinary or Hemiolic\(\text{\(\dddot{\text{s}}\)) Measures (\(\dddot{\text{s}}\))}\)

1. Cretic \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\_\\bigcirc\_\)} \\
\text{\(\_\bigcirc\_\)} \\
\text{\(\_\bigcirc\_\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{cōnsūlēs}\).

2. Pawon \(\text{prinăs}\) \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\_\_\bigcirc\_\_\)} \\
\text{\(\_\bigcirc\_\_\)} \\
\text{\(\_\_\_\_\_\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{cōnsūlibūs}\).

3. Pawon \(\text{quărtus}\) \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\_\_\bigcirc\bigcirc\_\)} \\
\text{\(\_\_\_\_\_\)} \\
\text{\(\_\_\_\_\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{tīncērī}\).

4. Bacchius \(\text{
\begin{array}{c}
\text{\(\_\_\_\_\)} \\
\text{\(\_\_\_\)} \\
\text{\(\_\_\_\)}
\end{array}
\)\): as, \(\text{āmīcēs}\).

\(\text{1 Called \(\text{diplastic}\), the two parts (Thesis and Arsis) being in the ratio of 2 to 1.}\)

\(\text{2 Not found as a fundamental foot, but only as the resolution of a Trochee or Iambus.}\)

\(\text{3 Called \(\text{hemiolic}\), the two parts being in the ratio of 1 to 1\(\frac{1}{2}\), or of 2 to 3.}\)
Note.—Several compound feet are mentioned by the grammarians, viz. Pyrrhic (○ ○); Amphibrach (○ — ○); Antibacchius (— — ○); Proceleusmatic (○ ○ ○ ○); the Molossus (— — —); the 2d and 3d Pzom, having a long syllable in the 2d or 3d place, with three short ones; 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th Epitrites, having a short syllable in the 1st, 2d, 3d, or 4th place, with three long ones.

Irrational Feet

e. Feet with these apparent quantities do not always occupy equal time, but may be contracted or prolonged to suit the series in which they occur. They are then called irrational, because the thesis and arsis do not have their normal ratio. Such are:—

Irrational Spondee:

\[
\begin{align*}
(\text{in place of a Trochee}) & \quad \text{≤} \quad > \\
(\text{in place of an Iambus}) & \quad \text{>} \quad \text{≤}
\end{align*}
\]

Cyclic Daecyl (in place of a Trochee):

\[
\text{> ○ ○ or ○ ○ ≤} = \quad \text{>} \quad \text{>} \quad \text{>} \quad \text{>} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{≤} \quad \text{≤} \quad \text{≤} \quad \text{≤}
\]

Cyclic Anapaest (in place of an Iambus):

\[
\text{≤ ○ ○ or ○ ≤ ○} = \quad \text{≤} \quad \text{≤} \quad \text{≤} \quad \text{≤} \quad \text{≤} \quad \text{≤} \quad \text{≤} \quad \text{≤} \quad \text{≤}
\]

The apparent dactyl > ○ ○, as a substitute for an iambus, and the apparent anapaest ○ ○ >, as a substitute for a trochee, occur frequently in the dramatic writers.

Note.—Narrative poetry was written for rhythmical recitation, or chant, with instrumental accompaniment; and Lyrical poetry for rhythmical melody, or singing. It must be borne in mind that in ancient music—which in this differs widely from modern—the rhythm of the melody was identical with the rhythm of the text. The lyric poetry was to be sung; the poet was musician and composer, as well as author. To this day a poet is said conventionally to “sing.”

Thus a correct understanding of the rhythmical structure of the verse gives us the time, though not the tune, to which it was actually sung. The exact time, however, as indicated by the succession of long and short syllables, was varied according to certain laws of so-called “Rhythmica,” as will be explained below. In reading ancient verse it is necessary to bear in mind not only the variations in the relative lengths of syllables, but the occasional pause necessary to fill out the measure; and to remember that the rhythmical accent is the only one of importance, though the words should be distinguished carefully, and the sense preserved. Poetry should not be scanned, but read metrically.

1 It seems probable that both thesis and arsis of an irrational foot were affected by the necessity of preserving the rhythmical time of the foot.
Substitution

610. In many cases measures of the same time may be substituted for each other, a long syllable taking the place of two short ones, or two short syllables the place of a long one.

In the former case the measure is said to be *contracted*; in the latter, to be *resolved*:

- A Sponde (— _) may take the place of a Dactyl (— o o) or an Anapaest (o o _); and a Tribrach (o o o) may take the place of a Trochee (— o) or an Iambus (o _). The optional substitution of one long syllable for two short ones is represented by the sign ~.

- When a long syllable having the Ictus (§ 611. a) is resolved, the ictus properly belongs to both the resulting short syllables; but for convenience the mark of accent is placed on the first:

\[
\text{nunc ex\, p\check{e}ria\, r}\mid \text{s} | \text{\check{s}i\, c\acute{e}\, t}\mid \text{\check{t}\, \check{b}\, \check{r}}\mid \text{\check{c}\, \check{o}\, r} | \text{\acute{a}\, \check{c}\, \check{r}} \mid \text{i\, \check{e}\, \check{t}\, \check{b}}\, \check{r}\, \check{e}. \quad \text{Pl. Bac. 405.}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} & > | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} > | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} > | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} \text{\, o} | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} > | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} \\
\text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} & > | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} > | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} | \text{\footnotesize {\check{\text{c}}}} \text{\, o} \\
\end{align*}
\]

The Musical Accent

611. That part of the measure which receives the *stress of voice* (the musical accent) is called the Thesis; the unaccented part is called the Arsis.¹

- The stress of voice laid upon the Thesis is called the Ictus (*beat*). It is marked thus: \(\triangleleft \, o \, o\).

- The ending of a word within a measure is called Cæsura. When this coincides with a rhetorical pause, it is called the Cæsura of the verse, and is of main importance as affecting the melody or rhythm.

- The coincidence of the end of a word with that of a measure is called Diæresis.

¹ The Thesis signifies properly the *putting down* (θέσις, from ῥίθμου, put, place) of the foot in beating time, in the march or dance ("downward beat"), and the Arsis the *raising* (ἀρσις, from ἀρίστας, raise) of the foot ("upward beat"). By the Latin grammarians these terms were made to mean, respectively, the ending and the beginning of a measure. By a misunderstanding which has prevailed till recently, since the time of Bentley, their true signification has been reversed. They will here be used in accordance with their ancient meaning, as has now become more common. This metrical accent, recurring at regular intervals of time, is what constitutes the essence of the rhythm of poetry as distinguished from prose, and should be constantly kept in mind. The error mentioned arose from applying to trochaic and dactylic verse a definition which was true only of iambic or anapaestic.
VERSIFICATION

THE VERSE

612. A single line of poetry — that is, a series of feet set in a recognized order — is called a Verse.¹

Note. — Most of the common verses originally consisted of two series (hemistichs), but the joint between them is often obscured. It is marked in Iambic and Trochaic Tetrameter by the Diacesis, in Dactylic Hexameter by the Casura.

a. A verse lacking a syllable at the end is called Catalectic, that is, having a pause to fill the measure; when the end syllable is not lacking, the verse is called Acatalectic, and has no such pause.

b. A final syllable, regularly short, is sometimes lengthened before a pause;² it is then said to be long by Diastole: —

nostror⁴⁷⁴ obruimur, — oriturque miserrima caedes. — Aen. ii. 411.

c. The last syllable of any verse may be indifferently long or short (syllaba anceps).

Scansion and Elision

d. To divide the verse into its appropriate measures, according to the rules of quantity and versification, is called scanning or scansion (scānsiō, a climbing or advance by steps, from scandō).

Note. — In reading verse rhythmically, care should be taken to preserve the measure or time of the syllables, but at the same time not to destroy or confuse the words themselves, as is often done in scanning.

e. In scanning, a vowel or diphthong at the end of a word (unless an interjection) is partially suppressed when the next word begins with a vowel or with h. This is called Elision (bruising).³

In reading it is usual entirely to suppress elided syllables. Strictly, however, they should be sounded lightly.

¹ The word Verse (versus) signifies a turning back, i.e. to begin again in like manner, as opposed to Prose (pros Ars or proversus), which means straight ahead.
² This usage is comparatively rare, most cases where it appears to be found being caused by the retention of an originally long quantity.
³ The practice of Elision is followed in Italian and French poetry, and is sometimes adopted in English, particularly in the older poets: —

T' inveigle and invite th' unwary sense. — Comus 538.

In early Latin poetry a final syllable ending in s often loses this letter even before a consonant (cf. § 15. 7) —

senio cōnfectus quiēscit. — Enni. (Cat. M. 14).
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Note.—Elision is sometimes called by the Greek name Synakaphia (smearing). Rarely a syllable is elided at the end of a verse when the next verse begins with a vowel: this is called Synapeheia (binding).

f. A final m, with the preceding vowel, is suppressed in like manner when the next word begins with a vowel or h: this is called Ecthripsis (squeezing out):

mōnstrum horrendum, in formō, ingēns, cui lūmen adēemptum.

—Aen. iii. 658.

Note 1.—Final m has a feeble nasal sound, so that its partial suppression before the initial vowel of the following word was easy.

Note 2.—The monosyllables do, dem, spē, spem, sim, stō, stern, qui (plural), and monosyllabic interjections are never elided; nor is an iambic word elided in dactylic verse. Elision is often evaded by skilful collocation of words.

g. Elision is sometimes omitted when a word ending in a vowel has a special emphasis, or is succeeded by a pause. This omission is called Hiatus (gaping).

Note.—The final vowel is sometimes shortened in such cases.

FORMS OF VERSE

613. A verse receives its name from its dominant or fundamental foot: as, Dactylic, Iambic, Trochaic, Anapæstic; and from the number of measures (single or double) which it contains: as, Hexameter, Tetrameter, Trimeter, Dimeter.

Note.—Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapæstic verses are measured not by single feet, but by pairs (dipodia), so that six Iambi make a Trimeter.

614. A Stanza, or Strophe, consists of a definite number of verses ranged in a fixed order.

Many stanzas are named after some eminent poet: as, Sapphic (from Sappho), Alcaic (from Alcæus), Archilochian (from Archilochus), Horatian (from Horace), and so on.

DACTYLYC VERSE

Dactylic Hexameter

615. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. It may be represented thus:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{\ldots } & \text{\ldots } \text{\ldots } \text{\ldots } \text{\ldots } \text{\ldots } \text{\ldots } \\
& \text{\ldots } \text{\ldots } \text{\ldots } \text{\ldots } \text{\ldots } \text{\ldots }
\end{align*}
\]
**NOTE.**—The last foot is usually said to be a sponde, but is in reality a trochee standing for a dactyl, since the final syllable is not measured.

_a._ For any foot, except the fifth, a spondee may be substituted.

_b._ Rarely a spondee is found in the fifth foot; the verse is then called spondaic and usually ends with a word of four syllables.

Thus in Ecl. iv. 49 the verse ends with *incrēmentum*.

c. The hexameter has regularly one principal caesura—sometimes two—almost always accompanied by a pause in the sense.

1. The principal caesura is usually after the thesis (less commonly in the arsis) of the third foot, dividing the verse into two parts in sense and rhythm. See examples in d.

2. It may also be after the thesis (less commonly in the arsis) of the fourth foot. In this case there is often another caesura in the second foot, so that the verse is divided into three parts:

   partē fērōx || ārīdēnsquē òcūlīs || et | sībīlā | cōllā. — Aen. v. 277.

**NOTE.**—Often the only indication of the principal among a number of caesuras is the break in the sense.

A caesura occurring after the first syllable of a foot is called *masculine*. A caesura occurring after the second syllable of a foot is called *feminine* (as in the fifth foot of the third and fourth verses in d). A caesura may also be found in any foot of the verse, but a proper *causal pause* could hardly occur in the first or sixth.

When the fourth foot ends a word, the break (properly a diaeresis) is sometimes improperly called *bacolic caesura*, from its frequency in pastoral poetry.

d. The first seven verses of the *Aeneid*, divided according to the foregoing rules, will appear as follows. The principal caesura in each verse is marked by double lines:

   Armā vīrōrumque cā·nō || Trōjāe qui | prīmūs āb | òris
   Îälīliam fātō prōfū|gus || Lā|vīnīquē | vēnīt
   lūrīn | multum ille | et terrīs | iacētāns et | altī
   vi sūpēr|rum | sae|vae mēnū|rem lūnā|ns āb | īrām;
   multā quōquē | et bel|lō pas|sus | dum | condūrēt | urbēn,
   inferretque dē|os Lātī|ō, || gēnīs | undē Lā|tīnum,
   Albānīquē pā|trēs, || at|quē altae | uo|nēa | Rōmae.

1. The *feminine caesura* is seen in the following:

   Dis gēnī|ī pōthērē: || tē|ment mēdī|s omnē|silvae. — Aen. vi. 131.

**NOTE.**—The Hexameter is thus illustrated in English verse:

Over the sea, past Crete, on the Syrian shore to the southward,
Dwells in the well-tilled lowland a dark-haired *Æthiop* people,
Skilful with needle and loom, and the arts of the dyer and carver,
Skilful, but feeble of heart; for they know not the lords of Olympus,
Lovers of men; neither brow-browed Zeus, nor Pallas Ἀθηνέ,
Teacher of wisdom to heroes, bestower of might in the battle;
Share not the cunning of Hermes, nor list to the songs of Apollo,
Fearing the stars of the sky, and the roll of the blue salt water.

—Kingsley’s *Andromeda*.
Elegiac Stanza

616. The Elegiac Stanza consists of two verses, — a Hexameter followed by a Pentameter.¹

The Pentameter verse is the same as the Hexameter, except that it omits the last half of the third foot and of the sixth foot: —

\[ \text{\textvis限度} \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} \]

\[ \text{\textvis限度} \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} \]

a. The Pentameter verse is therefore to be scanned as two half-verses, the second of which always consists of two dactyhs followed by a single syllable.

b. The Pentameter has no regular Cæsura; but the first half-verse must always end with a word (\textit{diacesis}, § 611. c), which is followed by a pause to complete the measure.²

c. The following verses will illustrate the forms of the Elegiac Stanza: —

\[ \text{cum sūbit} | \text{illīus} | \text{tristissimā} | \text{noctēs} | \text{imāgo} \]
\[ \text{quā mīhi} | \text{suppūlum} | \text{ā} | \text{tempūs} | \text{in} | \text{urē fūtit}, \text{ā} \]
\[ \text{cum répētō} | \text{nōcem} | | \text{qũ} | \text{tōt mīhi} | \text{cārā rēliquō}, \text{ā} \]
\[ \text{lābitur} | \text{ex ōcōlīs} | \text{ā} | \text{nunc quōquē} | \text{guttae} | \text{mēfēs}, \text{ā} \]
\[ \text{iam pōrē} | \text{lūx ādērat} | \text{quā} | \text{mē disĕcērē} | \text{Caesar} \]
\[ \text{finībūs} | \text{extre|mē} | \text{ā} | \text{jussērāt} | \text{Ausō|lāe}, \text{ā} \]

— Ov. Trist. i. 3.

Note. — The Elegiac Stanza differs widely in character from hexameter verse (of which it is a mere modification) by its division into Distichs, each of which must have its own sense complete. It is employed in a great variety of compositions, — epistolary, amatory, and mournful, — and was especially a favorite of the poet Ovid. It has been illustrated in English verse, imitated from the German: —

In the Hexameter | rises || the | fountain’s | silvery | column ;
In the Pentameter | aye || falling in | melody | back.

Other Dactylic Verses

617. Other dactylic verses or half-verses are occasionally used by the lyric poets.

¹ Called \textit{pentameter} by the old grammarians, who divided it, formally, into five feet (two dactyls or spondees, a spondee, and two anapests), as follows: —

\[ || \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} || \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} \]

² The pause of this verse, however, may be filled by the \textit{protraction} of the preceding syllable: —

\[ \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} | \text{\textvis限度} \]
a. The Dactylic Tetrameter alternates with the hexameter, forming the Alcmanian Strophe, as follows:—

ō fortēs pējōrārē | passi
mēcum | saepē viōh | || nunc | viōh | pellitē | cūrās;
crās in|gēns itē|rābīnūs | aequōr.
—Hor. Od. i. 7 (so 28; Ep. 12).

b. The Dactylic Penthemim (five half-feet) consists of half a pentameter verse. It is used in combination with the Hexameter to form the First Archilochian Strophe:—

diffā|gerē mī|vēs, || rē|duunt iam | grāmīnā | campīs,
arborī|busquē cō|māe;
mūtat | tārā vi|cciones | et | dēcrē|sentīa | ripās
flāmīnā | praetērē|unt. — Hor. Od. iv. 7.

For the Fourth Archilochian Strophe (Archilochian heptameter, alternating with iambic trimeter catalectic), see § 626. 11.

Iambic Verse

Iambic Trimeter

618. The Iambic Trimeter is the ordinary verse of dramatic dialogue. It consists of three measures, each containing a double iambus (iambic dipody). The caesura is usually in the third foot.

$\overline{\varepsilon \, \varepsilon \, \varepsilon} \, \varepsilon \, \varepsilon \, \varepsilon$  

Note. — The sign $\varepsilon \varepsilon$ denotes possible substitution of an irrational sponsor (>$\varepsilon$) for an iambus ($\varepsilon$).

a. The Iambic Trimeter is often used in lyric poetry (1) as an independent system, or (2) alternating with the Dimeter to form the Iambic Strophe, as follows:—

(1) iam iam effică|oi || dē mānūs | scīentiaē
supplēx et ó|rō || régnā | pēr | 프르스éρpineā,
pēr et Ë|māne || nōn móvēndā | nūnūnā,
pēr αtqē lībrōs || cārnūrām | valēntūm
defīxā caē|lio || dēvōcā|rē sīdērā,
Cānūdā, pārōcē | vōcībus | tandēm sīcrīs,
citūnąqē ret|rō | | rétrō sól|vē tūrinēm. — Hor. Εpōd. 17.

The last two lines may be thus translated, to show the movement in English:—

Oh! stay, Canúdīa, stay thy rites of sorcery,
Thy charm unbinding backward let thy swift wheel fly!
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(2) beátús íl|lē || quí pró|cúl | négó|tís,
    ut príscā gén|s | mortál|hum,
pá|ténnâ | rú|pâ || bůbūs éx|ercé|t suís,
sólú|tís óm|ni fénorē;
nēquē | éxi|tá|tûr || clá|ssí|cō | mīs trucē,
nēquē hórrēt fírā|tûm má|ré. — Hor. Epod. 2.

b. In the stricter form of Iambic Trimeter an irrational spondee (> _) or its equivalent (a cyclic anapaest ◊ ◊ or an apparent dactyl > ◊ ◊, § 609. e) may be regularly substituted for the first iambus of any dipody. A tribrach (◊ ◊ ◊) may stand for an iambus anywhere except in the last place. In the comic poets any of these forms or the proceleusmatic (◊ ◊ ◊) may be substituted in any foot except the last: — 1

ô lácis ál|mē réc|tōr || ét | caeli décâs!
quī al|tēr|nâ cú|pvē spástã || flâ|m|niferâ | ámblē|ns,
il|lá|strē laé|tis || éxsērēs | terrēs cá|pūt.


quid quaé|ris? án|mōs || séxâ|gín|ta nátûs ës.

— Ter. Haut. 62.

hûmō s|vn: hû|mâ|ni || nû | a | më | â|u|nû|mû|n pû|tô.
vel mé rôn|në|rex lôc || vêl percén|tâ|rl pû|tâ.

— id. 77, 78.

c. The Choliambic (lame Iambic) substitutes a trochee for the last iambus: —

|| ããã ◊ ◊ ◊ || ããã ◊ ◊ ◊ || ããã ◊ ◊ ◊ ||
aequã est beát|tûs || ác poé|mâ cú|m scribit:
tam gaudēt in | sē, || tâmi|que sê íp|sē mírâ|tûr.

— Catull. xxiii. 15, 16.

Note. — The verse may also be regarded as trochaic with anacrusis: as, —

ããã ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ || ããã ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ ||

|| ããã ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ || ããã ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ ||

|| ããã ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ || ããã ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ ◊ ||

It is used in combination with other measures (see § 626. 11), and is shown in the following: —

Vulcâ|nûs ár|dēns || úrit óf|ficâ|nâs. — Hor. Od. i. 4.

or in English: —

On purple peaks a deeper shade descending. — Scott.
Other Iambic Measures

619. Other forms of Iambic verse are the following:

a. The Iambic Tetrameter Catalectic (Septenarius). This consists of seven and a half iambic feet, with diaeresis after the fourth and with the same substitutions as in Iambic Trimeter:

\[ n^\text{am} \text{idcir} \text{o} \text{arc} \text{es} \text{or} \text{nupt} \text{as} \text{quod m}^\text{i} \text{ap} \text{par} \text{a} \text{ri} \text{sens} \text{it}. \]
\[ \text{quibus quidem quam facili} \text{le pote} \text{crat} \]  
\[ \text{quisei s}^2 \text{h} \text{i} \text{c} \text{quiesset!} \]

—Ter. And. 690, 691.

The metrical scheme of these two verses may be represented as follows:

\[ || > \varangle > \varangle || > \varangle > \varangle || > \varangle > \varangle || \]
\[ \text{(||} \text{}}} \text{\circ \circ} > \text{\circ \circ} || \text{\circ \circ \circ \circ} \varangle \varangle \varangle || \text{\varangle \varangle} > \text{\varangle \varangle ||} \text{\varangle \varangle \varangle}; \text{\varangle \varangle \varangle}} \]

Its movement is like the following:

In good king Charles's golden days, when loyalty no harm meant.

—Vicar of Bray.

b. The Iambic Tetrameter Acatalectic (Octonarius). This consists of eight full iambic feet with the same substitutions as in Iambic Trimeter. Like the Septenarius it is used in lively dialogue:

\[ \text{dicat am dare} \text{us Phoruni} \text{m} \text{e nupium ne suspenseat}; \]
\[ \text{et magis ess} \text{e} \text{fil} \text{monexum, qui ipsi sit fami} \text{i lior.} \]

—Ter. Ph. 720, 721.

The metrical scheme of these two verses may be represented as follows:

\[ || > \text{\circ \circ} > \text{\circ \circ} || > \varangle > \varangle || > \varangle > \varangle || \]
\[ \text{(||} \text{}}} \text{\circ \circ} > \text{\circ \circ} || \text{\circ \circ \circ \circ} \varangle \varangle \varangle || \text{\varangle \varangle} > \text{\varangle \varangle ||} \text{\varangle \varangle \varangle}; \text{\varangle \varangle \varangle}} \]

c. The Iambic Dimeter. This may be either acatalectic or catalectic.

1. The Iambic Dimeter Acatalectic consists of four iambic feet. It is used in combination with some longer verse (see § 618. a).

2. The Iambic Dimeter Catalectic consists of three and a half iambic feet. It is used only in choruses:

\[ \text{quonam cruen]la Mae]nas,} \]
\[ \text{praeeips amoire saev} ] \]
\[ \text{rapiur quod inpotenti} \]
\[ \text{facinos purat } \text{fur]re?} \]


Note. — Owing to the fact that in modern music each measure begins with a downward beat, some scholars regard all these forms of Iambic verse as Trochaic verse with anaeresis (§ 618. c. n.).
Trochaic Verse

620. The most common form of Trochaic verse is the Tetrameter Catalectic (Septenarius), consisting of four dipodies, the last of which lacks a syllable. There is regularly dieresis after the fourth foot:—

\[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c} 
| & \text{ } & \text{ } & \text{ } & \text{ } & \text{ } & \text{ } & \text{ } \\
\end{array} \]

In musical notation:—

\[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c} 
\text{6} & \text{6} & \text{6} & \text{6} & \text{6} & \text{6} & \text{6} & \text{6} \\
\end{array} \]

ád vē advénaō, spēm, sālūtem, \( \text{cōnsilium, auxiliām } \) expētēns.

—Ter. And. 319.

In English verse:—

Tell me not in mournful numbers \( | \) life is but an empty dream.

—Longfellow.

\( a. \) In the stricter form of the Septenarius substitutions are allowed only in the even feet, but in comedy the tribrach \( \text{o-ō-ō} \), or an irrational spondee \( \text{ō-ō} \), cyclic dactyl \( \text{ō-ō} \), or apparent anapest \( \text{o-ō-ō} \), may be substituted for any of the first six feet; a tribrach for the seventh:—

\[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c} 
\text{6ōem hābēt pētāsūm āc vestīum:} & | \text{tām cōnsilīōsīt ātquē ēgō.} \\
\text{sārā, pēs, stātūrā, tōnsūs,} & | \text{ōcūlī, nāsum, vēl lābrā,} \\
\text{mālē, mētum, bārbā, cōllus;} & | \text{tōtūs! quīd veribus ὃπūst?} \\
\text{sī tergūm cīcātrīcōsum,} & | \text{nāhīl hōc sīmīlisī sīmīlūs.} \\
\end{array} \]

—Pl. Am. 443–446.

The metrical scheme of these four verses is as follows:—

\[ \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c} 
\text{6ōem hābēt pētāsūm āc vestīum:} & | \text{tām cōnsilīōsīt ātquē ēgō.} \\
\text{sārā, pēs, stātūrā, tōnsūs,} & | \text{ōcūlī, nāsum, vēl lābrā,} \\
\text{mālē, mētum, bārbā, cōllus;} & | \text{tōtūs! quīd veribus ὃπūst?} \\
\text{sī tergūm cīcātrīcōsum,} & | \text{nāhīl hōc sīmīlisī sīmīlūs.} \\
\end{array} \]

\( b. \) The Trochaic Tetrameter Acatalectic (Octonarius), consisting of four complete dipodies, occurs in the lyrical parts of comedy.

Substitutions as in the Septenarius are allowed except in the last foot.

\( c. \) Some other forms of trochaic verse are found in the lyric poets, in combination with other feet, either as whole lines or parts of lines:—

non ēbūr nē|quē aūreōm. [Dīmēter Catalectic.]

mēā rēn̄fōdē īn dōmō | lācūnār. [Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.]

—Hor. Od. ii. 18.
MIXED MEASURES

621. Different measures may be combined in the same verse in two different ways. Either (1) a series of one kind is simply joined to a series of another kind (compare the changes of rhythm not uncommon in modern music); or (2) single feet of other measures are combined with the prevailing measures, in which case these odd feet are adapted by changing their quantity so that they become irrational (see § 609. e). When enough measures of one kind occur to form a series, we may suppose a change of rhythm; when they are isolated, we must suppose adaptation. Of the indefinite number of possible combinations but few are found in Latin poetry.

622. The following verses, combining different rhythmical series, are found in Latin lyrical poetry:—

1. Greater Archilochian (Dactylic Tetrameter; Trochaic Tripody):—

\[ \begin{align*}
&\text{\| \, \text{\| \, \text{\| \, \text{\|}}
\end{align*} \\
&\text{\| \, \text{\| \, \| \, \|}}
\]

solvitur | acris hicemis gratet vivi | veris | in Faivyani.—Hor. Od. i. 4.

Note.—It is possible that the dactylics were cyclic; but the change of measure seems more probable.

2. Verse consisting of Dactylic Trimeter catalectic (Dactylic Penthemim); Iambic Dimeter:

\[ \begin{align*}
&\text{\| \, \|} \\
&\text{\| \, \| \, \| \, \|}
\]

scribere | veriscullos | amore perculsum gravii.—Hor. Epod. 11. 2.

LOGAECEDIC VERSE

623. Trochaic verses, containing in regular prescribed positions irrational measures or irrational feet (cf. § 609. e), are called Logaædic. The principal logaædic forms are—

1. Logaædic Tetrapody (four feet): GLYCONIC.
2. Logaædic Tripody (three feet): PEREGRATIC (often treated as a syncopated Tetrapody Catalectic).
3. Logaædic Dipody (two feet): this may be regarded as a short Pereg- 

Note.—This mixture of irrational measures gives an effect approaching that of prose: hence the name Logaædic (λόγος, σωδή). These measures originated in the Greek lyric poetry, and were adopted by the Romans. All the Roman lyric metres not belonging to the regular iambic, trochaic, dactylic, or Ionic systems, were constructed on the basis of the three forms given above: viz., Logaædic systems consisting respectively of four, three, and two feet. The so-called Logaædic Penta-pody consists of five feet, but is to be regarded as composed of two of the others.
624. Each logaëdic form contains a single dactyl,¹ which may be either in the first, second, or third place. The verse may be catalectic or acatalectic:—

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Glyconic} & \\
\text{i.} & \parallel -\underline{\text{}} \; \underline{\text{}} \;
\infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty (\underline{\text{}}) \parallel & \parallel -\underline{\text{}} \; \underline{\text{}} \; \infty \; \infty (\underline{\text{}}) \parallel \\
\text{ii.} & \parallel -\underline{\text{}} \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty (\underline{\text{}}) \parallel & \parallel -\underline{\text{}} \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty (\underline{\text{}}) \parallel \\
\text{iii.} & \parallel -\underline{\text{}} \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty (\underline{\text{}}) \parallel & \parallel -\underline{\text{}} \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty (\underline{\text{}}) \parallel \\
\text{Pherericratc} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

Note. — The shorter Pherericratc (dipody) (\(\infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \)), if catalectic, appears to be a simple Choriambus (\(\infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \)); and, in general, the effect of the logaëdic forms is Choriambic. In fact, they were so regarded by the later Greek and Latin metricians, and these metres have obtained the general name of Choriambic. But they are not true choriambic, though they may very likely have been felt to be such by the composer, who imitated the forms without much thought of their origin. They may be read (scanned), therefore, on that principle. But it is better to read them as logaëdic measures; and that course is followed here.

625. The verses constructed upon the several Logaëdic forms or models are the following:—

1. Glyconic (Second Glyconic, catalectic):—

\[
\parallel -\infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \parallel \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \ (\text{or } \infty \; \infty )
\]

Rômae | principis | úrbijâm.

In English:—

"Fórmes more réal than living mán." — Shelley.

Note. — In this and most of the succeeding forms the foot preceding the dactyl is always irrational in Horace, consisting of an irrational spondee (\(\infty >\)).

2. Aristophanic (First Pherericratc):—

\[
\parallel -\infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \parallel \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \\
\text{témperāt | órā | frénis. — Hor. Od. i. 8.}
\]

Note. — It is very likely that this was made equal in time to the preceding by protracting the last two syllables:—

\[
\parallel -\infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \parallel \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty \; \infty
\]

¹ Different Greek poets adopted fixed types in regard to the place of the dactyls, and so a large number of verses arose, each following a strict law, which were imitated by the Romans as distinct metres.
3. Adonic (First Pherecratic, shortened):

\[ \text{Térrútú | úrbēm. — Hor.} \]

Or perhaps:

\[ \text{crás dōnābēris haédō. — Hor.} \]

Often scanned as follows:

\[ \text{Often scanned as follows:} \]

4. Pherecratic (Second Pherecratic):

\[ \text{crás dōnābēris haédō. — Hor.} \]

5. Lesser Asclepiadic (Second Pherecratic with syncope and First Pherecratic catalectic):

\[ \text{Maēcēnas ātāvīs ēdītē régībūs. — Hor.} \]

6. Greater Asclepiadic (the same as 5, with a syncopated Logaëdic Dipody interposed):

\[ \text{tū nē quaēsērīs — scīrē nēfās — quēm mihi, quēm tībī. — Hor.} \]

7. Lesser Sapphic (Logaëdic Pentapody, with dactyl in the third place):

\[ \text{Intēgēr vitāe scēlērisquē pūrēs. — Hor.} \]

Or in English:

\[ \text{Brilliant hopes, all wovēn in gōrēous tīsūēs. — Longfellow.} \]

8. Greater Sapphic (Third Glyconic; First Pherecratic):

\[ \text{tē dēōs ὁρό Σybārīn | eūr pȳpērās āmándō. — Hor.} \]

9. Lesser Alcaic (Logaëdic Tetrapody, two irrational dactyls, two trochees):

\[ \text{vīrgīlībūs pūĕrisquē cāntō. — Hor.} \]
10. Greater Alcaic (*Logaeic Pentapody*, catalectic, with anacrusis, and dactyl in the third place;—compare *Lesser Sapphic*):—

\[\begin{align*}
\text{iūstum et tēnācem} & | \text{prōpositī virūm.} \quad \text{— Hor.}
\end{align*}\]

**Note.**—Only the above logaeic forms are employed by Horace.

11. Phalaecean (*Logaeic Pentapody*, with dactyl in the second place):—

\[\begin{align*}
\text{quaēnam tē mālā mēns, misēlī Rāvidi,} \\
\text{āgit praecīpitum in mēōs iāmbōs?} \quad \text{— Catull. xi.}
\end{align*}\]

In English:—

Gōrgeous flowerets in the sūnlight shining.—Longfellow.

12. Glyconic Pherecratic (*Second Glyconic* with syncope, and *Second Pherecratic*):—

\[\begin{align*}
\text{ō Cōlōnīā quaē cúpis} & | \text{pōntē lūdērē lōngō.} \quad \text{— Catull. xvii.}
\end{align*}\]

**METRES OF HORACE**

626. The Odes of Horace include nineteen varieties of stanza. These are:—

1. Alcaic, consisting of two Greater Alcaics (10), one Trochaic Dimeter with anacrusis, and one Lesser Alcaic (9)\(^1\):—

\[\begin{align*}
iūstum & | \text{terācem} | \text{prōpositī virūm} \\
\text{nōn cīvium ārdor} & | \text{prāva iubētiūm,} \\
\text{nōn vūltus īnstantīs tyrānnī} & | \text{mēne quattī solidā, nequeō Aūstēr.} \quad \text{— Od. iii. 3.}
\end{align*}\]

(Found in Od. i. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; ii. 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; iii. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; iv. 4, 9, 14, 15.)

**Note.**—The Alcaic Strophe is named after the Greek poet Alcaeus of Lesbos, and was a special favorite with Horace, of whose Odes thirty-seven are in this form. It is sometimes called the *Horatian Stanza*.

2. Sapphic (*minor*), consisting of three Lesser Sapphics (7) and one Adonic (3):—

\[\begin{align*}
iām satīs terrīs & | \text{nīvis ātque dfrae} \\
\text{grāndīnīs mīsit} & | \text{pater ēt mēbēnte} \\
\text{dēxterā sacrās} & | \text{faciūlātus ārcīs} \\
\text{tērruit ūrbem.} \quad \text{— Od. i. 2.}
\end{align*}\]

(Found in Od. i. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; ii. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; iii. 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; iv. 2, 6, 11; Carm. Saec.)

\(^1\) The figures refer to the foregoing list (§ 625).
Note.—The Sapphic Stanza is named after the poetess Sappho of Lesbos, and was a great favorite with the ancients. It is used by Horace in twenty-five Odes—more frequently than any other except the Alcaic.

3. Sapphic (major), consisting of one Aristophanic (2) and one Greater Sapphic (8):

   Lýdia díc, per ómós
   té deós òró, Sybarín || cūr properás anaúdo.—Od. i. 8.

4. Asclepiadean I (minor), consisting of Lesser Asclepiadics (5):

   exēgí monumentum || aére peréunis
   régálisque sitú || pyramiúm áltius.—Od. iii. 30.
   (Found in Od. i. 1; iii. 30; iv. 8.)

5. Asclepiadean II, consisting of one Glyconic (1) and one Lesser Asclepiadic (5):

   nūvis quaé tibi créditum
   débēs Vērgiliūm, || fínibus Átticís
   réddás incolumém, precór,
   et servés animae || dūmidium mea.—Od. i. 5.
   (Found in Od. i. 3, 13, 19, 36; iii. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; iv. 1, 3.)

6. Asclepiadean III, consisting of three Lesser Asclepiadics (5) and one Glyconic (1):

   quīs désiderió || sit pudor aūt modús
   tám carí capitís? || praéciпе lágeris
   cántus, Mélpomenē, || cuí liquidám patér
   vēcem cūm cithāra dedít.—Od. i. 24.
   (Found in Od. i. 6, 15, 24, 33; ii. 12; iii. 10, 16; iv. 5, 12.)

7. Asclepiadean IV, consisting of two Lesser Asclepiadics (5), one Pherecratic (4), and one Glyconic (1):

   ó fōns Bándusiaé || splēndidior vitrō,
   dúleí digne meró, || nūn sine flōribús,
   crás dōnāberis haēdō
   cuí frōns türgida cór nibús.—Od. iii. 13.
   (Found in Od. i. 5, 14, 21, 23; ii. 7; iii. 7, 13; iv. 13.)

8. Asclepiadean V (major), consisting of Greater Asclepiadics (6):

   tū nē quaésierís, || sére nefás! || quem mibi, quem übf
   finem di dederint, || Leúconoé, || nēc Bābylōniós
   ténüris numerós.—Od. i. 11.
   (Found in Od. i. 11, 18; iv. 10.)

9. Alcmanian, consisting of Dactylic Hexameter (§ 615) alternating with Tetrameter (§ 617. 0). (Od. i. 7, 28; Epod. 12.)
10. Archilochian I, consisting of a Dactylic Hexameter alternating with a Dactylic Penthemim (see § 617. b). (Od. iv. 7.)

11. Archilochian IV, consisting of a Greater Archilochian (heptameter, § 622. 1), followed by Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (§ 618. d). The stanza consists of two pairs of verses:

   sólvitur ácris hiéns grátā vice || Véris ét Favóni,
   trahuntique siccás || máchinae carímás;
   ac neque lám stabulis gaudéte pecus, || aút arátor igni,
   nec práta cánís || álbicánt pruínís.—Od. i. 4.

12. Iambic Trimeter alone (see § 618). (Epod. 17.)

13. Iambic Strophe (see § 618. a). (Epod. 1–10.)

14. Dactylic Hexameter alternating with Iambic Dimeter:—
   nóx erat, ét caeló || fulgébat láua serénū
   inter minóra síderá,
   cún tū, mágnorum || númera laesúra deórum,
   in vérba iúrábás meá.—Epod. 15. (So in Epod. 14.)

15. Dactylic Hexameter with Iambic Trimeter (§ 618):—
   altera ián teritūr || bellís cívilibus actās,
   suis et ipsa Rómā || víribus ruít.—Epod. 16.

16. Verse of Four Lesser Ionics (§ 609. c. 2):—
   miserá̄m est | nequę̄ amórī | dare lúdum | neque dulci
   mala vínō | laverę̄ aut exánimāri | metuentis.—Od. iii. 12.

17. Iambic Trimeter (§ 618); Dactylic Penthemim (§ 617. b); Iambic Dimeter:—
   Pet,tí, nihil mē || sicut antea iuvāt
   scribere versusculós || amóre pérclusum gravī.—Epod. 11.

18. Dactylic Hexameter; Iambic Dimeter; Dactylic Penthemim (§ 617. b):
   hórrida témpestás || caelúm contráxit, et inbrēs
   nivésque dédūcánt lovēm; || nunc mare, nunc silúaé . .
   —Epod. 13.

19. Trochaic Dimeter, Iambic Trimeter, each catalectic (see § 620. c).

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627. Other lyric poets use other combinations of the above-mentioned verses:

**a. Glyconics with one Pherecratic (both imperfect):**

Diānāe sāmūs | in fīdē
pūel||ae et pūer|tā intégrī:
Diānām, pūer|tā intégrī
pūel|laēquē cānā|mūs. — Catull. xxxiv.

**b. Sapphics, in a series of single lines, closing with an Adonic:**

Ān mā|gis dī|fī trēmūlērē | Mānēs
Hērcū|lim | et vīsūm cā|mī | infēr|rōrum
fūsīt | ábru|pūs trēpl|dūs cā|tēnīs?
fāl|limūr : lac|tē vēnīt | eccē | vūlū,
quēm tūlit Poe|īs ; hūmē|risquē | tēlā
gēstāt | et nō|tās pōpū|lis phā|rētrās

**c. Sapphics followed by Glyconics, of indefinite number (id. Herc. Fur. 830–874, 875–894).**

**MISCELLANEOUS**

628. Other measures occur in various styles of poetry.

**a. Anapaestic (§ 609, l. 2) verses of various lengths are found in dramatic poetry.** The spondee, dactyl, or proceleusmatic may be substituted for the anapaest:

hic lōmōst | omṇum hōṃium praecīpūōs
volūptātibus gaũ|dīsquē án|tērōtēns.
īnā con|mōdā quaē | cúpī|ō ē|vēnūnt,
quōd ἄγω | sūbīt, ād|sēcūrē | sē-quītār:

**b. Bacchiae (§ 609, d. 4) verses (five-timed) occur in the dramatic poets,** very rarely in Terence, more commonly in Plautus, — either in verses of two feet (Dimeter) or of four (Tetrameter). They are treated very freely, as are
all measures in early Latin. The long syllables may be resolved, or the molossus (three longs) substituted:

multás rés | sǐmũē in | mêō cór|dē vórsō,
multumóm in cògótándō | dólōrem in|dipiscór.
egōmēt mê | cōgō ét mâgoēm ét dēfātigō;
māgister | mīnī | éxer|citōr án|mūs nunc est.

— Pl. Trin. 223-226.

c. Cretic measures (§ 609. d. 1) occur in the same manner as the Bacchic, with the same substitutions. The last foot is usually incomplete:

ánmōr âmījēus míhi | né füäs | úmquām.
hís ègō | dē ārtibus | grátiam | fāciō.
nī ègō is|tōs mōrōr | iaēcēós | mōrēs.—id. 267, 293, 297.

d. Saturnian Verse. In early Latin is found a rude form of verse, not borrowed from the Greek like the others, but as to the precise nature of which scholars are not agreed.¹

1. According to one view the verse is based on quantity, is composed of six feet, and is divided into two parts by a caesura before the fourth thesis. Each thesis may consist of a long syllable or of two short ones, each arsis of a short syllable, a long syllable, or two short syllables; but the arsis, except at the beginning of the verse and before the caesura, is often entirely suppressed, though rarely more than once in the same verse:

dābunt mâlum Mētēlī || Naēviō poētae.

2. According to another theory the Saturnian is made up, without regard to quantity, of alternating accented and unaccented syllables; but for any unaccented syllable two may be substituted, and regularly are so substituted in the second foot of the verse:

dābunt mâlum Metēlī || Naēviō poētae.

**EARLY PROSODY**

629. The prosody of the earlier poets differs in several respects from that of the later.²

a. At the end of words s, being only feebly sounded, does not make position with a following consonant; it sometimes disappeared altogether. This usage continued in all poets till Cicero's time (§ 15. 7).

¹ The two principal theories only are given. There are numerous variations, particularly of the second theory here stated.

² Before the Latin language was used in literature, it had become much changed by the loss of final consonants and the shortening of final syllables under the influence of accent. In many cases this change was still in progress in the time of the early poets. This tendency was arrested by the study of grammar and by literature, but shows itself again in the Romance languages.
b. A long syllable immediately preceded or followed by the iactus may be shortened (*iambic shortening*): —

1. In a word of two syllables of which the first is short (this effect remained in a few words like *putà*, *cave*, *vale*, *vide*, *ego*, *modè*, *duò*):

   ábì (Ter. Ph. 59); bóñì (id. 516); hōmò suávis (id. 411).

2. If it is either a monosyllable or the first syllable of a word which is preceded by a short monosyllable:

   sēd hās tabellās (Pl. Pers. 195); quid híc nunc (id. Epid. 157); pēr ímpluvium (Ter. Ph. 707); ēgō ēsténderem (id. 793).

3. When preceded by a short initial syllable in a word of more than three syllables:

   vēnūstátis (Ter. Hec. 848); sēnēctátem (id. Ph. 434); Šyrácúsās (Pl. Merc. 37); ānīcūtia (id. Ps. 1263).

c. In a few isolated words position is often disregarded. Such are *ille, ĭmmo, índē, īste, ōmnīs, nēmpē, quīppe, ūnde.*

d. The original long quantity of some final syllables is retained.

1. The ending -or is retained long in nouns with long stem-vowel (original *r*-stems or original *s*-stems): —

   móðo quom dícta in mūr fìngerēbās ōdium nōn uxōr erām (Pl. Asin. 927).

   stā mē in pectore ētque córde fācit amōr incéndium (id. Merc. 500).

   ētque quàntō nóx fuśtī lóngír hãc próxumā (id. Am. 548).

2. The termination -es (-itis) is sometimes retained long, as in *mīēs, superstēs.*

3. All verb-endings in -r, -s, and -t may be retained long where the vowel is elsewhere long in inflection: —

   régredīōr anāsse mé (Pl. Capt. 1023); ētquē ut quī fuerīs et quī nunc (id. 248); mé nómināt hae (id. Epid. iv. 1. 8); faciāt ut sémper (id. Poen. ii. 42); infuscābāt, amābō (cretics, id. Cist. i. 21); quī amāt (id. Merc. 1021); ut fit in bēllō cápitur áltér flīlius (id. Capt. 25); tibi sīt ad mé revisās (id. Truc. ii. 4. 70).

e. *Hiatus* (*§ 612. g*) is allowed somewhat freely, especially at a pause in the sense, or when there is a change of speaker.²

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¹ Cf. *ambō* (also a dual, p. 59, footnote), in which the ò is retained because of the length of the first syllable.

² Scholars are not yet agreed upon the principle or the extent of this irregularity.

³ The extent of this license is still a question among scholars; but in the present state of texts it must sometimes be allowed.
Reckoning of Time

630. The Roman Year was designated, in earlier times, by the names of the Consuls; but was afterwards reckoned from the building of the City (ab urbe condita, anno urbis conditae), the date of which was assigned by Varro to a period corresponding with B.C. 753. In order, therefore, to reduce Roman dates to those of the Christian era, the year of the city is to be subtracted from 753: e.g. A.U.C. 691 (the year of Cicero’s consulship) corresponds to B.C. 63.

Before Caesar’s reform of the Calendar (B.C. 46), the Roman year consisted of 355 days: March, May, Quintilis (July), and October having each 31 days, February having 28, and each of the remainder 29. As this calendar year was too short for the solar year, the Romans, in alternate years, at the discretion of the pontifices, inserted a month of varying length (mēnsis intercalāris) after February 23, and omitted the rest of February. The “Julian year,” by Caesar’s reformed Calendar, had 365 days, divided into months as at present. Every fourth year the 24th of February (vr. Kal. Mart.) was counted twice, giving 29 days to that month: hence the year was called bisextilis. The month Quintilis received the name Iūlius (July), in honor of Julius Caesar; and Sextilis was called Augustus (August), in honor of his successor. The Julian year (see below) remained unchanged till the adoption of the Gregorian Calendar (A.D. 1582), which omits leap-year three times in every four hundred years.

631. Dates, according to the Roman Calendar, are reckoned as follows:

a. The first day of the month was called Kalendae (Calends).

Note. — Kalendae is derived from calare, to call, — the Calends being the day on which the pontiffs publicly announced the New Moon in the Comitia Calata. This they did, originally, from actual observation.

b. On the fifteenth day of March, May, July, and October, but the thirteenth of the other months, were the Īdūs (Ides), the day of Full Moon.

c. On the seventh day of March, May, July, and October, but the fifth of the other months, were the Nōnæ (Nones or ninths).

d. From the three points thus determined, the days of the month were reckoned backwards as so many days before the Nones, the Ides, or the Calends. The point of departure was, by Roman custom, counted in the reckoning, the second day being three days before, etc. This gives the following rule for determining the date:

If the given date be Calends, add two to the number of days in the month preceding, — if Nones or Ides, add one to that of the day on which they fall, — and from the number thus ascertained subtract the given date. Thus,

NOTE.—The name of the month appears as an adjective in agreement with Kalendaræ, Nōnae, Īdīs.
For peculiar constructions in dates, see § 424. g.

d. The days of the Roman month by the Julian Calendar, as thus ascertained, are given in the following table:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>January</th>
<th>February</th>
<th>March</th>
<th>April</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. iii.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. prīd.</td>
<td>prīd.</td>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>prīd.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. vi.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
<td>viii. Īd. Mārt.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. v.</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
<td>v.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. iv.</td>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
<td>iv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. iii.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. prīd.</td>
<td>prīd.</td>
<td>prīd.</td>
<td>prīd.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Īdūs Īān.</td>
<td>Īdūs Fēb.</td>
<td>Īdūs Mārtiāes</td>
<td>Īdūs Aprilēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. xviii.</td>
<td>xv.</td>
<td>xvi.</td>
<td>xv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. xvii.</td>
<td>xiv.</td>
<td>xvi.</td>
<td>xiv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. xvi.</td>
<td>xiii.</td>
<td>xiv.</td>
<td>xiii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. xv.</td>
<td>xii.</td>
<td>xiv.</td>
<td>xii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. xiv.</td>
<td>xi.</td>
<td>xiii.</td>
<td>xi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. xiii.</td>
<td>x.</td>
<td>xii.</td>
<td>x.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. xii.</td>
<td>ix.</td>
<td>x.</td>
<td>ix.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. xi.</td>
<td>viii.</td>
<td>x.</td>
<td>viii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. x.</td>
<td>vii.</td>
<td>x.</td>
<td>vii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. ix.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. viii.</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>vii.</td>
<td>v.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. vi.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. v.</td>
<td>prīd.</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>prīd.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. iv.</td>
<td>[prīd. Kāl. Mārt. in</td>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>(So June, Sept.,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. iii.</td>
<td>leap-year, the vi.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>Nov.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. prīd.</td>
<td>Kal. (24th) being</td>
<td>prīd.</td>
<td>(So May, July, Oct.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(So Aug., Dec.) counted twice.]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE.—Observe that a date before the Julian Reform (B.C. 46) is to be found not by the above table, but by taking the earlier reckoning of the number of days in the month.

Measures of Value, etc.

632. The money of the Romans was in early times wholly of copper. The unit was the as, which was nominally a pound in weight, but actually somewhat less. It was divided into twelve unciae (ounces).
In the third century B.C. the as was gradually reduced to one-half of its original value. In the same century silver coins were introduced, — the denarius and the sestertius. The denarius = 10 asses; the sestertius = 2½ asses.

633. The Sestertius was probably introduced at a time when the as had been so far reduced that the value of the new coin (2½ asses) was equivalent to the original value of the as. Hence, the Sestertius (usually abbreviated to HS or HS) came to be used as the unit of value, and nummus, coin, often means simply sestertius. As the reduction of the standard went on, the sestertius became equivalent to 4 asses. Gold was introduced later, the aureus being equal to 100 sesterces. The approximate value of these coins is seen in the following table: —

\[
\begin{align*}
2\frac{1}{2} & \text{ asses} = 1 \text{ sestertius or nummus, value nearly 5 cents (2½ d.).} \\
10 & \text{ asses or 4 sestertii} = 1 \text{ denarius}. \quad \text{“ “ 20 “ (10d.).} \\
1000 & \text{ sestertii} = 1 \text{ sestertium} \quad \quad \text{“ “ } 50.00 \text{ (£10).}
\end{align*}
\]

Note. — The word sestertius is a shortened form of sēmis-tertius, the third one, a half. The abbreviation HS or HS = duo et sēmis, two and a half.

634. The sestertium (probably originally the genitive plural of sestertius depending on mille) was a sum of money, not a coin; the word is inflected regularly as a neuter noun: thus, tria sestertia = $150.00.

When sestertium is combined with a numeral adverb, centēna milia, hundreds of thousands, is to be understood: thus deciēns sestertium (deciēns HS) = deciēns centēna milia sestertium = $50,000. Sestertium in this combination may also be inflected: deciēns sestertii, sestertiō, etc.

In the statement of large sums sestertium is often omitted as well as centēna milia: thus sexāgiēns (Rosc. Am. 2) signifies, sexāgiēns [centēna milia sestertium] = 6,000,000 sesterces = $300,000 (nearly).

635. In the statement of sums of money in Roman numerals, a line above the number indicates thousands; lines above and at the sides also, hundred-thousands. Thus HS DC = 600 sestertii; HS D̄C = 600,000 sestertii, or 600 sestertia; HS |D̄C| = 600,000,000 sestertii, or 60,000 sestertia.

636. The Roman Measures of Length are the following: —

12 inches (unciae) = 1 Roman Foot (pēs: 11.65 English inches).  
1¼ Feet = 1 Cubit (cubitum).  — 2½ Feet = 1 Step (gradus).  
5 Feet = 1 Pace (passus).  — 1000 Paces (mille passuum) = 1 Mile.
The Roman mile was equal to 4850 English feet.

The iūgerum, or unit of measure of land, was an area of 240 (Roman) feet long and 120 broad; a little less than \( \frac{3}{4} \) of an English acre.

637. The Measures of Weight are —

12 unciæ (ounces) = one pound (libra, about \( \frac{3}{4} \) lb. avoirdupois).

Fractional parts (weight or coin) are —

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{12}, & \text{ uncia.} \\
\frac{1}{6}, & \text{ sextāns.} \\
\frac{1}{4}, & \text{ quadrāns.} \\
\frac{1}{3}, & \text{ triēns.} \\
\frac{5}{12}, & \text{ quīncunx.} \\
\frac{1}{3}, & \text{ sēmis.} \\
\frac{7}{12}, & \text{ septunx.} \\
\frac{1}{2}, & \text{ bēs or bēssis.} \\
\frac{3}{4}, & \text{ dōdrāns.} \\
\frac{5}{6}, & \text{ dextāns.} \\
\frac{1}{2}, & \text{ deunx.} \\
\frac{1}{2}, & \text{ as.}
\end{align*}
\]

The Talent (talentum) was a Greek weight (τάλαντον) = 60 librae.

638. The Measures of Capacity are —

12 cyathī = 1 sextarius (nearly a pint).
16 sextāriī = 1 modius (peck).
6 sextārii = 1 congus (3 quarts, liquid measure).
8 congii = 1 amphora (6 gallons).
GLOSSARY

OF TERMS USED IN GRAMMAR, RHETORIC, AND PROSODY

639. Many of these terms are pedantic names given by early grammarians to forms of speech used naturally by writers who were not conscious that they were using figures at all—as, indeed, they were not. Thus when one says, "It gave me no little pleasure," he is unconsciously using litotes; when he says, "John went up the street, James down," antithesis; when he says, "High as the sky," hyperbole. Many were given under a mistaken notion of the nature of the usage referred to. Thus mē and tē (§ 143. a. x.) were supposed to owe their d to paragoge, sūmpsi its p to epenthesis. Such a sentence as "See my coat, how well it fits!" was supposed to be an irregularity to be accounted for by prolepsis.

Many of these, however, are convenient designations for phenomena which often occur; and most of them have an historic interest, of one kind or another.

640. Grammatical Terms

Anacoluthon: a change of construction in the same sentence, leaving the first part broken or unfinished.
Anastrophe: inversion of the usual order of words.
Apodosis: the conclusion of a conditional sentence (see Protasis).
Archaism: an adoption of old or obsolete forms.
Asyndeton: omission of conjunctions (§ 323. b).
Barbarism: adoption of foreign or unauthorized forms.
Brachylogy: brevity of expression.
Crasis: contraction of two vowels into one (§ 15. 3).
Ellipsis: omission of a word or words necessary to complete the sense.
Enallage: substitution of one word or form for another.
Epenthesis: insertion of a letter or syllable.
Hellenism: use of Greek forms or constructions.
Hendiadys (ἐν δία διωκώ): the use of two nouns, with a conjunction, instead of a single modified noun.
Hypallage: interchange of constructions.
Hysteron proteron: a reversing of the natural order of ideas.

This term was applied to cases where the natural sequence of events is violated in language because the later event is of more importance than the earlier and so comes first to the mind. This was supposed to be an artificial embellishment in Greek, and so was imitated in Latin. It is still found in artless narrative; cf. "Fred and Born in a Brier Bush" (Uncle Remus).

Metathesis: transposition of letters in a word.
Paragoge: addition of a letter or letters to the end of a word.
Parenthesis: insertion of a phrase interrupting the construction.
Periphrasis: a roundabout way of expression (circumlocution).

Pleonasm: the use of needless words.

Polyssyndeton: the use of an unnecessary number of copulative conjunctions.

Prelepsis: the use of a word in the clause preceding the one where it would naturally appear (anticipation).

Protasis: a clause introduced by a conditional expression (if, when, whoever), leading to a conclusion called the Apodosis (§ 512).

Syncope: omission of a letter or syllable from the middle of a word.

Synesia (construeio ad sensum): agreement of words according to the sense, and not the grammatical form (§ 280. a).

Tmesis: the separation of the two parts of a compound word by other words (cutting).

This term came from the earlier separation of prepositions (originally adverbs) from the verbs with which they were afterwards joined; so in per ecato situs paer, a very fine boy, egad! As this was supposed to be intentional, it was ignorantly imitated in Latin; as in cere comminuit -brum (Ennius).

Zeugma: the use of a verb with two different words, to only one of which it strictly applies (yoking).

641. Rhetorical Figures

Allegory: a narrative in which abstract ideas figure as circumstances, events, or persons, in order to enforce some moral truth.

Alliteration: the use of several words that begin with the same sound.

Analogy: argument from resemblances.

Anaphora: the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses (§ 598. f).

Antithesis: opposition, or contrast of parts (for emphasis: § 598. f).

Antonomasia: use of a proper for a common noun, or the reverse:—

sint Maecenates, non deurent, Flacce, Maronês, so there be patrons (like Maecenas), poets (like Virgil) will not be lacking, Flaccus (Mart. viii. 56. 5).

illa furia et pestis, that fury and plague (i.e. Clodius); Homéromastix, scourge of Homer (i.e. Zollius).

Aposiopesis: an abrupt pause for rhetorical effect.

Cataphresis: a harsh metaphor (abassio, misuse of words).

Chiasmus: a reversing of the order of words in corresponding pairs of phrases (§ 598. f).

Climax: a gradual increase of emphasis, or enlargement of meaning.

Euphemism: the mild expression of a painful or repulsive idea:—

si quid ei acciderit, if anything happens to him (i.e. if he dies).

Euphony: the choice of words for their agreeable sound.

Hyperbaton: violation of the usual order of words.
Hyperbole: exaggeration for rhetorical effect.
Ironic: the use of words which naturally convey a sense contrary to what is meant.
Litotes: the affrming of a thing by denying its contrary (§ 326. c).
Metaphor: the figurative use of words, indicating an object by some resemblance.
Metonymy: the use of the name of one thing to indicate some kindred thing.
Onomatopoeia: a fitting of sound to sense in the use of words.
Oxymoron: the use of contradictory words in the same phrase:—
\[\text{insaniëns sapientia, foolish wisdom.}\]
Paronomasia: the use of words of like sound.
Prospopoeia: personification.
Simile: a figurative comparison (usually introduced by like, or as).
Synchysis: the interlocked order (§ 598. b).
Synecdoche: the use of the name of a part for the whole, or the reverse.

642. Terms of Prosody

Acatalectic: complete, as a verse or a series of feet (§ 612. a).
Anacoluth: breaking up of rhythm by substituting different measures.
Anacrusis: the unaccented syllable or syllables preceding a verse (§ 608. g).
Antistrophe: a series of verses corresponding to one which has gone before (cf. strophe).
Arsis: the unaccented part of a foot (§ 611).
Basis: a single foot preceding the regular movement of a verse.
Cæsura: the ending of a word within a metrical foot (§ 611. b).
Catalectic: see Catalexis.
Catalexis: loss of a final syllable (or syllables) making the series catalectic (incomplete, § 612. a).
Contraction: the use of one long syllable for two short (§ 610).
Correption: shortening of a long syllable, for metrical reasons.
Diacrasis: the coincidence of the end of a foot with the end of a word within the verse (§ 611. c).
Dialysis: the use of i (consonant) and v as vowels (sīua = silva; § 603. f. n. 4).
Diastole: the lengthening of a short syllable by emphasis (§ 612. b).
Dimeter: consisting of two like measures.
Dipody: consisting of two like feet.
Distich: a system or series of two verses.
Echthipsis: the suppression of a final syllable in -m before a word beginning with a vowel (§ 612. f).
Elision: the cutting off of a final before a following initial vowel (§ 612. e).
Heptameter: consisting of seven feet.
Hexameter: consisting of six measures.
Hexapody: consisting of six feet.
Hiaetus: the meeting of two vowels without contraction or elision (§ 612. g).
Ictus: the metrical accent (§ 611. a).
Irregular: not conforming strictly to the unit of time (§ 609. e).
Logaoedic: varying in rhythm, making the effect resemble prose (§ 623).
Monometer: consisting of a single measure.
Mora: the unit of time, equal to one short syllable (§ 608. a).
Pentameter: consisting of five measures.
Pentapody: consisting of five feet.
Penthemimeris: consisting of five half-feet.
Protrusion: extension of a syllable beyond its normal length (608. c).
Resolution: the use of two short syllables for one long (§ 610).
Strophe: a series of verses making a recognized metrical whole (stanzas), which may be indefinitely repeated.
Synaeresis: i (vowel) and u becoming consonants before a vowel (§ 603. c. n., f. n. 4).
Synaloepha: the same as elision (§ 612. e. n.).
Synapheia: elision between two verses (§ 612. e. n.).
Syncope: loss of a short vowel.
Synizesis: the running together of two vowels without full contraction (§ 603. c. n.).
Systole: shortening of a syllable regularly long.
Tetracme: consisting of four measures.
Tetrapody: consisting of four feet.
Tetrastich: a system of four verses.
Thesis: the accented part of a foot (§ 611).
Tritement: consisting of three measures.
Tripody: consisting of three feet.
Tristich: a system of three verses.
INDEX OF VERBS

Regular verbs of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations are given only in special cases. Compounds are usually omitted when they are conjugated like the simple verbs. The figures after the verbs indicate the conjugation. References are to sections. For classified lists of important verbs see §209 (First Conjugation), §210 (Second Conjugation), §211 (Third Conjugation), §212 (Fourth Conjugation), §§190, 191 (Deponents), §192 (Semi-Deponents).

ab-dó, 3, -didi, -ditum, 209. a. n.
ab-eó, see eo.
ab-ícīo, 3, -ícī, -ictum [iacō].
ab-ígō, 3, -ígī, -ácum [agō].
ab-ićō, 3, -uni, —
ab-ólēcio, 2, - sóvi, -itum.
ab-ólēco, 3, -ovi, —[aboleō].
ab-ripō, 3, -ripi, -reptum [rapō].
ab-condo, 3, -dìi (cidi), -ditum [condō].
ab-sisto, 3, -stiti, —
ab-sum, abesse, àbūi, (ābūtūrus).
ac-condo, 3, -condi, -censum.
accesō, see accessō.
ac-ciūt (impers.), 207, 208. c.
ac-ciō, 3, -cidi, — [cādō].
ac-ciō, 3, -cidi, -cīsum [cādō].
ac-ciō, 4, reg. [cido].
ac-ciō, 3, -cēpi, -ceptam [capō].
ac-ciō, 3, -mū, —
ac-crēdo, see crēdo.
ac-cambō, 3, -culi, -itum.
ac-currō, 3, -currī (-cācūrī), -cursum.
accēscō, 3, -acū, — [ce-].
ac-quirō, 3, -quisvi, -quisītum [quāerō].
ac-co, 3, -um, -ātum, 174, 176. d.
ad-dō, 3, -didi, -ditum, 209. a. n.
ad-eō, see eo.
ad-lēbeō, 2, -mū, -itum [labeō].
ad-ígō, 3, -ígī, -ácum [agō].
ad-inu, 3, -ini, -empium [menō].
ad-nūsperō, 3, -nūsi, -nūsum.
ad-nō, 3, -māi, —
ad-nō, 3, -māi, —
ad-ócēco, 3, -vī, -altum.
ad-sēnsio, 3, -sēni, -sensus.
ad-sō, 3, -sēd, —
ad-spertō, 3, -spersi, -spersum [spargō].
ad-stō, 1, -stāi, —
ad-sum, -esse, -fuī (-futūrus).
af-fāri, affātus, 206. c.
afero, -ferre, attuli, altātum.
af-ícīo, 3, -ficī, -fectum [faciō].
af-figō, 3, -xī, -xtum.
اغ-gradior, -i, -gressus [gradiōr].
agnōscō, 3, -ovi, agnītum [noscō].
ágō, 3, -ágī, -ácūm. [For regular comp.,
see ab-ígō; for others, see ogo, circum-, per-].
áīō, defect., 206. a.
albēō, 2, -mū, —
alēccō, 3, -mī, -ātūm.
alēco, 2, -alī, —
alēcēco, 3, -alī, —
al-lego, 3, -égi, -ēctum.
al-lecio, 3, -lexi, —
alō, 3, alū, altūm (ālīnum).
ambīgō, 3, —, — [ago].
ambiō, -ère, -ēvi (-īvi), -itum (ambītāt).
ambīo, 4, amici (-ei), amīctum.
amō, 180, 184; amārīm, amāsse, amās-
semen, 181. a; amāssis, 183. 3.
amō, 3, amī, —
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irruō, 3, -mi, — [ruō].

iacēo, 2, -ui, —.

iacē, 3, iēcē, iactum [ab-icīo, etc.; diss. iōcē, pori-icō].

iubēo, 2, iussī, iussum (iussō, 183. 3).

iūdō, 1, reg. (-assit, 183. 5).

injō, 3, iūnīxī, iūniūtum.

iuuenēscō, 3, —, —.

iuvō (a-d.), 1, iūvi, iūtum (iūtūrus).

labēsō, 3, —, —.

labō, 1, -lapsus.

laecessō, 3, laecessivi, laecessītum, 263. b.

laecō, 3, laecīs, laecīs (ilībīō).

lambō, 3, —, —.

langeō, 2, languī, —.

langēsō, 3, languī, —.

lātēō, 2, -ui, —.

lātēscō, 3, -luiti, — [de-lūtēscō].

lavē, 3, lāvī, lāvūtum (lūtum) (also reg. of 1st con.).

legō, 3, légī, lēctum (for compounds see 211. e, footnote, also dē-līgō, dī-līgō, intel-legō, vēlegō).

levō, 1, reg. (-assē, 183. 5).

libēt (libet), -ēre, -uit, 208. c (libitum est; libēns).

licēō, 2, iēni, —.

licēt, -ērc, licuit, (-ātūrum), 207, 208. e (licitum est, licēns).

-lieō, 3 [for iacēō, only in comp.; see al-lieō, ē-liēō, pel-ḥiēō].

линō (лио), 3, леві (livъ), ītum.

linquō (linъ), 3, -liqui, iliquum.

liqueō, 2, liqui (liči), —.

liquēscō, 3, -lici, —.

liquor, -i, —.

liveō, 2, —.

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liceō, 2, īxi, —.

lācēscō (-cīscō), 3, -lūxi, — [il-].

lūdō, 3, lūsi, lūsum.

līgeo, 2, līxi, —.

lūnō, 3, lūnī, -ītum [dē-lūn, solvō].

madēō, 2, madui, —.

madēscō, 3, madui, —.

maerēō, 2, —, —.

malō, malē, malui, —, 199 (māvolō, mā-velīm, māvellem, id. n.).

māndo, 3, māndi, mānsum.

maneō, 2, mānsi, mānsum [per-maneō].

mānsuēscō, see -suēscō.

marecēscō, 3, -marecūi, — [ē-].

mātūrēscō, 3, mātūrūi, —.

medeor, -ēri, —.

memini, defect., 205.

merō or mereor, merēre or -ēri, meritus, 190. g.

mergō, 3, mersi, mersum.

mētor, -ēri, mēsus.

metō, 3, messiū, -messum.

metuō, 3, -ui, -ütum.

nicēo, 1, niciū, —.

-nimeo, 2, -ui, — [cē, im-, prō-nimeō].

nīiūscor, -i, -mentus [com-, re-].

nīnuō, 3, -ui, -ütum.

nīrō, nīrī, nīrūs.

nīseō, 2, -cūi, mixtum (quisītum).

nīsercor, -ēri, nīseritūs (nisertūs), 208. b. n.

nīseret, impers., 208. b.

mitēscō, 3, —, —.

mītto, 3, misi, missum, 176. d. n. 2.

mōliō, -īri, ītus.

molō, 3, moliū, moliūtum.

moneō, 2, -ui, -ütum, 185.

morēscō, 2, momordī, morsum.

mortō, -i (īri), mortus (mortūrus).

movere, 2, movē, mōtum (commōrat, 181. a).

mulō, 2, mulēi, mulsum.

mulgeō, 2, -si, mulsum.

mutēō, 4, -ivi, —.

nanciscor, -i, nactus (nāctus).

nāscor, -i, nātus.

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neō, 2, nevi, —
nequeō, defect., 206. d.
nigrēscō; 3, nigrui, —
nīgit, 3, nixit (impers.), 208. a.
nīteō, 2, —
nītēscō, 3, nīvit, —
nītor, -ī, nīsus (nīxus).
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nītēscō, 3, -nīti, —
nūlō, 3, nūpsi, nāptum.
-nūo, 3, nūi, — [ab- ad-nūo].

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ob-līvercor, -i, oblītus.
ob-nītēscō, 3, -nītūi, —
ob-sidēō, 2, -sēdī, -sessum [sideī].
ob-sīdō, 3, —
ob-sistō, 3, -stitī, -stitum.
ob-solēscō, 3, -sēvi, -ētum.
ob-stō, 1, -stitī, (-stāturus).
ob-tīneō, 2, -tī, -tētum [teneō].
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oc-cidēō, 3, -cīdī, -cāsim [cādēō].
oc-cidō, 3, -chī, — [canō].
oc-cipō, 3, -cēpi, -cēptum.
oc-cipulō, 3, -cipulī, -cipulum.
oc-ulō, 3, -culī, -cululum.
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opperior, -īri, oppertus.
op-prīmō, 3, -pressī, -pressum [premō].
ordōr, -ōri, órtus.
ors (3d), -ōri, ortus (orītārus) (so compus.), 174, 191.

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paciscor, 3, pactus.
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paeleō, 2, paliū, —
pallēscō, 3, pallī, —
pandidō, 3, pandidī, pāsum (passum) [dis-].
pangō [pag], 3, pepīgi (-pēgi), pāctum
([impingō]; op-pangō).

parco, 3, pepercō (parsī), (parsūrus).
pāreō, 2, -nī, pāritum (late).
parīō, 3, peperi, partum (parītārus)
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per-legō, 3, -legi, -lectum [legō].
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per-petior, -i, -pesus.
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quercor, -i, questus.
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regular, -iōn, ratus.
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rēpō, 3, rēpsi, —.
re-prēmō, 3, -pressi, -pressum [premō].
re-quirō, 3, -sivī, -sītum [quaerō].
re-sideō, 2, -sēdī, —.
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re-spergō, 3, -si, -sum [sārgō].
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rōdō, 3, rosi, rōsum.
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Note. — The numerical references are to sections, with a few exceptions in which the page (p.) is referred to. The letters and some numerals refer to subsections. The letter n. signifies Note; ftn., footnote. Abl. = ablative; acc. = accusative; adj. = adjective; adv. = adverb or adverbial; apod. = apodosis; app. = appositive or apposition; cf. = compare; comp. = compound or composition; compar. = comparative or comparison; conj. = conjunction or conjunction; constr. = construction; dat. = dative; gen. = genitive; gend. = gender; inv. = imperative; ind. disc. = indirect discourse; loc. = locative; nom. = nominative; prep. = preposition; subj. = subject; subj. = subjunctive; vb. = verb; w. = with. (Other abbreviations present no difficulty.)

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NOTE. — In the citations the names Caesar, Cicero, Sallust (with Iugurtha), and Virgil are not generally given. Taus, "B. G." refers to Caesar’s Bellum Gallicum; "Fam." to Cicero’s letters ad Familiares; "Iug." to Sallust’s Iugurtha; "Aen." to Virgil’s Aeneid, etc.

Ap., Apuleius (A.D. 125-?):
Met., Metamorphoses.
—, B. Afr., Bellum Afri-
cum.
Caesar (B.c. 100-44):
B. C., Bellum Civile.
B. G., Bellum Gallicum.
Cato (B.C. 234-149):
de M., de Moribus.
R. K., de Re Rustica.
Catull., Catullus (B.C. 85-)
Cic., Cicero (B.C. 106-43):
Acad., Academica.
Ad Her., [ad Heren-
nium].
Arch., pro Archia.
Att., ad Atticen.
Balb., pro Balbo.
Brut., Brutus de Claris
Oratoribus.
Caec., pro Caeccina.
Caecil., Divinatio in
Caecilium.
Cael., pro M. Caecio.
Cat., in Catilinam.
Cat. M., Cat. Maior (de
Senectute).
Clu., pro Cluentio.
Deiot., pro Deiotaro.
De Or., de Oratore.
Div., de Divinatione.
Dom., pro Domno Sua.
Fam., ad Familiares.
Fat., de Fato.
Fur., de Finibus.
Flacc., pro Flacco.
Font., pro M. Fontio.
Har. Resp., de Haruspici-
cum Respons.
Inv., de Inventione
Rhetorica.

Cic. Lael., Laelius (de Ami-
citia).
Leg. Agr., de Lege
Agraria.
Legg., de Legibus.
Lig., pro Lugrio.
Manil., pro Lege Ma-
nilia.
Marci., pro Marullo.
Mil., pro Milone.
Mar., pro Murena.
N. D., de Natura De-
orum.
Off., de Officiis.
Or., Orator.
Par., Paradocum.
Part. Or., de Partitione
Oratoria.
Phil., Philippicae.
Planc., pro Plancio.
Pison., in Pisonem.
Prov. Cons., de Prov-
incis Consularibus.
Q. Fr., ad Q. Fratrem.
Quinct., pro Quinctio.
Rabir., pro Rabirio.
Rab. Post., pro Rabirio
Postumo.
Rep., de Re Publica.
Rose. Am., pro Roscio
Amerino.
Rose. Com., pro Roscio
Conoedo.
Scaur., pro Scauro.
Sest., pro Sestio.
Sull., pro Sulla.
Tim., Timaeus (de Uni-
verse).
Top., Topica.
Tull., pro Tullio.
Tusc., Tusculanae Dis-
putationes.
Vat., in Vatiniun.
LIST OF AUTHORS CITED

Ov., Ovid (b.c. 43–a.d. 17):
  A. A., Ars Amatoria.
  F., Fasti.
  H., Heroides.
  M., Metamorphoses.
  Pont., Epistulae ex Ponto.
  Trist., Tristia.
Pers., Persius (a.d. 34–62):
  Sat., Satires.
Phaed., Phaedrus (a.d. 40).
Pli., Plautus (b.c. 254–184):
  Am., Amphitruo.
  Asin., Asinaria.
  Aul., Aulularia.
  Bac., Baeclades.
  Capt., Captivi.
  Cist., Cistellaria.
  Cure., Curetiæ.
  Epid., Epidicus.
  Men., Menæchmi.
  Merc., Mercator.
  Mill., Miles Gloriosus.
  Most., Mostellaria.
Pers., Persa.
Poen., Pseudolus.
Ps., Pseudolus.
Rad., Rudens.
Stich., Stichus.
Trin., Trinummus.
Truc., Truculentus.
Plin., Pliny, senior (a.d. 23–79):
  H. N., Historia Naturalis.
Plin., Pliny, junior (a.d. 62–113):
  Ep., Epistles.
Prop., Propertius (b.c. 49–15).
Pub. Syr., Publilius Syrus
  (a.d. 44).
Q. C., Q. Curtius (a.d. 50).
Quiut., Quintilian (a.d. 35–95).
Sall., Sallust (b.c. 86–34):
  Cat., Catilina.
  Iug., Iugurtha.
  S. C. de Bac., Senatus Consultum de Bacchanalibus (b.c. 180).
Sen., Seneca (b.c. 4–a.d. 65):
  Dial., Dialogues.
  Ep., Epistles.
  Herc. Fur., Hercules Furens.
  Herc. Oet., Hercules Oetaeus.
  Med., Medea.
Sen. Q. N., Quaestiones Naturales.
Suet., Suetonius (a.d. 75–160):
  Aug., Augustus.
  Dom., Domitianus.
  Galb., Galba.
Tac., Tacitus (a.d. 55–120):
  Agr., Agricola.
  Ann., Annales.
  H., Historiae.
Ter., Terence (d. b.c. 159):
  Ad., Adelphi.
  And., Andria.
  Enn., Eunuchus.
  Haut., Hautontimoromenos.
  Hec., Hecyra.
  Ph., Phormio.
Val., Valerius Maximus
  (a.d. 20).
Varr., Varro (b.c. 116–27):
  R. R., de Re Rustica.
Vell., Velleius Paterculus
  (a.d. 19–a.d. 31).
Verg., Virgil (b.c. 70–19).
  Aen., Aeneid.
  Ec., Eclogues.
  Georg., Georgics.
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