LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

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Quicquid praecipias, est brevis, ut cito dicta
Percipient animi dociles teneantque fideles:
Omne supervacuum pleno de pectore manet.

ALLYN AND BACON
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PREFACE.

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

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

Ithaca, New York,
October 16, 1907.

C. E. B.

FROM THE PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

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

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

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

Ithaca, New York,
December 15, 1894.

\(^1\) One of the most eminent of living Latinists, Professor Eduard Wolfflin, of Munich, has expressed the opinion that the essentials may be given within even smaller compass than this. See his Preface to the Schmaltz-Wagner *Latinische Grammatik*, 1891.
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PART I.

SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY.

THE ALPHABET.

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

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

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

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS.

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

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

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

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

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

---

1 For 'voiceless,' 'sord,' 'hard,' or 'tenus' are sometimes used.

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

4. The Mutes admit of classification also as
   Labials, p, b, ph.
   Dentals (or Linguals), t, d, th.
   Gutturals (or Palatals), c, k, q, g, ch.

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

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

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

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

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

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

<table>
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<th>Voiced</th>
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<tr>
<td>Mutes,</td>
<td>p, b, ph</td>
<td>(Labials)</td>
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<tr>
<td>t, d, th</td>
<td>(Dentals)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>c, k, q, g, ch</td>
<td>(Gutturals)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Liquids,</td>
<td>f, l, r</td>
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<td>j, v</td>
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a. The Double Consonants, x and z, being compound sounds, do not admit of classification in the above table.
SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

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

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

   ã as in the first syllable of ahad;
   ë as in met;
   ï as in pin;
   ð as in obey, melody;
   ü as in put;

2. Diphthongs.
   âe like ai in aisle;
   oe like ai in oil;
   ei as in rein;
   au like ow in how;
   ou with its two elements, ẽ and û, pronounced in rapid succession;
   âul occurs almost exclusively in cui and huic. These words are pronounced as though written kwoes and wheel.

3. Consonants.
   b, d, f, h, k, l, m, n, p, qu are pronounced as in English, except that
   bs, bt are pronounced ph, pt.
   c is always pronounced as k.
   ÷ is always a plain t, never with the sound of sh as in Eng. oration.
   g always as in get; when ngu precedes a vowel, gu has the sound of
gw, as in anguis, langüdom.
   j has the sound of y as in yet.
   r was probably slightly trilled with the tip of the tongue.
   s always voiceless as in sin; in sunde5, suavis, suasc5, and in compounds and derivatives of these words, su has the sound of sw.
   v like w.
   x always like ks; never like Eng. gr or z.
   ð uncertain in sound; possibly like Eng. z, possibly like s. The latter sound is recommended.
   The aspirates ph, ch, th were pronounced very nearly like our stressed Eng. p, c, t — so nearly so, that, for practical purposes, the latter sounds suffice.
   Doubled letters, like ll, mm, tt, etc., should be so pronounced that both members of the combination are distinctly articulated.
SYLLABLES.

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

In the division of words into syllables, —
1. A single consonant is joined to the following vowel; as, vo-lat, ge-rir, pe-rir, a-dest.
2. Doubled consonants, like tt, ss, etc., are always separated; as, vit-tta, mis-nus.
3. Other combinations of two or more consonants are regularly separated, and the first consonant of the combination is joined with the preceding vowel; as, ma-gis-tri, di-gus, mōn-strum, sis-te-re.
4. An exception to Rule 3 occurs when the two consonants consist of a mute followed by l or r (pl, cl, tl; pr, or, tr, etc.). In such cases both consonants are regularly joined to the following vowel; as, a-grī, vo-lu-cris, pa-tris, mā-tris. Yet if the l or r introduces the second part of a compound, the two consonants are separated; as, ab-rumpō, ad-lātus.
5. The double consonant x is joined to the preceding vowel; as, ax-īs, tēx-ī.

QUANTITY.

5. A. Quantity of Vowels.

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

1. A vowel is long, —
   a) before nt or nd; as, Infāns, Inferior, cōnsāmō, cēnō, Inum.
   b) when the result of contraction; as, nullum for nihilum.
2. A vowel is short, —
   a) before nt, nd; as, amant, amandus. A few exceptions occur in compounds whose first member has a long vowel; as, nōndum (nōn dum).
   b) before another vowel, or h; as, meus, trahō. Some exceptions occur, chiefly in proper names derived from the Greek; as, Aenēās.

1 In this book, long vowels are indicated by a horizontal line above them; as, Æ, Ī, Œ, etc. Vowels not thus marked are short. Occasionally a curve is set above short vowels; as, Ő, Ő.
B. Quantity of Syllables.

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

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

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

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

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

**ACCENT.**

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

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

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

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

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

4. Sometimes the final -e of -ne and -ce disappears, but without affecting the accent; as, tantōn, iastō, līdō, vidēn (for vidēnē).

5. In utrāque, eacē, and plērāque, mortē, -que is not properly an enclitic; yet these words accent the penult, owing to the influence of their other cases,—utērque, utrāmque, plērāmque.

VOWEL CHANGES.1

7. i. In Compounds,—
   a) ē before a single consonant becomes ī; as,—
      colligō for con-legō.
   b) ā before a single consonant becomes ī; as,—
      adigō for ad-agō.
   c) ā before two consonants becomes ē; as,—
      expērs for ex-parās.
   d) ae becomes ī; as,—
      conquīrō for con-quaerō.
   e) au becomes ō, sometimes ō; as,—
      conclūdō for con-claudō;
      explūdō for ex-plaudō.

2. Contraction. Concurrent vowels were frequently contracted into one long vowel. The first of the two vowels regularly prevailed; as,—
   trēs for tre-es;
   mālō for ma(v)elō;
   amāstī for amā(v)emstī;
   dēbō for dē(h)abeō;
   nil for nihil;
   copīa for co-opiā;
   co-gō for co-agō;
   co-mō for co-emō;
   jünior for ju(v)enior.

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

So periculum, saeculum.

4. Syncope. Sometimes a vowel drops out by syncope; as,—
   ārdor for āridor (compare āridus);
   validō for validō (compare validus).

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

8. 1. **Rhotacism.** An original s between vowels became r; as,—  
    arbōs, Gen. arboris (for arbosis);  
    genus, Gen. generis (for genesis);  
    dirimō (for dis-emō).

2. **dt, tt, ts** each give s or ss; as,—  
    plēnum for pend-tum;  
    versum for vert-tum;  
    mīles for mīlet-s;  
    sessus for sedtus;  
    passus for pattus.

3. Final consonants were often omitted; as,—  
    cor for cord;  
    lac for lact.

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

5. **Partial Assimilation.** Sometimes the assimilation is only partial. Thus: —  
   a) b before s or t becomes p; as,—  
      *scriptū* (scrib-sī), *scriptum* (scrip-tum).
   b) g before s or t becomes c; as,—  
      *actus* (āg-tus).
   c) m before a dental or guttural becomes n; as,—  
      *eundem* (eum-dem); *princeps* (prim-ceps).

PECCULARITIES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

9. Many words have variable orthography.

   1. Sometimes the different forms belong to different periods of the language. Thus, *quom*, *voitus*, *voindōs*, *voit*, etc., were the prevail-

¹ Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.
ing forms almost down to the Augustan age; after that, cum, vultus, vulnus, vult, etc. So optimum, maximum, lubet, lubidō, etc., down to about the same era; later, optimum, maximus, libet, libidō, etc.

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

   ad-gerō or aggerō; ad-serō or asserō;
ad-lićiō or alliciō; in-lātus or illātus;
ad-rogāns or arrogāns; sub-moveō or summmoveō;
   and many others.

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

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

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

INFLECTIONS.

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

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

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CHAPTER I.—Declension.

A. NOUNS.

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

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

2. Nouns are also distinguished as Concrete or Abstract.

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

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

b) Abstract nouns designate qualities; as, cōnstantiā, sted-fastness; paupertās, poverty.

GENDER OF NOUNS.

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

Natural Gender.

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

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

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

Grammatical Gender.

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

A. Gender determined by Signification.

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

2. Names of Trees, and such names of Towns and Islands as end in -us, are Feminine; as, —
   quercus, oak; Corinthiā, Corinth; Rhodūs, Rhodes.
Number. — Cases.

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

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

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

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

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

B. Gender determined by Ending of Nominative Singular.

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

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

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

NUMBER.

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

CASES.

17. There are six Cases in Latin:—

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

¹ The great majority of all Latin nouns come under this category. The principles for determining their gender are given under the separate declensions.
1. Locative. Vestiges of another case, the Locative (denoting place where), occur in names of towns and in a few other words.

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

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

THE FIVE DECLENSIONS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DECLENSION</th>
<th>FINAL LETTER OF STEM</th>
<th>GEN. TERMINATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>ē</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>ā-ė</td>
<td>-as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>ē</td>
<td>-ēt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cases alike in Form.

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

2. The Dative and Ablative Plural are always alike.

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

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

---

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

ā-STEMS.

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

Porta, gate; stem, portā.

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CASES</th>
<th>MEANINGS</th>
<th>TERMINATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>porta</td>
<td>-ā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>portae</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>portae</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>portam</td>
<td>-am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>porta</td>
<td>-ā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>portā</td>
<td>with, by, from, in a gate -ā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CASES</th>
<th>MEANINGS</th>
<th>TERMINATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>portae</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>portarum</td>
<td>-arum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>porta</td>
<td>-as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>portae</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>portae</td>
<td>O gates!     -ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>portarum</td>
<td>with, by, from, in gates -as</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**Peculiarities of Nouns of the First Declension.**

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

2. Rare Case-Endings,—

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

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

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

Greek Nouns.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Com.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Archiās</td>
<td>epítomē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Archiae</td>
<td>epítomēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Archiae</td>
<td>epítomae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>Archiam (or-ān)</td>
<td>epítomēn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>Archiā</td>
<td>epítomē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>Archiā</td>
<td>epítomē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

a. Some other peculiarities occur, especially in poetry.

SECOND DECENSION.

6-stems.

23. Pure Latin nouns of the Second Declension end in -us, -or, -ēr, Masculine; -um, Neuter. Originally -us in the Nominative of the Masculines was -ōs; and -um of the Neuters -om. So also in the Accusative.
Nouns in -us and -um are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Datitive</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
<th>Vocative</th>
<th>Ablative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hortus,</strong> garden;</td>
<td><strong>Bellum,</strong> war;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stem, hortō-</td>
<td>Stem, bellō-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Gen.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Dat.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Acc.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Voc.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Abl.</th>
<th>termination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hortus</td>
<td>-us</td>
<td>bellum</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>hortī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>bellī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>hortōm</td>
<td>-ōm</td>
<td>bellōm</td>
<td>-ōm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hortō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>bellō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>hortōs</td>
<td>-ōs</td>
<td>bella</td>
<td>-a</td>
<td>hortis</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>bellis</td>
<td>-īs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hortum</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>bellum</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>hortē</td>
<td>-e</td>
<td>bellum</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>hortūs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>bellīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. hortō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>bellō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Gen.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Dat.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Acc.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Voc.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Abl.</th>
<th>termination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hortī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>bella</td>
<td>-a</td>
<td>hortum</td>
<td>-ūm</td>
<td>bellōrum</td>
<td>-ūrum</td>
<td>hortis</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>bellis</td>
<td>-īs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hortās</td>
<td>-ās</td>
<td>bella</td>
<td>-a</td>
<td>hortō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>bellō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>hortās</td>
<td>-ās</td>
<td>bellīs</td>
<td>-ās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. hortā</td>
<td>-ās</td>
<td>bellā</td>
<td>-a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Datitive</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
<th>Vocative</th>
<th>Ablative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Puer,</strong> boy;</td>
<td><strong>Ager,</strong> field;</td>
<td><strong>Vir,</strong> man;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stem, puerō-</td>
<td>Stem, agrō-</td>
<td>Stem, virō-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Gen.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Dat.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Acc.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Voc.</th>
<th>termination</th>
<th>Abl.</th>
<th>termination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>puer</td>
<td>ager</td>
<td>vir</td>
<td>-āsing</td>
<td>puerī</td>
<td>agrī</td>
<td>virī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>puerō</td>
<td>agrō</td>
<td>virō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puerō</td>
<td>agrō</td>
<td>virō</td>
<td>-āsing</td>
<td>pueris</td>
<td>agrīs</td>
<td>virīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>puerōs</td>
<td>agrōs</td>
<td>virōs</td>
<td>-ōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. puerī</td>
<td>agrī</td>
<td>virī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. puerīs</td>
<td>agrīs</td>
<td>virīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural.**

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

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

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

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

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

Earlier Inflection (including Caesar and Cicero).

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

SINGULAR.

Nom. servus  aevum  equus
Gen. servī  aevī  equī
Dat. servō  aevō  equō
Acc. servum  aevum  equum
Voc. servse  aevom  equem
Abl. servō  aevō  equō

Later Inflection (after Cicero).

SINGULAR.

Nom. servus  aevum  equus
Gen. servī  aevī  equī
Dat. servō  aevō  equō
Acc. servum  aevum  equum
Voc. servse  aevom  equem
Abl. servō  aevō  equō

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

Peculiarities of Inflection in the Second Declension.

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

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

Nom. ingenium
Gen. ingéni

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

3. Flius forms the Vocative Singular in -i (for -ei); e.g. fili,
O son!

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>def</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>defum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>defs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>deó</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>def</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>def</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. The Locative Singular ends in -i; as, Corinthi, at Corinth.

6. The Genitive Plural has -um, instead of -rum,—
   a) in words denoting money and measure; as, talentum, of
talents; medium, of pecks; sextertium, of sesterces.
   b) in duumviris, triuvmir, decemviris; as, duumvirum.
   c) sometimes in other words; as, liberum, of the children;
socium, of the allies.

Exceptions to Gender in the Second Declension.

26. 1. The following nouns in -us are Feminine by exception:—
   a) Names of towns, islands, trees—according to the general
   rule laid down in § 15. 2; also some names of countries; as,
   Aegyptus, Egypt.
   b) Five special words,—
      alvus, belly;
      carbasus, flax;
      colus, distaff;
      humus, ground;
      vannus, winnowing-fan.
   c) A few Greek Feminines; as,—
      atomus, atom;
      diphthongus, diphthong

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barbitos, m. and f.,</th>
<th>Androgeōs, m.,</th>
<th>Ἰλιον, n.,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ἴπτε.</td>
<td>Ἀνδρωγόος.</td>
<td>Τρυ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ἄνδρωγος.</td>
<td>Ἰλίον</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ἄνδρωγος, ἴ</td>
<td>Ἰλίοι</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ἄνδρωγου</td>
<td>Ἰλίδι</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ἄνδρωγον</td>
<td>Ἰλίον</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>ἄνδρωγοι</td>
<td>Ἰλίον</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ἄνδρωγῳ</td>
<td>Ἰλίδι</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Nouns in -os sometimes form the Accusative Singular in -um, instead of -on; as, Δῆλον, Delos.
2. The Plural of Greek nouns, when it occurs, is usually regular.
3. For other rare forms of Greek nouns the lexicon may be consulted.

THIRD DECLENSION.

28. Nouns of the Third Declension end in -a, -o, -i, -e, -y, -e, -i, -n, -r, -s, -t, -th, -t. The Third Declension includes several distinct classes of Stems,—

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

I. Consonant-Stems.

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

A. Mute-Stems.

30. Mute-Stems may end,—

1. In a Labial (p); as, princeps-as.
2. In a Guttural (g or c); as, rémex (rémeg-as); dux (duc-as).
3. In a Dental (d or t); as, lapis (lapid-as); miles (mfile-as).

1. STEMS IN A LABIAL MUTE (P).

31. Princeps, m., chief.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. principis</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. principum</td>
<td>-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. principibus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. principis</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. principis</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. principibus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. STEMS IN A GUTTURAL MUTE (G, C).

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

Rémex, m., rower.          Dux, c., leader.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. rémex</td>
<td>rémigés</td>
<td>dux</td>
<td>ducés</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. rémigis</td>
<td>rémigum</td>
<td>ducis</td>
<td>ducum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. rémigis</td>
<td>rémigibus</td>
<td>ducet</td>
<td>ducibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. rémigem</td>
<td>rémigés</td>
<td>ducem</td>
<td>ducés</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. rémex</td>
<td>rémigés</td>
<td>dux</td>
<td>ducés</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. rémige</td>
<td>rémigibus</td>
<td>ducet</td>
<td>ducibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Stems in a Dental Mute (d, t).

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Lapis</strong>, m., stone.</th>
<th><strong>Miles</strong>, m., soldier.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td><strong>PLURAL.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> lapis</td>
<td>miles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong> lapidēs</td>
<td>militēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> lapidī</td>
<td>militīf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> lapidēm</td>
<td>militēm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong> lapis</td>
<td>miles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong> lapide</td>
<td>militē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></th>
<th><strong>PLURAL.</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> lapis</td>
<td>lapidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong> lapidēs</td>
<td>lappidum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> lapidē</td>
<td>lappidībus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> lapidēm</td>
<td>lappidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong> lapis</td>
<td>lapidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong> lapide</td>
<td>lappidībus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Liquid Stems.

34. These end in -1 or -r.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> vigil</td>
<td>victor</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong> vigilēs</td>
<td>victōris</td>
<td>aequorēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> vigilī</td>
<td>victōrīf</td>
<td>aequorīf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> vigilēm</td>
<td>victōrem</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong> vigil</td>
<td>victor</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong> vigilē</td>
<td>victōre</td>
<td>aequore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PLURAL.</strong></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> vigilēs</td>
<td>victōrēs</td>
<td>aequorās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong> vigilum</td>
<td>victōrum</td>
<td>aequorōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> vigilībus</td>
<td>victōribus</td>
<td>aequorībus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> vigilēs</td>
<td>victōrēs</td>
<td>aequora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong> vigilēs</td>
<td>victōrēs</td>
<td>aequora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong> vigilībus</td>
<td>victōribus</td>
<td>aequorībus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

35. These end in -n₁, which often disappears in the Nom. Sing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leō, m., lion.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Nōmen, n., name.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td><strong>PLURAL.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. leō</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. leōnis</td>
<td>leōnum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. leōnī</td>
<td>leōnisbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. leōnem</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. leō</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. leōne</td>
<td>leōnisbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**D. a-Stems.**


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. mōs</td>
<td>genus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mōris</td>
<td>generis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mōrī</td>
<td>generī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mōrem</td>
<td>genus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. mōs</td>
<td>genus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mōre</td>
<td>generē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PLURAL.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. mōrēs</td>
<td>genera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mōrum</td>
<td>generum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mōribus</td>
<td>generibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mōres</td>
<td>genera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. mōres</td>
<td>genera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mōribus</td>
<td>generibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

---

1 There is only one stem ending in -m, — hlems, hlemis, winter.
II. I-Stems.

A. Masculine and Feminine I-Stems.

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

38. Tussis, l., cough; Ignis, m., fire; Hostis, c., enemy;
    stem, tussi-. stem, igni-. stem, hosti-.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Tussis</th>
<th>Ignis</th>
<th>Hostis</th>
<th>-is</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Tussis</td>
<td>Ignis</td>
<td>Hostis</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Tussi</td>
<td>Igni</td>
<td>Hosti</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>Tussim</td>
<td>Ignem</td>
<td>Hostem</td>
<td>-im, -em</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>Tussis</td>
<td>Ignis</td>
<td>Hostis</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>Tussi</td>
<td>Igni or -e</td>
<td>Hoste</td>
<td>-e, -i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Tusses</th>
<th>Hostes</th>
<th>-es</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Tussium</td>
<td>Hostium</td>
<td>-ium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Tussibus</td>
<td>Hostibus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>Tussis or -ês</td>
<td>Hostis or -ês</td>
<td>-es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>Tusses</td>
<td>Hostes</td>
<td>-es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>Tussibus</td>
<td>Hostibus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. To the same class belong—

apis, bee. orētis, hurdle. † *secūris, aw.
auris, ear. * febris, fever. aēmentis, sowing.
avis, bird. orbis, circle. † *nītis, thirst.
axis, axle. ovīs, sheep. torōs, brand.
* buris, plough-beam. pelvis, basin. † *turris, tower.
clāvis, key. puppis, stern. trudis, pole.
coillis, hill. reattis, rufe. vectis, lever.
and many others.

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

3. Some genuine 1-Stems have become disguised in the Nominative Singular; as, *pars, *part, for *par(t)is; *anas, *duck, for *ana(t)is; so also *mors, *death; *dōs, *dowry; *nox, *night; *sors, *lot; *mēna, *mind; *ars, *art; *gēna, *tribe; and some others.

B. Neuter 1-Stems.

39. These end in the Nominative Singular in -e, -al, and -ar. They always have -1 in the Ablative Singular, -ia in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural, and -ium in the Genitive Plural, thus holding more steadfastly to the 1-character than do Masculine and Feminine 1-Stems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>TERMINATION</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. sedīli</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>calcāri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. sedīliis</td>
<td>animāliis</td>
<td>calcāriis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. sedīliī</td>
<td>animāliī</td>
<td>calcāriī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. sedīli</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>calcāri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. sedīli</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>calcāri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. sedīliī</td>
<td>animāliī</td>
<td>calcāriī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. sedīlium</td>
<td>animālium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. sedīliībus</td>
<td>animāliībus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. sedīlia</td>
<td>animālia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. sedīlia</td>
<td>animālia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. sedīlia</td>
<td>animālia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. sedīliībus</td>
<td>animāliībus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

---

1 *Mēnsēs, month*, originally a consonant stem (*mēna*), has in the Genitive Plural both *mēnīnum* and *mēnum*. The Accusative Plural is *mēnēs*.
III. Consonant-Stems that have partially adapted themselves to the Inflection of Í-Stems.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Caeddás, Í, slaughter;</th>
<th>Arx, Í, citadel;</th>
<th>Linter, Í, skiff;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>stem, caed-</td>
<td>stem, are-</td>
<td>stem, lintr-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>caeddás</td>
<td>arx</td>
<td>arce</td>
<td>arcem</td>
<td>arx</td>
<td>arec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caediás</td>
<td>arcis</td>
<td>aref</td>
<td>aref</td>
<td>arc</td>
<td>arec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caef</td>
<td>linter</td>
<td>lintres</td>
<td>lintres</td>
<td>lintre</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>caedibús</td>
<td>arceós</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caedibús</td>
<td>arceós</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caedibús</td>
<td>arceós</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
<td>arcíbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caeís</td>
<td>lintreás</td>
<td>lintribus</td>
<td>lintribus</td>
<td>lintribus</td>
<td>lintribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The following classes of nouns belong here: —
   a) Nouns in -ís, with Genitive in -is; as, nūbēs, aedēs, clādēs, etc.
   b) Many monosyllables in -s or -x preceded by one or more consonants; as, urbs, mōna, stirps, lanx.
   c) Most nouns in -ns and -rs; as, clūns, cohors.
   d) Úter, venter; für, hūs, mūs, nix; and the Plurals fauceás, penātēs, Optimātēs, Samnītēs, Quiritēs.
   e) Sometimes nouns in -tās with Genitive -tātis; as, civitās, aetās. Civitās usually has civitātium.
### IV. Stems in -i, -ū, and Diphthongs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. viā, f.</td>
<td>suās, c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. —</td>
<td>suīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. —</td>
<td>suī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. viām</td>
<td>suēm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. viā</td>
<td>suēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. vi</td>
<td>suē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 1. Notice that the oblique cases of suās have ā in the root syllable.

#### 2. Grūs is declined like suās, except that the Dative and Ablative Plural are always grūbis.

#### 3. Juppiter is for Jovis pater, and therefore contains the same stem as in Jov-ius, Jov-ī, etc.

#### 4. Nāvis was originally a diphthong stem ending in au-, but it has passed over to the 1-stems (§ 37). Its Ablative often ends in -ā.

### V. Irregular Nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Senex, m., old man.</th>
<th>Carō, f., flesh.</th>
<th>Os, n., bone.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SINGULAR.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. senex</td>
<td>carō</td>
<td>os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. senīs</td>
<td>carnīs</td>
<td>ossīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. senī</td>
<td>carnī</td>
<td>oesī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. senēm</td>
<td>carnēm</td>
<td>os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. senex</td>
<td>carō</td>
<td>os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. senē</td>
<td>carnē</td>
<td>osse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Inflections.

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Dative</th>
<th>Ablative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>senēs</td>
<td>carēnē</td>
<td>ossa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>senum</td>
<td>carēnum</td>
<td>ossium</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>senibus</td>
<td>carēnibus</td>
<td>ossibus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>senēs</td>
<td>carēna</td>
<td>ossa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>senēs</td>
<td>carēna</td>
<td>ossa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>senibus</td>
<td>carēnibus</td>
<td>ossibus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. *Iter*, *itineris*, n., way, is inflected regularly throughout from the stem *itiner*.
2. *Supplex*, *supplectilis*, l., *furniture*, is confined to the Singular. The oblique cases are formed from the stem *supplectilis*. The ablative has both -1 and -ē.
3. *Jecur*, n., *river*, forms its oblique cases from two stems, — *jecor* and *jecinor*. Thus, Gen. *jecoris* or *jecinoris*.
4. *Femur*, n., *thigh*, usually forms its oblique cases from the stem *femor*—but sometimes from the stem *femina*. Thus, Gen. *femoria* or *femina*.

**General Principles of Gender in the Third Declension.**

43. 1. Nouns in -ēs, -ōr, -ōs, -ēr, -ōs are Masculine.
2. Nouns in -ēs, -ōs, -ōs, -ās, -ēs, -ēs, -i, -a, -e, -e, -s (preceded by a consonant); -ōd, -ōd (Genitive -inis); -īd (abstract and collective), -ōs (Genitive -ōdis or -ōdis) are Feminine.
3. Nouns ending in -ē, -ē, -i, -y, -ē, -ē, -t, -ar, -ur, -ōs are Neuter.

**Chief Exceptions to Gender in the Third Declension.**

44. Exceptions to the Rule for Masculines.

1. Nouns in -ēs.
   a. Feminine: carō, flesh.
   a. Feminine: arbor, tree.
   b. Neuter: aquor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.
   a. Feminine: dōs, dowry.
   b. Neuter: ēs (ēris), mouth.
   a. Feminine: Inter, skiff.
Third Declension.

b. Neuter: cadáver, corpse; iter, way; túbér, tumor; sáber, udder. Also botanical names in -er; as, acér, maple.

5. Nouns in -és.
   a. Feminine: seges, crop.

45. Exceptions to the Rule for Feminines.

1. Nouns in -ás.

   a. Masculine: arés, ram; partés, wall; pés, foot.

   a. Masculine: all nouns in -inis and -guis; as annís, river; ignís, fire; pánís, bread; sanguís, blood; unguis, nail.
      Also —
      axis, axle.
      collis, hill.
      fascís, bundle.
      lapis, stone.
      ménís, month.
      piscís, fish.
      postís, post.
      pulvis, dust.
      orbís, circle.
      sentís, brier.

   a. Masculine: apex, peak; códex, tree-trunk; gregis, flock; imbríc, tile; pollex, thumb; vertex, summit; calís, cup.

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

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

46. Exceptions to the Rule for Neuters.

1. Nouns in -l.
   a. Masculine: sōl, sun; sāl, salt.

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

   a. Masculine: vultur, vultures.

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

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

1. The ending -a in the Accusative Singular; as, aetherā, aether; Salaminā, Salaminē.

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

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

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

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

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

7. Proper names in -as, like Pericloēs, form the Genitive Singular sometimes in -as, sometimes in -i; as, Pericloēs or Pericloī.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Didō</th>
<th>Acc.</th>
<th>Didō</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Didōs</td>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>Didō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Didō</td>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>Didō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

FOURTH DECLENSION.

ά-Stems.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fructus, m., fruit.</th>
<th>Cornū, n., corn.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td><strong>PLURAL.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. fructus</td>
<td>fructus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. fructūs</td>
<td>fructuām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. fructūm</td>
<td>fructūbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. fructūs</td>
<td>fructū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. fructus</td>
<td>fructūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. fructā</td>
<td>fructibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fifth Declension.

Fifth Declension.

FIFTH DECLENSION

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>nouns</th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>diēs, m., day</td>
<td>diēs</td>
<td>diērum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rōs, f., rose</td>
<td>rōs</td>
<td>rōrum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exception to Gender in the Fourth Declension.

50. The following nouns in -us are Feminine: acus, needle; domus, house; manus, hand; porticus, colonnade; tribus, tribe; idēs (Plural), idēs; also names of trees (§ 15. 2).
Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fifth Declension.

52. 1. The ending of the Genitive and Dative Singular is -ēs, instead of -ēi, when a consonant precedes; as, spēs, rēs, fidēs.
   2. A Genitive ending -ī (for -ēi) is found in plēbī (from plēbēs = plēbs) in the expressions tribūnus plēbī, tribune of the people, and plēbī acītum, decree of the people; sometimes also in other words.
   3. A Genitive and Dative form in -ē sometimes occurs; as, acīēs.
   4. With the exception of diēs and rēs, most nouns of the Fifth Declension are not declined in the Plural. But acīēs, seriēs, speciēs, spēs, and a few others are used in the Nominative and Accusative Plural.

Gender in the Fifth Declension.

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

DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

54. Here belong —
   1. Nouns used in the Singular only.
   2. Nouns used in the Plural only.
   3. Nouns used only in certain cases.
   4. Indeclinable Nouns.

Nouns used in the Singular only.

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

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

6d) Names of materials,—to denote objects made of the material, or different kinds of the substance; as, aëra, bronzes (i.e. bronze figures); ligna, woods.

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

Nouns used in the Plural only.

56. Here belong —

1. Many geographical names; as, Thēbæae, Thebes; Leuætra, Leuctra; Pompeji, Pompeii.
2. Many names of festivals; as, Megálésia, the Megalesian festival.
3. Many special words, of which the following are the most important:

angustiae, narrow pass.
arma, weapons.
déliciae, delight.
divitiæ, riches.
Idæs, Ídes.
indúliae, truce.
insidiae, ambush.
majóres, ancestors.

mánæs, spirits of the dead.
mineae, threats.
moenia, city walls.
núptiae, marriage.
posteri, descendants.
reliquiae, remainders.
tenebrae, darkness.
verbera, blows.

Also in classical prose regularly —
cervīces, neck.
fidēs, lyre.

márcæ, nose.
viscerā, viscera.

Nouns used only in Certain Cases.

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

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

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

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

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

6. Opīs, dāpis, and frūgīs,—all lack the Nom. Sing.

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

Indeclinable Nouns.

58. Here belong—

fās, n., right.
Instar, n., likeness.
māne, n., morning.
nefās, n., impiety.
nihil, n., nothing.
secus, n., sex.

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

Heteroclitcs.

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

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

vās, vāsīs (vessel); Plu., vāsa, vāsōrum, vāsīs, etc.
jūgerum, jūgerī (acre); Plu., jūgera, jūgerum, jūgeribus, etc.

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

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

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

   c) Requiēs, requiētis, rcest, regularity of the Third Declension, takes an Acc. of the Fifth, requiem, in addition to requiētim.

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

60. Heterogeneous nouns vary in Gender. Thus:—

1. Several nouns of the Second Declension have two forms,—one Masc. in -us, and one Neuter in -um; as, cîpleus, cîpleum, shield; carrus, carrum, cart.
2. Other nouns have one gender in the Singular, another in the Plural; as,—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>balneum, n., bath</td>
<td>balnea, f., bath-house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>epulum, n., feast</td>
<td>epulae, f., feast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frēnum, n., bridle</td>
<td>frēni, m. (rarely frēna, n.), bridle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jōcus, m., jest</td>
<td>jōca, n. (also ject, m.), jests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>locus, m., place</td>
<td>loca, n., places; loci, m., passages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rāstrum, n., rake</td>
<td>rāstrae, m.; rāstra, n., rakes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Plurals with Change of Meaning.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aedēs, temple</td>
<td>aedēs, house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auxilium, help</td>
<td>auxilia, auxiliary troops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carcer, prison</td>
<td>carcerēs, stalls for racing-chariots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>castrum, fort</td>
<td>castra, camp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōpia, abundance</td>
<td>cōpiae, troops, resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finis, end</td>
<td>finēs, borders, territory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fortūna, fortune</td>
<td>fortūnae, possessions, wealth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grātia, favor</td>
<td>grātiae, thanks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impedimentum, hindrance</td>
<td>impedimenta, baggage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>littera, letter (of the alphabet)</td>
<td>litterae, epistles; literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mōs, habit, custom</td>
<td>mōrēs, character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opera, help, service</td>
<td>operaee, laborers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ops) ops, help</td>
<td>opēs, resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pars, part</td>
<td>partēs, party; rôle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sal, salt</td>
<td>salēs, salt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
B. ADJECTIVES.

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

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

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS.

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

**Bonus, good.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. bonus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. boni</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. bonō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. bonum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. bone</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. bonō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fem. bona</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. bonae</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. bonē</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. bonam</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. bona</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. bonā</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neut. bonum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. bonī</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. bonī</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. bonī</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. bona</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. bonī</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. boni</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. bonōrum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. bonīs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. bonīs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. bonis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. bonīs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

2. Distributives (see § 78. 1. c) regularly form the Gen. Plu. Masc. and Neut. in -um instead of -ōrum (compare § 25. 6); as, dānum, centēnum; but always **singulōrum**.
### Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions. 35

#### 64. Masculine like puer:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>NOM.</th>
<th>GEN.</th>
<th>DAT.</th>
<th>ACC.</th>
<th>VOC.</th>
<th>ABL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MASCULINE</strong></td>
<td>tener</td>
<td>teneris</td>
<td>tenerō</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FEMININE</strong></td>
<td>tenera</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NEUTER</strong></td>
<td>tenerum</td>
<td>teneris</td>
<td>teneris</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLURAL</td>
<td>teneri</td>
<td>tenerorum</td>
<td>teneris</td>
<td>teneris</td>
<td>teneris</td>
<td>teneris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MASCULINE</strong></td>
<td>teneri</td>
<td>teneri</td>
<td>teneri</td>
<td>teneri</td>
<td>teneri</td>
<td>teneri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FEMININE</strong></td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NEUTER</strong></td>
<td>teneras</td>
<td>teneras</td>
<td>teneras</td>
<td>teneras</td>
<td>teneras</td>
<td>teneras</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 65. Masculine like aker:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>NOM.</th>
<th>GEN.</th>
<th>DAT.</th>
<th>ACC.</th>
<th>VOC.</th>
<th>ABL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MASCULINE</strong></td>
<td>sacer</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrō</td>
<td>sacram</td>
<td>sacer</td>
<td>sacrō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FEMININE</strong></td>
<td>sacra</td>
<td>sacrae</td>
<td>sacrae</td>
<td>sacra</td>
<td>sacra</td>
<td>sacra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NEUTER</strong></td>
<td>sacrum</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLURAL</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MASCULINE</strong></td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
<td>sacrif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FEMININE</strong></td>
<td>sacrae</td>
<td>sacrae</td>
<td>sacrae</td>
<td>sacra</td>
<td>sacra</td>
<td>sacra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NEUTER</strong></td>
<td>sacrum</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Most adjectives in -er are declined like sacer. The following, however, are declined like tener: asper, rough; lacer, torn; libero, free;
Nine Irregular Adjectives.

66. Here belong —

\begin{align*}
\text{alius}, \text{another;} & \quad \text{alter, the other;} \\
\text{nullus}, \text{any;} & \quad \text{nullus, none;} \\
\text{uter, which? \( \text{of two;} \)} & \quad \text{neuter, neither;} \\
\text{soleus, alone;} & \quad \text{tutus, whole;} \\
\end{align*}

\text{nullus}, \text{one, alone.}

They are declined as follows:

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{llllllll}
\hline
\textbf{Singular.} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{\textbf{Masculine.}} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{\textbf{Feminine.}} & \multicolumn{3}{c}{\textbf{Neuter.}} \\
\hline
\textbf{Nom.} & alius & alia & alius & alter & altera & alterum \\
\textbf{Gen.} & alius & alterius & alterius & alterius & alterius & alterius \\
\textbf{Dat.} & alius & alius & alius & alter & alter & alter \\
\textbf{Acc.} & alius & alius & alius & alterum & alteram & alterum \\
\textbf{Voc.} & & & & & & \\
\textbf{Abl.} & alius & alius & alius & alter & alter & alter \\
\textbf{Nom.} & uter & utra & utrum & tutus & tota & totum \\
\textbf{Gen.} & uter & uter & uter & tutus & totus & totus \\
\textbf{Dat.} & uter & uter & uter & tector & tector & tector \\
\textbf{Acc.} & uter & uter & uter & totum & tector & totum \\
\textbf{Voc.} & & & & & & \\
\textbf{Abl.} & uter & uter & uter & totus & tota & totus \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

1. All these words lack the Vocative. The Plural is regular.
2. \textbf{Neuter} is declined like \textit{uter}.

Adjecitives of the Third Declension.

67. These fall into three classes, —

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

\footnote{1} This is almost always used instead of \textit{alius} in the Genitive.
\footnote{2} A Dative Singular Feminine \textit{alterae} also occurs.
a. With the exception of Comparatives, and a few other words mentioned below in § 70, all Adjectives of the Third Declension follow the inflection of 1-stems; i.e. they have the Ablative Singular in -s, the Genitive Plural in -ium, the Accusative Plural in -is (as well as -es) in the Masculine and Feminine, and the Nominative and Accusative Plural in -ia in Neuters.

**Adjectives of Three Terminations.**

68. These are declined as follows:

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ācrērum</td>
<td>ācrērum</td>
<td>ācrērum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ācrēbus</td>
<td>ācrēbus</td>
<td>ācrēbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ācrēs, -is</td>
<td>ācrēs, -is</td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ācrēbus</td>
<td>ācrēbus</td>
<td>ācrēbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

2. Celēr, celēria, celēre, swift, retains the e before r, but lacks the Genitive Plural.

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

**Adjectives of Two Terminations.**

69. These are declined as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><em>fortis</em></td>
<td><em>forte</em></td>
<td><em>fortior</em></td>
<td><em>fortius</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fortis</em></td>
<td><em>forte</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>fortior</em></td>
<td><em>fortius</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td><em>fortis</em></td>
<td><em>fortis</em></td>
<td><em>fortioris</em></td>
<td><em>fortioris</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fortis</em></td>
<td><em>fortis</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>fortioris</em></td>
<td><em>fortioris</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td><em>forti</em></td>
<td><em>forti</em></td>
<td><em>fortiori</em></td>
<td><em>fortiori</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>forti</em></td>
<td><em>forti</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>fortiori</em></td>
<td><em>fortiori</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td><em>fortem</em></td>
<td><em>forte</em></td>
<td><em>fortiorem</em></td>
<td><em>fortiorem</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fortem</em></td>
<td><em>forte</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>fortiorem</em></td>
<td><em>fortiorem</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
<td><em>fortia</em></td>
<td><em>forte</em></td>
<td><em>fortior</em></td>
<td><em>fortius</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fortia</em></td>
<td><em>forte</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>fortior</em></td>
<td><em>fortius</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td><em>forti</em></td>
<td><em>forti</em></td>
<td><em>fortiorem</em></td>
<td><em>fortiorem</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>forti</em></td>
<td><em>forti</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>fortiorem</em></td>
<td><em>fortiorem</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><em>fortēs</em></td>
<td><em>fortia</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōrēs</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōra</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fortēs</em></td>
<td><em>fortia</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>fortiōrēs</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōra</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td><em>fortium</em></td>
<td><em>fortium</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōrum</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōrum</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fortium</em></td>
<td><em>fortium</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>fortiōrum</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōrum</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td><em>fortibus</em></td>
<td><em>fortibus</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōribus</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōribus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fortibus</em></td>
<td><em>fortibus</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>fortiōribus</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōribus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td><em>fortēs</em>,-<em>s</em></td>
<td><em>fortia</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōrēs</em>,-<em>s</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōra</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fortēs</em>,-<em>s</em></td>
<td><em>fortia</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōrēs</em>,-<em>s</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōra</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
<td><em>fortia</em></td>
<td><em>fortia</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōrēs</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōra</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fortia</em></td>
<td><em>fortia</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>fortiōrēs</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōra</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td><em>fortibus</em></td>
<td><em>fortibus</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōribus</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōribus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fortibus</em></td>
<td><em>fortibus</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>fortiōribus</em></td>
<td><em>fortiōribus</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**Adjectives of One Termination.**

70. *Felix*, happy.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><em>fēlix</em></td>
<td><em>fēlix</em></td>
<td><em>prudēns</em></td>
<td><em>prudēns</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fēlix</em></td>
<td><em>fēlix</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>prudēns</em></td>
<td><em>prudēns</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td><em>fēlicis</em></td>
<td><em>fēlicis</em></td>
<td><em>prudentis</em></td>
<td><em>prudentis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fēlicis</em></td>
<td><em>fēlicis</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>prudentis</em></td>
<td><em>prudentis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td><em>fēlicet</em></td>
<td><em>fēlicet</em></td>
<td><em>prudenti</em></td>
<td><em>prudenti</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fēlicet</em></td>
<td><em>fēlicet</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>prudenti</em></td>
<td><em>prudenti</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td><em>fēlicem</em></td>
<td><em>fēlix</em></td>
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<tr>
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</table>
Adjectives of the Third Declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vetús, old.</th>
<th>Púls, more.</th>
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<tr>
<td>SINGULAR</td>
<td>SINGULAR</td>
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<tr>
<td>M. AND F.</td>
<td>M. AND F.</td>
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<td>Neut.</td>
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<td>Nom. vetús</td>
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<td>Nom. veterós</td>
<td>vetera</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gen. veterum</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acc. veterés</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. veteribus</td>
<td>veteribus</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1. It will be observed that vetús is declined as a pure Consonant-Stem; i.e. Ablative Singular in -e, Genitive Plural in -um. Nominative Plural Neuter in -a, and Accusative Plural Masculine and Feminine in -âs only. In the same way are declined compos, controlling; divés, rich; partíceps, sharing; pauper, poor; prínceps, chief; sâpes, safe; superâs, surviving. Yet divés always has Neut. Plu. dítia.

2. Inops, needy, and memor, mindful, have Ablative Singular inopí, memóri, but Genitive Plural inopum, memorum.

3. Participles in -âs and -âns follow the declension of I-stems. But they do not have -í in the Ablative, except when employed as adjectives; when used as participles or as substantives, they have -e; as, —

    A sapientí viró, by a wise man; but
    A sapiente, by a philosopher;
    Tarquinió régunte, under the reign of Tarquín.

4. Púls, in the Singular, is always a noun.

5. In the Ablative Singular, adjectives, when used as substantives, —

   a) usually retain the adjective declension; as, —

    aequális, contemporary, Abl. aequálī.
    cónsulāris, ex-consul, Abl. cónsulārī.

   So names of Months; as, Apríll, April; Decembri, December.

   b) But adjectives used as proper names have -e in the Ablative Singular; as, Celere, Celar; Juvenális, Juvenāl.
Inflections.

c) Patris in -às, -ätia and -ès, -ëtis, when designating places, regularly have -i; as, in Arpinatì, on the estate at Arpinum; yet -e, when used of persons; as, ab Arpinatë, by an Arpini-
nation.

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

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

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

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

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

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

So also Participles, when used as Adjectives; as, —
docēus, learned, doctior, docetissimus.
egérns, needy, egentior, egentissimus.

3. Adjectives in -er form the Superlative by appending -irus to the Nominative of the Positive. The Comparative is regular. Thus: —
aper, rough, asperior, aspririum.
pulcher, beautiful, pulchrior, pulcherrimus.
àcer, sharp, acrior, accrirmus.
celer, swift, celerior, celerirmus.

a. Notice màturus, màturior, màturusimius or màturiirius.

4. Five Adjectives in -lis form the Superlative by adding -imum to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel. The Comparative is regular. Thus: —
facilis, easy, facilior, facilimum.
dificilis, difficult, difficilior, difficiliimum.
similis, like, similior, similiimum.
dissimilis, unlike, dissimilior, dissimilimum.
humilis, low, humilior, humiliimum.
5. Adjectives in -dicus, -dous, and -volus form the Comparative and Superlative as though from forms in -dicans, -dicens, -volens.

Thus:

maledicus, standerus, maledicentior, maledicotissimus.
magnificus, magnificent, magnificientior, magnificentsissimus.
benevolus, kindly, benevoliutor, benevolentissimus.

a. Positives in -dicans and -volens occur in early Latin; as, maledicans, benevolens.

6. Divus has the Comparative divitiitor or divtior; Superlative divitiissimus or divtissimus.

Irregular Comparison.

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

bonus, good,  melior,  optimus.
malus, bad,  pejor,  pessimus.
parvus, small,  minor,  minimus.
magnus, large,  major,  maximus.
multus, much,  plius,  plurimus.
frugi, thrifty,  frugalior,  frugalissimus.
nequam, worthless,  nequior,  nequissimus.

Defective Comparison.

73. 1. Positive lacking entirely,—

(Cf. prae, in front of,) prior, former, primus, first.
(Cf. citra, this side of,) citerior, on this side, citius, near.
(Cf. ultra, beyond,) ulterior, farther, ultimus, farthest.
(Cf. intra, within,) interior, inner, intimus, innermost.
(Cf. prope, near,) propior, nearer, proxius, nearest.
(Cf. de, down,) deterior, inferior, dextremus, worst.
(Cf. aequus, equal,) aequior, aequissimus, chiefest.

2. Positive occurring only in special cases,—

posterius, diem, etc., posterior, later, postremus, last.
posterius, diem, etc., postremus, postremus, last.
posterius, diem, etc., postremus, late-born.
posterius, diem, etc., postremus, posthumous.
exterius, exterior, exterius, exterior, outer, extrarius, outermost.
Intell., gods of the lower world,
Mare Inferum, Mediterranean Sea,
superi, gods above,
Mare Superum, Adriatic Sea,

inferior, lower, infimus, lowest.
imus, lowest.
suprēmus, last.
summus, highest.

3. Comparative lacking.

veetus, old, —
fidus, faithful, —
noenus, new, —
sacer, sacred, —
falsus, false, —

veterrimus.
fidissimus.
novissimus, last
sacerrimus.
falsissimus.

Also in some other words less frequently used.

4. Superlative lacking.

alacer, lively, alacior, —
ingēns, great, ingentior, —
salutāris, wholesome, salutārior, —
juvenis, young, jūniōr, —
senex, old, senior, —

Comparison by Magis and Maximē.

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

1. Many adjectives ending in -ālis, -ālis, -ālis, -īmus, -īmus, -ōrus.

2. Adjectives in -us, preceded by a vowel; as, idōneus, adaptē.
ardus, steep; necessārius, necessary.

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

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

75. Here belong—

1. Many adjectives which, from the nature of their signification, do not admit of comparison; as, hodiernus, of to-day; annuus, annual; mortālis, mortal.
2. Some special words; as, mirus, gaērus, merus; and a few others.

FORMATION AND COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

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

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

   cārus, cārē, dearly;
   pulcher, pulchrē, beautifully;
   ācer, ācriter, fiercely;
   levīs, leviter, lightly.

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

      sapīens, sapienter, wisely;
      audāx, audacter, boldly;
      sollerter, skillfully.

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

   (cārus) cārē, dearly, cārīus, cārissimē.
   (pulcher) pulchrē, beautifully, pulchrīus, pulcherrimē.
   (ācer) ācriter, fiercely, ācrīus, ācērimē.
   (levīs) leviter, lightly, levīus, leviissimē.
   (sapīens) sapienter, wisely, sapientius, sapientissimē.
   (audāx) audacter, boldly, audāctus, audāctissimē.
Adverbs Peculiar in Comparison and Formation.

77. 1. benē, well; melius, optimē.
malē, ill; pejus, peassistē.
magnopere, greatly; magis, maximē.
multum, much; plius, plurimum.
nōna multum, little; minus, minimē.
parum, —

diū, long; diūtius, diūtissimē.
nēquitēr, worthlessly; nēquitus, nēquissimē.
saepe, often; saepius, saepissimē.
māturē, betimes; mātūritis, mātūritisimē.
prope, near; proptius, proximē.
nāper, recently; —

potius, rather; potissimum, especially.

PRIORLY; primum, first.
secus, otherwise; sētius, less.

2. A number of adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form an Adverb in -ō, instead of -ē; as, —
crēbrō, frequently; falsō, falsely;
continuō, immediately; subitō, suddenly;
rārō, rarely; and a few others.

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

4. A few adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive in -ter; as, —
firmus, firmiter, firmly; hūmānus, hūmāniter, humanly;
largus, largiter, copiously; alius, aliter, otherwise.

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

78. Numerals may be divided into —

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

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

79. **Table of Numeral Adjectives and Adverbs.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cardinals</th>
<th>Ordinals</th>
<th>Distributives</th>
<th>Adverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>unus, una, unum</td>
<td>primus, first</td>
<td>singuli, one by one</td>
<td>semel, once,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duo, duae, duo</td>
<td>secundus, second</td>
<td>bini, two by two</td>
<td>bis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tres, trium</td>
<td>tertius, third</td>
<td>terni (triāli)</td>
<td>ter</td>
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<td>quattuor</td>
<td>quartus, fourth</td>
<td>quater</td>
<td>quater</td>
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<tr>
<td>quinque</td>
<td>quintus, fifth</td>
<td>quinti</td>
<td>quinti-quēs</td>
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Inflections.

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<th>ORDINALS.</th>
<th>DISTRIBUTIVES.</th>
<th>ADJECTIVES.</th>
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<td>centésimus et primus</td>
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<td>centēni singuli</td>
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<td>bīna millia</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>centum millia</td>
<td>centēs milliās</td>
<td>centēna millia</td>
<td>centēs millēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decies centēna</td>
<td>decies centēs milliās</td>
<td>decies centēna</td>
<td>decies centēs millēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miliās</td>
<td>simus</td>
<td>miliās</td>
<td>miliēs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE. — -simus and -iens are often written in the numerals instead of -simus and -iens.

Declension of the cardinals.

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

2. Duo is declined as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>duo</th>
<th>duae</th>
<th>duo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>duōrum</td>
<td>duārum</td>
<td>duōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>duōbus</td>
<td>duābus</td>
<td>duōbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>duōs, duo</td>
<td>duās</td>
<td>duo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>duōbus</td>
<td>duābus</td>
<td>duōbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

3. Trēs is declined, —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>trēs</th>
<th>tria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>trium</td>
<td>trium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tribus</td>
<td>tribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>trēs (trīs)</td>
<td>tria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>tribus</td>
<td>tribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

5. Milīa is regularly an adjective in the singular, and indeclinable. In the plural it is a substantive (followed by the genitive of the objects enumerated; § 201. 1), and is declined, —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>milīa</th>
<th>Acc.</th>
<th>milīa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>milīum</td>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>milīa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>milibus</td>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>milibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Thus mille hominēs, a thousand men; but duo mīlia hominum, two thousand men, literally two thousands of men.

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

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

Peculiarities in the Use of Numerals.

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

trigintā sex or sex et trigintā, thirty-six.

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

duodevigintī, eighteen (but also octodecim);

undēquadrāgintā, thirty-nine (but also trigintā novem or novem et trigintā).

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

centum vigintī septem, one hundred and twenty-seven.

anno octingentāsimō octōgēsimō secundō, in the year 882.

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

centum et septem, one hundred and seven;

centum et quadragintā, one hundred and forty.

4. The Distributives are used—

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

bīnae talenta eīs dedit, he gave them two talents each.

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

bīnae litterae, two epistles.

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

ānī litterae, one epistle; trīnī litterae, three epistles.

c) In multiplication; as,—

bis bīnae sunt quattuor, twice two are four.

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

bīnae hastīlia, two spears.
C. PRONOUNS.

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

83. There are the following classes of pronouns: —

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

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Person.</th>
<th>Second Person.</th>
<th>Third Person.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> ego, I</td>
<td>tú, thou</td>
<td>is, he, she, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mei</td>
<td>tuī</td>
<td>(For declension see § 87.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. méhi</td>
<td>tili</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mé</td>
<td>té</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. —</td>
<td>tú</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mé</td>
<td>té</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PLURAL.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. nōs, we</td>
<td>vōs, you</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. nostrum</td>
<td>vesterum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. nōs</td>
<td>vōs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. —</td>
<td>vōs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. nōbis</td>
<td>vōbis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. A Dative Singular méh occurs in poetry.

2. Emphatic forms in -met are occasionally found; as, egomet, I myself; tibimet, to you yourself; tú has tūte and támemem (written also támēmet).

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

II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Person.</th>
<th>Second Person.</th>
<th>Third Person.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supplied by oblique cases of ego.</td>
<td>Supplied by oblique cases of tē.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mé, of myself</td>
<td>tūlī, of thyself</td>
<td>sūi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mihi, to myself</td>
<td>tibi, to thyself</td>
<td>sībi¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mé, myself</td>
<td>tē, thyself</td>
<td>sē or sēsē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. —</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mé, with myself, etc.</td>
<td>tē, with thyself, etc.</td>
<td>sē or sēsē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

   inter se pugnant, they fight with each other.

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

III. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Person.</th>
<th>Second Person.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>meus, -a, -um, my;</td>
<td>tūus, -a, -um, thy;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noster, nostra, nostrum, our;</td>
<td>vester, vestra, vestrum, your;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third Person.

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

1. Suus is exclusively Reflexive; as,—

   pater libērōs suōs amat, the father loves his children.

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

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

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

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

hic, this (where I am);
iste, that (where you are);
ille, that (something distinct from the speaker);

is, that (weaker than ille);

idem, the same.

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

**hic, this.**

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

**iste, that, that of yours.**

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

Illum (archaic olle), that, that one, his, is declined like iste.  

---

1 Forms of hic ending in -a sometimes append -ce for emphasis; as, hújusce, this...here; hónce, before. When -ene is added, -e and -ce become -el; as, bunone, boncine.
2 For istud, istic sometimes occurs; for istic, isticae.
3 For illud, illic sometimes occurs.
The Intensive Pronoun.—The Relative Pronoun. 51

Is, he, this, that.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. is</td>
<td>ea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ejus</td>
<td>ejus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. ei</td>
<td>ei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. eum</td>
<td>eam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. cō</td>
<td>ea</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Idem, the same.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. idem</td>
<td>eadem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ejusdem</td>
<td>ejusdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. eadem</td>
<td>eadem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. eundem</td>
<td>eandem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. oōdem</td>
<td>éadem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

V. THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ipse</td>
<td>ipsa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ipsīs</td>
<td>ipsīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. ipsī</td>
<td>ipsī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. ipsum</td>
<td>ipsam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. ipsō</td>
<td>ipsā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VI. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. qui</td>
<td>quae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. cujus</td>
<td>cujus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. cu</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. quem</td>
<td>quam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. quō</td>
<td>quā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 An ablative qui occurs in quīcum.  
2 Sometimes quīs.
VII. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

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

1. *Quis*, *who?*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MASC. AND FEM.</td>
<td>MEUTER.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>quis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cujus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>quem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>quô</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

VIII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBSTANTIVES</th>
<th>ADJECTIVES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M. AND F.</td>
<td>N. MEUT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quis</td>
<td>quid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alquis</td>
<td>aliquid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quiesquam, quidquam</td>
<td>any one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quispiam</td>
<td>quidpiam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quiesque</td>
<td>quideque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quives, queves, quietvis</td>
<td>any one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quielibet, quaelibet, quidibet</td>
<td>a certain person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quidam, quaeam, quidam</td>
<td>a certain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisquam, quidquam</td>
<td>any (rare)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quispiam, quaeplam, quodplam</td>
<td>any</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisque, quaeque, quodque, each</td>
<td>quives, queves, quaelvis, quidibet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quielibet, quaelibet, quidibet</td>
<td>you wish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quidam, quaeam, quidam</td>
<td>a certain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. In the Indefinite Pronouns, only the pronominal part is declined. Thus: Genitive Singular aliquus, ojus liber, etc.
2. Note that aliqua has aliqua in the Nominative Singular Feminine, also in the Nominative and Accusative Plural Neuter. Qui has both qua and quae in these same cases.
3. Quidam forms Accusative Singular quendam, quandam; Genitive Plural qudrandum, qudrandum; the m being assimilated to n before d.
4. Aliquis may be used adjectively, and (occasionally) aliqua substantively.
5. In combination with nē, sī, nisi, num, either quis or qui may stand as a Substantive. Thus: sī quis or sī qui.
6. Ecquis, any one, though strictly an Indefinite, generally has interrogative force. It has both substantive and adjectival forms,— substantive, ecquis, ecquid; adjectival, ecquit, ecquae and ecqua, ecquod.
7. Quisquam is not used in the Plural.
8. There are two Indefinite Relatives,— quicumque and quisquis, whoever. Quicumque declines only the first part; quisquis declines both, but has only quisquis, quidquid, quodquod in common use.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

96. The Personal Endings of the Verb are, —

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Sing.} & \text{Passive} \\
1. \text{-e} & \text{-e} \\
2. \text{-t} & \text{-tis} \\
3. \text{-t} & \text{-tis} \\
\text{Plur.} & \text{-en} \\
1. \text{-e} & \text{-en} \\
2. \text{-e} & \text{-en} \\
3. \text{-e} & \text{-en} \\
\end{array}
\]

VERB-STEMS.

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

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

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

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

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

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjugation</th>
<th>Infinitive Termination</th>
<th>Distinguishing Vowel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>-āre</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>-ēre</td>
<td>ē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>-ēre</td>
<td>ē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>-īre</td>
<td>ī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPAL PARTS</th>
<th>PREC. IND.</th>
<th>PREC. IND.</th>
<th>PREC. IND.</th>
<th>FUT. PARTICLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>sum</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>futurus</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>sum</em>, <em>I am,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>es</em>, <em>thou art,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>est</em>, <em>he is;</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>sumus</em>, <em>we are,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>estis</em>, <em>you are,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>sunt</em>, <em>they are.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERFECT</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>eram</em>, <em>I was,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>erāns</em>, <em>thou wast,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>erat</em>, <em>he was;</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUTURE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>erō</em>, <em>I shall be,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>eris</em>, <em>thou wilt be,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>erit</em>, <em>he will be;</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERFECT</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>erū</em>, <em>I have been,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>erūstis</em>, <em>thou had been,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>erūt</em>, <em>he had been;</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLUSPERFECT</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>fuēram</em>, <em>I had been,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fuērāns</em>, <em>thou had had been,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fuērat</em>, <em>he had had been;</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUTURE PERFECT</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>fuērō</em>, <em>I shall have been,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fuēris</em>, <em>thou shall have been,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fuērit</em>, <em>he shall have been;</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

#### PRESENT.

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

#### IMPERFECT.

| essem,² I should be, | essemus, we should be, |
| esseš,² thou wouldst be, | essešis, you would be, |
| essešt,² he would be; | essešent,² they would be. |

#### PERFECT.

| fuerim, I may have been, | fuerimus, we may have been, |
| fueris, thou mayst have been, | fueritis, you may have been, |
| fuerit, he may have been; | fuerint, they may have been. |

#### PLUPERFECT.

| fuissetem, I should have been, | fuissetemus, we should have been, |
| fuissetes, thou wouldst have been, | fuissetes, you would have been, |
| fuisset, he would have been; | fuisset, they would have been. |

#### IMPERATIVE.

| Pres. es, be thou, | estē, be ye. |
| Fut. estō, thou shalt be, | estōte, ye shall be, |
| estō, he shall be; | suntō, they shall be. |

#### INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

| Pres. esse, to be. | Participles: |
| Perf. fuisset, to have been. | estō, he shall be. |
| Fut. futūrus esse,⁴ to be about to be. | futūrus, about to be. |

¹ The meanings of some of the different tenses of the Subjunctive are so many and so varied, particularly in subordinate clauses, that no attempt can be made to give them here. For fuller information the pupil is referred to the Syntax.
² For essem, esseš, essešt, essešent, the forms forem, forēs, forēst, forēsent are sometimes used.
³ For futūrus esse the form fore is often used.
⁴ Declined like bonus, -a, -um.
FIRST (OR Ā-) CONJUGATION.


PRINCIPAL PARTS.

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

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

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

Imperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābam, I was loving</td>
<td>amābamus, we were loving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābās, you were loving</td>
<td>amābātis, you were loving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābat, he was loving</td>
<td>amābant, they were loving</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābō, I shall love</td>
<td>amābimus, we shall love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābīs, you will love</td>
<td>amābītis, you will love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābīt, he will love</td>
<td>amābunt, they will love</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāvī, I have loved, I loved</td>
<td>amāvīmus, we have loved, we loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvīstī, you have loved, you loved</td>
<td>amāvīstis, you have loved, you loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvīt, he has loved, he loved</td>
<td>amāvīrunt, -ēre, they have loved, they loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pluperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāverām, I had loved</td>
<td>amāverāmus, we had loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverśās, you had loved</td>
<td>amāverśtis, you had loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverat, he had loved</td>
<td>amāverant, they had loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future Perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāverō, I shall have loved</td>
<td>amāverimus, we shall have loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverēs, you will have loved</td>
<td>amāverētis, you will have loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverēt, he will have loved</td>
<td>amāverint, they will have loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
First Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR.                      PLURAL.
Pres. amēm, may I love,       amēmus, let us love,
amēs, may you love,           amēsit, may you love,
amet, let him love;           ament, let them love.

IMPERFECT.

amārem, I should love,        amāremus, we should love,
amārēs, you would love,       amāretis, you would love,
amāret, he would love;        amārent, they would love.

PERFECT.

amāverim, I may have loved,   amāverimus, we may have loved,
amāveris, you may have loved, amāvertis, you may have loved,
amāverit, he may have loved;  amāvertint, they may have loved.

PLUPERFECT.

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

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amā, love thou;          amāte, love ye.
Fut. amātō, thou shalt love,  amātote, ye shall love,
amātō, he shall love;         amātont, they shall love.

INFINITIVE.                    PARTICIPLE.
Pres. amāre, to love.          Pres. amāns,1 loving.
Perf. amāvīisse, to have loved.
Fut. amāturus esse, to be about to love.

GERUND.                        SUPINE.
Gen. amandī, of loving;        Acc. amāturn, to love,
Dat. amandō, for loving;       Abl. amātō, to love, be loved.
Acc. amandum, loving;          Abl. amātō, to love, be loved.

1 For declension of amāns, see § 70. 3.
FIRST (OR Ā-) CONJUGATION.

102. Passive Voice.—Amor, I am loved.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal Parts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres. Ind.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amor</td>
<td>amāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāris</td>
<td>amāminf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātūr</td>
<td>amantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābar</td>
<td>amābāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābāris, or -re</td>
<td>amābāminf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābātūr</td>
<td>amābantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābor</td>
<td>amābimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāberis, or -re</td>
<td>amābimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābitur</td>
<td>amābuntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

I have been loved or I was loved.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus (-a, -um) sum</td>
<td>amātī (-ae, -a) sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus es</td>
<td>amātī estis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus est</td>
<td>amātī sunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

I had been loved.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus eram</td>
<td>amātī erāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erās</td>
<td>amātī erātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erat</td>
<td>amātī erant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect.**

I shall have been loved.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus erō</td>
<td>amātī erimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erīs</td>
<td>amātī erītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erīt</td>
<td>amātī erīnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1 Pul, pulsit, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc. So fueram, fuerās, etc., for eram, etc.; fuerō, etc., for erō, etc.
First Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amēr</td>
<td>amēmūr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amēris, or -re</td>
<td>amēmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amētūr</td>
<td>amētūr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

| amērēr          | amērēmūr       |
| amērēris, or -re| amērēmini      |
| amērētūr        | amērēntūr      |

PERFECT.
I may have been loved.

| amātus aīm ¹ | amātīūs       |
| amātus aīs  | amātīās       |
| amātus aīt  | amātīāt       |

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

| amātus essēm ¹ | amātī essēmūs |
| amātus essēs  | amātī essētīs |
| amātus essēt  | amātī essēt   |

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amārē, be thou loved;
Fut. amātōr, thou shalt be loved;

| amāminī, be ye loved. |

amātōr, they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amārī, to be loved.
Perf. amātus esse, to have been loved.
Fut. amātum Iri, to be about to be loved.

Perfect. amātus, loved, having been loved.
Gerundive. amandus, to be loved, deserving to be loved.

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


**Principal Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>moneēre</td>
<td>monēui</td>
<td>monēitus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>I advise.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>monēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēa</td>
<td>monētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēt</td>
<td>monēnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

*I was advising, or I advised.*

| moneēbam  | monēbāmus |
| monēbās   | monēbātis |
| monēbat   | monēbant  |

**Future.**

*I shall advise.*

| moneēbō   | monēbimus |
| moneēbis  | monēbitis |
| moneēbit  | monēbunt  |

**Perfect.**

*I have advised, or I advised.*

| monēui    | monēimus  |
| monēiūs   | monēiūs   |
| monēuit   | monēiūt   |

**Pluperfect.**

*I had advised.*

| monueram  | monuerāmus |
| monuerās  | monuerātis |
| monuerat  | monuerant  |

**Future Perfect.**

*I shall have advised.*

| monuerō   | monuerimus |
| monuerīs  | monuerītis |
| monuerīt  | monuerīt   |
SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.
May I advise, let him advise.

SINGULAR.
monēam
monēátis
monēat

PLURAL.
monēamus
monēátis
monēant

IMPERFECT.
I should advise, he would advise.
monērem
monērès
monēret

PERFECT.
I may have advised.
monērim
monēritis
monērit

PLUPERFECT.
I should have advised, he would have advised.
monēissem
monēisset
monēisset

IMPERATIVE.
Pres. monē, advise thou; monēte, advise ye.
Fut. monētō, thou shalt advise, monētōtē, ye shall advise,
     monētō, he shall advise;

PARTICIPLE.
Pres. monēns, advising.
     (Gen. monēntis.)
Fut. monēnstrus esse, to be about
to advise.

GERUND.
Gen. monēndūl, of advising,
Dat. monēndō, for advising,
Acc. monēndūm, advising,
Abl. monēndō, by advising.

SUPINE.
Acc. monētum, to advise.
Abl. monētā, to advise, be advised.
SECOND (OR É-) CONJUGATION.


PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. Ind.</td>
<td>moneor</td>
<td>moneor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. Inf.</td>
<td>monērī</td>
<td>monēris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. Ind.</td>
<td>monitus sum</td>
<td>monēbamur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am advised.</td>
<td>monēmur</td>
<td>monēmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was advised.</td>
<td>monēbāmur</td>
<td>monēbāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I shall be advised.</td>
<td>monēbimur</td>
<td>monēbimini</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have been advised, I was advised.</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had been advised.</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I shall have been advised.</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pluperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have been advised, I was advised.</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had been advised.</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I shall have been advised.</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
<td>monītīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be advised, let him be advised.

SINGULAR.                     PLURAL.
monēar                       moneāmur
monēāris, or -re         moneāminī
monēātur                     moneāntur

IMPERFECT.

I should be advised, he would be advised.

monērer                       monēremur
monērēris, or -re      monērēminī
monērētur                     monērentur

PERFECT.

I may have been advised.

monitus sim                   monītī simus
monitus sis                   monītī sistī
monitus sīt                   monītī sint

PLUPERFECT.

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

monitus essem                monītī essēmus
monitus essēs                monītī essētīs
monitus essēt                monītī essēt

IMPERATIVE.

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

INFINITIVE.

Pres. monērī, to be advised.
Perf. monitus esse, to have been advised.
Fut. monitum esse, to be about to be advised.

PARTICIPLE.

Perfect. monitus, advised.
Gerundive. monēndus, to be advised, deserving to be advised.
### Third (or Consonant-) Conjugation

#### Active Voice. — Regō, *I rule.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPAL PARTS</th>
<th>PRINCIPAL PARTS</th>
<th>PRINCIPAL PARTS</th>
<th>PRINCIPAL PARTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regō</td>
<td>regere</td>
<td>réxi</td>
<td>rectus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Indicative Mood

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regō</td>
<td>regimns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regis</td>
<td>regitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regit</td>
<td>regunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

*I was ruling, or I ruled.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>regēbam</th>
<th>regēbāmus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regēbas</td>
<td>regēbātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regēbat</td>
<td>regēbant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

*I shall rule.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>regam</th>
<th>regēmus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regēs</td>
<td>regētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reget</td>
<td>regent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

*I have ruled, or I ruled.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>rēxi</th>
<th>rēximus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rōxistī</td>
<td>rōxistis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rōxit</td>
<td>rōxirunt or -ōro</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

*I had ruled.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>rōxeram</th>
<th>rōxerāmus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rōxērās</td>
<td>rōxērātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rōxerat</td>
<td>rōxerant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect.**

*I shall have ruled.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>rōxerō</th>
<th>rōxerīmus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rōxēris</td>
<td>rōxēritis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rōxērit</td>
<td>rōxērint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Third Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I rule, let him rule.

SINGULAR.
regam
regās
regat

PLURAL.
regāmus
regātis
regant

IMPERFECT.

I should rule, he would rule.

regere
regēs
regere

PERFECT.

I may have ruled.

rēxerim
rēxerīs
rēxerit

PLUPERFECT.

I should have ruled, he would have ruled.

rēxissem
rēxisēs
rēxisset

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. rege, rule thou;
Fut. regētō, thou shalt rule,
regētō, he shall rule;
regite, rule ye.

regītote, ye shall rule,
reguntō, they shall rule.

INFINITIVE.

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

GEN. regēns, ruling.
(Den. regentis.)
Fut. rēctūrus, about to rule.

GERUND.

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

SUPINE.

Acc. rēctum, to rule,
Abl. rēctō, to rule, be ruled.
IIIrd (or Consonant-) Conjugation.


Principal Parts.

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

Indicative Mood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Tense</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am ruled.</td>
<td>regímur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reg oris</td>
<td>regimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regitur</td>
<td>reguntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperfect.</th>
<th>I was ruled.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regèbar</td>
<td>regèbámur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regèbàris, or -re</td>
<td>regèbàminí</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regèbàtur</td>
<td>regèbàntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future.</th>
<th>I shall be ruled.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regar</td>
<td>regèmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regèris, or -re</td>
<td>regèminí</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regèturs</td>
<td>regèntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect.</th>
<th>I have been ruled, or I was ruled.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rectus sum</td>
<td>rectif sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus es</td>
<td>rectif estis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus est</td>
<td>rectif sunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pluperfect.</th>
<th>I had been ruled.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rectus eram</td>
<td>rectif erámus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus erás</td>
<td>rectif erátis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus erat</td>
<td>rectif erant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future Perfect.</th>
<th>I shall have been ruled.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rectus eró</td>
<td>rectif erímus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus erís</td>
<td>rectif erítiis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus erít</td>
<td>rectif eríunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Third Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be ruled, let him be ruled.

SINGULAR.
regar
regāris, or -re
regātur

PLURAL.
regāmur
regāminf
regantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be ruled, he would be ruled.

regerer
regerēris, or -re
regerētur

PERFECT.

I may have been ruled.

rectus sim
rectus sit
rectus sit

rectus simus
rectus sitis
rectus sint

PLUPERFECT.

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

rectus essem
rectus esse
rectus esset

rectus essēmus
rectus essēs
rectus essēnt

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. regere, be thou ruled;
Fut. regitor, thou shalt be ruled;
regantor, he shall be ruled.

INFinitive.

Pres. regi, to be ruled.
Perf. rectus esse, to have been ruled.
Fut. rectum iri, to be about to be ruled.

PARTICIPILE.

Perfect. rectus, ruled, having been ruled.
Gerundive. regendus, to be ruled,
deserving to be ruled.

regiminf, be ye ruled.
reguntur, they shall be ruled.
**Inflections.**

**FOURTH (OR ἦ-) CONJUGATION.**

107. **Active Voice.** — Audiō, *I hear.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiō</td>
<td>audiēre</td>
<td>audiēvī</td>
<td>audiētus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiō</td>
<td>audiēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīs</td>
<td>audiētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit</td>
<td>audiēunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

*I was hearing, or I heard.*

| audiēbam | audiēbāmus|
| audiēbaś | audiēbātis|
| audiēbat | audiēbant |

**Future.**

*I shall hear.*

| audiēm | audiēmus|
| audiēs | audiētis|
| audiēt | audiēunt|

**Perfect.**

*I have heard, or I heard.*

| audiēvī | audiēvīmus|
| audiēvīn | audiēvītis|
| audiēvīt | audiēvīrant, or -ēre|

**Pluperfect.**

*I had heard.*

| audiērēam | audiērēamus|
| audiērēaś | audiērēātis|
| audiērēat | audiērēant |

**Future Perfect.**

*I shall have heard.*

| audiērō | audiērīmus|
| audiērēs | audiērētis|
| audiērēt | audiērēint|
Fourth Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I hear, let him hear.

SINGULAR.

audiam
audīäs
audiat

PLURAL.

audīmus
audīstis
audiant

IMPERFECT.

I should hear, he would hear.

audīrem
audīrés
audīret

PERFECT.

I may have heard.

audīverim
audīversē
audīverit

PUPERFECT.

I should have heard, he would have heard.

audīvissēm
audīvissēs
audīvisset

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audī, hear thou;
Fut. audītō, thou shalt hear,
audītō, he shall hear;

audīte, hear ye.
audītōte, ye shall hear,
audīuntō, they shall hear.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. audīre, to hear.
Perf. audīviisse, to have heard.
Fut. audītrūs esse, to be about to hear.

PARTICIPE.

Pres. audīsēns, hearing.
(Gen. audīentis.)
Fut. audītrūs, about to hear.

GERUND.

Gen. audīendi, of hearing,
Dat. audīendiō, for hearing,
Acc. audīendum, hearing,
Abl. audīendiō, by hearing.

SUPINE.

Acc. audītum, to hear,
Abl. audītū, to hear, be heard.
Inflections.

FOURTH (OR I-) CONJUGATION.


PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audior</td>
<td>audiri</td>
<td>auditus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

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

Imperfect.

I was heard.

| audiēbar | audiēbāmur |
| audiēbāria, or -re | audiēbāmini |
| audiēbātūr | audiēbantur |

Future.

I shall be heard.

| audiar | audiēmur |
| audiēria, or -re | audiēmini |
| audiētūr | audiēnutur |

Perfect.

I have been heard, or I was heard.

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

Plusperfect.

I had been heard.

| auditus eram | auditī erāmus |
| auditus erās | auditī erāsis |
| auditus erat | auditī erant |

Future Perfect.

I shall have been heard.

| auditus erō | auditī erōmus |
| auditus eris | auditī erīsis |
| auditus erit | auditī erīnt |
Fourth Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīrē</td>
<td>audīrēmūr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīrēs, or -re</td>
<td>audīrēsminf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīrētur</td>
<td>audīrēsentur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

I should be heard, he would be heard.

| audīrēr             | audīrēmūr       |
| audīrēris, or -re   | audīrēsminf     |
| audīrētur           | audīrēsentur    |

PERFECT.

I may have been heard.

| audītus sim         | audītus simus   |
| audītus sīs         | audītus sīsis   |
| audītus sīt         | audītus sīnt    |

PLUPERFECT.

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

| audītus essem       | audītus essemus |
| audītus esseā       | audītus esseātis|
| audītus esseet      | audītus esseent |

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audīrē, be thou heard; audīrēmi, be ye heard.
Fut. audītor, thou shalt be heard, audītor, he shall be heard.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. audīrē, to be heard.
Perf. audītus esse, to have been heard.
Fut. audītum frē, to be about to be heard.

PARTICIPLE.

Perfect. audītus, heard, having been heard.
Gerundive. audīndus, to be heard, deserving to be heard.
VENBS IN -īō OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Forms</th>
<th>Principal Parts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. Ind.</td>
<td>capiō, capis, capit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. Inf.</td>
<td>capere, căpiē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. Ind.</td>
<td>căpiēs, căpiēs, căpīt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. Pass. Partic.</td>
<td>căpēs, căpēs, căpēs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiō</td>
<td>capimus, capitis, capiunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiēbam, -ēbas, -ēbat</td>
<td>capiēbāmus, -ēbatis, -ēbant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiam, -ēs, -ēt</td>
<td>capiēmus, -ētis, -ētunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>căpēs, -istī, -it</td>
<td>căpēimus, -istis, -ērunt or -ērē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>căperam, -ēras, -ērat</td>
<td>căperāmus, -ēratis, -ērant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>căperēs, -eris, -erit</td>
<td>căperimus, -eritis, -erint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR.

Present.
capiam, -iatis, -iat;
caperem, -erēs, -erēt;
cēperim, -erēs, -erēt;
cēpissem, -issēs, -isset;

Flural.
caplāmus, -iātis, -iānt.
caperēmus, -erētis, -erēnt.
cēperimus, -erētis, -erēnt.
cēpissemus, -issētis, -issent.

IMPERFECT.

Perfect.

PLUPERFECT.

IMPETIVE.

Pres. capī;
Fut. capiētō,
capiētō;

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. capīrē.
Perf. cēpisē.
Fut. captūrūs esse.

Fut. captūrēs.

GERUND.

Supine.

Gen. caplēndī,
Dat. caplēndō,
Acc. caplēndum,
Abl. caplēndō.

Acc. captūm,
Abl. captūm.

111. Passive Voicd. — Caplōr, I am taken.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.
caplōr,
Pres. Inf.
capiēr,
Pres. Inf.
captūs sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

Present Tense.
caplōr, capēris, capētur;
caplēbar, -ēbāris, -ēbātur;
capēbar, -ēbāris, -ēbātūr;
capēbar, -ēbāris, -ēbātur.

Future.
caplōr, capēris, capētur;
caplēmur, -ēmini, -ēmentur.

caplēmur, -ēmini, -ēmentur.
Inflections.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>captus sum, es, est;</td>
<td>captus sumus, estis, sunt.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pluperfect.

Future Perfect.

captus erō, eris, erit;

captus erimus, eritis, erunt.

Subjunctive.

Present.

caplar, -lāris, -lātus;

capiāmus, -lāmini, -lātunt.

Imperfect.

caperer, -erēris, -erētur;

caperēmus, -erēmini, -erērentur.

Perfect.

captus sīm, sīs, sīt;

captus sīmus, sitis, sint.

Pluperfect.

captus essem, essēs, esset;

captus essēmus, essētis, essent.

Imperative.

capere;

capimini.

INFinitive.

PARTiciple.

Pres. capt.

Perf. captus esse.

Perfect.

Gerundive.

captus.

capiuntor.

capiendum.

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

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

b. They have the following Passive meanings: always in the Gerundive, and sometimes in the Perfect Passive Participle; as, —

sequendus, to be followed; adeptus, attained.
113. Paradigms of Deponent Verbs are —

I. Conj. mīror, mīrār, mīrātus sum, admīna.
II. Conj. vereor, verērī, verētus sum, fear.
III. Conj. sequor, sequī, sequītus sum, follow.
IV. Conj. largior, largīrī, largītus sum, give.
III. (in -iō) patior, patī, passus sum, suffer.

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>III.</th>
<th>IV.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pret.</strong></td>
<td>mīror</td>
<td>vereor</td>
<td>sequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrār</td>
<td>verērī</td>
<td>sequēria</td>
<td>largērī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrātus</td>
<td>verētus</td>
<td>sequitur</td>
<td>largīturus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrātus</td>
<td>verētus</td>
<td>sequētus</td>
<td>largīturos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imprf.</strong></td>
<td>mīrābar</td>
<td>verēbar</td>
<td>sequēbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>mīrābor</td>
<td>verēbor</td>
<td>sequār</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrātus sum</td>
<td>verētus sum</td>
<td>sequētus sum</td>
<td>largētus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrātus sum</td>
<td>verētus sum</td>
<td>sequētus sum</td>
<td>largētus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrātus sum</td>
<td>verētus sum</td>
<td>sequētus sum</td>
<td>largētus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>III.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pret.</strong></td>
<td>mīrēr</td>
<td>verear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrēr</td>
<td>verērer</td>
<td>sequerer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus</td>
<td>verētus</td>
<td>sequētus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus</td>
<td>verētus</td>
<td>sequētus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imprf.</strong></td>
<td>mīrēbar</td>
<td>verēbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>mīrēbor</td>
<td>verēbor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus sum</td>
<td>verētus sum</td>
<td>sequētus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus sum</td>
<td>verētus sum</td>
<td>sequētus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I.</th>
<th>II.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pret.</strong></td>
<td>mīrēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus</td>
<td>verētus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus</td>
<td>verētus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I.</th>
<th>II.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pret.</strong></td>
<td>mīrērī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus</td>
<td>verētus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus</td>
<td>verētus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imprf.</strong></td>
<td>mīrēbarī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>mīrēborī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus sum</td>
<td>verētus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus sum</td>
<td>verētus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus sum</td>
<td>verētus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPLES.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I.</th>
<th>II.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pret.</strong></td>
<td>mīrēns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus</td>
<td>verētus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrētus</td>
<td>verētus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GERUND.**

- mirandī, vereīndī | sequendī | largendī | patiendī |
- mirandō, etc. | vereīndō, etc. | sequendō, etc. | largendō, etc. | patiendō, etc. |

**SUPINE.**

- mirātūm, -ī | vereītūm, -ī | sequītūm, -ī | largītūm, -ī | passītūm, -ī
SEMI-DEPONENTS.

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

audeō, audeōre, ausus sum, to dare.
gaudeō, gaudēre, gavisus sum, to rejoice.
solēō, solēre, solitus sum, to rejoice.
fidēō, fidēre, fiusus sum, to trust.

2. The following verbs have a Perfect Passive Participle with Active meaning: —
adolēscō, grow up; adultus, having grown up.
cēnāre, dines; cēnātus, having dined.
placēre, please; placitus, having pleased, agreeable.
prandēre, lunch; prānusus, having lunched.
pōtāre, drink; pōtus, having drunk.
jūrēre, swear; jūrātus, having sworn.

a. Jūrātus is used in a passive sense also.

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

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

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

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

Active Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pret. amāturus (a, -um) sum, I am about to love.
Imp. amāturus eram, I was about to love.
Perf. amāturus fui, I have been (was) about to love.
Pluperf. amāturus fueram, I had been about to love.
Fut. F. amāturus fuerō, I shall have been about to love.
Peculiarities of Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.
Pres. amātrus sim, may I be about to love.
Imp. amātrus esses, I might be about to love.
Perf. amātrus fuerim, I may have been about to love.
Plup. amātrus fuissem, I might have been about to love.

INFINITIVE.
Pres. amātrus esse, to be about to love.
Perf. amātrus fuisse, to have been about to love.

Passive Periphrastic Conjugation.

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

SUBJUNCTIVE.
Pres. amandus sim, may I deserve to be loved.
Imp. amandus esses, I might deserve to be loved.
Perf. amandus fuerim, I may have deserved to be loved.
Plup. amandus fuissem, I might have deserved to be loved.

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

PECULIARITIES OF CONJUGATION.

116. 1. Perfects in -ās, -ās, and -ās, with the forms derived from them, often drop the ve or wi before endings beginning with r or s. So also nōs (from nōscō) and the compounds of mōs (from movēō). Thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>amāvisti</th>
<th>amāstī</th>
<th>delēvisti</th>
<th>delēstī</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāvisse</td>
<td>amāsse</td>
<td>delēvisse</td>
<td>delēsse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverunt</td>
<td>amārunt</td>
<td>delēverunt</td>
<td>delērunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverim</td>
<td>amārim</td>
<td>delēverim</td>
<td>delērim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāveram</td>
<td>amāram</td>
<td>delēveram</td>
<td>delēram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverō</td>
<td>amārō</td>
<td>delēverō</td>
<td>delērō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nōvisti</td>
<td>nōstī</td>
<td>nōverim</td>
<td>nōrim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nōvisse</td>
<td>nōsse</td>
<td>nōveram</td>
<td>nōram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiōvisti</td>
<td>audiāstī</td>
<td>audiēvīste</td>
<td>audiēstī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflexions.

2. In the Gerund and Gerundive of the Third and Fourth Conjugations, the endings -undus, -undi, often occur instead of -endus and -endi, as faciundus, faciundi.

3. Dīcēs, dūcēs, faciēs, form the Imperatives, dīcō, dūcō, faciō. But compounds of faciō form the Imperative in -fice, as cōnūfice. Compounds of dīcēs, dūcēs, accent the ultima; as, ēdīcō, ēdūcō.

4. Archaic and Poetic forms: —
   a. The ending -ier in the Present Infinitive Passive; as, amārīer, monērīer, dīcīer, for amārī, monērī, dīcī.
   b. The ending -ībam for -ībam in Imperfects of the Fourth Conjugation, and -ībō for -īam in Futures; as, scībām, scībō, for scībam, sciam.
   c. Instead of the fuller forms, in such words as dīxīter, scīpsītis, sūrēxīsse, we sometimes find dīxīter, scīpsītis, sūrēxē, etc.
   d. The endings -im, -is, etc. (for -am, -ās, etc.) occur in a few Subjunctive forms; as, edīm (eat), duīt, perduīt.

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

FORMATION OF THE VERB STEMS.

Formation of the Present Stem.

117. Many verbs employ the Verb Stem for the Present Stem; as, dīcēre, dūcēre, amārē, monērē, audīre. Others form the Present Stem variously, as follows: —

1. By appending the vowels, ē, ē, ī; as, —
   jūvēre, Present Stem jūvē. (Verb Stem jūv-).
   augēre, " " augē- ( " " aug-).
   vincēre, " " vincē- ( " " vine-).

2. By adding ī, as capīō. Present Stem capī- (Verb Stem cap-).

3. By the insertion of a (as before labial-mutes) before the final consonant of the Verb Stem; as, fundū (Stem fund-), rumpū (Stem rump-).

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

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

6. By appending so to the Verb Stem; as,—
   crœsc-ð,
   scofsc-ð.

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

Formation of the Perfect Stem.

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

1. By adding v (in case of Vowel Stems); as,—
   amāv-ð, delēv-ð, audfv-ð.

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

3. By adding s (in case of most Consonant Stems); as,—
   carp-ð, Perfect carps-ð.
   sœrb-ð, “ sœrps-ð (for sœrb-sf).
   rīd-eð, “ rīs-ð (for rīd-sf).
   sent-ið, “ sēns-ð (for sent-sf).
   dīc-ð, “ dīx-ð (i.e. dīc-sf).

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

4. Without addition. Of this formation there are three types: —

a) The Verb Stem is reduplicated by prefixing the initial con-
   sonant with the following vowel or e; as,—
   currā, Perfect cucurrā.
   poscð, “ po-poscð.
   pelīs, “ pe-pelīs.

NOTE 1. — Compounds, with the exception of dō, stō, diastō, dīcā, poscā,
   omit the reduplication. Thus: com-pull, but re-poscā.

NOTE 2. — Verbs beginning with ap or at retain both consonants in the redup-
   lication, but drop s from the stem: as, sponderā, spo-pondī; stō, stastī.

b) The short vowel of the Verb Stem is lengthened; as, lægā,
   lægā; aqō, ṣqī. Note that ø by this process becomes ō.

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

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

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

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{amā-re,} & \text{ Participle amā-tus.} \\
\text{dēlē-re,} & \text{ dēlē-tus.} \\
\text{audī-re,} & \text{ audī-tus.} \\
\text{leg-ere,} & \text{ lie-ō-tus.} \\
\text{scrib-ere,} & \text{ scrip-tus.} \\
\text{sentī-re,} & \text{ sent-tus (or sent-tus).} \\
\text{caes-ere,} & \text{ ce-ō-tus (or caed-tus).}
\end{align*}
\]

\(a.\) Note that \(g\), before \(t\), becomes \(c\) (see § 8, 5); \(b\) becomes \(p\); while \(dt\) or \(tt\) becomes \(ss\), which is then often simplified to \(s\) (§ 8, 3).

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

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{lāb-ī,} & \text{ Participle lāp-sus.} \\
\text{fig-ere,} & \text{ fig-tus.}
\end{align*}
\]

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

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

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{domā-re,} & \text{ dom-itus.} \\
\text{monē-re,} & \text{ mon-itus.}
\end{align*}
\]

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

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{juvā-re,} & \text{ Perf. Partic. jūtus, has Fut. Act. Partic. jūvatūrus.} \\
\text{lāvā-re,} & \text{ lautus, la-vatūrus.} \\
\text{par-cre,} & \text{ partus, par-tūrus.} \\
\text{ru-ere,} & \text{ -rutus, -ruitūrus.} \\
\text{secā-re,} & \text{ sectus, secatūrus.} \\
\text{fru-ī,} & \text{ fructus, fruitūrus.} \\
\text{mor-ī,} & \text{ mortus, mortūrus.} \\
\text{ortī-ī,} & \text{ ortus, ortūrus.}
\end{align*}
\]

\(^1\) But the compounds of jūvō sometimes have jūtūrus; as, adjūtūrus.
LIST OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS, WITH
PRINCIPAL PARTS.

First (ā-) Conjugation.

120. I. Perfect in -vī.

amō amāre amāvī amātus love

All regular verbs of the First Conjugation follow this model.
pōtō pōtāre pōtāvī pōtus (§ 114, 2) drink

II. Perfect in -vī.

crepō crepāre crepūf crepūtūrus fatigue
cubō cubāre cubūf cubītūrus lie down
domō domāre domūf domūtus tame
frīcō frīcāre frīcūf frīcūtūrus rub
micō micāre micūf — glitter

dimicō dimicāre dimicāvī dimicātum (est) 1 fight
explicō explicāre explicāvī (-ul) explicātus (-itus) unfold
im-plicō implicāre implicāvī (-ul) implicātus (-itus) entwine
secō secāre secūf sectūs cut
sonō sonāre sonūf sonātūrus sound
tonō tonāre tonūf — thunder
vetō vetāre vetūf vetūtus forbid

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

juvō juvāre jūvī jūtus help
lavō lavāre lávī lautūs wash

IV. Perfect Reduplicated.

stō stāre stāf stātūrus

V. Deponents.

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

Second (ē-) Conjugation.

121. I. Perfect in -vī.

dēleō dēlēre dēlēvī dēlētus destroy
fleō flēre flēvī flētus weep, lament
com-plēō 2 complēre complēvī complētus fill up
abolēō abolēre abolēvī abolētus destroy
clēō clēre clēvī citus set in motion

1 Used only impersonally.
2 So implēō, explēō.
3 Compounds follow the Fourth Conjugation: nāēō, nāicēō, etc.
II. Perfect in -Uī.

a. Type -eo, -ere, -ui, -itus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Perfect Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arceō</td>
<td>arcēre</td>
<td>arcuī</td>
<td>coercitus</td>
<td>keep off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coerceō</td>
<td>coercēre</td>
<td>coercuī</td>
<td>exercitus</td>
<td>hold in check</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excerceō</td>
<td>exercēre</td>
<td>exercuī</td>
<td>calitūrus</td>
<td>practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calceō</td>
<td>calēre</td>
<td>caluī</td>
<td>caritūrus</td>
<td>be warm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carceō</td>
<td>carēre</td>
<td>caruī</td>
<td>dolitūrus</td>
<td>be without</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dolceō</td>
<td>dolēre</td>
<td>doluī</td>
<td>griece</td>
<td>have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habeō</td>
<td>habēre</td>
<td>habuī</td>
<td>habitus</td>
<td>owe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>débeō</td>
<td>débēre</td>
<td>débuī</td>
<td>praebitus</td>
<td>ower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praebēō</td>
<td>praebēre</td>
<td>praebuī</td>
<td>praebitus</td>
<td>offer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jaceō</td>
<td>jaceō</td>
<td>jacuī</td>
<td>jactūrus</td>
<td>lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mereō</td>
<td>merēre</td>
<td>meruī</td>
<td>meritūs</td>
<td>earn, deserve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>monēre</td>
<td>monuī</td>
<td>monitus</td>
<td>advise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nocēō</td>
<td>nocēre</td>
<td>nocuī</td>
<td>nocitum (est)</td>
<td>injure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>placeō</td>
<td>placēre</td>
<td>placuī</td>
<td>placitūrus</td>
<td>obey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>placēō</td>
<td>placēre</td>
<td>placuī</td>
<td>placitūrus</td>
<td>please</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tacēō</td>
<td>tacēre</td>
<td>tacuī</td>
<td>tacitūrus</td>
<td>be silent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>terrēō</td>
<td>terrēre</td>
<td>terruī</td>
<td>territus</td>
<td>frighten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>valeō</td>
<td>valēre</td>
<td>valuī</td>
<td>valitūrus</td>
<td>be strong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note i. — The following lack the Participial Stem:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Perfect Stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>egoō</td>
<td>egēre</td>
<td>egui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eminēō</td>
<td>eminēre</td>
<td>eminuī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flōreō</td>
<td>flōreō</td>
<td>flōruī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horreō</td>
<td>horreō</td>
<td>horruī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lateō</td>
<td>latēre</td>
<td>latuī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>niteō</td>
<td>nitére</td>
<td>nituī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oleō</td>
<td>olēre</td>
<td>oluī</td>
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<tr>
<td>pallēō</td>
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<td>patēre</td>
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<td>rubēō</td>
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<td>siluī</td>
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<tr>
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<td>splendēre</td>
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<td>studēre</td>
<td>studuī</td>
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<td>stupēre</td>
<td>stupuī</td>
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<td>timeō</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>torpeō</td>
<td>torpeō</td>
<td>torpuī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vigēō</td>
<td>vigēre</td>
<td>viguī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vireō</td>
<td>virēre</td>
<td>viruī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and others.
List of the Most Important Verbs.

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

aveō    avērē     ——     ——     wish
frigeō   frigērē   ——     ——     be cold
immineō  immiērē   ——     ——     overhang
maereō   maērērē   ——     ——     mourn
pollēō   pollērē   ——     ——     be strong
and others.

b. Type -eō, -ēre, -uī, -tus (-sus).

cēneō cēnērē cēnus     cēnus     estimate
doceō doceērē docuī     doctus     teach
miscēō miscērē miscuī    mixus      mix
teneō  teneērē tenuī     ——     hold

So continue and sustineō; but —

retineō retinērē retinuī    retentus    retain
obtineō obtinērē obtinuī    obtentus    maintain
torreō  torrērē torruī     tostus     bake

III. Perfect in -stā.

augeō augeērē auxst     auctus     increase
torqueō torquērē torsī    tortus     twist
indulgeō indulgērē indušt    ——     indulge
lūceō lūcērē luxī     ——     be light
lūgeō lūgērē luxī     ——     mourn
jubeō jubērē jussī     jussus     order
per-mulceō permulcērē permulsī permulsus soothe
rideō  rīdērē  rīsi     risum (est) laugh
sūndeō sūndērē suāst     suāsum (est) advise
abs-tergeō abstergērē abstereī abstersus wipe off
ārdeō ārdērē ārsī    ārsurus     burn
haereō haerērē haesi     haesurus    stick
maneō manērē manēsi    manusurus stay
algeō algērē alsī     ——     be cold
fulgeō fulgērē fulsī    ——     gleam
urgeō urgērē urstī     ——     press

IV. Perfect in -stā with Replication.

mordeō mordērē momordī morsus    bite
spondeō spondērē spopondī spōnsus promise
tondeō tondērē totondi tōnsus    shear
pendeō pendērē pependī ——     hang
V. Perfect in -ē with Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

caedere  | cavere  | cēvi  | cauturus  | take care
faveere  | favere  | fāvi  | fauturus  | favor
foedere  | foeere  | fōvi  | fōtus  | cherish
moveere  | movere  | mōvi  | mōtus  | move
paveere  | pavere  | pāvi  | ——  | fear
sedeere  | sedere  | sēdi  | sessurus  | sit
videere  | videre  | vidī  | visus  | see
voeere  | voeere  | vōvi  | vōtus  | vow

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

servee  | servere  | (servī servul)  | ——  | boil
praudeo  | prandere  | prandī  | prānsus (§ 114, 2)  | lunch
strideo  | stridere  | stridī  | ——  | creak

VII. Deponents.

liceo  | liceī  | līcīsum  | ——  | bid
polliceo  | pollicēri  | pollicītus  | ——  | promise
merceo  | mercēri  | merītus  | ——  | earn
misercere  | miserēri  | miserītus  | ——  | pity
vereo  | verēri  | verītus  | ——  | fear
fateo  | fāteri  | fātīs  | ——  | confess
confiteo  | confiteīri  | confiteītus  | ——  | confess
reor  | reī  | rātus  | ——  | think
medeor  | medēri  | medētus  | ——  | heal
tueor  | tuēri  | tuētus  | ——  | protect

Third (Consonant) Conjugation.

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

1. Perfect in -ē.

a. Type -ē, -ēre, -ēsī, -ēsīs.
carpō  | carpere  | carpsī  | carptus  | pluck
sculpō  | sculptere  | sculptīs  | sculptus  | chisel
rēpō  | rēpere  | rēpsī  | ——  | creep
serpō  | serpere  | serpsī  | ——  | crawl
scribō  | scribere  | scripsī  | scriptus  | write
nūbō  | nibere  | nūpsī  | nūptus (woman only)  | marry
regō  | regere  | rēxi  | rēctus  | govern
### List of the Most Important Verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tegō</th>
<th>tegere</th>
<th>téxi</th>
<th>tectus</th>
<th>cover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>αflīgō</td>
<td>affigere</td>
<td>affixī</td>
<td>affictus</td>
<td>shatter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dicō</td>
<td>dicere</td>
<td>dixī</td>
<td>dictus</td>
<td>say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dúcō</td>
<td>dúcere</td>
<td>dúxī</td>
<td>ductus</td>
<td>lead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coquō</td>
<td>coquere</td>
<td>coxī</td>
<td>coactus</td>
<td>cook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trahō</td>
<td>trahere</td>
<td>trāxī</td>
<td>trāctus</td>
<td>draw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vehō</td>
<td>vehere</td>
<td>vexī</td>
<td>vectus</td>
<td>carry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cingō</td>
<td>cingere</td>
<td>cinxī</td>
<td>cinctus</td>
<td>gird</td>
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<tr>
<td>tīngō</td>
<td>tingingere</td>
<td>tinxī</td>
<td>tinctus</td>
<td>dip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jungō</td>
<td>jungere</td>
<td>jūnīxī</td>
<td>jūnctus</td>
<td>join</td>
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<tr>
<td>fingō</td>
<td>fingere</td>
<td>finxī</td>
<td>fictus</td>
<td>mould</td>
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<tr>
<td>pingō</td>
<td>pingere</td>
<td>pinxī</td>
<td>pictus</td>
<td>paint</td>
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<td>stringō</td>
<td>stringere</td>
<td>strinxī</td>
<td>strictus</td>
<td>bind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-stingō</td>
<td>-stinguere</td>
<td>-stinxī</td>
<td>-stinctus</td>
<td>blow out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unguō</td>
<td>unguere</td>
<td>ūnixī</td>
<td>ūnctus</td>
<td>anoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vivō</td>
<td>vivere</td>
<td>vixi</td>
<td>victim (est)</td>
<td>lie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gerō</td>
<td>gerere</td>
<td>gessī</td>
<td>gestus</td>
<td>carry</td>
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<tr>
<td>ūrō</td>
<td>ūrere</td>
<td>ussī</td>
<td>ûstus</td>
<td>burn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>temnō</td>
<td>temnere</td>
<td>con-tempsi</td>
<td>con-temptus</td>
<td>despise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6. Type -ōre, -ēx, -aus.

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

---

1 Fully conjugated only in the compounds: exitūrō, restīgō, distingō.

2 Only in the compounds: evādō, invādō, pervādō.
2. Perfect in -ō with Reduplication.

ab-dō abdere abdidī abditus conceal
red-dō red-edere reddidī redditus return

So addō, condō, dēdō, perdō, prōdō, trīnō, etc.

condō condere condidī conditus —— take one’s stand
resistō resistere resistī —— resist
circumstō circumstere circumstitī —— surround
cadō cadere cecidī cāsūrus fall
ciaedō caedere cecidī caēsūs kill
pendō pendere pependī pēnsūs weigh, pay
tendō tendere tetendī tentus stretch
tundō tundere tutudī tūsus, tūnsus beat
fallō fallere fēkīlī (falsus, as Adj.) deceive
pellō pellere pepullī pullus drive out
currō currere currōnī cursum (est) run
parcō parere pparaērī parsūrus spare
canō canere cecīnī —— sing

tangō tangere tēgīlī tēctus touch

tangō pangere papugi pāntus prick

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

per-cellō percellere perculī perculsus strike down
findō findere fidī fissus split
scindō scindere scidī scissus tear apart
tollō tollere sus-tolē sublātus remove

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

agō agere ēgī ēctus drive, do
peragō peragere perēgī perāctus finish
suligō suligere subēgū subāctus subdue
cōgō cōgere coēgī coāctus force, gather
frangō frangere frēgī frāctus break
perfrangō perfrangere perfrēgī perfrāctus break down
legō legere lēgī lēctus gather, read
perlegō perlegere perlēgī perlēctus read through
colligō colligere collēgī collēctus collect
dēligō dēligere dēlēgī dēlēctus choose
dillō dilligere dīlēxi dīlēctus love
intellegō intellegere intellēxī intellēctus understand
neglegō neglegere neglēxī neglēctus neglect
### List of the Most Important Verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Participle</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>smō</td>
<td>emere</td>
<td>ēmē</td>
<td>emptus</td>
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<tr>
<td>coēmō</td>
<td>coēmēre</td>
<td>coēmē</td>
<td>coēmptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>redimō</td>
<td>redimēre</td>
<td>redēmē</td>
<td>redēmptus</td>
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<td>dirimō</td>
<td>dirimēre</td>
<td>dirēmē</td>
<td>dirēmptus</td>
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<td>dēmō</td>
<td>dēmēre</td>
<td>dēmpō</td>
<td>dēmpōs</td>
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<td>sūmō</td>
<td>sūmēre</td>
<td>sūmpō</td>
<td>sūmpōs</td>
</tr>
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<td>prōmō</td>
<td>prōmēre</td>
<td>prōmpō</td>
<td>prōmpōs (prōmptus, as Adj.)</td>
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<td>vincō</td>
<td>vincere</td>
<td>vīcī</td>
<td>vīctus</td>
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<tr>
<td>re-linguō</td>
<td>reliquēre</td>
<td>reliqūī</td>
<td>reliqūtus</td>
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<tr>
<td>rumpō</td>
<td>rumpere</td>
<td>rūmpī</td>
<td>rūmpōs</td>
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<tr>
<td>edō</td>
<td>esse</td>
<td>ēdī</td>
<td>ēsus</td>
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<tr>
<td>fundō</td>
<td>fundere</td>
<td>ēfundī</td>
<td>ēfundus</td>
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</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Participle</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>excūdō</td>
<td>excūdere</td>
<td>excūdī</td>
<td>excūsus</td>
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<td>cōnsidō</td>
<td>cōnsidere</td>
<td>cōnsēdī</td>
<td>——</td>
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<td>possidō</td>
<td>possidere</td>
<td>possēdī</td>
<td>possessūs</td>
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<tr>
<td>ascendō</td>
<td>ascendere</td>
<td>ascendī</td>
<td>ascēnsum (est)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dē-fendō</td>
<td>dēfendere</td>
<td>dēfendī</td>
<td>dēfendūs</td>
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<tr>
<td>pre-hendō</td>
<td>prehendere</td>
<td>prehendī</td>
<td>prehendūs</td>
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<td>icere</td>
<td>ictī</td>
<td>ictus</td>
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<td>vellere</td>
<td>vellī</td>
<td>vellūs</td>
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<tr>
<td>vertō</td>
<td>vertere</td>
<td>vertī</td>
<td>versus</td>
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<td>pandō</td>
<td>pandere</td>
<td>pandī</td>
<td>passūs</td>
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<td>solvere</td>
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<td>solvūs</td>
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<td>visus</td>
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<td>verrō</td>
<td>verrere</td>
<td>verrī</td>
<td>versus</td>
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5. Perfect in -A.

<table>
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<th>Verb</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Participle</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>in-cumbō</td>
<td>incumbere</td>
<td>incumbī</td>
<td>incubātūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gignō</td>
<td>gignere</td>
<td>genui</td>
<td>genus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>molō</td>
<td>molere</td>
<td>molūs</td>
<td>molūtus</td>
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<tr>
<td>vomō</td>
<td>vomere</td>
<td>vomūs</td>
<td>vomitus</td>
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<td>fremō</td>
<td>fremere</td>
<td>fremūs</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gemō</td>
<td>gemere</td>
<td>gemūs</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metō</td>
<td>metere</td>
<td>messūs</td>
<td>messus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

tremō     tremere     tremuī  ———     tremble
strepō    strepere    strepūi ———     rattle
alō       alere       aluī    altus (ailitis) nourish
colō      colere      coluī   cultus     cultivate
incolō    incolere    incoluī ———     inhabit
excolō    excolere    excoluī  excultus      perfect
consulō   consulere   consului consulus     consult
conservō  conservere  conservi conservus  join
deserō    deserere    deseruī  desertus    desert
disserō   disserere   disseruī ———     discourse
texō      texere      texuī   textus     wave

sinō      sinere      sivī   situs     allow
dēsinō    dēsinere    dēsivī  dēsitus    cease
pōnō      pōnere      posuī   positus    place
ob-luō    oblinere    oblēvī  oblitus     smear
serō      serere      sēvī   satus     sow
cōnservō  cōnservere cōnservī  cōnsitus    plant
cernō     cernere     ———   ———     separate
discernō  discernere  discrēvī  discrētus  distinguish
décernō   dēcernere   dēcrēvī  dēcrētus  decide
spernō    spernere    spēvī   spētus     scorn
sternō    sternere    strāvī  strātus     spread
prō-sternō prōsternere prōstrāvī  prōstrātus overthrow
petō      petere      petīvī (petīli) petitus     seek
appetō    appetere    appetivī  appetitus    long for
terō      terere      trivī   tritus     rub
quacō     quacere     quacēvī  quacasitus    seek
acquirō   acquirere   acquisivī  acquisitus    acquire
acceßō    acceßere    accessivī  accessitus  summon
laccōsō   laccere     laccēvī  laccētus    seize
lacceßō   lacceßere   lacceßivī  lacceßitus    provoke

7. Used only in Present System.
angō      angere      ———   ———     choke
lambō     lambere     ———   ———     lick
claudō    claudere    ———   ———     be lame
furō      furere      ———   ———     roar
vergō     vergere    ———   ———     bend

and a few others.
II. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN -U.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Present Stem Style</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>induō</td>
<td>induē</td>
<td>Indūtus</td>
<td>Put on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imbuō</td>
<td>imbui</td>
<td>Imbūtus</td>
<td>Moisten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luō</td>
<td>luī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Wash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>polluō</td>
<td>pollui</td>
<td>Pollūtus</td>
<td>Defile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minuō</td>
<td>minuī</td>
<td>Minūtus</td>
<td>Lessen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statuō</td>
<td>statuī</td>
<td>Statūtus</td>
<td>Set up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstituō</td>
<td>cōnstituī</td>
<td>Cōnstitūtus</td>
<td>Determine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suō</td>
<td>suī</td>
<td>Sūtus</td>
<td>Sew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tribuō</td>
<td>tribui</td>
<td>Tribūtus</td>
<td>Allot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ruō</td>
<td>ruī</td>
<td>Ruitūrus</td>
<td>Fall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diruō</td>
<td>dirui</td>
<td>Dirutus</td>
<td>Destroy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obruō</td>
<td>obruī</td>
<td>Obriūtus</td>
<td>Overwhelm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acuō</td>
<td>acuī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Sharpen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arguō</td>
<td>arguī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Accuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>congruō</td>
<td>congruī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metuō</td>
<td>metuī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ab-nuō</td>
<td>abnuī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Decline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-spō</td>
<td>respō</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>struō</td>
<td>struxī</td>
<td>Strīctus</td>
<td>Build</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fluō</td>
<td>fluī</td>
<td>Fluītus</td>
<td>(Flūxus, as Adj.) Flow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN -I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Present Stem Style</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cupiō</td>
<td>cupiē</td>
<td>Cupītus</td>
<td>Wish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sapīō</td>
<td>sapīē</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Taste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rapīō</td>
<td>rapīē</td>
<td>Raptūs</td>
<td>Snatch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diripiō</td>
<td>diripīē</td>
<td>Direptūs</td>
<td>Plunder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnspiō</td>
<td>cōnspiciē</td>
<td>Cōnspexītus</td>
<td>Gaze at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aspiciō</td>
<td>aspiciē</td>
<td>Aspexītus</td>
<td>Behold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>illiciō</td>
<td>illiciē</td>
<td>Illexītus</td>
<td>Allure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pelliciō</td>
<td>pelliciē</td>
<td>Pellextus</td>
<td>Allure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elicīō</td>
<td>elicīē</td>
<td>Elicītus</td>
<td>Elicit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quatiō</td>
<td>quirī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Shake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concutiō</td>
<td>concutiē</td>
<td>Concussītus</td>
<td>Shake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parīō</td>
<td>parīē</td>
<td>Partus</td>
<td>Bring forth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiō</td>
<td>capiē</td>
<td>Captus</td>
<td>Take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accipīō</td>
<td>accipiē</td>
<td>Acceptus</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incipīō</td>
<td>incipiē</td>
<td>Inceptus</td>
<td>Begin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faciō</td>
<td>facī</td>
<td>Factus</td>
<td>Make</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>afficiō</td>
<td>afficiē</td>
<td>Affectus</td>
<td>Affect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Passive, afficior, affici, affectus sum*
So other prepositional compounds, perficiō, perficiōri; interficiō, interficiōri; etc. But —

assuēfaciō assuēfacere assuēfēcī assuēfactus accustom

Passive, assuēfīō, assuēfērī, assuēfactus sua.

So also patfaciō, patfīō; califaciō, califīō; and all non-prepositional compounds.

jacīō jācere jēcī jactus hurl
alīciō alīcere abjēcī abjectus throw away
fodiō fodiō fodiō fossus dig
fugīō fugere fūgi fugitūrus flee
effugīō effugere effūgi — escape

IV. Verbs in -scō.

1. Verbs in -scō from Simple Roots.

poscō poscere poposcī — demand
discō discere dīdicī — learn
pāscō pāscere pāvī pāstus feed
pāscor pāsci pāstus sum graze
crēscō crēscere crēvī crētus grow
consuēscō consuēscere consuēvī consuēctus accustomed one's self
quiēscō quiēscere quiēvī quiētūrus be still
adolēscō adolēscere adolēvī adultus grow up
obsolēscō obsolēscere obsolēvī — grow old
nōscō nōscere nōvī — become acquainted with
ignōscō ignōscere ignōvī ignōtūrus pardon
agnōscō agnōscere agnōvī agnitus recognize

cognōscō cognōscere cognōvī cognitus get acquainted with

2. Verbs in -scō formed from other Verbs.

These usually have Inchoative or Inceptive meaning (see § 125. 1).

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

flōrēscō flōrēscere flōrūt begin to bloom (flōreō)
sēscō sēscere sēvī enact (scīō)
ārēscō ārēscere ārūt become dry (ārēō)
calēscō calēscere calūt become hot (caleō)
cōnsēnēscō cōnsēnēscere cōnsēnūt grow old (senēō)
exitēscō exitēscere exitēmūt fear greatly (timēō)
ingēmēscō ingēmēscere ingēmūt sigh (gēmō)
adhaerēscō adhaerēscere adhaēsī stick (haereō)
List of the Most Important Verbs.

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

obdūrēscō obdūrēscere obdūreō grow hard (dūrus)
ēvānēscō ēvānēscere ēvānui disappear (vānus)
percēbrēscō percēbrēscere percēbrērii grow fresh (crēber)
mātūrēscō mātūrēscere mātūrērii grow ripe (mātūrus)
obmūtēscō obmūtēscere obmūtērii grow dull (mūtus)

V. Deponents.

fungor fungēī functus sum perform
queror quērēī questus sum complain
loquor loquēī locūitus sum speak
sequeor sequeī secūitus sum follow
fruor frūēī fruitūrus enjoy
perfruor perfruēī perfrūctus sum thoroughly enjoy
lābor lābī īāpsus sum glide
amplector amplectēī amplexus sum embrace
nitor nītī nīsus sum, nīxus sum strive
gradior gradēī gressus sum walk
patior patī īāpsus sum suffer
perpetior perpetēī perpassus sum endure
ūtor ūtī īāsus sum use
morior mortūi mortuus sum die
adipiscor adipiscēī adeptus sum acquire
commiminscor commiminsēī commentus sum invent
reminiscor reminiscēī —— remember
nanciscor nanciscēī nancītus (nactus) sum acquire
nāscor nāscēī nātus sum be born
obliviscor obliviscēī oblivītus sum forget
paciscor paciscēī pactus sum covenant
profiscor profiscēī profectus sum set out
uliscor uliscēī ulītus sum avenge
irāscor irāscēī (īrātus, as Adj.) be angry
vescor vescēī —— eat

Fourth Conjugation.

123. I. Perfect ends in -vī.

audiō audire audivi auditus hear

So all regular Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation.

sepellō sepellire sepellivi sepellitus bury
## Inflections.

### II. Perfect ends in -UL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>aperlo</th>
<th>aperire</th>
<th>aperul</th>
<th>apertus</th>
<th>open</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>operlo</td>
<td>operire</td>
<td>operul</td>
<td>opertus</td>
<td>cover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sallo</td>
<td>salire</td>
<td>salul</td>
<td></td>
<td>leap</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### III. Perfect ends in -SL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>saeplo</th>
<th>saepire</th>
<th>saepul</th>
<th>saepus</th>
<th>hedge in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>saunclo</td>
<td>sauncire</td>
<td>sauncul</td>
<td>sauncus</td>
<td>ratify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vinclo</td>
<td>vincire</td>
<td>vincul</td>
<td>vincus</td>
<td>bind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amiclo</td>
<td>amicire</td>
<td>amicul</td>
<td>amicus</td>
<td>envelop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fulclo</td>
<td>fulcire</td>
<td>fulcul</td>
<td>fulcus</td>
<td>prop up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>referclo</td>
<td>refercire</td>
<td>refercul</td>
<td>refercus</td>
<td>fill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sarclo</td>
<td>sarcre</td>
<td>sarcul</td>
<td>sartus</td>
<td>patch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haurlo</td>
<td>haurire</td>
<td>haurul</td>
<td>haustus</td>
<td>draw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sentlo</td>
<td>sentire</td>
<td>sentul</td>
<td>sensus</td>
<td>feel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IV. Perfect in -I with Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>venio</th>
<th>venire</th>
<th>venul</th>
<th>ventum (est)</th>
<th>come</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>advenio</td>
<td>advenire</td>
<td>adveni</td>
<td>adventum(est)</td>
<td>arrive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>invenio</td>
<td>invenire</td>
<td>inveni</td>
<td>inventus</td>
<td>find</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### V. Perfect with Loss of Reduplication.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>reperiø</th>
<th>reperiire</th>
<th>reperir</th>
<th>repertus</th>
<th>find</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>comperiø</td>
<td>comperire</td>
<td>comperir</td>
<td>compertus</td>
<td>learn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### VI. Used only in the Present.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ferio</th>
<th>ferire</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>strike</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>esuriø</td>
<td>esurire</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>be hungry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### VII. Deponents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>largior</th>
<th>largiri</th>
<th>largitus sum</th>
<th>bestow</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>experlor</td>
<td>experiri</td>
<td>expertus sum</td>
<td>try</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opperlor</td>
<td>opperiri</td>
<td>oppertus sum</td>
<td>await</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ordir</td>
<td>ordiri</td>
<td>orrsus sum</td>
<td>begin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orior</td>
<td>oriri</td>
<td>ortus sum</td>
<td>arize</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Orior usually follows the Third Conjugation in its inflection; as, correis, ortitur, ortimus; orer (Imp. Subj.); orere (Imper.).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>metior</th>
<th>metiri</th>
<th>mensus sum</th>
<th>measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>assentior</td>
<td>assentiri</td>
<td>assensus sum</td>
<td>assent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IRREGULAR VERBS.

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

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

| Verb   | Present Participle | Past | "Am"
|--------|-------------------|------|------
| absum  | abesse            | am   | absent
| adsum  | adesse            | am   | present
| désum  | déesse            | am   | lacking
| insum  | inesse            | am   | in
| intersum | interesse     | am   | among
| praesium| praesse           | am   | in charge of

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

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

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>possum</td>
<td>possus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potes</td>
<td>potest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potest</td>
<td>potenta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potam</td>
<td>poteram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poterō</td>
<td>poterō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poterimus</td>
<td>poterimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potiūm</td>
<td>potiūm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potulimus</td>
<td>potulimus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>possum, potes, potest; possus, potestis, possunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>poteram; poterāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>poterō; poterimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>potiū; potiūmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>potueram; potuerāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P.</td>
<td>potuerō; potuerimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Infections.

### Subjunctive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>possess, posse, possit; possimus, posseis, possant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>possem; possemus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>potuerim; potuerimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>potuisse; potuissimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>posse.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>potuisse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

127. **Do, I give.**

### Principal Parts.

| dō, | dāre, | dedi, | dātus. |

### Active Voice.

### Indicative Mood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>dō, dis, dat; dāmus, datis, dant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>dābam, etc.; dābamus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>dābō, etc.; dābimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>dedi; dēdimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>dederant; dederamus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P.</td>
<td>dederē; dederimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subjunctive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>dēm; dēmus.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>dārem; dāremus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>dederim; dederimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>dedissem; dedissēmus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fut.</th>
<th>datō; datōte.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>datō; dantō.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive.

| Fut. | datūrus esse. |

### Participle.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>dāre.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>dedisse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Gerund.

dandi, etc.

### Supine.

datum, datū.
Irregular Verbs.

1. The Passive is inflected regularly with the short vowel. Thus: dārī, dātūr, dābātur, dārētur, etc.

2. The archaic and poetic Present Subjunctive forms duīm, duīnt, interduō, perduīnt, etc., are not from the root da-, but from du-, a collateral root of similar meaning.

128. Edō, I eat.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

edō, ēsse, ēdī, ēsus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. edō ēsus
ēs ēsus
ēst ēsus

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. ēssēm ēssēmus
ēssē ēssētis
ēssēt ēssēnt

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ēs ēste
Pūt. ēsū ēstōte
ēsū ēstō

INFinitive.

Pres. ēsse

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. 3d Sing. ēstūr

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. 3d Sing. ēssētur

1. Observe the long vowel of the forms in ēsu-, which alone distinguishes them from the corresponding forms of esse, to be.

2. Note comedō, comēssē, comēdī, comēssus or comēstus, consume.

3. The Present Subjunctive has edīm, ēs, ēt, etc., less often edam, ēsū, etc.
Inflections.

129. Ferō, I bear.

**Principal Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1sg</th>
<th>2sg</th>
<th>3sg</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>ferō, fers, fert</td>
<td></td>
<td>serinus, fertis, ferunt. ¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong></td>
<td>ferēbam;</td>
<td></td>
<td>ferēbāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>feram;</td>
<td></td>
<td>ferēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>tuli;</td>
<td></td>
<td>tulimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plup.</strong></td>
<td>tuleram;</td>
<td></td>
<td>tulerāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut. P.</strong></td>
<td>tulerō;</td>
<td></td>
<td>tulerimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Active Voice.**

**Indicative Mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>feram;</td>
<td>ferāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong></td>
<td>ferem;</td>
<td>ferēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>tulerim;</td>
<td>tulerimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plup.</strong></td>
<td>tulissem;</td>
<td>tulissēmus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>IMPERATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>fer;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>fertō;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fertō;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PARTICIPLE.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>ferēns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>tulisse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>lātūrus esse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gerund.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SUPINE.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ferendi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ferendō.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ferendum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ferendō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Passive Voice.

feror, ferti, latus sum, to be borne.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong> feror, ferris, fertur;</td>
<td>ferimur, ferimini, feruntur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong> ferébar;</td>
<td>ferébamur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong> ferar;</td>
<td>ferémur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong> latus sum;</td>
<td>látus sumus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plup.</strong> latus eram;</td>
<td>látus erámus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut. P.</strong> latus erò;</td>
<td>látus erímus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

| **Pres.** ferar;               | ferémur.                   |
| **Imp.** ferer;                | ferémur.                   |
| **Perf.** latus sim;           | látus simus.               |
| **Plup.** latus essem;         | látus essémus.             |

IMPERATIVE.

| **Pres.** ferre;               | ferimini.                  |
| **Fut.** fètor;                | feruntor.                  |

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

| **Pres.** ferri.               | **Perf.** latus.            |
| **Fut.** látum iri.            | **Ger.** ferendus.          |

So also the Compounds —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>afferó</th>
<th>afferre</th>
<th>attuli</th>
<th>allatus</th>
<th>bring toward</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>auferó</td>
<td>auferre</td>
<td>abstuli</td>
<td>ablátus</td>
<td>take away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conferó</td>
<td>conferre</td>
<td>contuli</td>
<td>collátus</td>
<td>compare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>differó</td>
<td>differre</td>
<td>distuli</td>
<td>dilátus</td>
<td>put off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>efferó</td>
<td>efferre</td>
<td>extuli</td>
<td>étátus</td>
<td>carry out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inferó</td>
<td>inferre</td>
<td>intuli</td>
<td>illátus</td>
<td>bring against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>offeró</td>
<td>offerre</td>
<td>obtuli</td>
<td>oblátus</td>
<td>present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>referó</td>
<td>referre</td>
<td>retuli</td>
<td>relátus</td>
<td>bring back</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—The forms sustuli and sublátus belong to tollō.
Inflections.

130. Volō, nōlō, mālō.

**PRINCIPAL PARTS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>volō</em></td>
<td>nōlō</td>
<td>mālō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vis</em></td>
<td>nōn vis</td>
<td>māvis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vult</em></td>
<td>nōn vult</td>
<td>māvult</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>volumus</em></td>
<td>nōlumus</td>
<td>mālumus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vultis</em></td>
<td>nōn vultis</td>
<td>māvultis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>volunt</em></td>
<td>nōlunt</td>
<td>mālunt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperfect</th>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>volēbam</em></td>
<td>nōlēbam</td>
<td>mālēbam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>volam</em></td>
<td>nōlam</td>
<td>mālam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>volui</em></td>
<td>nōlui</td>
<td>mālui</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>volueram</em></td>
<td>nōlueram</td>
<td>mālueram</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Pluperfect</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>voluerō</em></td>
<td>nōluerō</td>
<td>māluerō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>vēlim</em></td>
<td>nōlim</td>
<td>mālim</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vēlem</em></td>
<td>nōlēm</td>
<td>mālēm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vēlerim</em></td>
<td>nōlērim</td>
<td>mālerim</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Pluperfect</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vēlisse</em></td>
<td>nōlisse</td>
<td>mālisse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>nōli</em></td>
<td>nolite</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>nōlitō</em></td>
<td>nolitéte</td>
<td>nōlitō</td>
<td>nōluntō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>velle</em></td>
<td>nōlle</td>
<td>mālle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>voluisse</em></td>
<td>nōluisse</td>
<td>māluisse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Participle.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Nominative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>volēns</em></td>
<td>nōlēns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Irregular Verbs.

**fyō.**

**principal parts.**

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

**indicative mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>pres.</strong></td>
<td>fyō, fis, fit;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>imp.</strong></td>
<td>fiēbam;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>fut.</strong></td>
<td>fiām;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>perf.</strong></td>
<td>factus sum;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>plup.</strong></td>
<td>factus eram;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>fut. P.</strong></td>
<td>factus erō;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>plural.</strong></td>
<td>fimus, fitis, fluent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>subjunctive.</strong></td>
<td>fiāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pres.</strong></td>
<td>fierēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>imp.</strong></td>
<td>factus sum;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>perf.</strong></td>
<td>factus esse;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>plup.</strong></td>
<td>factus esse;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>imperative.</strong></td>
<td>fi;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>infinitive.</strong></td>
<td>fieri.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>participle.</strong></td>
<td>factus esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>fut.</strong></td>
<td>factum ēri.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ger.</strong></td>
<td>faciendus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.**- A few isolated forms of compounds of fyō occur; as, déōt, ēāōt; Inītīt, bīguōs.

### 132.

**éō.**

**principal parts.**

eō, ire, ēvi, ētum (ēat), to go.

**indicative mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>pres.</strong></td>
<td>éō, ēs, ēt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>imp.</strong></td>
<td>ēbam;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>fut.</strong></td>
<td>ēbō;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>perf.</strong></td>
<td>ēvi (ēi);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>plup.</strong></td>
<td>ēveram (ēram);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>fut. P.</strong></td>
<td>ēverō (ērō);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>plural.</strong></td>
<td>ēmus, ētis, eunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>subjunctive.</strong></td>
<td>ēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>pres.</strong></td>
<td>ēberēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>imp.</strong></td>
<td>ētis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>perf.</strong></td>
<td>ēverūmus (ērūmus).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>plup.</strong></td>
<td>ēverūmus (ērūmus).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>imperative.</strong></td>
<td>ēte.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>infinitive.</strong></td>
<td>fieri.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>participle.</strong></td>
<td>factus esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>fut.</strong></td>
<td>factum ēri.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ger.</strong></td>
<td>faciendus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Inflections.**

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong> eam;</td>
<td>cāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong> irem;</td>
<td>irēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong> iverim (ierim);</td>
<td>iverimus (ierimus).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plup.</strong> ivissēm (īssem, īssem);</td>
<td>ivissēmus (īssēmus).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE.**

| **Pres.** | ite. |
| **Fut.** | ītōte, |
|           | ītu. |

**INFLECTIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PARTICIPE.</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong> iren.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong> ivisse (isse).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong> ītūrus esse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GERUND.**

eundi, etc.

**SUPINE.**

itum, itū.

1. Transitive compounds of ēō admit the full Passive inflection; as, adeōr, adēris, adērū, etc.

**DEFECTIVE VERBS.**

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

**133. Used mainly in the Perfect System.**

| Coepī, I have begun. | Meminī, I remember. | Œdi, I hate. |

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

| Perf. | coepī. | meminī. |
| Piup. | coeperam. | memineram. |
| Fut. | P. coeperō. | meminerō. |

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

| Perf. | coeperim. | meminerim. |
| Piup. | coepissem. | meminissem. |

**IMPERATIVE.**

Sing. mementō; Plur. mementōte.
Defective Verbs

INFITITIVE.

Perf. coepisse.
Meminisce.
Odisse.
Fut. coepturus esse.

PARTICIPLE.

Perf. coeptus, begun.
Osus.
Fut. coepturus.
Ostus.

1. When coepf governs a Passive Infinitive it usually takes the
form coeptus est; as, amari coeptus est, he began to be loved.
2. Note that memini and òdi, though Perfect in form, are Present
in sense. Similarly the Pluperfect and Future Perfect have the force
of the Imperfect and Future; as, memineram, I remembered; òderò,
I shall hate.

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

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. inquam, inquiunt.
Inquis, inquiunt.
Inquit; inquiunt.

Fut. inquiès, inquiunt.
Inquiet. inquiunt.

Perf. 3d Sing. inquit.

135. Ajō, I say.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

Pres. ajō, ajēmus.
āís, ajunt.
āit; ajēmus,
Imp. ajēbam, ajēbatus,
ajēbas, ajēbatis,
ajēbat; ajēbant.

Perf. 3d Sing. ajat.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. 3d Sing. ajat.

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

136. Pārī, to speak.

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

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>fābor,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>fāre.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inf.</td>
<td>fārī.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. Partic.</td>
<td>fantis, fanti, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerund, G.</td>
<td>fandi; D. and Abl., fandiō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerundive</td>
<td>fandus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—Forms of fārī are rare. More frequent are its compounds; as,—
affātūr, he addresses; praefāmūr, we say in advance.

137. Other Defective Forms.

1. Queō, quīre, quīvī. to be able, and nequeō, nequīre, nequīvī, to be unable. are inflected like eō, but occur chiefly in the Present Tense, and there only in special forms.

2. Quaesō, I entreat: quaeāsumus, we entreat.

3. Cedō (2d sing.), cētē (2d plu.); give me, tell me.

4. Salvē, salvēte, hāli. Also Infinitive, salvēre.

5. Hāvē (avē), hāvēte, hālē. Also Infinitive, hāvēre.

Impersonal Verbs.

138. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English, it snows, it seems, etc. They have no personal subject, but may take an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Neuter Pronoun; as, mē pudet hōc sēcīse, lit. it shames me to have done this; hōc dēcat, this is fitting. Here belong—

I. Verbs denoting operations of the weather; as,—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>fulget</th>
<th>fulsit</th>
<th>it lightens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tonat</td>
<td>tonit</td>
<td>it thunders</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Impersonal Verbs.

---

grandinat — it hails
ningit — it snows
pluit — it rains

II. Special Verbs.

paenitet paenitère paenituit — it repents
piget pigère piguit — it grieves
padet pudère puduit — it causes shame
taedet taedère taeduit — it disgusts
miscret misérère miseruit — it causes pity
libet libère libuit — it pleases
licet licère licuit — it is lawful
oportet oportère oportuit — it is fitting
decet decère decuit — it is becoming
dédecet dédecère dédecuit — it is unconforming
réfert référé réfutuit — it concerns

III. Verbs Impersonal only in Special Senses.

cônsstat cônsître cônsituit — it is evident
praestat praestère praesituit — it is better
juvat juvère jüvit — it delights
apparet appârère appâruit — it appears
placet placère placuit (placitum est) — it pleases
accédit accédère accessit — it is added
accidit accidère accidit — it happens
contingit contingère contigit — it happens
évenit évenère évênit — it turns out
interest interesse interfuit — it concerns

IV. The Passive of Intransitive Verbs; as,

itur lit. it is gone i.e. some one goes
curritur lit. it is run i.e. some one runs
ventum est lit. it has been come i.e. some one has come
veniendum est lit. it must be come i.e. somebody must come
pugnāri potest lit. it can be fought i.e. somebody can fight
# Part III.

## Particles.

139. Particles are the four Parts of Speech that do not admit of inflection; *viz.* Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Interjections.

### Adverbs.

140. Adverbs denote manner, place, time, or degree. Most adverbs are in origin case-forms which have become stereotyped by usage. The common adverbial terminations have already been given above (§76). The following Table of Correlatives is important:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative and Interrogative</th>
<th>Demonstrative</th>
<th>Indefinite</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ubi, where; where?</td>
<td>hic, here.</td>
<td>aliquē, to some place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quō, whither; whither?</td>
<td>hūo, hither.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unde, whence; whence?</td>
<td>hinc, hence.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quā, where; where?</td>
<td>hinc, by this way.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cum, when.</td>
<td>nunc, now.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quandō, when?</td>
<td>tum, tunc, then.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quotēns, as often as; how often?</td>
<td>totiēns, so often.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quam, as much as; how much?</td>
<td>tam, so much.</td>
<td>aliquantum, somewhat.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PREPOSITIONS.

141. Prepositions show relations of words. The following prepositions govern the Accusative:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Preposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ad, to.</td>
<td>contrā, against.</td>
<td>post, after.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adversus, against.</td>
<td>ergā, toward.</td>
<td>praeter, past.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adversum, toward, against.</td>
<td>extrā, outside.</td>
<td>prope, near.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>autē, before.</td>
<td>infrā, below.</td>
<td>propter, on account of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apud, with, near.</td>
<td>inter, between.</td>
<td>secundum, after.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circum, around.</td>
<td>intrā, within.</td>
<td>subter, beneath.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circiter, about.</td>
<td>jūxītā, near.</td>
<td>super, over.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circum, around.</td>
<td>ob, on account of.</td>
<td>suprā, above.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crīm. this side of.</td>
<td>penes, in the hands of.</td>
<td>tràns, across.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>citrā, this side of.</td>
<td>per, through.</td>
<td>ultrā, beyond.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pōne, behind.</td>
<td>versus, toward.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Úsque is often prefixed to ad, in the sense of even; as,—

   Úsque ad urbem, even to the city.

2. Versus always follows its case; as,—

   Rōmam versus, toward Rome.

   It may be combined with a preceding preposition; as,—

   ad urbem versus, toward the city.

3. Like prope, the comparatives proptor, proptius, and the superlative proximus, proximē, sometimes govern the Accusative; as,—

   Ubīf proximē Rhēnum incolunt, the Ubi dwell next to the Rhine; proptius castra hostium, nearer the camp of the enemy.

142. The following prepositions govern the Ablative:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Preposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ab, abs, from, by.</td>
<td>cum, with.</td>
<td>prō, in front of,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>absque, without.</td>
<td>dē, from, concerning.</td>
<td>for.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>córam, in the presence of.</td>
<td>éx, from, out of.</td>
<td>sine, without.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prae, before.</td>
<td>tenus, up to.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Ā, ab, abs, Before vowels or h, ab must be used; before consonants we find sometimes ā, sometimes ab (the latter usually not before the labials b, p, f, v, m; nor before c, g, q, or t); abs occurs only before tē, and ā is admissable even there.

2. É, éx. Before vowels or h, ex must be used; before consonants, we find sometimes ē, sometimes ex.
3. Tenus regularly follows its case, as pectoribus tenus, up to the breast. It sometimes governs the Genitive, as labrōrum tenus, as far as the lips.

4. Cum is appended to the Pronouns of the First and Second Persons, and to the Reflexive Pronoun; usually also to the Relative and Interrogative. Thus: —

mēcum nobiscum quōcum or cum quō
tēcum vobiscum quācum or cum quā
sēcum quibuscum or cum quibus

On quōcum, see § 89, Footnote 1.

143. Two Prepositions, in, in, into, and sub, under, govern both the Accusative and the Ablative. With the Accusative they denote motion; with the Ablative, rest; as, —

in urbem, into the city; in urbe, in the city.

1. Subter and super are also occasionally construed with the Ablative.

144. Relation of Adverbs and Prepositions.

1. Prepositions were originally Adverbs, and many of them still retain their adverbial meaning; as, post, afterwards; ante, previously; contrō, on the other hand, etc.

2. Conversely several words, usually adverbs, are occasionally employed as prepositions; as, —

clam, pridē, with the Accusative.
procūl, simul, palam, with the Ablative.

3. Anástrophe. A Preposition sometimes follows its case. This is called Anástrophe; as, —

ef, quōs inter erat, those among whom he was.
Anástrophe occurs chiefly with dissyllabic prepositions.

CONJUNCTIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

145. 1. Conjunctions are used to connect ideas. For Coördinate Conjunctions, see §§ 341 ff. Subordinate Conjunctions are treated in connection with Subordinate Clauses.

2. Interjections express emotion. Thus: —

1. Surprise; as, ēn, ecce, ē.
2. Joy; as, iō, enoe.
3. Sorrow and Pain; as, hēu, ēheu, vae, prō.
4. Calling; as, heus, eho.
PART IV.

WORD-FORMATION.

I. DERIVATIVES.

146. Derivatives are formed by appending certain terminations called Suffixes to stems of verbs, nouns, or adjectives.

A. NOUNS.

1. Nouns derived from Verbs.

147. 1. The suffix -tor (-tor), Fem. -trix, denotes the agent; as,—
viator, viatrix, victor; 
edéfensor, defender.

Note.—The suffix -tor is occasionally appended to noun stems; as,—

gladiátor, gladiator (from gladius).

2. The suffix -or (originally -ōs) denotes an activity or a condition; as,—
amor, love; 
timor, fear; 
dolor, pain.

3. The suffixes -tūs (-stūs), Gen. -ōnis, and -tus (-stus), Gen. -ūs, denote an action as in process; as,—
vēnātiō, hunting; obsessiō, blockade; gemitus, sighing; cursus, running.

Note.—Rarer endings with the same force are:

a) -tūra, -sūra; as,—
sepultūra, burial; mensūra, measuring.

b) -tum; as,—

gaudium, rejoicing.

c) -dō, as,—
cupīdō, desire.
4. The suffixes -men, -mentum, -crum, -trum, -bulum, -culum denote the means or place of an action; as, —

lōmen (lūc-e-men), light; vocābulum, word;
ornamentum, ornament; documentum, proof;
sepulorum, grave; arātrum, plough;
vehiculum, carriage.

2. Nouns derived from Nouns.

148. 1. Diminutives end in —

-ulus, (-ula, -ulum)
-olus, (-ola, -olum), after a vowel
-culus, (-cula, -culum)
-ellus, (-ella, -ellum)
-illus, (-illa, -illum)

as, —

nīdulus, little nest (nīdus);
virgula, wand (virga);
oppidulum, little town (oppidum);
filiolus, little son (filius);
opusculum, little work (opus);
tabella, tablet (tabula);
lappendix, pebble (lapis).

Note 1. — It will be observed that in gender the Diminutives follow the gender of the words from which they are derived.

Note 2. — The endings -ellus, -illus contain the primitive form of the diminutive suffix, viz., -io. Thus: —

agullus, field, for ager-lus;
lappendix, pebble, for lapid-lus.

2. The suffix -ulum appended to nouns denoting persons designates either a collection of such persons or their function; as, —

collēgium, a corporation, body of colleagues (collēga);
asērdōtium, priestly function (asērdōs).

3. The suffixes -ārium, -ēstem, -īle designate a place where objects are kept or are found in abundance; as, —

columbārium, dove-cote (columba);
olivēstem, olive-orchard (olīva);
ovīle, sheep-fold (ovis).
4. The suffix -átus denotes official position or honor; as, —
   consulátus, consulship (consul).

5. The suffix -ina appended to nouns denoting persons designates a
   vocation or the place where it is carried on; as, —
   doctrína, teaching (doctor, teacher);
   medicína, the art of healing (medicus, physician);
   sútrína, cobbler's shop (sútor, cobbler).

6. Patronymics are Greek proper names denoting son of . . . ,
   daughter of . . . . They have the following suffixes: —
   a) Masculines: -ídós, -ádós, -ídés; as, Priamídés, son of
      Priam; Aeneadós, son of Aeneas; Pélidés, son of Pelus.
   b) Feminines: -isis, -ísa, -ísa; as, Néreísa, daughter of Nereus;
      Atlantis, daughter of Atlas; Thaumántias, daughter of
      Thaumas.

3. Nouns derived from Adjectives.

149. The suffixes -tás (-ítás), -túdó (-ítúdó), -ía, -ítia are used
   for the formation of abstract nouns denoting qualities; as, —
   bonitás, goodness; celeritás, swiftness; magnitúdó, greatness;
   audá-cia, boldness; amicitía, friendship.

B. ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives derived from Verbs.

150. 1. The suffixes -bundus and -cundus give nearly the force
   of a present participle; as, —
   tremebundus, trembling; jácundus (juvó), pleasing.

2. The suffixes -áx and -alus denote an inclination or tendency,
   mostly a faulty one; as, —
   loquáx, loquacious; orédulus, credulous.

3. The suffix -idus denotes a state; as, —
   calidus, hot; timidus, timid; cupidus, eager.

4. The suffixes -ilis and -ilitis denote capacity or ability, usually in
   a passive sense; as, —
   fragilis, fragile (i.e. capable of being broken);
   docílis, dèce.
2. Adjectives derived from Nouns.

a) From Common Nouns.

151. 1. The suffixes -ous and -nus are appended to names of substances or materials; as, —

aureus, of gold; ferreus, of iron; faginus, of beech.

2. The suffixes -lus, -icus, -ilis, -emis, -aris, -erius, -nus, -anus, -inus, -ivus, -ensis signify belonging to, connected with; as, —

déxtrarius, oratorical; legiönaire, legionary;
bellosus, pertaining to war; paternus, paternal;
civilis, civil; urbânus, of the city;
regalis, regal; marinus, marine;
cōnsulāris, consular; aestivus, pertaining to summer;
circumnus, belonging to the circus.

3. The suffixes -sus and -lentus denote fullness; as, —

perculcēsus, full of danger; gloriōsus, glorious;
dangerous; opulentus, wealthy.

4. The suffix -tus has the force of provided with; as, —

barbātus, bearded; stellātus, set with stars.

b) From Proper Names.

152. 1. Names of persons take the suffixes: -anus, -ilus, -inus;

as, —

Catōnianus, belonging to Cato; Plautius, belonging to Plautus.

2. Names of nations take the suffixes -icus, -ius; as, —

Germanicus, German; Thraciōn, Thracian.

3. Names of places take the suffixes -anus, -inus, -ensis, -aeus, -ius; as, —

Rōmānus, Roman; Atheniaisenis, Athenian;
Amerīnus, of America; Smyrnaeus, of Smyrna;
Corinthiōn, Corinthian.

Note. — -anus and -ensis, appended to names of countries, designate something stationed in the country or connected with it, but not indigenous; as, —

bellum Africānum, a war (of Romans with Romans) in Africa.
bellum Hispānīense, a war carried on in Spain.
legiōnēs Galīcīnæ (Roman) legions stationed in Gaul.
3. Adjectives derived from Adjectives.

153. Diminutives in -lus sometimes occur; as,—

parvulus, little;
misellus (passer), poor little (sparrow);
pauerculus, needy.

4. Adjectives derived from Adverbs.

154. These end in -ernus, -ternus, -tinus, -tinus; as,—

hoditermus, of to-day  (hodíē);
heesternus, of yesterday  (herī);
intestinus, internal  (intus);
dìittinus, long-lasting  (dīā).

C. VERBS.

1. Verbs derived from Verbs.

155. 1. Inceptives or Inchoatives. These end in -scō, and are formed from Present Stems. They denote the beginning of an action; as,—

labāscō, begin to totter  (from labō);
horrēscō, grow rough  (from horreō);
tremēscō, begin to tremble  (from tremō);
odbormīscō, fall asleep  (from dormīō).

2. Frequentatives or Intensives. These denote a repeated or energetic action. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -tō or -sō. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in -tō (not -sō, as we should expect). Examples of Frequentatives are—

jacē, toss about, brandish  (from jacē, hurl);
curso, run hither and thither  (from currō, run);
vōlō, fly about  (from volō, fly).

a. Some double Frequentatives occur; as,—

cansēō, sing over and over  (cansēō);
cursēō, keep running about  (cursēō);
yentsēō, keep coming.

b. agitō, set in motion, is formed from the Present Stem.
3. Desideratives. These denote a desire to do something. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -uriō; as,—

ēuriō, desire to eat, am hungry (ēdō);
parturiō, want to bring forth, am in labor (parīō).

2. Verbs derived from Nouns and Adjectives (Denominatives).

156. Denominatives of the First Conjugation are mostly transitive, those of the Second exclusively intransitive. Those of the Third and Fourth Conjugations are partly transitive, partly intransitive. Examples are—

a) From Nouns:—

fraudō, defraud (fraus);
vestīō, clothe (vestis);
ōlōreō, bloom (ōlēa).

b) From Adjectives:—

liberō, free (liber);
ōaeviō, be fierce (ōaeus).

D. ADVERBS.

157. 1. Adverbs derived from verbs are formed from the Participial Stem by means of the suffix -im; as,—

certātim, emulously (certō);
cursim, in haste (currō);
statim, immediately (statō).

2. Adverbs derived from nouns and adjectives are formed:—

a) With the suffixes -tim (-sim). -ātim; as,—

gradātim, step by step;
pauλātim, gradually;
virtītim, man by man.

b) With the suffix -tus; as,—

antiquitās, of old;
rādīcitās, from the roots.

c) With the suffix -ter; as,—

brevitēr, briefly.
II. COMPOUNDS.

158. 1. Compounds are formed by the union of simple words. The second member usually contains the essential meaning of the compound; the first member expresses some modification of this.

2. Vowel changes often occur in the process of composition. Thus:

a. In the second member of compounds. (See § 7. 1.)

b. The final vowel of the stem of the first member of the compound often appears as ï where we should expect ò or à; sometimes it is dropped altogether, and in case of consonant stems ï is often inserted; as,—

signifer, standard-bearer;
tubicen, trumpeter;
magnanimus, high-minded;
matricida, matricide.

159. EXAMPLES OF COMPOUNDS.

1. Nouns:—

a) Preposition + Noun; as,—
dē-decua, disgrace;
pro-avus, great-grandfather.

b) Noun + Verb Stem; as,—
agri-cola, farmer;
frātri-cida, fratricide.

2. Adjectives:—

a) Preposition + Adjective (or Noun); as,—
per-magnus, very great;
sub-obscūrus, rather obscure;
ā-mēns, frantic.

b) Adjective + Noun; as,—
magn-animus, great-hearted;
celert-pēs, swift-footed.

c) Noun + Verb Stem; as,—
parti-cops, sharing;
morti-fēr, death-dealing.
3. Verbs: —
The second member is always a verb. The first may be —

a) A Noun; as, —
  aedificō, build.

b) An Adjective; as, —
  amplificō, enlarge.

c) An Adverb; as, —
  maleficō, yield at.

d) Another Verb; as, —
  calefaciō, make warm.

e) A Preposition; as, —
  abjungō, detach;
  referō, bring back;
  discernō, distinguish;
  expectō, await.

Note. — Here belong the so-called Inseparable Prepositions: —
  ambi- (ambi-), around;
  dis- (dir-, dis-), apart, asunder;
  por- (por-), forward;
  red- (re-), back;
  sēd- (sē-), apart from;
  nā, without.

4. Adverbs: —
These are of various types; as, —
  anteā, before;
  facē (facē), in the spot;
  imprēminā, especially;
  obviam in the way.
PART V.

SYNTAX.

160. Syntax treats of the use of words in sentences.

CHAPTER I.—Sentences.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

161. Sentences may be classified as follows:—

1. Declarative, which state something; as,—
   puer scribit, *the boy is writing*.

2. Interrogative, which ask a question; as,—
   quid puer scribit, *what is the boy writing*?

3. Exclamatory, which are in the form of an exclamation; as,—
   quot libros scribit, *how many books he writes*!

4. Imperative, which express a command or an admonition; as,—
   scriba, *write*!

FORM OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

162. Questions may be either Word-Questions or Sentence-Questions.

1. Word-Questions. These are introduced by the various interrogative pronouns and adverbs; such as,—quis, quid, quales, quantus, quot, quotidians, quid, quae, etc. Thus:—
   quis venit, *who comes*?
   quam diu manebit, *how long will he stay*?
2. Sentence-Questions. These are introduced —
   a) By nōne implying the answer ‘yes’; as, —
      nōne vidēs, do you not see?
   b) By num implying the answer ‘no’; as, —
      num expectās, do you expect? (i.e., you don’t expect, do you?)
   c) By the enclitic -ne, appended to the emphatic word (which
      usually stands first), and simply asking for information; as, —
      vidēsne, do you see?
   d) Sometimes by no special word, particularly in expressions of
      surprise or indignation; as, —
      tā in jūdicium conspectum venire audēs, do you dare to
      come into the presence of the judges?

3. Rhetorical Questions. These are questions merely in
   form, being employed to express an emphatic assertion; as,
   quis dubitat, who doubts? (= no one doubts).

4. Double Questions. Double Questions are introduced
   by the following particles:
      utrum . . . an;
      -ne . . . an;
      —— . . . an.
   If the second member is negative, annōn (less often neone) is used.
   Examples:
      utrum honestum est an turpe,
      honestunne est an turpe, } is it honorable or base?
      honestum est an turpe,
      suntne dii annōn, are there gods or not?
   a. By an ellipsis of the first member, an sometimes stands alone.
      Its force depends upon the context; as, —
      A sébus gerendi abstrahit senectās. Quibus? An
      eis quae juvenāte geruntur et viribus? Old age (it is
      alleged) withdraws men from active pursuits. From what
      pursuits? Is it not merely from those which are carried on
      by the strength of youth?
5. **Answers.**

   a. The answer Yes is expressed by *ita, etiam, verò, sánē,* or by repetition of the verb; as, —
   
   *'visne locum mútēmus?' 'sánē.' 'Shall we change the place?' 'Certainly.'*
   
   *'estne vós légāli?' 'sumus.' 'Are you envoy's?' 'Yes.'*

   b. The answer No is expressed by *nōn, mínimē, minimē verò,* or by repeating the verb with a negative; as, —
   
   *'jam ea praeterit?' 'nōn.' 'Has it passed?' 'No.'*
   
   *'estne frater intuē?' 'nōn est.' 'Is your brother within?' 'No.'*

**SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.**

163. The two essential parts of a sentence are the Subject and Predicate.

   The Subject is that concerning which something is said, asked, etc. The Predicate is that which is said, asked, etc., concerning the Subject.

**SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.**

164. Sentences containing but one Subject and one Predicate are called Simple Sentences, those containing more are called Compound Sentences. Thus *puer libros legit, the boy reads books,* is a Simple Sentence; but *puer libros legit et epistulās scribit, the boy reads books and writes letters,* is a Compound Sentence. The different members of a Compound Sentence are called Clauses.

165. **Coordinate and Subordinate Clauses.** Clauses which stand upon an equality are called Coordinate; a Clause dependent upon another is called Subordinate. Thus in *puer libros legit et epistulās scribit,* the two clauses are Coordinate; but in *puer libros legit quōs pater scribit,* the boy reads the books which his father writes, the second clause is Subordinate to the first.
CHAPTER II. — Syntax of Nouns.

SUBJECT.

166. The Subject of a Finite Verb (i.e. any form of the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative) is in the Nominative Case.

1. The Subject may be —
   a) A Noun or Pronoun; as, —
      puer scribit, the boy writes;
      hi scribit, this man writes.
   b) An Infinitive; as, —
      decūrum est prō patriā morī, to die for one's country is a noble thing.
   c) A Clause; as, —
      opportūnē accidit quod vēnisti, it happened opportunē that you arrived.

2. A Personal Pronoun as Subject is usually implied in the Verb, and is not separately expressed; as, —
   scribo, I write;  
   vident, he sees.
   a. But for the purpose of emphasis or contrast the Pronoun is expressed: as, —
      ego scribo et tā legis, I write, and you read.

3. The verb is sometimes omitted when it can be easily supplied from the context, especially the auxiliary sum; as, —
   rēctē ille (sc. facit), he does rightly; cōnsul profectus (sc. est), the consul set out.

PREDICATE NOUNS.

167. A Predicate Noun is one connected with the Subject by some form of the verb sum or a similar verb.

168. A Predicate Noun agrees with its Subject in Case;¹ as, —

¹ For the Predicate Genitive see §§ 158, 3; 203, 5.
Predicate Nouns. — Appositives.

Cicerō ōrātor fuit, Cicerō was an orator;
Numa creātus est rēx, Numa was elected king.

1. When possible the Predicate Noun usually agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as, —

philosophia est vitæ magistra, philosophy is the guide of life.

2. Besides sum the verbs most frequently accompanied by a Predicate Noun are —

a) fō, ēvādō, existō; maneō; videor; as, —

Crescūs nōn semper mānsit rēx, Crescūs did not always remain king.

b) Passive verbs of making, calling, regarding, etc.; as, creōr, appellor, habeōr; as, —

Rōmulus rēx appellātus est, Romulus was called king;
habitus est deus, he was regarded as a god.

APPositives.

169. 1. An Appositive is a Noun explaining or defining another Noun denoting the same person or thing; as, —

Cicerō cōnsul, Cicerō, the Consul;
urbs Rōma, the city Rome.

2. An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case; as, —

opera Cicerōnis ὄρατορis, the works of Cicerō, the orator;
apud Hērodotum, patrem historiae, in the works of Hērodotus, the father of history.

3. When possible the Appositive agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as, —

assentātiō adjūtrīx vitiōrum, flattery, the promoter of evils.

4. A Locative may take in Apposition the Ablative of urbs or oppidum, with or without a preposition; as, —

Corinthi, urbe praecīārā, or in urbe praecīārā, at Corinth, a famous city.

5. Partitive Apposition. A Noun denoting a whole is frequently followed by an Appositive denoting a part; as, —

mīlitēs, fortissimōs quīaque, hostibus restitūrunt, the soldiers, all the bravest of them, resisted the enemy.
Syntax.

THE CASES.

THE NOMINATIVE.

170. The Nominative is confined to its use as Subject, Appositive, or Predicate Noun, as already explained. See §§ 166-169.

THE VOCATIVE.

171. The Vocative is the Case of direct address; as, —
credite mihi, judicæs, believe me, judges.

1. By a species of attraction, the Nominative is occasionally used for the Vocative, especially in poetry and formal prose; as, audi tû, populus Albânu, hear ye, Alban people!
2. Similarly the Appositive of a Vocative may, in poetry, stand in the Nominative; as, náte, mea magna potentia sôlus, O son, alone the source of my great power.

THE ACCUSATIVE.

172. The Accusative is the Case of the Direct Object.

173. The Direct Object may express either of the two following relations: —

A. The Person or Thing Affected by the action; as, —
cônsulém interfectî, he slew the consul; legô librum, I read the book.

B. The Result Produced by the action; as, —
librum scripserâ, I wrote a book (i.e. produced one); templum struit, he constructs a temple.

174. Verbs that admit a Direct Object of either of these two types are Transitive Verbs.

a. Verbs that regularly take a Direct Object are sometimes used without it. They are then said to be employed absolutely; as, —
râmor est meum gnâtum amâre, it is rumored that my son is in love.
Accusative of the Person or Thing Affected.

175. 1. This is the most frequent use of the Accusative; as in —

parentēs amāmus, we love our parents;
mare aspict, he gazes at the sea.

2. The following classes of Verbs taking an Accusative of this kind are worthy of note: —

a) Many Intransitive Verbs, when compounded with a Preposition, become Transitive. Thus: —

1) Compounds of circum, præster, tranś; as, —

hostēs circumstāre, to surround the enemy;
urbem præsterēre, to pass by the city;
mūrōs transeundere, to climb over the walls.

2) Less frequently, compounds of ad, per, in, sub; as, —
adīre urbem, to visit the city;
peragrāre Italianam, to travel through Italy;
inire magistrātum, to take office;
subire periculum, to undergo danger.

b) Many Verbs expressing emotions, regularly Intransitive, have also a Transitive use; as, —

queror fātum, I lament my fate;
doleō ejus mortem, I grieve at his death;
rēśerō tuam stultitiam, I laugh at your folly.
So also lāgeō, maereō, mourn; gemō, bemoan; horreo, shudder, and others.

c) The impersonals dēcet, it becomes; dēdeoet, it is unbecoming; juvat, it pleases, take the Accusative of the Person Affected; as, —

mā dēcet haec dicere, it becomes me to say this.

d) In poetry many Passive Verbs, in imitation of Greek usage, are employed as Middles (§ 256, 1; 2), and take the Accusative as Object; as, —
galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet;
cinctus temporā hederā, having bound his temples withivy;
 nóūs sint collēta, having gathered her dress in a knot.
Accusative of the Result Produced.

176. 1. The ordinary type of this Accusative is seen in such expressions as —

librum scribam, I write a book;
domum aedifico, I build a house.

2. Many Verbs usually Intransitive take a Neuter Pronoun, or Adjective, as an Accusative of Result. Thus:—

a) A Neuter Pronoun; as, —
haec gemebat, he made these moans;
ilud glorior, I make this boast;
eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes.

b) A Neuter Adjective,—particularly Adjectives of number or amount,—multum, multa, paucum, etc.; also nihil; as, —
multa dubitab, I have many doubts;
paucum studet, he has few interests;
multum valet, he has great strength;
nihil prorogatur, he makes no progress.

Note.—In poetry other Adjectives are freely used in this construction; as, —
militantem vana, making vain threats;
serius studium, giving a fierce look;
dulce loquentem, sweetly talking.

3. The adverbial use of several Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives grows out of this Accusative; as,—
multum sunt in venatione, they are much engaged in hunting.

a. So also plurimum, very greatly; plerumque, generally;
aliud, somewhat; quid, why? nihil, not at all; etc.

4. Sometimes an Intransitive Verb takes an Accusative of Result which is of kindred etymology with the Verb. This is called a Cognate Accusative, and is usually modified by an Adjective; as,—

sempiternam servitutem serviat, let him serve an everlasting slavery;
vitam durae vivat, I have lived a hard life.

a. Sometimes the Cognate Accusative is not of kindred etymology, but merely of kindred meaning; as,—

stadium currat, he runs a race;
Olympia vincit, he wins an Olympic victory.
The Accusative.

5. The Accusative of Result occurs also after Verbs of tasting and smelling; as,—

pisces mare sapis, the fish tastes of the sea;
öratōnēs antiquitātem redolent, the speeches smack of the past.

Two Accusatives—Direct Object and Predicate Accusative.

177. 1. Many Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Showing, and the like, take two Accusatives, one of the Person or Thing Affected, the other a Predicate Accusative; as,—
mē hērēdem fācit, he made me heir.

Here mē is Direct Object, hērēdem Predicate Accusative.

So also—

eum jūdicem cērāre, they took him as judge;
urbem Rōmam vocāvit, he called the city Rome;
sē virum praestitit, he showed himself a man.

2. The Predicate Accusative may be an Adjective as well as a Noun; as,—
hominēs caecōs reddīt cupiditās, covetousness renders men blind;
Apoollē Socratem sapientissimum jūdicāvit, Apollo adjudged Socrates the wisest man.

a. Some Verbs, as reddō, usually admit only an Adjective as the Predicate Accusative.

3. In the Passive the Direct Object becomes the Subject, and the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nominative (§ 168. 2. b); as,—

urbs Rōma vocātā est, the city was called Rome.

a. Not all Verbs admit the Passive construction; reddō and efficiō, for example, never take it.

Two Accusatives—Person and Thing.

178. 1. Some Verbs take two Accusatives, one of the Person Affected, the other of the Result Produced. Thus:—

a) Verbs of requesting and demanding, as,—

ōstium divōs rogat, he asks the gods for rest;
mē duās öratōnēs postulātēs, you demand two speeches of me.
Syntax.

So also ὁρῶ, posco, reposco, exposco, flāgitō, though some of these prefer the Ablative with ab to the Accusative of the Person; as,—

opus a tē posco, I demand aid of you.

b) Verbs of teaching (docēō and its compounds); as,—
tē litterās docēō, I teach you your letters.

c) Verbs of inquiring; as,—
tē haec rogō, I ask you this;
tē sententiam rogō, I ask you your opinion.

d) Several Special Verbs; vē. moneō, admonēō, commoneō, cōgō, accūsō, arguō, and a few others. These admit only a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective as Accusative of the Thing; as,—
tē haec moneō, I give you this advice;
mē id accusās, you bring this accusation against me;
id cōgit nōs nātūra, nature compels us (to) this.

e) One Verb of concealing, cēāō; as,—
nōn tē cēāvi sermōnem, I have not concealed the conversation from you.

2. In the Passive construction the Accusative of the Person becomes the Subject, and the Accusative of the Thing is retained; as,—
omnēs artēs ēdōctus est, he taught all accomplishments;
rogātus sum sententiam, I was asked my opinion;
aliquid admonēmur, we are given some admonition.

a. Only a few Verbs admit the Passive construction.

Two Accusatives with Compounds.

179. 1. Transitive compounds of trans may take two Accusatives, one dependent upon the Verb, the other upon the Preposition; as,—
militēs flūmen trāduēcit, he leads his soldiers across the river.

2. With other compounds this construction is rare.

3. In the Passive the Accusative dependent upon the preposition is retained; as,—
militēs flūmen trāduēbantur, the soldiers were led across the river.
The Accusative.

-Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative.

180. 1. The Synechdochical (or Greek) Accusative denotes the part to which an action or quality refers; as,—

*trans artēs*, literally, he trembles as to his limbs, i.e. his limbs tremble;
*nūda gentī*, lit. bare as to the knee, i.e. with knee bare;
*manōs revincutus*, lit. tied as to the hands, i.e. with hands tied.

2. Note that this construction —

a) Is borrowed from the Greek.
b) Is chiefly confined to poetry.
c) Usually refers to a part of the body.
d) Is used with Adjectives as well as Verbs.

Accusative of Time and Space.

181. 1. *Duration of Time and Extent of Space* are denoted by the Accusative; as,—

*quadrāgintā annōs vīxit*, he lived forty years;
*hīc locus pāsās sescentōs aberat*, this place was six hundred paces away.
*arborēs quīnquāgintā pedēs altae*, trees fifty feet high.
*bibum septem annōs*, seven years ago.

2. Emphasis is sometimes added by using the Preposition *per*; as,

*per biennium labōrāvi*, I toiled throughout two years.

Accusative of Limit of Motion.

182. 1. The Accusative of Limit of Motion is used —

a) With names of *Towns, Small Islands*, and *Peninsulas*; as,—

*Rōmam vēnī*, I came to Rome;
*Āthēnēs profectūrī*, he sets out for Athens;
*Dēlum pervēnī*, I arrived at Delos.

b) With *domum, domōs, rūs*; as,—

domum revertitur, he returns home;
*rūs ibō, I shall go to the country.*

Note. — When *domus* means *house* (*i.e. building*), it takes a preposition; as,—

*in domum veterem remigrāre*, to move back to one old house.
2. Other designations of place than those above mentioned require a Preposition to denote Limit of Motion; as,—

ad Italiam vēnīt, he came to Italy.

a. The Preposition is also customary with the Accusatives urbem or oppidum when they stand in apposition with the name of a town; as,—

Cirtam in urbem, to the city Cirta;
Genavam ad oppidum, to the town Geneva.

b. The name of a town denoting limit of motion may be combined with the name of a country or other word dependent upon a preposition; as,—

Thūriōs in Italiam pervectus, carried to Thurii in Italy;
cum Atēn ad exercitum vēgisset, when he had come to the army at Aetna.

3. To denote toward, to the vicinity of, in the vicinity of, ad is used; as,—

ad Tarentum vēnī, I came to the vicinity of Tarentum;
ad Cannās pugna facta est, a battle was fought near Cannae.

4. In poetry the Accusative of any noun denoting a place may be used without a preposition to express the limit of motion; as,—

Italiām vēnīt, he came to Italy.

5. The goal notion seems to represent the original function of the Accusative Case. Traces of this primitive force are recognizable in the phrase Inītiās ire, to deny (lit. to go to a denial), and a few other similar expressions.

**Accusative in Exclamations.**

183. The Accusative, generally modified by an Adjective, is used in Exclamations; as,—

mē miserum, ah, wretched me!
ō fallācem aem, ah, deceptive hope!

**Accusative as Subject of the Infinitive.**

184. The Subject of the Infinitive is put in the Accusative; as,—

videō hominem abire, I see that the man is going away.
Other Uses of the Accusative.

185. Here belong —

1. Some Accusatives which were originally Appositives; viz.—
   id genus, of that kind; as, hominis id genus, men of that kind
   (originally hominis, id genus hominum, men, that kind
   of men);
   virile securis, muliebre secus, of the male sex, of the female sex;
   meam vicem, tuam vicem, etc., for my part, etc.;
   bonam partem, magnam partem, in large part;
   maximam partem, for the most part.

2. Some phrases of doubtful origin; as,—
   id temporis, at that time; quod si, but if;
   id aetatis, at that time; aliter, in other respects.

THE DATIVE.

186. The Dative case in general expresses relations which are designated in English by the prepositions to and for.

Dative of Indirect Object.

187. The commonest use of the Dative is to denote the person to whom something is given, said, or done. Thus:—

I. With transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative; as,—
   hanc pecuniam mihi dat, he gives me this money;
   haec nobiles dixit, he said this to us.

a. Some verbs which take this construction (particularly dōnā and circumdēō) admit also the Accusative of the person along with the Ablative of the thing. Thus:—
   Either Themeistocēl mūnera dōnāvit, he presented gifts to
   Themeistoces, or
   Themeistocēlem mūneribus dōnāvit, he presented Themeis-
   toces with gifts;
   urbi mūrēs circumdat, he builds walls around the city, or
   urbe mūrīs circumdat, he surrounds the city with walls.
II. With many intransitive verbs; as, —

nullus laborem cedit, he yields to no labor.

a. Here belong many verbs signifying favor, help, injure, please, displease, trust, distrust, command, obey, serve, resist, indulge, spare, pardon, envy, threaten, be angry, believe, persuade, and the like; as, —

Caesar populiibus favet, Caesar favors (i.e. is favorable to) the popular party;
amicis cōnspicā, I trust (to) my friends;
Orgetorix Helvetiis persuāsit, Orgetorix persuaded (made it acceptable to) the Helvetians;
bons nōcet qui malis pācit, he injures (does harm to) the good, who spares the bad.

Note. — It is to be borne in mind that these verbs do not take the Dative by virtue of their apparent English equivalence, but simply because they are intransitive, and adapted to an indirect object. Some verbs of the same apparent English equivalence are transitive and govern the Accusative; as, iuvō, laedō, délectō. Thus: asentēs deus iuvat, God helps the bold; nīnimō laesit, he injured no one.

b. Verbs of this class are used in the passive only impersonally; as, —

tibi parōtur, you are spared;
mīhi pernādūtūr, I am being persuaded;
eō inviδūtūr, he is envied.

c. Some of the foregoing verbs admit also a Direct Object in connection with the Dative; as, —
mīhi mortem mīruitūr, he threatens me with death (threatens death to me).

III. With many verbs compounded with the prepositions: ad, ante, circum, com-, in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super.

These verbs fall into two main classes, —

1. Many simple verbs which cannot take a Dative of the indirect object become capable of doing so when compounded with a preposition; as, —

afflēctus succurrīt, he helps the afflicted;
exercitūr praefuit, he was in command of the army;
intersum cōnsilīs, I share in the deliberations.

1 Many such verbs were originally intransitive in English also, and once governed the Dative. 2 This was the original form of the preposition cum.
2. Many transitive verbs which take only a direct object become capable, when compounded, of taking a Dative also as indirect object; as,—

pecuniæ pudorem antepónit, he puts honor before money;
incere spem amísit, to inspire hope in one's friends;
Labiánnum exercitum praefícit, he put Labianus in charge of the army.

Dative of Reference.

188. 1. The Dative of Reference denotes the person to whom a statement refers, of whom it is true, or to whom it is of interest; as,—
mibi ante oculos versáris, you hover before my eyes (lit. hover before the eyes to me);
illis severitás amorem nón dánimuit, in his case severity did not diminish love (lit. to him severity did not diminish);
intercédere hostibus comméntum, to cut off the supplies of the enemy.

a. Note: the phrase allcui interdicere aqua et igni, to interdict one from fire and water.

NOTE.—The Dative of Reference, unlike the Dative of Indirect Object, does not modify the verb, but rather the sentence as a whole. It is often used where, according to the English idiom, we should expect a Genitive; so in the first and third of the above examples.

2. Special varieties of the Dative of Reference are—

a) Dative of the Local Standpoint. This is regularly a participle; as,—
oppidum primum Thessaliam venientibus ab Æpiró, the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (lit. to those coming from Epirus).

b) Ethical Dative. This name is given to those Dative constructions of the personal pronouns in which the connection of the Dative with the rest of the sentence is of the very slightest sort; as,—
tá mihi iustus audaciam défendis? tell me, do you defend that man's audacity?
quid mihi Cælum agit? what is my Cælum doing?
quid sibi vult? what does he mean? (lit. wish for himself?)
Syntax.

c) Dative of Person Judging; as,—

crīt ille mihi semper deus, he will always be a god to me
(i.e. in my opinion);

quae ista servitūs tam clārō homini, how can that be
slavery to so illustrious a man (i.e. to his mind)?

} d) Dative of Separation. Some verbs of taking away,
especially compounds of ab, dē, ex, ad, govern a Dative of
the person, less often of the thing; as,—

honōrem dētrāxérunt homini, they took away the honor
from the man;

Caesar rēgī tetrarchiam dēripuit, Caesar took the tetrarchy
away from the king;

sīlico scintillam excūdit, he struck a spark from the flint.

Dative of Agency.

189. The Dative is used to denote agency—

1. Regularly with the Gerundive; as,—

haec nōbīs agenda sunt, these things must be done by us;

mihi eundum est, I must go (lit. it must be gone by me).

a. To avoid ambiguity, & with the Ablative is sometimes used with the
Gerundive; as,—

hostībus ā nōbīs parēndum est, the enemy must be spared by us.

2. Much less frequently with the compound tenses of the passive
voice and the perfect passive participle; as,—

disputātiō quae mihi nūper habita est, the discussion which was
recently conducted by me.

3. Rarely with the uncompounded tenses of the passive; as,—

honesta bonīs vitis quaeruntur, noble ends are sought by good men.

Dative of Possession.

190. The Dative of Possession occurs with the verb esse
in such expressions as:—

mihi est liber, I have a book;

mihi nōmen est Mārcus, I have the name Marcus.

1. But with nōmen est the name is more commonly attracted into
the Dative; as, mihi Mārcō nōmen est.
The Dative.

Dative of Purpose or Tendency.

191. The Dative of Purpose or Tendency designates the end toward which an action is directed or the direction in which it tends. It is used —

1. Unaccompanied by another Dative; as, —
castris locum diligere, to choose a place for a camp;
legionibus praesidio relinquere, to leave the legions as a guard (lit. for a guard);
receptu canere, to sound the signal for a retreat.

Much more frequently in connection with another Dative of the person: —

a) Especially with some form of esse; as, —
fortuna tuae mihi curae sunt, your fortunes are a care to me (lit. for a care);
nobis sunt odiis, they are an object of hatred to us;
cui bono? to whom is it of advantage?

b) With other verbs; as, —
hōs tibi munera missit, he has sent these to you for a present;
Pausanias Atticae vēnit auxiliō, Pausanias came to the aid of the Athenians (lit. to the Athenians for aid).

3. In connection with the Gerundive; as, —
decemviri lēgibus sortibus, decemvirs for codifying the laws;
mā gerendō bellō ducem creāvēre, me they have made leader for carrying on the war.

Note. — This construction with the gerundive is not common till Livy.

Dative with Adjectives.

192. The use of the Dative with Adjectives corresponds very closely to its use with verbs. Thus: —

1. Corresponding to the Dative of Indirect Object it occurs with adjectives signifying: friendly, unfriendly, similar, dissimilar, equal, near, related to, etc.; as, —
mīhi inimicus, hostile to me;
sunt proximis Germanis, they are next to the Germans;
noxiæ poena par estō, let the penalty be equal to the damage.
a. For propior and proximus with the Accusative, see § 141, 1.

2. Corresponding to the Dative of Purpose, the Dative occurs with adjectives signifying: suitable, adapted, fit; as, —
   castra idoneus locus, a place fit for a camp;
   apta dies sacrificii, a day suitable for a sacrifice.

Note. — Adjectives of this last class often take the Accusative with ad.

**Dative of Direction.**

193. In the poets the Dative is occasionally used to denote the direction of motion; as, —
   it cliamor caelum, the shout goes heavenward;
   cineris fluat fluens jace, cast the ashes toward the flowing stream.

1. By an extension of this construction the poets sometimes use the Dative to denote the limit of motion; as, —
   dum Latii dea Infern, till he should bring his gods to Latium.

**THE GENITIVE.**

194. The Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

**GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.**

195. With Nouns the Genitive is the case which defines the meaning of the limited noun more closely. This relation is generally indicated in English by the preposition of. There are the following varieties of the Genitive with Nouns: —

Genitive of Origin,     Objective Genitive,
Genitive of Material,  Genitive of the Whole,
Genitive of Possession, Appositional Genitive,
Subjective Genitive,   Genitive of Quality.

196. Genitive of Origin; as, —
   Marci filius, the son of Marcus.

197. Genitive of Material; as, —
   talentum aurem, a talent of gold;
   acervus frumenti, a pile of grain.
198. Genitive of Possession or Ownership; as,—

*domus Cicerōnis, Cicerō’s house.*

1. Here belongs the Genitive with *causā* and *grātiā.* The Genitive always precedes; as,—

hominum causā, for the sake of men;
meōrum amicōrum grātiā, for the sake of my friends.

2. *Instar* (lit. image) also takes the Possessive Genitive; as,—
equis instar monēs, a horse as large as a mountain.

3. The Possessive Genitive is often used predicatively, especially with *esse* and *sēri;* as,—
domus est rāgis, the house is the king’s;
stultī est in errorēs manēre, it is (the part) of a fool to remain in error;
dē bellō ĵūdicium imperātoris est, nōn mīlitum, the decision concerning war belongs to the general, not to the soldiers.

199. Subjective Genitive. This denotes the person who makes or produces something or who has a feeling; as,—
dicta Platōnis, the utterances of Plato;
timōrēs libērōrum, the fears of the children.

200. Objective Genitive. This denotes the object of an action or feeling; as,—

metus deōrum, the fear of the gods;
amor libertātēs, love of liberty;
cōnsuétūdōn bonōrum hominum, intercourse with good men.

1. This relation is often expressed by means of prepositions; as,—
amor ergā parentēs, love toward one’s parents.

201. Genitive of the Whole. This designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used—

1. With Nouns, Pronouns, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Ordinal Numerals; as,—
magna pars hominum, a great part of mankind;
duo mīlia pedītum, two thousand foot-soldiers;
quīs mortāliōn, who of mortals?
major frātrum, the elder of the brothers;
gēna maxima Germānōrum, the largest tribe of the Germans;
primus omnium, the first of all.
Syntax.

a. Yet instead of the Genitive of the Whole we often find ex or dē with the Ablative, regularly so with Cardinal numbers and quidam; as,—

fiddēssimus dē servis, the most trusty of the slaves;
quidam ex amicis, certain of his friends;
finus ex militibus, one of the soldiers.

b. In English we often use of where there is no relation of whole to part. In such cases the Latin is more exact, and does not use the Genitive; as,—

quot vōs satis, how many of you are there?
recenti coniōrāvimus, three hundred of us have conspired (i.e. we, three hundred in number).

2. The Genitive of the Whole is used also with the Nominative or Accusative Singular Neuter of Pronouns, or of Adjectives used substantively; also with the Adverbs parum, satis, and partim when used substantively; as,—

quid dōnsil, what purpose?
tantum cibī, so much food;
plūs auctoritātis, more authority;
minus labōris, less labor;
satis pecūniae, enough money;
parum industriae, too little industry.

a. An Adjective of the second declension used substantively may be employed as a Genitive of the Whole; as, nihil boni, nothing good.

b. But Adjectives of the third declension agree directly with the noun they limit; as, nihil dulcius, nothing sweeter.

3. Occasionally we find the Genitive of the Whole dependent upon Adverbs of place; as,—

ubi terrārum? ubi gentium? where in the world?

a. By an extension of this usage the Genitive sometimes occurs in dependence upon prūdē and postrūdē, but only in the phrases prūdē ejus dīēi, on the day before that; postrūdē ejus dīēi, on the day after that.

202. Appositional Genitive. The Genitive sometimes has the force of an appositive; as,—

nōmen rēgis, the name of king;
poena mortis, the penalty of death;
ars scribendi, the art of writing.

203. Genitive of Quality. The Genitive modified by an Adjective is used to denote quality. This construction presents several varieties. Thus it is used—
1. To denote some internal or permanent characteristic of a person or thing; as,

\textit{vir magnae virtutis, a man of great virtue;}
\textit{ratiorum ejus modi, considerations of that sort.}

\textit{a.} Only a limited number of Adjectives occur in this construction, chiefly
\textit{magnus, maximus, summus, tantus,} along with \textit{ejus.}

2. To denote measure (\textit{breadth, length, etc.}); as, —
\textit{fossa quindecim pedum, a trench fifteen feet wide (or deep);}
\textit{exsilium decem annorum, an exile of ten years.}

3. By omission of \textit{pretio (price)}, or some kindred word, \textit{tantae, quantae, parvae, magnae, minores, minimae, plurimae, maximae} are used predicatively to denote \textit{indefinite value}; as, —
\textit{nubia studia tantae sunt, no studies are of so much value;}
\textit{magnae opera ejus existimatae sunt, his assistance was highly esteemed.}

\textit{a.} \textit{Plures (not strictly an adjective) follows the same analogy.}

4. By an extension of the notion of \textit{value, quantae, tantae, plures,}
and \textit{minores} are also used with verbs of \textit{buying and selling,} to denote
\textit{indefinite price}; as, —
\textit{quantae aestae est mihi, at how high a price did you purchase the house?}

5. Any of the above varieties of the Genitive of Quality may be
used predicatively; as, —
\textit{tantae miles erat Romanam condere gentem, of so great difficulty
was it to found the Roman race.}

\textbf{GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.}

\textbf{204.} The Genitive is used with many Adjectives, \textit{to limit
the extent of their application.} Thus: —

\begin{itemize}
\item With Adjectives signifying \textit{desire, knowledge, familiarity,}
\textit{memory, participation, power, fulness,} and their opposites; as, —
\item \textit{studiosus discendi, desire of learning;}
\item \textit{peritus belli, skilled in war;}
\item \textit{immemor mandati, unmindful of your commission;}
\item \textit{plena periculorum est vita, life is full of dangers.}
\end{itemize}

\textbf{a.} Some participles used adjectively also take the Genitive; as, —
\begin{itemize}
\item \textit{diligens veritatis, fond of truth;}
\item \textit{amans patriae, devoted to one's country.}
\end{itemize}
2. Sometimes with proprius and communis; as,—

vir proprius est fortitudo, bravery is characteristic of a man.
memoria est communis omnium artium, memory is common to all
professions.
   a. proprius and communis are also construed with the Dative.

3. With similis the Genitive is the commoner construction in Cicero,
when the reference is to living objects; as,—

filius patris similimus est, the son is exactly like his father.
mei similis, like me; vestri similis, like you.

When the reference is to things, both Genitive and Dative occur; as,—
mors somnii (or somni) similis est, death is like sleep.

4. In the poets and later prose writers the use of the Genitive with Adjectives
is extended far beyond earlier limits; as, atrox animi, fierce of temper; incertus
consilii, undecided in purpose.

GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

205. The Genitive is used with the following classes of
Verbs: —

Memini, Reminiisco, Oblivisco.

206. 1. When referring to Persons—
   a. memini always takes the Genitive of personal or reflexive
pronouns; as,—

   mei memineras, remember me!
   nostri meminit, he remembers us.

   With other words denoting persons memini takes the Accusative,
rarely the Genitive; as,—

   Sullam memini, I recall Sulla.
   vivorum memini, I remember the living.

   b. oblivisco regularly takes the Genitive; as,—

   Epicurus non licet oblivisci, we mustn't forget Epicurus.

2. When referring to Things. memini, reminisco, oblivisco
take sometimes the Genitive, sometimes the Accusative, without
difference of meaning; as,—

   animus praetertorum meminit, the mind remembers the past;
   reministhine nomina, do you remember the names?
   reminisco veteras incommodi, remember the former disaster;
   reminiscens acerbitatem, remembering the severity.
The Genitive.

207. These verbs, in addition to an Accusative of the person, occasionally take a Genitive of the thing; as,—

tē admirō amicitiae nostrae, I remind you of our friendship.

a. But more frequently (in Cicero almost invariably) these verbs take dē with the Ablative; as,—

dē pecūnia mē admirō, you remind me of the money.

A. A neuter pronoun or adjective used substantively regularly stands in the Accusative (178, n. 4); as,—
tē hōc admirō, I give you this warning.

Verbs of Judicial Action.

208. 1. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting take the Genitive of the charge; as,—

mē furtī accusat, he accuses me of theft;
Verrem avaritiae coarguit, he convicts Verres of avarice;
impietātis absolvēt, he was acquitted of blasphemy.

2. Verbs of Condemning take —

a. The Genitive of the charge; as,—

pectūniae publicae damnātus, condemned (on the charge) of embezzlement (lit. public money);
capitis damnātus, condemned on a capital charge (lit. on a charge involving his head).

b. The Ablative of the penalty; as,—
capte damnātus est, he was condemned to death;
mīliōnum damnātus est, he was condemned (to pay)
a thousand sesterces (lit. by a thousand sesterces, Abl. of Means).
3. Note the phrases:

vōtī damnātus, vōtī reus, having attained one's prayer (lit. condemned on the 
score of one's vow);
dē vi, (accused, convicted, etc.) of assault;
tetē rōbō, (accused, convicted, etc.) of murder.

Genitive with Impersonal Verbs.

209. 1. The Impersonals pudet, paenitet, miseret, taedet,
piget take the Accusative of the person affected, along with the 
Genitive of the person or thing toward whom the feeling 
is directed; as, —

pudet mē tui, I am ashamed of you (lit. it shames me of you);

paenitet mē hōjus factī, I repent of this act;

sum taedet vītæ, he is weary of life;

pauperum tē miseret, you pity the poor.

a. Instead of the Genitive of the thing we often find an Infinitive or Neuter 
Pronoun used as subject of the verb. Thus: —

mē paenitet hōc fācisse, I repent of having done this;

mē hōc pudet, I am ashamed of this.

2. Misereor and miserescō also govern the Genitive; as, —

miserēmini sociōrum, pity the allies.

Interest, Rēfert.

210. With interest, it concerns, three points enter into 
consideration; viz. —

a) the person concerned;

b) the thing about which he is concerned;

c) the extent of his concern.

211. 1. The person concerned is regularly denoted by the 
Genitive; as, —

patris interest, it concerns the father.

a. But instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, meā,
tui, etc., the Latin uses the Ablative Singular Feminine of 
the Possessive, viz.: meā, tuā, etc.; as, —

meā interest, it concerns me.
2. The thing about which a person is concerned is denoted —

a) by a Neuter Pronoun as subject; as,—

hoc ref publiche interest, this concerns the state.

b) by an Infinitive; as,—

omnium interest valère, it concerns all to keep well.

c) by an Indirect Question; as,—

meā interest quandō veniās, I am concerned as to when you are coming.

3. The degree of concern is denoted —

a) by the Genitive (of Quality): magnī, parvi, etc.; as,—

meā magnī interest, it concerns me greatly.

b) by the Adverbs, magnopere, magis, maximē, etc.; as,—

ofvium minimē interest, it concerns the citizens very little.

c) by the Neuters, multum, plūs, minus, etc.; as,—

multum vestrā interest, it concerns you much.

4. Rēfert follows interest in its construction, except that it rarely takes the Genitive of the person. Thus:—

meā rēfert, it concerns me;

but rarely illius rēfert, it concerns him.

Genitive with Other Verbs.

212. 1. Verbs of Plenty and Want sometimes govern the Genitive; as,—

pecūniāe indigēs, you need money.

a. These verbs more commonly take the Ablative (§ 214, 1);

indigēs is the only verb which has a preference for the Genitive.

2. Potior, though usually followed by the Ablative, sometimes takes the Genitive, almost always so in Sallust; and regularly in the phrase:

potiōn rōrum, to get control of affairs.

3. In poetry some verbs take the Genitive in imitation of the Greek; as,—

dōsē quērellārum, cease your complaints;
operum solūti, freed from their tasks.
THE ABLATIVE.

213. The Latin Ablative unites in itself three cases which were originally distinct both in form and in meaning; viz. —

The Ablative or from-case.
The Instrumental or with-case.
The Locative or where-case.

The uses of the Latin Ablative accordingly fall into Genuine Ablative uses, Instrumental uses, and Locative uses.

GENUINE ABLATIVE USES.

Ablative of Separation.

214. The Ablative of Separation is construed sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition.

1. The following words regularly take the Ablative without a preposition: —

   a) The Verbs of freeing: liberō, solvō, levō;
   b) The Verbs of depriving: privō, spoliō, exuō, fraudō, nūdō;
   c) The Verbs of lacking: egeō, careō, vacō;
   d) The corresponding Adjectives, libēr, inānis, vacuus, nūdus, and some others of similar meaning.

Thus:

cūris liberātus, freed from cares;
 Caesar hostēs armās exulīt, Caesar stripped the enemy of their arms;
carete sēnād commūnit, he lacks common sense;
auxilīō egēt, he needs help;
bonōrum vita vacuā est metē, the life of the good is free from fear.

Note 1. — Yet Adjectives and liberō may take the preposition ab, — regularly so with the Ablative of persons; —

   urbem f tyrannō liberaunt, they freed the city from the tyrant.

Note 2. — Indigō usually takes the Genitive. See § 212, 1, a.
2. Of Verbs signifying to keep from, to remove, to withdraw, some take the preposition, others omit it. The same Verb often admits both constructions. Examples: —
abstinēre cibō, to abstain from food;
hostēs finibus prohibuit, they kept the enemy from their borders;
praeōnēs ab Insula prohibuit, he kept the pirates from the island.

3. Other Verbs of separation usually take the Ablative with a Preposition, particularly compounds of dis- and sē:- as,—
dissentiō a tē, I dissent from you;
sēcernantur ab nōsēs, let them be separated from us.

4. The Preposition is freely omitted in poetry.

Ablative of Source.

215. The Ablative of Source is used with the participles nātus and ortus (in poetry also with ōditus, satus, and some others), to designate parentage or station; as,—

Jove nātus, son of Jupiter;
summō locō nātus, high-born (lit. born from a very high place);
nōbīlīs genōre ortus, born of a noble family.

1. Pronouns regularly (nouns rarely) take ex; as,
ex me nātus, sprung from me.

2. To denote remoter descent, ortus ab, or oriundus (with or without ab), is used; as,—
ab Ulixē oriundus, descended from Ulysses.

Ablative of Agent.

216. The Ablative accompanied by a (ab) is used with passive verbs to denote the personal agent; as,—
a Caesare accūsātus est, he was arraigned by Caesar.

1. Collective nouns referring to persons, and abstract nouns when personified, may be construed as the personal agent. Thus: —
hostēs a fortūnā dēserēbantur, the enemy were deserted by Fortune;
a multīdīnae hostūm mōntēs tenēbantur, the mountains were held by a multitude of the enemy.

2. Names of animals sometimes admit the same construction. Thus: —
a canībus lānātus est, he was torn to pieces by dogs.
Ablative of Comparison.

217. 1. The Ablative is often used with Comparatives in the sense of *than*; as,—

*melle dulcor, sweeter than honey;*
*patria mihi vitæ cælor est, my country is dearer to me than life.*

2. This construction, as a rule, occurs only as a substitute for *quam* (*than*) with the Nominative or Accusative. In other cases *quam* must be used; as,—

*tui studiōsior sum quam illius, I am fonder of you than of him.*

*Studīōsior illō would have meant, I am fonder of you than he is.*

3. *Plús, minus, amplius, longius* are often employed as the equivalents of *plús quam, minus quam, etc.* Thus: —

*amplius vigintī urbēs incenduntur, more than twenty cities are fired;*

*minus quīque mīlia prōcessit, he advanced less than five miles.*

4. Note the use of *opiniōne* with Comparatives; as,—

*opiniōne celerius venit, he comes more quickly than expected (lit. than opinion).*

INSTRUMENTAL USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Means.

218. The Ablative is used to denote *means* or *instrument;* as,—

*Alexander sagittā vulnerātus est, Alexander was wounded by an arrow.*

There are the following special varieties of this Ablative: —

1. *Utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor,* and their compounds take the Ablative; as,—

*dīvītis ìsūtur, he uses his wealth (lit. he benefits himself by his wealth);*

*vitā fruitur, he enjoys life (lit. he enjoys himself by life);*

*mūnere fungor, I perform my duty (lit. I busy myself with duty);*

*carne vescuntur, they eat flesh (lit. feed themselves by means of).*

*urbe potitus est, he got possession of the city (lit. made himself powerful by the city).*

*a. Potior sometimes governs the Genitive. See § 216, a.*
2. *With opus *est (rarely *ausus est*), *there is need*; as,—
   
   *duce nobis opus est, we need a leader.*

   a. *A Neuter Pronoun or Adjective often stands as subject with opus as predicate. Thus:* —
   
   *hóc mihi opus est, this is necessary for me.*

   b. *An ordinary substantive rarely stands as subject. Thus dux nobis opus *est is a rare form of expression.*

   c. *Note the occasional use of a perfect passive participle with opus est; as,—*
   
   *opus est properatō, there is need of haste.*

3. *With nitor, innoxus, and frētus; as,—*

   *nītitur hastā, he rests on a spear (lit. supports himself by a spear);*
   
   *frētus virtūte, relying on virtue (lit. supported by virtue).*

4. *With continērī, consistere, consistēre, consist of; as,—*

   *nervīs et ossibus continentur, they consist of sinews and bones (lit. they are held together by sinews and bones);*
   
   *mortālis consistēt corpore mundus, the world consists of mortal substance (lit. holds together by means of, etc.).*

5. *In expressions of the following type:—*

   *quid hóc homine facīt, what can you do with this man?*
   
   *quid mea Tulliolae fīt, what will become of my dear Tullia? (lit. what will be done with my dear Tullia?)*

6. *In the following special phrases at variance with the ordinary English idiom:—*

   *proelio contendere, vincere, to contend, conquer in battle;*
   
   *proelio laccēserēre, to provoke to battle;*
   
   *currū vehī, to ride in a chariot;*
   
   *pedibus ire, to go on foot;*
   
   *castrīs sē tenēre, to keep in camp.*

7. *With Verbs of *fīlling* and Adjectives of *plenty*; as,—*

   *fossās virgūlns complērunt, they filled the trenches with brush.*

   a. *But plēnum more commonly takes the Genitive. See § 304. 1.*

8. *Under ‘Means’ belongs also the Ablative of the Way by which; as,—*

   *vinum Tiberī dāveotum, wine brought down (by) the Tiber.*
The means may be a person as well as a thing. Thus:

militibus & locō Lemanno ad montem Jūram mūrum perdēcit, ut
(i.e., by means of) his troops he runs a wall from Lake Geneva to Mt. Jura.

Ablative of Cause.

219. The Ablative is used to denote cause; as,

multa gloriae cupiditāte fecit, he did many things on account of his love of glory.

1. So especially with verbs denoting mental states; as, dēlectōr, gaudeō, laeto, glōriō, fidē, confiō. Also with contentus;
as, —

fortūna amīcis gaudeō, I rejoice at the fortune of my friends (i.e., on account of it);
victoria sua gloriābant, they exult over their victory;
nātūra locō confidēbant, they trusted in the character of their country
(lit. were confident on account of the character).

a. fidē and confidē always take the Dative of the person (§ 187, II, a);
sometimes the Dative of the thing.

2. As Ablatives of Cause are to be reckoned also such Ablatives as usū, by order of, in usu, without the order, rogē, etc.

Ablative of Manner.

220. The Ablative with usū is used to denote manner;
as, —

usū gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with dignity.

1. The preposition may be omitted when the Ablative is modified by an adjective; as, —
magnā gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with great dignity.

2. The preposition is regularly omitted in the expressions jūre, injūriā, joco, vi, fraude, voluntāte, fortū, silentiō.

3. A special variety of the Ablative of Manner denotes that in accordance with which or in pursuance of which anything is or is done. It is generally used without a preposition. Thus:

meā sententia, according to my opinion;
sua mōribus, in accordance with their custom;
sua sponte, voluntarily, of his (their) own accord;
eī consociōne, on these terms.
The Ablative.

Ablative of Attendant Circumstance.

221. The Ablative is often used to denote an attendant circumstance of an action or an event; as,—
bonis auspiciis, under good auspices;
nulla est altera clãmôribus, umquam habita majôribus, no debate was ever held under circumstances of greater applause;
exstinguitur ingenti luctâ provinciae, he dies under circumstances of great grief on the part of the province;
longî intervallî sequitur, he follows at a great distance.

Ablative of Accompaniment.

222. The Ablative with cum is used with verbs of motion to denote accompaniment; as,—
cum omissibus praefectus est, he set out with his attendants;
cum febru domum redit, he returned home with a fever.
1. In military expressions the Ablative may stand without cum when modified by any adjective except a numeral; as,—
omnibus cópïis, ingenti exercitû, magna manû; but usually omn exercitû, cum duabus legiôribus.

Ablative of Association.

222 A. The Ablative is often used with verbs of joining, mixing, clinging, exchanging; also with assûscî, cûnsûscî, assûcâsci, and some others to denote association; as,—
improbítas sociâs jûnctâs, badness joined with crime;
aár calôrë admixtus, air mixed with heat;
assûscîus labôrûs, accustomed to (lit. familiarised with) toil;
pácem bellô permítànt, they change peace for (lit. with) war.

Ablative of Degree of Difference.

223. The Ablative is used with comparatives and words involving comparison (as post, ante, infrà, suprà) to denote the degree of difference; as,—
dûmidî minor, smaller by a half;
dûmidî tribûs pedûs altîor, three feet higher;
paulî post, a little afterwards;
quô plûra habémus, òs cupimus amplîora, the more we have, the more we want.
Ablative of Quality.

224. The Ablative, modified by an adjective, is used to denote quality; as,—

puella eximīō fūrmā, a girl of exceptional beauty;

vir singulārī industriā, a man of singular industry.

1. The Ablative of Quality may also be used predicatively; as,—
est māgnī prūdentīā, he is (a man) of great wisdom;
bōnō animō sunt, they are of good courage.

2. In place of the Adjective we sometimes find a limiting Genitive; as,—
sunt speciā et colōre taurī, they are of the appearance and color of a bull.

3. In poetry the Ablative of Quality sometimes denotes material; as,—

acopolis pendūlūbus antrum, a cave of arching rocks.

Ablative of Price.

225. With verbs of buying and selling, price is designated by the Ablative; as,—

servum quīnque minūs sēmit, he bought the slave for five minae.

1. The Ablatives māgnī, plūrimī, parvō, minimō (by omission of pretios) are used to denote indefinite price; as,—
aedēs māgnō vendidit, he sold the house for a high price.

2. For the Genitive of Indefinite Price, see § 203. 4.

Ablative of Specification.

226. The Ablative of Specification is used to denote that in respect to which something is or is done; as,—

Hēlviītī omnibus Gallīs vīrtūte praestābant, the Helvetians surpassed all the Gauls in valor;
pede claudus, lame in his foot.

1. Note the phrases:—

major nātū, older (lit. greater as to age);

minor nātū, younger.

2. Here belongs the use of the Ablative with dignus, worthy,

indignus, unworthy, and dignor, deem worthy of; as,—
dignī honōre, worthy of honor (i.e. in point of honor);
fīdē indignī, unworthy of confidence.

mē dignor honōre, I deem myself worthy of honor.
Ablative Absolute.

227. The Ablative Absolute is grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. In its commonest form it consists of a noun or pronoun limited by a participle; as,—

urbe captâ, Aeneas fugit, when the city had been captured, Aeneas fled (lit. the city having been captured).

1. Instead of a participle we often find an adjective or noun; as,—

vivo Caesare re pública salva erat, while Caesar was alive the state was safe (lit. Caesar being alive);

Tarquinô rège, Pythagorâs in Italian vînit, in the reign of Tarquin Pythagoras came into Italy (lit. Tarquin being king).


2. The Ablative Absolute is generally used in Latin where in English we employ subordinate clauses. Thus the Ablative Absolute may correspond to a clause denoting —

a) Time, as in the foregoing examples.

b) Condition; as,—

omnia virtûtes jacent, voluptûte domînante, all virtues lie prostrate, if pleasure is master.

c) Opposition; as,—

perditâ omnibus rûbus, virtûs sê sustentâre potest, though everything else is lost, yet Virtue can maintain herself.

d) Cause; as,—

nullî advertere régnum obtinuit, since no one opposed him, he secured the throne.

e) Attendant circumstance; as,—

passûs palmis pœcém petivérunt, with hands outstretched they sued for peace.

3. An Infinitive or clause sometimes occurs in the Ablative Absolute construction, especially in Livy and later writers; as,—

auditó eum fügisse, when it was heard that he had fled.

4. A noun or pronoun stands in the Ablative Absolute construction only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the clause in which it stands. Exceptions to this principle are extremely rare.
LOCATIVE USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Place.

A. Place where.

228. The place where is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as, —

in urbe habitat, he dwells in the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz., —

a) Names of towns,—except Singulars of the First and Second Declensions (see § 232. 1); as, —

Carthāginis, at Carthage;
Athēnis, at Athens;
Veji, at Veii.

b) The general words locō, locâs, parte, also many words modified by tōtus or even by other Adjectives; as, —

hōc locō, at this place;
tōtis castrīs, in the whole camp.

c) The special words: foris, out of doors; rūrī, in the country;
terrā marīque, on land and sea.

d) The poets freely omit the preposition with any word denoting place; as, —

stant litorā puppēs, the sterns rest on the beach.

B. Place from which.¹

229. Place from which is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as, —

ab Italā profectus est, he set out from Italy;
ex urbe redit, he returned from the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz., —

a) Names of towns and small islands; as, —

Rōmā profectus est, he set out from Rome;
Rhodō revertit, he returned from Rhodes.

¹ Place from which, though strictly a Genuine Ablative use, is treated here for sake of convenience.
6) domō, from home; rūre, from the country.

7) Freely in poetry; as, —
   Italīā déscessit, he withdrew from Italy.

2. With names of towns, ab is used to mean from the vicinity of, or to denote the point whence distance is measured; as, —
   Æ Gergoviā déscessit, he withdrew from the vicinity of Gergovia.
   A Rōmā X mīlia aberat, he was ten miles distant from Rome.

Urbe and oppidō, when standing in apposition with a town name, are accompanied by a preposition; as, —
Curibus ex oppidō Sābīnōrum, from Cures, a town of the Sabines.

Ablative of Time.

A. Time at which.

230. The Ablative is used to denote the time at which; as, —
   quārtā hōrā mortuus est, he died at the fourth hour;
   annō septuāgésimo oōnōl creātus, elected consul in his seventieth year.

1. Any word denoting a period of time may stand in this construction, particularly annus, vēr, aestās, hiemē, dīēs, nox, hōrā, comitia (Election Day), ludi (the Games), etc.

2. Words not denoting time require the preposition in, unless accompanied by a modifier. Thus: —
   in pāce, in peace;
   in bello, in war;
   but secundō belliō Pānīcō, in the second Punic War.

3. Expressions like in eō tempore, in summā senectūte, take the preposition because they denote situation rather than time.

B. Time within which.

231. Time within which is denoted by the Ablative either with or without a preposition; as, —
   stellā Sāturnī trīgintā annōs oursum comōlīt, the planet Saturn completes its orbit within thirty years;
   ter in annō, thrice in the course of the year.

1. Occasionally the Ablative denotes duration of time; as, —
   biennō prōspērās rōs habuīt, for two years he had a prosperous administration.
Syntax.

THE LOCATIVE.

232. The Locative case occurs chiefly in the following words:—

1. Regularly in the Singular of names of towns and small islands of the first and second declensions, to denote the place in which; as,—
   Rōmae, at Rome;  Corinthī, at Corinth;
   Rhodī, at Rhodes.

2. In the following special forms:—
   domī, at home;  humī, on the ground;
   bellī, in war;  militiae, in war;
   vesperī, at evening;  herī, yesterday.

3. Note the phrase pendēre animī, lit. to be in suspense in one’s mind.

4. For urbs and oppidum in apposition with a Locative, see § 169. 4.

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CHAPTER III. — Syntax of Adjectives.

233. 1. The word with which an Adjective agrees is called its Subject.

2. Attributive and Predicate Adjectives. An Attributive Adjective is one that limits its subject directly; as,—
   vir sapīens, a wise man.

A Predicate Adjective is one that limits its subject through the medium of a verb (usually esse); as,—

vir est sapīens, the man is wise;
vir vidēbatur sapīens, the man seemed wise;
vir jūdicātus est sapīens, the man was judged wise;
huno virum sapientem jūdicāvimus, we adjudged this man wise.

3. Participles and Adjective Pronouns have the construction of Adjectives.
AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

234. Agreement with One Noun. When an Adjective limits one noun it agrees with it in Gender, Number, and Case.

1. Two Adjectives in the Singular may limit a noun in the Plural; as, prima et vicĕsima legiōnĕs, the first and twentieth legions.
2. A Predicate Adjective may stand in the Neuter when its Subject is Masculine or Feminine and denotes a thing; as,—
   mors est miserum, death is a wretched thing.

235. Agreement with Two or More Nouns.

A. AGREEMENT AS TO NUMBER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in number with the nearest noun; as,—
   pater tuus et māter, your father and mother;
   eadem alacritās et studium, the same eagerness and zeal.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative, it is regularly Plural; as,—
   pāx et concordia sunt pulchrae, peace and concord are glorious.

B. AGREEMENT AS TO GENDER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in gender with the nearest noun; as,—
   rēs operae multae so labōria, a matter of much effort and labor.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative —
   a) If the nouns are of the same gender, the Adjective agrees with them in gender; as,—
      pater et filius captī sunt, father and son were captured.
      Yet with feminine abstract nouns, the Adjective is more frequently Neuter; as,—
      stultitia et timiditās fugienda sunt, folly and cowardice must be shunned.
b) If the nouns are of different gender; then,—

a) In case they denote persons, the Adjective is Masculine; as,—

pater et mater mortui sunt, the father and mother have died.

β) In case they denote things, the Adjective is Neuter; as,—

bonōres et victoriae fortuita sunt, honors and victories are accidental.

γ) In case they include both persons and things, the Adjective is,—

αα) Sometimes Masculine; as,—

domus, uxor, liber inventi sunt, home, wife, and children are secured.

ββ) Sometimes Neuter; as,—

parentēs, liberōs, domōs villa habēre, to hold parents, children, houses, cheap.

γγ) Sometimes it agrees with the nearest noun; as,—

populi provinciae liberatae sunt, nations and provinces were liberated.

c) Construction according to Sense. Sometimes an Adjective does not agree with a noun according to strict grammatical form, but according to sense; as,—

pars béstiās objecti sunt, part (of the men) were thrown to beasts.

ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY.

236. i. Plural Adjectives used Substantively. Adjectives are quite freely used as Substantives in the Plural. The Masculine denotes persons; the Neuter denotes things; as,—

doctor, scholars;    parva, small things;
malī, the wicked;    magna, great things;
Graeci, the Greeks;   útilia, useful things;
nostri, our men.
Adjectives used Substantively.

2. Neuter Plural Adjectives thus used are confined mainly to the Nominative and Accusative cases. Such forms as magnorum, omnium; magnis, omnibus, would ordinarily lead to ambiguity; yet where there is no ambiguity, they sometimes occur; as, —

parva conspēnere magnis, to compare small things with great.

Otherwise the Latin says: magnarum rērum, magnis rēbus, etc.

237. Singular Adjectives used Substantively. Adjectives are less freely used as Substantives in the Singular than in the Plural.

1. Masculine Adjectives occur only occasionally in this use; as, —

probus invidet nēmini, the honest man envies nobody.

a. Usually vir, homō, or some similar word is employed; as, —

homō doctus, a scholar;

vir Romānus, a Roman.

b. But when limited by a pronoun any adjective may be so used; as, —

hīo doctus, this scholar;

doctus quīdam, a certain scholar.

2. Neuters are likewise infrequent; as, —

vērum, truth;

justum, justice;

honestum, virtue.

a. This substantive use of Neuter Singulars is commonest in the construction of the Genitive of the Whole, and after Prepositions; as, —

alliquid vēri, something true;

nihil novi, nothing new;

in mediō, in the midst.

238. From Adjectives which, like the above, occasionally admit the substantive use, must be carefully distinguished certain others which have become nouns; as, —

adversarius, opponent;

aequālis, contemporary;

amicus, friend;

cognātus, kinsman;

vicius, neighbor; etc.
ADJECTIVES WITH THE FORCE OF ADVERBS.

239. The Latin often uses an Adjective where the English idiom employs an Adverb or an adverbial phrase; as,—

senātus frequēns convēnit, the senate assembled in great numbers;
fuit assiduus mēcum, he was constantly with me.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

240. 1. The Comparative often corresponds to the English Positive with 'rather,' 'somewhat,' 'too'; as,—

senectūs est loquācior, old age is rather talkative.

2. So the Superlative often corresponds to the Positive with 'very'; as,—

vir fortissimus, a very brave man.

3. Strengthening Words. Vel and quam are often used with the Superlative as strengthening particles, vel with the force of 'very,' and quam with the force of 'as possible'; as,—

vel maximus, the very greatest;
quam maximae cōpiāe, as great forces as possible.

4. Phrases of the type 'more rich than brave' regularly take the Comparative in both members; as,—

exercītus erat dītior quam fortior, the army was more rich than brave.

OTHER PECULIARITIES.

241. 1. Certain Adjectives may be used to denote a part of an object, chiefly prīmus, extrēmus, summus, mediūs, īnīmus, fīmus; as,—

summus mōns, the top of the mountain;
extrēmā biēna, in the last part of the winter.

2. Prior, prīmus, ultimus, and postrēmus are frequently equivalent to a relative clause; as,—

prīmus eam vīdī, I was the first who saw her;
ultimus dēcessit, he was the last who withdrew.

3. When multus and another adjective both limit the same noun, et is generally used; as,—

multae et magnae cōgitātīōnēs, many (and) great thoughts.
Chapter IV. — Syntax of Pronouns.

Personal Pronouns.

242. 1. The Personal Pronouns as subjects of verbs are, as a rule, not expressed except for the purpose of emphasis, contrast, or clearness. Thus ordinarily: —

videō, I see; amat, he loves.

But ego tē videō, et tū mē videō, I see you, and you see me.

2. The Genitives meī, tuī, nostrī, vestrī are used only as Objective Genitives; nostrum and vestrum as Genitives of the Whole. Thus: —

memor tuī, mindful of you;

desiderium vestrī, longing for you;

nēmō vestrum, no one of you.

a. But nostrum and vestrum are regularly used in place of the Possessive in the phrases omnium nostrum, omnium vestrum.

3. The First Plural is often used for the First Singular of Pronouns and Verbs. Compare the Eng. editorial 'we.'

4. When two Verbs govern the same object, the Latin does not use a pronoun with the second, as is the rule in English. Thus: —

virtūs amicītiās conciliat et cōnservat, virtue establishes friendships and maintains them (not eōs cōnservat).

Possessive Pronouns.

243. 1. The Possessive Pronouns, as a rule, are not employed except for the purpose of clearness. Thus: —

patrem amō, I love my father;

dē filiī morte fēbās, you wept for the death of your son.

But —

dē morte filiī meī fēbās, you wept for the death of my son.

a. When expressed merely for the sake of clearness, the possessive usually stands after its noun; but in order to indicate emphasis or contrast, it precedes; as, —

sūl mand liberōs occidit, with his own hand he slew his children;

meā quidem sententia, in my opinion at least.
2. Sometimes the Possessive Pronouns are used with the force of an Objective Genitive; as,—
    metus vester, fear of you;
    désiderium tuum, longing for you.

3. For special emphasis, the Latin employs ipsius or ipsōrum, in apposition with the Genitive idea implied in the Possessive; as,—
    meā ipsius operā, by my own help;
    nostrā ipsōrum operā, by our own help;

u. So sometimes other Genitives; as,—
    meā ūnus operā, by the assistance of me alone.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

244. 1. The Reflexive Pronoun sé and the Possessive Reflexive suus have a double use:—

I. They may refer to the subject of the clause (either principal or subordinate) in which they stand, as ‘Direct Reflexives’; as,—
    sé amant, they love themselves;
    suos amicos adjuvat, he helps his own friends;
    cum órāvi, ut sé servāret, I besought him to save himself.

II. They may stand in a subordinate clause and refer to the subject of the principal clause, as ‘Indirect Reflexives’; as,—
    mé órāvit ut sé défonderem, he besought me to defend him (lit. that I defend himself);
    mé órāvērunt, ut fortūnārum suārum défensiónem susciperem, they besought me to undertake the defense of their fortunes.

a. The Indirect Reflexive is mainly restricted to those clauses which express the thought, not of the author, but of the subject of the principal clause.

2. The Genitive suī is regularly employed, like mé and tuī, as an Objective Genitive, e.g. obiītus suī, forgetful of himself; but it occasionally occurs—particularly in post-Augustan writers—in place of the Possessive suus; as, fruītūr fāmā suī, he enjoys his own fame.

3. Sé and suus are sometimes used in the sense, one’s self, one’s own, where the reference is not to any particular person; as,—
    sé amāre, to love one’s self;
    suum geniūm propitiāre, to propitiate one’s own genius.
Reciprocal Pronouns.—Demonstrative Pronouns.

4. Suis sometimes occurs in the meaning his own, their own, etc., referring not to the subject but to an oblique case; as,—
Hannibalem sui olvēs è civitāte ējēcērunt, his own fellow-citizens drove out Hannibal.

a. This usage is particularly frequent in combination with quisque; as,—
suis quemque error vexat, his own error troubles each.

5. The Reflexives for the first and second persons are supplied by the oblique cases of ego and tu (§ 85); as,—
vōs dēfendētis, you defend yourselves.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

245. 1. The Latin has no special reciprocal pronoun (‘each other’), but expresses the reciprocal notion by the phrases: inter nōs, inter vōs, inter sē; as,—
Belgae obsidēs inter sē dedērunt, the Belgae gave each other hostages (lit. among themselves);
amāmus inter nōs, we love each other;
Gallī inter sē cohortātē sunt, the Gauls exhorted each other.

a. Note that the Object is not expressed in sentences of this type.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Hīc, ille, īste.

246. 1. Where hīc and ille are used in contrast, hīc usually refers to the latter of two objects, and ille to the former.

2. Hīc and ille are often used in the sense of ‘the following’; as,—
Themistoclēs hīc verbīs epistulam māsit, Themistocles sent a letter (couched) in the following words;
illaud intellegō, omnium ēra in mē conversā esse, I understand this, that the faces of all are turned toward me.

3. Ille often means the famous; as, Sōlōn ille, the famous Solon.

4. Īste frequently involves contempt; as, īste homē, that fellow!

5. The above pronouns, along with īs, are usually attracted to the gender of a predicate noun; as, hīc ēst honor, meminiāse officium sūnum, this is an honor, to be mindful of one’s duty.
Is.

247. 1. Is often serves as the antecedent of the relative quī.

Thus: —

Maximum, eum quī Tarentum recēpit, dilēxi, I loved Maximus, the
man who received Tarentum.

a. Closely akin to this usage is is in the sense of such (= tālis);
as, —
nōn sum is quī terrērar, I am not such a person as to be
frightened.

b. Note the phrase id quod, where id stands in apposition with
an entire clause; as, —
nōn suspicābātur (id quod nūn sentiēbat) satis multōs
testēs nōbīs reliquōs esse, he did not suspect (a
thing which he will now perceive) that we had wit-
nesses enough left.

Yet quod alone, without preceding id, sometimes occurs in
this use.

2. Is also in all cases serves as the personal pronoun of the third
person, ‘he,’ ‘she,’ ‘it,’ ‘they,’ ‘them.’

3. When the English uses ‘that of,’ ‘those of,’ to avoid repetition of
the noun, the Latin omits the pronoun; as, —
in exercitū Sullae et postea in Crassī fuerat, he had been in the
army of Sulla and afterward in that of Crassus;
nōlīa fābulae dēlectant nisi Plautī, no plays delight me except
those of Plautus.

4. Note the phrases et is, et ea, etc., in the sense: and that too; as, —
vincula, et ea sempiternā, imprisonment, and that too permanently.

Idem.

248. 1. Idem in apposition with the subject or object often has the
force of also, likewise; as, —

quod idem mihi contigit, which likewise happened to me (lit. which,
the same thing);

bonus vi-r, quem sūndem sapientem appellāmus, a good man,
whom we call also wise.

2. For idem atque (ac), the same as, see § 341. 1. c.
Ipse.

249. 1. Ipse, literally self, acquires its special force from the context; as,—
   eō ipso dīē, on that very day;
   ad ipsam ripam, close to the bank;
   ipsō terrōre, by mere fright;
   valvae sē ipsae aperuerunt, the doors opened of their own accord;
   ipse aderat, he was present in person.

2. The reflexive pronouns are often emphasized by the addition of ipse, but ipse in such cases, instead of standing in apposition with the reflexive, more commonly agrees with the subject; as,—
   sēcum ipsi loquentur, they talk with themselves;
   sē ipsē continēre nōn potest, he cannot contain himself.

3. Ipse is also used as an Indirect Reflexive for the purpose of marking a contrast or avoiding an ambiguity; as,—
   Persae pertinuerunt sē Alcibiadēs ab ipseā dēscisceret et cum
   autē in grātiam rediret, the Persians feared that Alcibiades
   would break with them and become reconciled with his countrymen.
   ea molestias ērnā ferē dēbent hominēs quae ipsoārum culpā
   contrācta sunt, men ought to chafe most over those things which have
   been brought about by their own fault (as opposed to the fault of
   others).

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

250. Agreement. 1. The Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person, but its case is determined by its construction in the clause in which it stands; as,—
   mulier quam vidēbāmus, the woman whom we saw;
   bona quibus fruimus, the blessings which we enjoy.

2. Where the antecedent is compound, the same principles for number and gender prevail as in case of predicate adjectives under similar conditions (see § 235. B. 2). Thus:—
   pater et filius, quī captī sunt, the father and son who were captured;
   stultitia et timōritās quae fugiēnda sunt, folly and cowardice which
   must be shunned;
   honōres et victūrīae quae sunt fortuna, honors and victories which
   are accidental.
3. The Relative regularly agrees with a predicate noun (either Nominative or Accusative) instead of its antecedent; as,—
carcer, quae lautomiae vocantur, the prison, which is called Lauto-
mumia;
Celtae, quae est tertia pars, the Celts, who are the third part.

4. Sometimes the Relative takes its gender and number from the meaning of its antecedent; as,—
 pars quī bēstiās objecit sunt, a part (of the men) who were thrown to beasts.

5. Occasionally the Relative is attracted into the case of its ante-
cedent; as,—
 nātus eō patre quō dīxi, born of the father that I said.

251. Antecedent. 1. The antecedent of the Relative is sometimes omitted; as,—
quī nātūram sequitur sapiēns est, he who follows Nature is wise.

2. The antecedent may be implied in a possessive pronoun (or rarely an adjective); as,—
nostra quī remānīmus caedēs, the slaughter of us who remained;
servī tumūltū, quīs āgō ac disciplīna sublevārunt, at the up-
rising of the slaves, whom experience and discipline assisted
(servī — servōrum).

3. Sometimes the antecedent is repeated with the Relative; as,—
erant itinerā duo, quibus itineribus, there were two routes, by which
(routes).

4. Incorporation of Antecedent in Relative Clause. The antecedent is often incorporated in the relative clause. Thus;—

a) When the relative clause stands first; as,—
quam quisque nōvit artem in hāc sē exerceat, let each
one practice the branch which he knows.

b) When the antecedent is an appositive; as,—
nōn longē ā Tōnātium finibus absunt, quae civitās
est in prōvinciā, they are not far from the borders of
the Tolitotes, a state which is in our province.

c) When the logical antecedent is a superlative; as,—
Thémistocles dē servis suis, quem habuit fidēissimum,
maiōs, Thémistocles sent the most trusty slave he had.
In expressions of the following type—
quī est prūdentī; quae tua est prūdentia, such is your prudence (lit. of which prudence you are; which is your prudence).

5. The Relative is never omitted in Latin as it is in English. Thus
the boy I saw must be puēr quem vīdī.

6. The Relative is used freely in Latin, particularly at the beginning of a sentence, where in English we employ a demonstrative; as,—
quō factum est, by this it happened;
quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
quibus rēbus cognītīs, when these things became known.

7. The Relative introducing a subordinate clause may belong grammatically to a clause which is subordinate to the one it introduces; as,—
nunquam dignō satis laudārī philosophia poterit, cui quī pāreat, omne tempus aētātīs sīne molestiā possit dēgere,
philosophy can never be praised enough, since he who obeys her can pass every period of life without annoyance (lit. he who obeys which, etc.).

Here cui introduces the subordinate clause possit and connects it with philosophia; but cui is governed by pāreat, which is subordinate to possit.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

252. 1. Quis, any one, is the weakest of the Indefinites, and stands usually in combination with sī, nisi, nē, num; as,—
sī quis putat, if any one thinks.

2. Aliquīs (adj. aliquī) is more definite than quis, and corresponds usually to the English some one, somebody, some; as,—
nunc aliquīs dīcat mihi, now let somebody tell me;
ūtinam modo aēgūr aliquid, oh that something may be done.

3. Quidam, a certain one, is still more definite than aliquīs; as,—
homō quīdam, a certain man (i.e. one whom I have in mind).

a. Quidam (with or without quasi, as if) is sometimes used in the sense: a sort of, kind of; as,—
quaedam cognitūs, a sort of relationship;
more est quasi quaedam migrātūs, death is a kind of transfer,
4. Quisquam, any one; any one whoever (more general than quis), and its corresponding adjective fillus, any, occur mostly in negative and conditional sentences, in interrogative sentences implying a negative, and in clauses of comparison; as, —

justitia nunquam nocet cuiquam, justice never harms anybody;

si quisquam, Catō sapientius fuit, if anybody was ever wise, Cato was;

votestine quisquam sine perturbatione animi Irasci, can anybody be angry without excitement?

si ãllo modo fieri potest, if it can be done in any way;

taetrior hic tyrannus fuit quam quisquam superiorum, he was a viler tyrant than any of his predecessors.

5. Quisque, each one, is used especially under the following circumstances: —

a) In connection with suus. See § 2:4. 4. a.

b) In connection with a Relative or Interrogative Pronoun; as, —

quod cuique obigit, id teneat, what falls to each, that let him hold.

c) In connection with superlatives; as, —

optimus quisque, all the best (lit. each best one).

d) With ordinal numerals; as, —

quintō quōque annō, every fourth years (lit. each fifth year).

6. Némō, no one. In addition to its other uses, stands regularly with adjectives used substantively; as, —

némō mortālis, no mortal;
némō Rōmānus, no Roman.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

253. 1. Alius, another, and alter, the other, are often used correlative; as, —

alīud loquitur, alīud sentit, he says one thing, he thinks another;
alīf resistunt, alīf fugiunt, some resist, others flee;
alter exercitum perdidit, alter vēndidit, one ruined the army, the other sold it;
alterī sē in montem reōpērunt, alterī ad impedimenta sē contulērunt, the one party retreated to the mountain, the others betook themselves to the baggage.
2. Where the English says *one does one thing, another another*, the Latin uses a more condensed form of statement; as,—

*ailius alius amat*, one likes one thing, another another;

*ailud alius placet*, one thing pleases some, another others.

a. So sometimes with adverbs; as,—

*aili alii fugiunt, some flee in one direction, others in another.*

3. The Latin also expresses the notion ‘each other’ by means of *aliius* repeated; as,—

*Galli aliius aliius cohortassunt, the Gauls encouraged each other.*

4. *Ceteri* means the rest, all the others; as,—

*ceteris praestare, to be superior to all the others.*

5. *Reliqui* means the others in the sense of the rest, those remaining,,—hence is the regular word with numerals; as,—

*reliqui sex, the six others.*

6. *Nescio quis* forms a compound indefinite pronoun with the force of some one or other; as,—

*causidicus nescio quis, some petitifogger or other;*

*minit nescio quem, he sent some one or other;*

*nescio quo pacto, somehow or other.*

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**Chapter V. — Syntax of Verbs.**

**Agreement.**

**With One Subject.**

254. 1. Agreement in Number and Person. A Finite Verb agrees with its subject in Number and Person; as,—

*vōs vidēs, you see;*

*pater filiōs instituit, the father trains his sons.*

2. Agreement in Gender. In the compound forms of the verb the participle regularly agrees with its subject in gender; as,—

*aēditiō repressa est, the mutiny was checked.*
3. But when a predicate noun is of different gender or number from its subject, the verb usually agrees with its nearest substantive; as,—

Tarquiniūs maternā patria erat, *Tarquinius was his native country on his mother's side;*

nōn omnis errore stultitia est dīcenda, *not every error is to be called folly.*

a. Less frequently the verb agrees with an appositive; as,—

Coriōn oppidum Volsciōrum, captum est, *Coriōn, a town of the Volsci, was captured.*

4. Construction according to Sense. Sometimes the verb agrees with its subject according to sense instead of strict grammatical form. Thus:

a) In Number; as,—

multītūdō hominum convēnerant, *a crowd of men had gathered.*

b) In Gender; as,—

duo mīlia crucibā cruciōs aďfixī sunt, *two thousand (men) were crucified.*

With Two or More Subjects.

255. 1. Agreement in Number. With two or more subjects the verb is regularly plural; as,—

pater et filiūs mortuī sunt, *the father and son died.*

2. But sometimes the verb agrees with the nearest subject; *viz.,* —

a) When the verb precedes both subjects or stands between them; as,—

mortuus est pater et filiūs;

pater mortuus est et filiūs.

b) When the subjects are connected by aut; aut . . . aut;

vel . . . vel; neque . . . neque; as,—

neque pater neque filiūs mortuus est, *neither father nor son died.*

3. When the different subjects are felt together as constituting a whole, the singular is used; as,—

temeritās ignōrātīōque vitiōsa est, *rashness and ignorance are bad.*

a. This is regularly the case in senātus populusque Rōmānus.
4. Agreement in Person. With compound subjects of different persons the verb always takes the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; as, —

ai tū et Tullia valētis, ego et Cicerō valēmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.

5. Agreement in Gender. With subjects of different genders the participle in the compound tenses follows the same principles as laid down for predicate adjectives. See § 235, B, 2.

VOICES.

256. 1. The Passive Voice sometimes retains traces of its original middle or reflexive meaning; as,—

ego nōn patiar eum dēfendī, I shall not allow him to defend himself.

2. In imitation of Greek usage many perfect passive participles are used by the poets as indirect middles, i.e. the subject is viewed as acting not upon himself, but as doing something in his own interest; as,—

vēlātus tempora, having veiled his temples.

a. Occasionally finite forms of the verb are thus used; as,—

tunicā inducitur artūs, he covers his limbs with a tunic.

3. Intransitive Verbs may be used impersonally in the passive; as,—

curritur, people run (lit. it is run);
ventum est, he (they, etc.) came (lit. it was come).

TENSES.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE.

257. 1. The Latin tenses express two distinct notions: —

a) The period of time to which the action belongs:
Present, Past, or Future.

b) The kind of action: Undefined, Going on, or Completed.

The Latin with its six tenses is able to express each of the three kinds of action for each of the three periods of time (making practically nine
tenses). It does this by employing certain tenses in more than one way, as may be seen by the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KIND OF ACTION</th>
<th>PERIOD OF TIME</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UNDEFINED</td>
<td>GOING ON</td>
<td>COMPLETED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Historical Perfect: scripsī, I wrote.</td>
<td>Imperfect: scribobam, I was writing.</td>
<td>Pluperfect: scripsāram, I had written.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Future: scribam, I shall write.</td>
<td>Future: scribam, I shall be writing.</td>
<td>Future Perfect: scripsarō, I shall have written.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. It will be seen that the Present may express Undefined action or action Going on; so also the Future. The Perfect likewise has a double use, according as it denotes action Completed in present time (Present Perfect) or Undefined action belonging to past time (Historical Perfect).

**Principal and Historical Tenses.**

258. Tenses which denote Present or Future time are called **Principal** (or Primary) Tenses; those which denote Past time are called **Historical** (or Secondary).

The Principal Tenses of the Indicative are: Present, Future, Present Perfect, Future Perfect.

The Historical Tenses are: Imperfect, Historical Perfect, Pluperfect.

**Present Indicative.**

259. Besides the two uses indicated in the table, the Present Indicative presents the following peculiarities:

1. It is used to denote a general truth, *i.e.* something true not merely in the present but at all times ("Gnomic Present"); as,—

   *vīrtūs conciliat amicitias et cōnservat,* virtue establishes ties of friendship and maintains them (*i.e.* always does so).
2. It is used of an attempted action ('Conative Present'); as,—
\textit{dum vitant vitia, in contraria currunt, while they try to avoid (vitant) vices, they rush into opposite ones.}

3. In lively narration the Present is often used of a past action ('Historical Present'); as,—
\textit{Caesar Haeduis obsidies imperat, Caesar demanded hostages of the Haedui (lit. demands).}

4. In combination with \textit{jam, jam diu, jam pridem}, and similar words, the Present is frequently used of an action originating in the past and continuing in the present; as,—
\textit{jam diu cupio tē vērei, I have long been desiring to visit you (i.e. I desire and have long desired).} .

\textbf{Imperfect Indicative.}

260. 1. The Imperfect primarily denotes action \textit{going on in past time}; as,—
\textit{librum legēbam, I was reading a book.}

a. This force makes the Imperfect especially adapted to serve as the tense of description (as opposed to mere narration).

2. From the notion of action \textit{going on}, there easily develops the notion of \textit{repeated or customary action}; as,—
\textit{lēgātōs interrogābat, he kept asking the envoys; puer C. Dūlium vidēbam, as a boy I often used to see Gaius Duilius.}

3. The Imperfect often denotes an attempted action ('Conative Imperfect') or an action as beginning ('Inceptive Imperfect'); as,—
\textit{hostēs nostrōs intrā mūnitionēs prōgredī prohibēbant, the enemy tried to prevent (prohibēbant) our men from advancing within the fortifications ('Conative'); ad prōeliōm sē expedīebant, they were beginning to get ready for battle ('Inceptive').}

4. The Imperfect, with \textit{jam, jam diu, jam dūdum, etc.}, is sometimes used of an action which had been continuing some time; as,—
\textit{domēcum Rōmae multōs jam annōs habēbat, he had had his residence at Rome for many years (i.e. he had it at this time and had long had it).}
Syntax.

Future Indicative.

261. 1. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future than is the English. We say: ‘If he comes, I shall be glad,’ where we really mean: ‘If he shall come,’ etc. In such cases the Latin rarely admits the Present, but generally employs the Future.

2. Sometimes the Future has Imperative force; as, dico, say!

Perfect Indicative.

262. A. Present Perfect. Several Present Perfects denote the state resulting from a completed act, and so seem equivalent to the Present; as,—

novi, cognovi, I know (lit. I have become acquainted with);
consuevi, I am wont (lit. I have become accustomed).

B. Historical Perfect. The Historical Perfect is the tense of narration (as opposed to the Imperfect, the tense of description); as,—

Regulus in senatum venit, mandata exposuit, reddi captivos
negavit esse futile, Regulus came into the Senate, set forth his
commission, said it was useless for captives to be returned.

1. Occasionally the Historical Perfect is used of a general truth (‘Gnomic Perfect’).

Pluperfect Indicative.

263. The Latin Pluperfect, like the English Past Perfect, denotes an act completed in the past; as,—

Caesar Rhenum transire dixerat, sed naves desiderat, Caesar
had decided to cross the Rhine, but had no boats.

a. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, 1),
the Pluperfect has the force of an Imperfect; as,—
noveram, I knew.

Future Perfect Indicative.

264. The Future Perfect denotes an action completed in future time. Thus:—

scribam epistolam, cum redieris, I will write the letter when you
have returned (lit. when you shall have returned).

a. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future Perfect than the English, which commonly employs the Present Perfect instead of the Future Perfect.

b. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, A)
the Future Perfect has the force of a Future; as,—
novero, I shall know.
Sequence of Tenses.

Epistolary Tenses.

265. In letters the writer often uses tenses which are not appropriate at the time of writing, but which will be so at the time when his letter is received; he thus employs the Imperfect and the Perfect for the Present, and the Pluperfect for the Present Perfect; as,—

nihil habebam quod scriborem, neque enim novi quidquam audieram et ad tuas omnès epistulás jam rescripsoram, I have nothing to write, for I have heard no news and have already answered all your letters.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

266. A. In Independent Sentences. See §§ 272–280.

B. In Dependent Sentences. In dependent sentences the tenses of the subjunctive usually conform to the so-called

Sequence of Tenses.

267. 1. In the Subjunctive the Present and Perfect are Principal tenses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, Historical.

2. By the Sequence of Tenses Principal tenses are followed by Principal, Historical by Historical. Thus:—

Principal Sequence,—

videò quid faciās, I see what you are doing.
vidēbō quid faciās, I shall see what you are doing.
vidērō quid faciās, I shall have seen what you are doing.
videō quid fāceris, I see what you have done.
vidēbō quid fāceris, I shall see what you have done.
vidērō quid fāceris, I shall have seen what you have done.

Historical Sequence,—

vidēbam quid fācerēs, I saw what you were doing.
vidēbam quid fācerēs, I saw what you were doing.
vidērām quid fācerēs, I had seen what you were doing.
vidēbam quid fācissēs, I saw what you had done.
vidēbam quid fācissēs, I saw what you had done.
vidērām quid fācissēs, I had seen what you had done.

3. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive denote incomplete action, the Perfect and Pluperfect completed action, exactly as in the Indicative.
Peculiarities of Sequence.

268. 1. The Perfect Indicative is usually an historical tense (even when translated in English as a Present Perfect), and so is followed by the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive; as,—

démonstrāvī quà re ad causam accèderem, I have shown why I took the case (lit. I showed why, etc.).

2. A dependent Perfect Infinitive is treated as an historical tense wherever, if resolved into an equivalent Indicative, it would be historical; as,—

videor ostendisse quà lès deō esse, I seem to have shown of what nature the gods are (ostendisse here corresponds to an Indicative, ostendī, I showed).

3. The Historical Present is sometimes regarded as a principal tense, sometimes as historical. Thus:—

Sulla suōs hortātur ut fortī animō sint, Sulla exhorts his soldiers to be stout-hearted;

Gallōs hortātur ut arma caperent, he exhorted the Gauls to take arms.

4. Conditional sentences of the ‘contrary-to-fact’ type are not affected by the principles for the Sequence of Tenses; as,—

honestum tāle est ut vel sī ignōrārent id hominēs suā tamen pulchritūdine laudābile esset. virtue is such a thing that even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be worthy of praise for its own loveliness.

5. In conditional sentences of the ‘contrary-to-fact’ type the Imperfect Subjunctive is usually treated as an Historical tense; as,—

sī sölōs eōs dicērēs miserōs, quibus moriendum esset, nēminem tā quidem cōrum qui vīverent exciperēs, if you called only those wretched who must die, you would except no one of those who live.

6. In clauses of Result and some others, the Perfect Subjunctive is sometimes used as an historical tense. Thus:—

rēx tantum mōtus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem jūdicārit, the king was so much moved that he adjudged Tissaphernes an enemy.

This construction is rare in Cicero, but frequent in Nepos and subsequent historians. The Perfect Subjunctive in this use represents a
result simply as a fact without reference to the continuance of the act, and therefore corresponds to an Historical Perfect Indicative of direct statement. Thus, jūdicārit in the above example corresponds to a jūdicāvit, he adjudged. To denote a result as something continuous, all writers use the Imperfect Subjunctive after historical tenses.

7. Sometimes perspicuity demands that the ordinary principles of Sequence be abandoned altogether. Thus: —

a) We may have the Present or Perfect Subjunctive after an historical tense; as, —

Verrēs Siciliam ita perdidit ut ea restitūt nōn possit,
Verrae so ruined Sicily that it cannot be restored (Direct statement; nōn potest restitūt);

ardēbat Hortēnsius dicendi cupiditāte sīc, ut in nūllō
flagrantius studium viderim, Hortensius burned so
with eagerness to speak that I have seen in no one a
greater desire (Direct statement: in nūllō vīdī, I have
seen in no one).

NOTE. — This usage is different from that cited under 6. Here, by neglect of Sequence, the Perfect is used though a principal tense; there the Perfect was used as an historical tense.

b) We may have a principal tense followed by the Perfect Subjunctive used historically; as, —

noscīō quid causae fuerit cūr nūllās ad mé litterās
darsēm, I do not know what reason there was why you
did not send me a letter.

Here fuerit is historical, as is shown by the following Imperfect Subjunctive.

Method of Expressing Future Time in the Subjunctive.

269. The Future and Future Perfect which are lacking to the Latin Subjunctive are supplied in subordinate clauses as follows: —

1. a) The Future is supplied by the Present after principal tenses,
    by the Imperfect after historical tenses.

b) The Future Perfect is supplied by the Perfect after principal tenses, by the Pluperfect after historical tenses.

This is especially frequent when the context clearly shows, by the presence of a future tense in the main clause, that the reference is to future time. Thus: —
Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperet, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall order;
Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperēret, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should order;
Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāverit, the Gauls promised they will do what Caesar shall have ordered;
Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāvisset, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should have ordered.

2. Even where the context does not contain a Future tense in the main clause, Future time is often expressed in the subordinate clauses by the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. Thus:—
timeō nē veniat, I am afraid he will come;
Caesar exspectābat quid dūnātī hostēs caperent, Caesar was waiting to see what plan the enemy would adopt.

3. Where greater definiteness is necessary the periphrastic forms in -āvīs simul and -āvīs essem are employed, especially in clauses of Result, Indirect Questions, and after nōn dūbitō quīn; as,—
nōn dūbitō quīn pater ventūrās sit, I do not doubt that my father will come;
nōn dūbitābam quīn pater ventūrās esset, I did not doubt that my father would come.

4. Where the verb has no Future Active Participle, or where it stands in the passive voice, its Future character may be indicated by the use of the particles mox, brevī, statim, etc., in connection with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive; as,—
nōn dūbitō quīn tē mox hūjus rēi paeuitētur, I do not doubt that you will soon repent of this thing;
nōn dūbitābam quīn haec rēs brevī cōnīecerētur, I did not doubt that this thing would soon be finished.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

270 1. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb on which they depend. Thus:—

a) The Present Infinitive represents an act as contemporaneous with the time of the verb on which it depends; as,—
vidētur honōrēs adsequī, he seems to be gaining honors;
vidēbātur honōrēs adsequī, he seemed to be gaining honors.
1) The Perfect Infinitive represents an act as prior to the time of the verb on which it depends; as,—

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtus esse, he seems to have gained honors;
visus est honōrēs adsecūtus esse, he seemed to have gained honors.

2) The Future Infinitive represents an act as subsequent to that of the verb on which it depends; as,—

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtūrus esse, he seems to be about to gain honors;
visus est honōrēs adsecūtūrus esse, he seemed to be about to gain honors.

2. Where the English says ‘ought to have done,’ ‘might have done,’ etc., the Latin uses dēbuit, opportuit, potuit (dēbēbam, oportēbat, poterat), with the Present Infinitive; as,—

dēbuit dicere, he ought to have said (lit. owed it to say);
opportuit venire, he ought to have come;
potuit vidēre, he might have seen.

a. Opportuit, volū, nolū (and in poetry some other verbs), may take a Perfect Infinitive instead of the Present; as,—
boc jam pridem factum esse opportuit, this ought long ago to have been done.

3. Periphrastic Future Infinitive. Verbs that have no Participial Stem express the Future Infinitive Active and Passive by fore ut or futūrum esse ut, with the Subjunctive; as,—

spērō fore ut tē pœnitēsat levitātis, I hope you will repent of your fidelitas (lit. hope it will happen that you repent);
spērō futūrum esse ut hostēs aroentur, I hope that the enemy will be kept off.

a. The Periphrastic Future Infinitive is often used, especially in the Passive, even in case of verbs which have the Participial Stem; as,—

spērō fore ut hostēs vincantur, I hope the enemy will be conquered.

4. Passives and Deponents sometimes form a Future Perfect Infinitive with fore; as,—

spērō epistulam scriptam fore, I hope the letter will have been written;
putō mē omnia adeptum fore, I think that I shall have gained everything.
THE MOODS.

MOODS IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

The Indicative in Independent Sentences.

271. The Indicative is used for the statement of facts, the supposition of facts, or inquiry after facts.

1. Note the following idiomatic uses: —

   a) With possum; as, —
      possum multa dicere, I might say much;
      poteram multa dicere, I might have said much (§ 270, 2).

   b) In such expressions as longum est, aequum est, melius est, difficile est, utilius est, and some others; as, —
      longum est ea dicere, it would be tedious to tell that;
      difficile est omnia persequi, it would be difficult to enumerate everything.

The Subjunctive in Independent Sentences.

272. The Subjunctive is used in Independent Sentences to express something —

   1. As willed — Volitive Subjunctive;
   2. As desired — Optative Subjunctive;
   3. Conceived of as possible — Potential Subjunctive.

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

273. The Volitive Subjunctive represents the action as willed. It always implies authority on the part of the speaker, and has the following varieties: —

   A. Hortatory Subjunctive.

274. The Hortatory Subjunctive expresses an exhortation. This use is confined to the first person plural, of the Present. The negative is ne. Thus: —

   eamus, let us go;
   amemus patriam, let us love our country;
   ne desperemus, let us not despair.
B. Jussive Subjunctive.

275. The Jussive Subjunctive expresses a command. The Jussive stands regularly in the Present Tense, and is used —

1. Most frequently in the third singular and third plural; as,—
   dicat, let him tell;
   dicoant, let them tell;
   quârē aêdant improbi, wherefore let the wicked depart!
2. Less frequently in the second person, often with indefinite force; as,—
   istō bonō ūtāre, use that advantage;
   modestē vivēs, live temperately.

C. Prohibitive Subjunctive.

276. The Subjunctive is used in the second and third persons singular and plural, with nē, to express a prohibition. Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning; as,—

nē repugnēlis, do not resist!
 tū vērō īstam nē reliqueris, don't leave her!
 impī nē plācēre audeant deōs, let not the impious dare to appease the gods!

a. Neither of these constructions is frequent in classical prose.

b. A commoner method of expressing a prohibition in the second person is by the use of nōlī (nōlīte) with a following infinitive, or by cāvē or cāvē nē with the Subjunctive; as,—
   nōlī hoc facere, don't do this (lit. be unwilling to do)!
   nōlīte mentīlis, do not lie!
   cāvē ignōscēs, cāvē tē misereant, do not forgive, do not pity!
   cāvē nē haec faciās, do not do this (lit. take care lest you do).

D. Deliberative Subjunctive.

277. The Deliberative Subjunctive is used in questions and exclamations implying dōbēt, indignation, the impossibility of an act, obligation, or propriety. The Present is
used referring to present time, the Imperfect referring to past. The negative is nōn. Thus:—

quid faciam, what shall I do?
ego redeam, I go back!
huic oédāmus! hūjus condicionēs audiāmus! are we to bow to him! are we to listen to his terms?
quid facerem, what was I to do?
hunc ego nōn diligam, should I not cherish this man?

a. These Deliberative Questions are usually purely Rhetorical in character, and do not expect an answer.

E. CONCESSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

278. The Subjunctive is used to indicate something as granted or conceded for the sake of argument. The Present is used for present time, the Perfect regularly for past. The negative is nē. Thus:—

sit hōc vérum, I grant that this is true (L. let this be true);
nō sint in senectūte virēs, I grant there is not strength in old age.
ferit malus civis aliēs; tibi quānō esse coepit, I grant that he was a bad citizen to others; when did he begin to be so toward you?

OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

279. The Optative Subjunctive occurs in expressions of wishing. The negative is regularly nē.

1. The Present Tense, often accompanied by utinam, is used where the wish is conceived of as possible.

ut istaec prohibeat, may the gods prevent that!
false utinam vētēs sim, oh that I may be a false prophet!
nē veniat, may they not come!

2. The Imperfect expresses, in the form of a wish, the regret that something is not so now; the Pluperfect that something was not so in the past. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are regularly accompanied by utinam; as,—

utinam īstum ex animō dicerēs, would that you were saying that in earnest, (i.e. I regret that you are not saying it in earnest);
Pasīdēs utinam vitāset Apollinis arcās, would that Achilles had escaped the bow of Apollo;
Utinam nō nātus essēs, would that I had not been born.
280. The Potential Subjunctive expresses a possibility. The negative is nōn. The following uses are to be noted:

1. The 'May' Potential. — The Potential Subjunctive may designate a mere possibility (English auxiliary may). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:
   dicat aliquid, some one may say;
   dixerit aliquid, some one may say.
   a. This construction is by no means frequent, and is confined mainly to a few phrases like those given as examples.

2. 'Should'-'Would' Potential. — The Potential Subjunctive may represent something as depending upon a condition expressed or understood (English auxiliary should, would). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:
   fortunam citeris quam retineat, one would more quickly find
   Fortune than keep it (i.e. if one should make the trial);
   crēderim, I should believe.
   a. Here belongs the use of velim, mālim, nōlim, as softened forms of statement for volō, mālō, nōlō. Thus:
   velim mihi ignōscas, I wish you would forgive me;
   nōlim putēs me ἰοάρι, I don't want you to think I'm joking.
   b. When the condition is expressed, we get one of the regular types of Conditional Sentences (see § 303); as —
   dēs dēsīciat, si cōner ēnumerāre causās, time would fail if I should attempt to enumerate the reasons.

3. 'Can'-'Could' Potential. — In the Present and Imperfect the Potential occurs in the second person singular (with indefinite force; § 356, 3) of a few verbs of perceiving, seeing, thinking, and the like; as —
   videās, cernās, one can see, one can perceive;
   crēderēs, one could believe;
   vidērēs, cernerēs, one could see, perceive;
   putārēs, one could imagine.

4. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of the contrary-to-fact type (see § 304) are also Potential in character. By omission of the Protasis, such an Apodosis sometimes stands alone, particularly vellem, nōlēm, mālēm; as —
   vellem id quidem, I should wish that (i.e. were I bold
The Imperative.

281. The Imperative is used in **commands, admonitions,** and **entreaties** (negative nē); as,—

   ēgredere ex urbe, depart from the city;
   mihi ignōscē, pardon me;
   vale, farewell.

1. The Present is the tense of the Imperative most commonly used, but the Future is employed—

   a) Where there is a distinct reference to future time, especially in the apodosis of conditional sentences; as,—

      rem vōbis prōpōnam; vōs eam pendiōte, I will lay the
      matter before you; do you (then) consider it;
      si bene disputābit, tribuitō litteris Graecīs, if he shall
      speak well, attribute it to Greek literature.

   b) In laws, treaties, wills, maxims, etc.; as,—

      cōnsulēs summum jōs habēntō, the consuls shall have
      supreme power;
      hominem mortuōm in urbe nē sepelītō, no one shall bury
      a dead body in the city;
      amicitia rēgī Antiochō cum populo Rōmānō hīs lēgibus
      et condicionibus estō, let there be friendship be-
      tween Antiochus and the Roman. people on the fol-
      lowing terms and conditions;
      quārtae estō partis Mārcus hērēs, let Marcus be heir to
      a fourth (of the property);
      ignōscitō sāpe alterī, numquam tibi, forgive your neigh-
      bor often, yourself never.

2. Except with the Future Imperative the negative is not used in classical prose. Prohibitions are regularly expressed in other ways. See § 276, b.

3. Questions in the Indicative introduced by quīn (why not?) are often equivalent to an Imperative or to the Hortatory Subjunctive; as,—

   quīn absē, go away! (lit. why don't you go away?);
   quīn vōcem continētis, keep still! (lit. why don't you stop your
   voices?);
   quīn equōs cōnsendimus, let us mount our horses (lit. why do we
   not mount our horses?).
MOODS IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Clauses of Purpose.

282. i. Clauses of Purpose are introduced most commonly by ut (utō), quō (that, in order that), nē (in order that not, lest), and stand in the Subjunctive; as,—

ēdīmus, ut vīvāmus, we eat that we may live;
adjūtā nē quō hōc fiat faciērus, help me, in order that this may be done more easily;
portās clausit, nē quam oppidānē īnflāriām acciperent, he closed the gates, lest the townspeople should receive any injury.

a. Quō, as a rule, is employed only when the purpose clause contains a comparative or a comparative idea. Occasional exceptions occur; as,—

haec factunt quō Chremētem absterreant, they are doing this in order to frighten Chremes.

b. Ut nē is sometimes found instead of nē. Thus:—

ut nē quid neglegēnter agāmus, in order that we may not do anything carelessly.

c. Ut nōn (not nē) is used where the negation belongs to some single word, instead of to the purpose clause as a whole. Thus:—

ut nōn ējectus ad alēnōs, sed ĭnvitātus ad tuōs videāre, that you may seem not driven out among strangers, but invited to your own friends.

d. To say 'and that not' or 'or that not,' the Latin regularly uses nēve (neu); as,—

ut sārum rērum vīs minuerētur, nea pontif nocērent, that the violence of these things might be lessened, and that they might not harm the bridge;

profīgit, nē caperētur nōve interficētur, he fled, that he might not be captured or killed.

e. But neque (for nēve) is sometimes used in a second Purpose Clause when ut stands in the first, and, after the Augustan era, even when the first clause is introduced by nē.

f. Purpose Clauses sometimes stand in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun; as,—

hāc causā, ut pācem habērent, on this account, that they might have peace.
2. A Relative Pronoun (quī) or Adverb (ubi, unde, quō) is frequently used to introduce a Purpose Clause; as,—

Helvētii lēgātōs mittunt, quī dīcerent, the Helvetii sent envoys to say (lit. who should say);

haec habui, dē senectūte quae dīcerem, I had these things to say about old age;

nōn habēbat quō fugeret, he had no place to which to flee (lit. whether he might flee).

a. Quī in such clauses is equivalent to ut igitur, ut ego, etc.; ubi to ut ibi; unde to ut unde; quō to ut quō.

3. Relative clauses of purpose follow dignus, indignus, and idōneus; as,—

idōneus fuit nēmō quem imitārēre, there was no one suitable for you to imitate (cf. nēmō fuit quem imitārēre, there was no one for you to imitate);

dignus est quī aliquidō imperēt, he is worthy to rule sometime.

4. Purpose Clauses often depend upon something to be supplied from the context instead of upon the principal verb of their own sentences; as,—

ut haec omnia omittam, abīmus, to pass over all this, (I will say that) we departed.

Clauses of Characteristic.

283. 1. A relative clause used to express a quality or characteristic of a general or indefinite antecedent is called a Clause of Characteristic, and usually stands in the Subjunctive; as,—

multa sunt, quae mentem acuant, there are many things which sharpen the wits.

Clauses of Characteristic are opposed to those relative clauses which are used merely to state some fact about a definite antecedent, and which therefore take the Indicative; as,—

Catō, senex iucundus, qui Sapiēns appellātus est, Cato, a delightful old man, who was called 'The Wise.'

The Clause of Characteristic implies 'a person of the sort that does something'; the Indicative relative clause implies 'a particular person who does something.'
2. Clauses of Characteristic are used especially after such expressions as, est qui; sunt qui; nemo est qui; nullo est qui; s Ministers est qui; aliqua est qui; quae est qui; is qui; etc. Thus:—
sunt qui dicit, there are (some) who say;
nemo est qui putet, there is nobody who thinks;
sapientia est quae maestitiam pellit, philosophy is the only
thing that drives away sorrow;
quia civitatis est quae non ertit possit, what state is there that
cannot be overthrown?
non est sum qui improbus laudem, I am not the sort of man that
praises the wicked.
a. Sometimes (very rarely in Cicero and Caesar) the clause of characteristic
is used after comparatives; as,—
non longius hostes averant quam quod tulum addigis possit,
the enemy were not too far off for a dart to reach them (i.e. further
off than [a point] to which a dart could be cast).

3. The Clause of Characteristic often conveys an accessory notion
of cause (since) or opposition (although). Thus:—

a) Cause. The relative is then frequently accompanied by ut
quique, ut posse; as,—
d fortunis adulans, qui tuae virtutis Homaeus
praebetぬmen inveneris, O fortunate man, since you
have found a Homer as the herald of your valor;
ut qui optimi jurae eam provinciam obtinuerit, since
he held that province by excellent right.

b) Opposition:—
egomet qui se rae Graecas litteras attigisse, tamen
completere diis Athenis commoratus sum, I, although
I had taken up Greek literature late in life,
nevertheless tarried several days at Athens.

4. Clauses of Characteristic may also be introduced by quin = qui
(quaes, quod) non; as,—
nemo est quiin saepo audierit, there is no one who has not often
heard;
nemo fuit militum quiin vulneratitur, there was no one of the soldiers
who was not wounded.

5. Related to Clauses of Characteristic are also phrases of the type:
quod sciam, so far as I know; quod audierim, so far as I have
heard.
Clauses of Result.

284. 1. Clauses of Result are usually introduced by ut (that, so that), negative ut nón (so that not), and take the Subjunctive. The main clause often contains tantus, tális, tot, is (= tális), tam, ita, sic, adeö, or some similar word. Thus:—

quís tam dēmēns est ut suā voluntāte maeraet, who is so senseless as to mourn of his own volition?
Siciliam ita vāstāvit ut restitui in antiquum statum nón possit, he has so ravaged Sicily that it cannot be restored to its former condition;
mūs aitiamus impendēbat, ut facile perpaucī prohibēre possent, a very high mountain overhang, so that a very few could easily stop them;
nón is es ut tē pudor unquam ā turpitūdine avocēritis, you are not so constituted that shame ever called you back from baseness.

2. A Result Clause is often introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb, qui ( = ut is), quō ( = ut ēō), etc.; as, —
nēmō est tam senex quā annum nón potest posse vivēre, nobody is so old as not to think he will live a year;
habēitis eum cōnsulem quē pārēre vestris dēcrētis nón dēbitet, you have a consul such as does not hesitate to obey your decrees.

a. These Relative Clauses of Result are closely related to the Clause of Characteristic, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish the two constructions. It is best to class the relative clause as one of Characteristic, unless the result idea is clear and unmistakable.

3. Result clauses may also be introduced by quīn = ut nón; as, —
nihil tam difficīle est quīn quaerendō inventūrī possit, nothing is so difficult that it cannot be discovered by searching;
nēmō est tam fortis quīn reē novitāte perturbētūr, no one is so steadfast as not to be thrown into confusion by a strange occurrence.

4. Note the use of quam ut (sometimes quam alone) to denote Result after comparatives; as, —

urbs est mūnītor quam ut prīmō impētū capī possēt, the city was too strongly fortified to be taken at the first attack (it more strongly fortified than [in] that it could be taken, etc.).
Causal Clauses.

285. Causal clauses are introduced chiefly by the following particles:—
1. Quod, quia, quoniam.
2. Cum.
3. Quandō.

286. The use of moods is as follows:—
1. Quod, quia, quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is that of the writer or speaker; they take the Subjunctive when the reason is viewed as that of another. Thus:—

Parthōs timeō quod diffidō cópiis nostris, I fear the Parthians, because I distrust our troops.
Themistoclēs, quia nōn tūtus erat, Corcyram dēmigrāvit, Themistocles, since he was not safe, moved to Corcyra.
neque mē vīxisse paenitet, quoniam bene vīxīt, I do not regret having lived, since I have lived well.
Socratēs accusātus est quod corrumpēret juventūtem, Socrates was arraigned on the ground that he was corrupting the young.
(Here the reason is not that of the writer but of the accusee. Hence the Subjunctive.)
Haedul Cæsarī grātiās ēgārunt, quod sē pertulīdī liberāvīset, the Haedi thanked Caesar because he had delivered them from danger. (The reason of the Haedi.)
quoniam Miltiades dīcere nōn posset, verba prō eō fēcīt Tisagōras, since Miltiades could not speak, Tisagoras spoke for him. (The reason of Tisagoras.)
nocētā ambulābat Themistoclēs, quod somnum capere nōn posset, Themistocles used to walk at night because (as he said) he couldn’t sleep.

a. Verbs of thinking and saying often stand in the Subjunctive in causal clauses as though the act of thinking or saying, and not the contents of the thought or language, constituted the reason. Thus:—
Bellovacī suum numerum nōn complāvārunt, quod sē suō nōmine cum Rōmānīs bellum gestūrōs dīcērent, the Bellovacī did not furnish their complement,
because they said they were going to wage war with the Romans on their own account.

6. Nōn quod, nōn quō (by attraction for nōn eō quod), nōn quia, not that, not because; and nōn quod nōn, nōn quō nōn, nōn quīn, not that . . . not; not because . . . not; not but that, are usually employed merely to introduce a hypothetical reason, and hence take the Subjunctive; as,—

id fēcī, nōn quod vōs hanc dēfensōnem dēsiderāre arbitrārē, sed ut omnēs intellegērent, hīs I did, not because I thought you needed this defense, but that all might perceive;

Crassō commendātiōnem nōn sum pollicitus, nōn quīn eam valitūram apud tē arbitrārē, sed egēre mihi commendātiōne nōn vidēbātur, I did not promise a recommendation to Crassus, not that I did not think it would have weight with you, but because he did not seem to me to need recommendation.

5. But clauses introduced by nōn quod, nōn quia take the Indicative if they state a fact, even though that fact is denied to be the reason for something; as,—

hōc ita sentīō, nōn quīa sum ipse augur, sed quia sīc exstātimāre nōs est necessā, hīs I think, not because I am myself an augur (which I really am), but because it is necessary for us to think so.

2. Cum causal regularly takes the Subjunctive; as,—

quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
cum sīs mortālis, quae mortālia sunt, cūrā, since you are mortal, care for what is mortal.

3. Note the phrase cum praeāertiō (praeāertiō cum), especially since; as,—

Haudūs accīsēt, praeāertiō cum eōrum precibus adāductus bellum auscultērit, he blamed the Haudūs, especially since he had undertaken the war at their entreaties.

3. Quandō (less frequent than the other causal particles) governs the Indicative; as,—

id omittō, quandō vōbis ita placēt, I pass over that, since you so wish.
Temporal Clauses Introduced by Postquam, Ut, Ubi, Simul ac, etc.

287. 1. Postquam (posteqquam), after; ut, ubi, when; cum primum, simul, simul ac (simul atque), as soon as, when used to refer to a single past act regularly take the Perfect Indicative; as,—

Epaminondas postquam audívit viciose Boeotiá, 'Satis' inquit 'vixit,' Epaminondas, after he heard that the Boeotians had conquered, said, 'I have lived enough;'

id ut audívit, Corcyram démigravit, when he heard this, he moved to Corcyra;

Caesar cum primum potuit, ad exercitum contendit, Caesar, as soon as he could, hurried to the army;

ubi dē Caesaris adventū certiorēs factī sunt, lætātūs ad eum mittunt, when they were informed of Caesar's arrival, they sent envoys to him.

a. The Historical Present may take the place of the Perfect in this construction.

2. To denote the repeated occurrence of an act, ut, ubi, simul atque, as often as, when following an historical tense, take the Pluperfect Indicative (compare §§ 288, 3; 302, 3); as,—

ut quisque Verris animum offenderat, in lautumlās statim consiēbātur, whenever anybody had offended Verres's feelings, he was forthwith put in the stone-quarry;

hostēs, ubi aliqūa sēgredientēs conspexerant, adorēbantur, whenever the enemy had seen any men disembarking, they attacked them.

a. In Livy and succeeding historians the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used to denote this repeated occurrence of an act ('Indefinite Frequency'); as,—

id ubi dixisset, hastam mittēbat, whenever he had said that, he hurled a spear.

3. Occasionally the above conjunctions are followed by the Pluperfect Indicative of a single occurrence. This is regularly the case with postquam in expressions denoting a definite interval of time (days, months, years, etc.), such as post tertium annum quam, triennīō postquam. Thus:—
quīnque post diēbus quam Lūcā diesserat, ad Sardiniam vēnit,
five days after he had departed from Luca he came to Sardinia;
postquam occupātae Syrācūsae erant, profectus est Carthā-
guēm, after Syracuse had been seized, he set out for Carthage.

4. The Imperfect Indicative also sometimes occurs to denote a continued state; as,—
postquam Rōmam adventābant, senātus cōnsultus est, after they were
on the march towards Rome, the Senate was consulted;
postquam strēcti utrīque stābant, after they had been drawn up on both
sides and were in position.

5. Rarely postquam, postesquam, following the analogy of cum, take
the Subjunctive, but only in the historical tenses; as,—
postesquam sāmpuĕsa fōri fūnera coepissent, lāge subītā sunt,
after funerals had begun to be elaborate, they were done away with by law.

Temporal Clauses introduced by Cum.

A. Cum referring to the Past.

288. 1. Cum, when referring to the past, takes—

A. The Indicative (Imperfect, Historical Perfect, or Pluperfect) to denote the point of time at which something occurs.
B. The Subjunctive (Imperfect or Pluperfect) to denote the situation or circumstances under which something occurs.

Examples:—

Indicative.

an tum erās cōnsul, cum in Palātiō mea domus ārdēbat, or were
you consul at the time when my house burned up on the Palatine?

orēō tum cum Siciliā fōrbat opibus et cōpīs magna artificia
fulisse in eā Insulā, I believe that at the time when Sicily was
powerful in riches and resources there were great crafts in that
island;

eō tempore pārūit cum pārēre necesse erat, he obeyed at the time
when it was necessary to obey;

illō diē, cum est lāta lēx dē mē, on that day when the law concern-
ing me was passed.
Cum-Clauses.

Subjunctive.

Lysander cum vellet Lycurgō légēs commütāre, prohibitus est, when Lysander desired to change the laws of Lycurgus, he was prevented;

Pythagoras cum in geometría quidam novis invenisset, Mūsae bovem immolāsse dicitur, when Pythagoras had discovered something new in geometry, he is said to have sacrificed an ox to the Muses.

a. Note that the Indicative is much less frequent in such clauses than the Subjunctive, and is regularly confined to those cases where the main clause has tum, cō dīś, cō annō, cō tempore or some similar correlative of the cum. Sometimes it depends entirely upon the point of view of the writer whether he shall employ the Indicative or Subjunctive.

2. When the logical order of the clauses is inverted, we find cum with the Perfect Indicative or Historical Present, in the sense of when, when suddenly. The main clause in such cases often has jam, vix, aegrī, nōndum; as,—

jam Gallī ex oppidō fugere apparēbant, cum mātrēs familiae repente prōcurrērunt, the Gauls were already preparing to flee, when suddenly the matrons rushed forth (logically, the matrons rushed forth as the Gauls were preparing to flee);

Trēvīri Labinōnum adorībant, cum duās legiōnēs vēnissent cognōscunt, the Treviri were preparing to attack, when (suddenly) they learned that two legions had arrived.

3. To denote a recurring action in the past, cum is followed by the Indicative, particularly of the Pluperfect (compare §§ 287, 2; 302, 3); as,—

cum ad aliquid oppidum vēnerat, sādem lectōs in cōubiculum dēferēbatur, whenever he had arrived at some town, he was (always) carried in the same litter to his room;

cum equitātus noster sē in agrōs eēcērat, esseōdāriōs ex silvis ōmittēbat, whenever our cavalry had advanced into the fields, he would send his charioteers out from the woods.

a. Sometimes the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is thus used; as,—

sepe cum aliquem vidēret minus bene vestitum, suum amīculum dedīt, often, whenever he saw some one more poorly clothed, he gave him his own mantle;

cum prōcūrriōsēnt, Numidiīs eōtigēbant, as often as they had advanced, the Numidians ran away.

This construction is frequent in Livy and subsequent historians.
H. CUM REFERRING TO THE PRESENT OR FUTURE.

289. When cum refers to the Present or Future it regularly takes the Indicative; as,—

tum tua re agitur, pariēs cum proximus ērret, your own interests
are at stake when your neighbor's house is burning;
cum vidēbis, tum sciēs, when you see, then you will know.

a. The Indicative of the Present or Future may denote also a recurring
action; as,—

stabilitūs amīcitiae cōnmīrāt potest, cum hominēs cu-
pūdinibus imperābant, firm friendship can be established
whenever men shall control their desires.

C. OTHER USES OF CUM.

290. 1. CUM Explicative. CUM, with the Indicative, is sometimes used to indicate the identity of one act with another; as,—
cum tacent, clāmānt, their silence is a shout (lit. when they are
silent, they shout).

2. CUM... tum. When cum... tum mean both... and,
the cum-clause is in the Indicative; but when cum has the force of
while, though, it may take the Subjunctive; as,—
cum tē semper dīleāreim, tum tua factīs incēnsus sum, while I
have always loved you, at the same time I am incensed at
your conduct.

Clauses introduced by Antequam and Priusquam.

A. WITH THE INDIcATIVE.

291. Antequam and priusquam (often written ante... quam, prius... quam) take the Indicative to denote an
actual fact.

1. Sometimes the Present or Future Perfect; as,—
prius respondēs quam rogō, you answer before I ask;
nihil contra disputābō priusquam dīserit, I will say nothing in
opposition, before he speaks.

2. Sometimes the Perfect, especially after negative clauses; as,—
nōn prius jugulāndī finis fuit, quam Sulla omnis suōs dīvītias
explēvit, there was no end of murder until Sulla satisfied all
his henchmen with wealth.
E. WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

292. Antequam and priusquam take the Subjunctive to denote an act as anticipated.

1. Thus the Subjunctive may denote —
   a) An act in preparation for which the main act takes place; as, —
      priusquam dimicaret, foedus Ictum est; i.e. in anticipa-
      tion of the fight, a treaty was struck.

      By an extension of this usage, the Subjunctive is sometimes used of general
      truths, where the anticipatory notion has failed out; as, —
      tempéstás minitóre antequam surgat, the tempest threatens before it rises.
   b) An act anticipated and forestalled; as, —
      priusquam tēlum adicī posset, omnis acīs terga vertit, 
      before a spear could be hurled, the whole army fled.
   c) An act anticipated and deprecated; as, —
      animām omittunt priusquam locō dēmigrent, they die
      rather than quit their post.

2. After historical tenses the Imperfect Subjunctive is used, espe-
   cially by post-Augustan writers, where the notion of anticipation has
   practically vanished; as, —
   sōl antequam sē abderet fugiēntem vīdit Antōnium, the sun before
   it set saw Antony fleeing.

Clause introduced by Dum, Dōnēc, Quōad.

293. I. Dum, while, regularly takes the Indicative of the Historical Present; as, —
   Alexander, dum inter prūnaea pugnat, sagittā Ictus est, Alex-
   ander, while he was fighting in the van, was struck by an arrow;
   dum haeo geruntur, in finibus Venellōrum pervēnit, while these
   things were being done, he arrived in the territory of the Venellī.

II. Dum, dōnēc, and quōad, as long as, take the Indica-
   tive; as, —
   dum anima est, spēs est, as long as there is life, there is hope;
   Lacedaemoniōrum gens fortis fuit, dum Lycūrgī légēs vigēbant, 
   the race of the Lacedaemonians was powerful, as long as the laws
   of Lycurgus were in force;
   Cato, quōad vīxit, virtūtum laude orēvit; Cato, as long as he lived, 
   increased in the fame of his virtues.
III. Dum, dōnec, and quoad, until, take: —

1. The Indicative, to denote an actual event; as, —
dōnec redit, fuit silentium, there was silence till he came;
ferrum in corpore retinuit, quoad remuntiātum est Boeōtōs
vicissae, he kept the iron in his body until word was brought that
the Boeotians had conquered.
   a. In Livy and subsequent historians dum and dōnec in this sense often
take the Subjunctive instead of the Indicative; as, —
trepidātōneīs aliquantum sēdēbant dōnec timor quīstēm
fīcissimae, they showed some trepidation, until fear produced quiet.

2. The Subjunctive, to denote anticipation or expectancy; as, —
exspectāvit Caesar dum nāvēs convenīrent, Caesar waited for the
ships to assemble;
dum hostēs veniant, morābor, I shall wait for the enemy to come.

Substantive Clauses.

294. A Substantive Clause is one which as a whole
serves as the Subject or Object of a verb, or stands in some
other case relation.

A. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Voltive.

295. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Voltive
are used with the following classes of verbs: —

. X. With verbs signifying to admonish, request, command, urge, per-
suade, induce, etc. (conjunctions ut, nē, or ut nē); as, —
postulō ut fiat, I demand that it be done (dependent form of the
Jussive fiat, let it be done!);
ōrat, nē aebēa, he begs that you will not go away;
militēs cohortātus est ut hostīnum impetum sustinērent, he ex-
horted his soldiers to withstand the attack of the enemy;
Holgōttīs persuāsit ut exīrent, he persuaded the Holgōtī to march
forth.
   a. Jubeō, command, order, regularly takes the Infinitive.

1 Especially: monēō, admonēō; rogō, ērō, petō, postulō, precor,
ʒigitō; mandō, imperō, praeclīpō; suadeō, bortor, cohorteō; per-
suādeō, impelleō.
2. With verbs signifying to grant, concede, permit, allow, etc. (conjunction ut); as,—
Huius concedieut ut ea praetereat, I allow him to pass that by (dependent form of the Jussive ea praetereat, let him pass that by!);
Consul permissum est ut duos legiones scriberet, the consul was permitted to enroll two legions.

3. With verbs of hindering, preventing, etc. (conjunctions ne, quodminus, quin); as,—
Ne iustum perficeret, mora prohibuit, death prevented him from finishing the iustum (dependent form after past tense of ne iustum perfect, let him not finish, etc.)
Prohibuit quodminus in unum coirent, he prevented them from coming together;
Nec quin sneropereret, prohiber poterat, nor could he be prevented from rushing forth.

a. Quin is used only when the verb of hindering is accompanied by a negative, or stands in a question implying a negative; it is not necessarily used even then.

4. With verbs of deciding, resolving, etc. (conjunctions ut, ne, or ut ne); as,—
Constitueram ut pridi Iu-us Aquinam manserem, I had decided to remain at Aquinum on the 12th;
Deteruit senatus ut Optimus vidisset, the Senate decreed that Optimus should see to it;
Convenerat ut inas castra miscenerent, it was agreed that they should be united in one camp.

5. With verbs of striving, etc. (conjunctions ut, ne, or ut ne); as,—
Fac ut eum exsercieras, see to it that you prevail upon him!
Dra ut vir sit, see to it that you are a man!
Laberabat ut reliquas civitates adungiaret, he was striving to join the remaining states to him.

a. Cognor, tr, always takes the Infinitive.

Note.—Verbs of all the above classes also admit the Infinitive, especially in poetry.

1 Especially: permittet, concedet, non patior.
2 Especially: prohibet, impedet, deterrit.
3 Especially: constituet, denerat, consuever, placuit, convenit, paciscor.
4 Especially: laboret, doperam, id ager, contendit, impetrat.
6. With a few other expressions, such as necesse est, reliquum est, sequitur, licet, oportet; as,—
   reliquum est ut doceam, it remains for me to show;
   licet redeas, you may return;
   oportet loquamur, we must speak.
On the absence of ut with licet and oportet, see paragraph 8.

7. Here also belong phrases of the type: nulla causa est cur, quin; non est cur, etc.; nihil est cur, etc.; as,—
   nulla causa est cur timeam, there is no reason why I should fear
   (originally Deliberative: why should I fear? There's no reason);
   nihil est quin dicoam, there is no reason why I should not say.

8. Many of the above classes of verbs at times take the simple Subjunctive without ut. In such cases we must not recognize any omission of ut, but simply an earlier form of expression which existed before the ut-clause arose. This is regularly the case with necesse est, licet, and oportet; see 6. Other examples are:—
   eoa mente desinant, I warn them to stop;
   hic imperat adeat civitates, he orders him to visit the states.

B. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative.

296. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative occur:—

1. With verbs of wishing, desiring, especially cupio, opto, volo, mulcio (conjunctives ut, ne, ut ne); as,—
   opto ut in hoc judicio nemo impetus reperiatur, I hope that in
   this court no bad man may be found (here ut reperiatur represents a simple optative of direct statement, viz. reperiatur, may
   no bad man be found!);
   cupio ne veniat, I desire that he may not come.
   a. The simple Subjunctive (without ut) sometimes occurs with verbs of
      this class. (See § 295, 8.) Examples are: velim scribas, I wish
      you would write; velim scripsisset, I wish he had written.

2. With expressions of fearing (timeo, metuo, vereor, etc.).
   Here ne means that, lest, and ut means that not; as,—
   timeo ne veniat, I fear that he will come (originally: may he not come!
   I'm afraid [he will]);
   timeo ut veniat, I fear that he will not come (originally: may he come!
   I'm afraid [he won't]).
Substantive Clauses.

297. Substantive Clauses of Result (introduced by ut, ut non) are a development of pure Result clauses, and occur with the following classes of words:—

1. As object clauses after verbs of doing, accomplishing (especially facio, efficio, conducio). Thus:—

gravitas morbi facit ut medicinae egamus, the severity of disease makes us need medicine.

2. As the subject of several impersonal verbs, particularly fit, accidit, evenit, contingit, accidit, fieri potest, fore, sequitur, relinquitur. Thus:—

ex quo efficitur, ut voluptas non sit summum bonum, from which it follows that pleasure is not the greatest good;

ita fit, ut non esse possit beatus, thus it happens that no one can be happy;

accidit ut navis desessent, another thing was the lack of ships (lit. it was added that ships were lacking).

As predicate or appositive after expressions like habet, habet, inquit, ut nolint eundem pluribus rhibus excellere, est mors hominum ut nolint eundem pluribus rhibus excellere, it is the way of men not to wish the same person to excel in many things.

D. Substantive Clauses Introduced by Quin.

298. Substantive Clauses introduced by quin (used sometimes as subject, sometimes as object) occur after negative and interrogative expressions of doubt, omission, and the like, particularly after non dubito, I do not doubt; quis
dubit, *who doubts?*; *non* (haud) *dubium est, there is no
doubt*. The mood is the Subjunctive. Examples: —

 quis dubitat quem in virtute divitiæ sint, *who doubts that in virtue
there are riches?*

 non dubium erat quem ventūrus esset, *there was no doubt that he
was about to come.*

 a. In Nepos, Livy, and post-Augustan writers an Infinitive sometimes
takes the place of the quin-clause after *non dubitō*; as, —

 non dubitāmus inventōs esse, *we do not doubt that men were found.*

 b. *Non dubitō, I do not hesitate, is regularly followed by the Infinitive,
though sometimes by a quin-clause.*

**E. Substantive Clauses Introduced by Quod.**

299. 1. Quod, *the fact that, that*, introduces Substan-
tive Clauses in the Indicative. This construction occurs
especially —

 a) In apposition with a preceding demonstrative, as *hoc, id,
illud, illa, ex eō, inde, etc.* Thus: —

 illud est admiratiōne dignum, quod captivōs retinē-
dōs causit, *this is especially worthy of admiration,
that he thought the prisoners ought to be kept;*

 hoc ūnō praestāmus vel maximē fēria, quod colloqui-
mur inter nōs, *in this one respect we are especially
superior to the beasts, that we talk with each other.*

 b) After bene fit, bene accidit, male fit, bene facere, mīrōr,
etc.; as, —

 bene mihi accidit, quod mittor ad mortem, *it is well for
me that I am sent to death;*

 bene fēci quod mānsisti, *you did well in remaining.*

 2. Quod at the beginning of the sentence sometimes has the force
of as regards the fact that. Thus: —

 quod multitudinem Germānorum in Galliam trādēō, id mē
māniendī causā faciō, *as regards the fact that I am trans-
porting a multitude of Germans into Gaul, I am doing it for
the sake of strengthening myself;*

 quod mē Agamemnona aemulārī putās, falleris, *as regards your
thinking that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken.*
F. Indirect Questions.

300. 1. Indirect Questions are Substantive Clauses used after verbs of asking, inquiring, telling, and the like. They take their verb in the Subjunctive.\(^1\) Like Direct Questions (see § 162) they may be introduced —

a) By Interrogative Pronouns or Adverbs; as, —

\textit{dó mihi ubi fueris, quid fécertis, tell me where you were, what you did;}

\textit{oculis jādicārī nōn potest in utram partem fluat Arar, it cannot be determined by the eye in which direction the Arar flows;}

\textit{bis bīna quot essent, nesciēbat, he did not know how many two times two were.}

\textbf{Note.} — Care should be taken to distinguish Indirect Questions from Relative Clauses. The difference between the two appears clearly in the following: —

\textit{effugere nēmō id potest quod futūrum est, no one can escape what is destined to come to pass; but}

\textit{saepe autem ne utile quidem est sōrē quid futūrum sit, but often it is not even useful to know what is coming to pass.}

b) By num or -ne, without distinction of meaning; as, —

\textit{Epaminondās quaēsīvit num salvus esset olípeus, or salvus esse olípeus, Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe;}

\textit{disputātur num interre virtūs in hominē possit, the question is raised whether virtue can die in a man;}

\textit{ex Sōratē quaēsītum est nōnne Archelāum beātum putāret, the question was asked of Socrates whether he did not think Archelaius happy.}

\textbf{Note.} — Nōnne in Indirect Questions occurs only after quaerō, as in the last example above.

2. Often the Indirect Question represents a Deliberative Subjunctive of the direct discourse; as, —

\textit{nesciō quid faciam, I do not know what to do. (Direct: quid faciam, what shall I do!)}

\(^1\) Exclamations, also, upon becoming indirect, take the Subjunctive, as \textit{ōmniserē quam variās sint hominum cupidīnēs, consider how varied are the desires of men. (Direct: quam variās sint hominum cupidīnēs!)}
3. After verbs of expectation and endeavor (exspectō, cōnsc, experior, temptō) we sometimes find an Indirect Question introduced by si; as, —

cōnuntur si perrumpere possint, they try whether they can break through.

a. Sometimes the governing verb is omitted; as, —

pergit ad proximum spēluncam si forte ēst vēstigia terrae, he proceeded to the nearest cave (to see) if the tracks led there.

4. Indirect Double Questions are introduced in the main by the same particles as direct double questions (§ 162, 4); viz. —

utrae ... an;
-ne ... an;
---- ... an;
---- ... ne.

Examples: —
quaerō utrum vērum an falsum sit.
quaerō vērumne an falsum sit,
quaerō vērum an falsum sit,
quaerō vērum falsumne sit,

I ask whether it is true or false?

a. ‘Or not’ in the second member of the double question is ordinarily expressed by necne, less frequently by an nōn; as, —
du utrum sit necne, quaeritur, it is asked whether there are gods or not.

5. Haud scīō an, nec scīō an, by omission of the first member of the double question, occur with the Subjunctive in the sense: I am inclined to think, probably, perhaps; as, —

Haud scīō an hoc vērum sit, I am inclined to think this is true.

6. In early Latin and in poetry the Indicative is sometimes used in Indirect Questions.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

301. Conditional Sentences are compound sentences (§ 164) consisting of two parts, the Protasis (or condition), usually introduced by si, nisi, or sin, and the Apodosis (or conclusion). There are the following types of Conditional Sentences: —
Conditional Sentences.

First Type.—Nothing Implied as to the Reality of the Supposed Case.

302. 1. Here we regularly have the Indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis. Any tense may be used; as,—

si hóc crédis, errás, if you believe this, you are mistaken;
náltiram si sequamur, numquam aberrábimus, if we follow Nature, we shall never go astray;
si hóc dixísti, errásti, if you said this, you were in error.

2. Sometimes the Protasis takes the Indefinite Second Person Singular (§ 356, 3) of the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, with the force of the Indicative; as,—

memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceás, memory is impaired unless you exercise it.

3. Here belong also those conditional sentences in which the Protasis denotes a repeated action (compare §§ 287, 2; 288, 3); as,—

si quia equitum déciderat, pedités cursumiástebant, if any one of the horsemen fell, the foot-soldiers gathered about him.

a. Instead of the Indicative, Livy and subsequent writers employ the Subjunctive of the Historical tenses in the Protasis to denote repeated action; as,—

si dicendó quí diem extóret, if (ever) anybody consumed a day in pleading; si quondó adsidúret, if ever he sat by.

4. Where the sense demands it, the Apodosis in conditional sentences of the First Type may be an Imperative or one of the Independent Subjunctives (Hortatory, Deliberative, etc.); as,—

si hóc créditis, tacète, if you believe this, be silent;
i hóc crédimus, tacèmus, if we believe this, let us keep silent.

Second Type. — ‘Should’ - ‘Would’ Conditions.

303. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive (of the Present or Perfect tense) in both Protasis and Apodosis; as,—

si hóc dícás, errás, } if you should say this, you would be mistaken.

si hóc dixeris, erráverís, } if you should say this, you would be mistaken.

si velim Hannibalis proelia omnia dèscibrere, dêscì mè dèscìat.” if I should wish to describe all the battles of Hannibal, time would fail me;
mentiar, sī negem, I should lie, if I should deny it;
haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nōnne īmpeṭrāre dēbeat, if your
country should plead thus with you, would she not deserve to
obtain her request?

1. The Subjunctive in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of this type
is of the Potential variety.

4. Sometimes we find the Indicative in the Apodosis of sentences of the
Second Type, where the writer wishes to assert the accomplishment of
a result more positively; as,—
alter sī faciat, nūliam habet auctōritātem, if he should do
otherwise, he has no authority.

Third Type.—Supposed Case Represented as Contrary to
Fact.

304. 1. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive in both
Protasis and Apodosis, the Imperfect referring to present
time, and the Pluperfect referring to past; as,—
sī amīci mei adessent, opis nōn indigērem, if my friends were here,
I should not lack assistance;
sī hōc dixissent, errāsēs, if you had said this, you would have
erred;
sapientia nōn expēterētur, sī nihil efficeret, philosophy would not
be desired, if it accomplished nothing;
cōnsilium, ratīō, sententia nisi essent in senibus, nōn summum
cōnsilium majōrēs nostri appellāsset senātum, unless del-
liberation, reason, and wisdom existed in old men, our ances-
tors would not have called their highest deliberative body a
senate.

2. Sometimes the Imperfect Subjunctive is found referring to the
past, especially to denote a continued act, or a state of things still exist-
ings; as,—
Laelius, Fūrius, Catō, sī nihil litterās adjuvārentur, numquam sē
ad sārum studium contulissent, Laelius, Furius, and Cato
would never have devoted themselves to the study of letters,
unless they had been (constantly) helped by them;
num ĭgitur sī ad centēsimum annum vīxisset, senectūris sūm
suae paenitērēt, if he had lived to his hundredth year,
would he have regretted (and now be regretting) his old
age?
3. The Apodosis in conditional sentences of this type sometimes stands in the Indicative (Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect), viz. —

a) Frequently in expressions of ability, obligation, or necessity; as, —

 nisi feliçitās in sācordiam vertisset, exuere jugum potuérunt, unless their prosperity had turned to folly, they could have thrown off the yoke;

NOTE. — In sentences of this type, however, it is not the possibility that is represented as contrary-to-fact, but something to be supplied in thought from the context. Thus in the foregoing sentence the logical apodosis is et exuissent understood (and they would have shaken it off). When the possibility itself is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used.

eum patris locō colere dēbēbās, si ālla in tē pietās esset, you ought to revere him as a father, if you had any sense of devotion.

b) With both the Periphrastic Conjugations; as, —

 si Pompeius oculās esset, fuisiāne ad arma itūr, if Pompey had been slain, would you have proceeded to arms?

 si ünum diem morātī essētis, moriendum omnibus fuit, if you had delayed one day, you would all have had to die.

Protasis expressed without Si.

305. 1. The Protasis is not always expressed by a clause with si, but may be implied in a word, a phrase, or merely by the context; as, —

aliōqui habēbās non scriberentur, otherwise (i.e. if matters were otherwise) these things would not be written;

nōn potestās, voluptāte omnia dirigēntās, retinēre virtūtem, you cannot retain virtue, if you direct everything with reference to pleasure.

2. Sometimes an Imperative, or a Jussive Subjunctive, serves as Protasis. Thus: —

crās petītō, dabitūr, if you ask to-morrow, it shall be given you (lit. ask to-morrow, etc.);

haec reputent, vidēbunt, if they consider this, they will see (lit. let them consider, etc.);

roge Aristōnem, respondeat, if you should ask Aristo, he would answer.
Use of Nisi, Sī Nōn, Sīn.

308. 1. Nisi, unless, negatives the entire protasis; sī nōn negatives a single word; as,—
ferreus essem, nisi tē amārem, I should be hard-hearted unless I loved you; but —
ferreus essem, sī tē nōn amārem, I should be hard-hearted if I did not love you.
In the first example, it is the notion of loving you that is negatived, in the second, the notion of loving.

2. Sī nōn (sī minus) is regularly employed: —
   a) When an apodosis with at. tamen, certē follows; as,—
dolōrem sī nōn potuerō frangere, tamen occultabō, if I cannot crush my sorrow, yet I will hide it.

b) When an affirmative protasis is repeated in negative form; as,—
sī fēceris, magnam habēbō grātiām; sī nōn fēceris, ignōscam, if you do it, I shall be deeply grateful; if you do not do it, I shall pardon you.

a. But if the verb is omitted in the repetition, only sī minus or sīn minus is admissible; as,—
hōc sī nonesse cūsum, gaudeō; sī minus, mē cōnsolōr, if I have attained this, I am glad; if not, I console myself.

3. Sīn. Where one protasis is followed by another opposed in meaning, but affirmative in form, the second is introduced by sīn; as,—
hunc milii timōrem ēripe; sī vērus est, nē opprimar, sīn fālus, ut timēre déshinam, relieve me of this fear; if it is well founded, that I may not be destroyed; but if it is groundless, that I may cease to fear.

4. Nisi has a fondness for combining with negatives (nōn, nēmō, nihil); as,—
nihil cēgtāvit nisi caedēm, he had no thought but murder.

a. Nōn and nisi are always separated in the best Latinity.

5. Nisi forte, nisi vērō, nisi sī, unless perchance, unless indeed (often with ironical force), take the Indicative; as,—
nisi vērō, quia perfecta ré sī nōn est, nōn vīdetur pūnienda, unless indeed, because an act is not consummated, it does not seem to merit punishment.
Conditional Clauses of Comparison.

307. 1. Conditional Clauses of Comparison are introduced by the particles, ac si, ut si, quasi, quam si, tamquam si, velut si, or simply by velut or tamquam. They stand in the Subjunctive mood and regularly involve an ellipsis (see § 374, 1), as indicated in the following examples:—

tantus patrés metus cepit, velut si jam ad portás hostis esset, as great fear seized the senators as (would have seized them) if the enemy were already at the gates;

sed quid ego his testibus istor quasi rès dubia aut obscura sit,
but why do I use these witnesses, as (I should do) if the matter were doubtful or obscure;

serviam tibi tamquam si ēmeris mē argentō, I will serve you as though you had bought me for money.

2. Note that in sentences of this kind the Latin observes the regular principles for the Sequence of Tenses. Thus after principal tenses the Latin uses the Present and Perfect (as in the second and third examples), where the English uses the Past and the Past Perfect.

Concessive Clauses.

308. The term ‘Concessive’ is best restricted to those clauses developed from the Jussive Subjunctive which have the force of granted that, etc.; as,—

sit fūr, sit sacrilegus, at est bonus imperator, granted that he is a thief and a robber, yet he is a good commander;

ut hóc vérum sit, granted that this is true;

nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certè est, granted that pain is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil.

Adversative Clauses with Quamvis, Quamquam, etc.

309. Clauses introduced by quamvis, quamquam, etc., tametsi, cum, although, while often classed as ‘Concessive,’ are yet essentially different from genuine Concessive clauses. As a rule, they do not grant or concede anything, but rather state that something is true in spite of
something else. They accordingly emphasize the adversative idea, and are properly Subordinate Adversative Clauses. The different particles used to introduce these clauses have different meanings and take different constructions, as follows:—

1. Quamvis, however much, although, does not introduce a statement of fact, but represents an act merely as conceived. It is followed by the Subjunctive, usually of the present tense; as,—

hominēs quamvis in turbidis rēbus sint, tamen interdum animās relaxantur, in however stirring events men may engage, yet at times they relax their energies;
nōn est potestās opinandī reī publicae quamvis ea premātur periculōsa, there is no opportunity to succor the state, though it be beset by dangers.

2. Quamquam, etā, tametā, although, introduce a statement of fact, and are followed by the Indicative (of any tense); as,—

quamquam omnīs virtūs nōs alīcit, tamen jūstitia id maximē efficit, although all virtue attracts us, yet justice does so especially;
Caesar, etā nōndum cōnsilium hostium cognōverat, tamen id quod accīdit suspicābātur, Caesar, though he did not yet know the plans of the enemy, yet was suspecting what actually occurred.

a. Etā, although, must be distinguished from etā, even if. The latter is a conditional particle and takes any of the constructions admissible for it. (See §§ 302-304.)

3. Cum, although, is followed by the Subjunctive; as,—

Attīlus honōrēs nōn petīt, cum eī patērent, Atticus did not seek honors, though they were open to him.

4. Licet sometimes loses its verbal force (see § 295, 6) and sinks to the level of a conjunction with the force of although. It takes the Subjunctive, Present or Perfect; as,—

licet omnēs terrōrēs impendēnt, succurram, though all terrors hang over me, (yet) I will lend aid.

5. Quamquam, with the force and yet, is often used to introduce principal clauses; as,—

quamquam quid loquar, and yet why do I speak?
6. In post-Augustan writers quamquam is freely construed with the Subjunctive, while quamvis is often used to introduce statements of fact, and takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Thus:—

quamquam movērētur his vōcibus, although he was moved by these words;
quamvis multi opinārentur, though many thought;
quamvis infestō animō pervēnerēs, though you had come with hostile intent.

Clauses with Dum, Modo, Dummodo, denoting a Wish or a Proviso.

310. These particles are followed by the Subjunctive (negative nē) and have two distinct uses:—

I. They are used to introduce clauses embodying a wish entertained by the subject of the leading verb; as,—

multī honesta neglegunt dummodo potentiam cōnsequantur,
many neglect honor in their desire to obtain power (if only they may attain);
omnia postposui, dum praeceptis patria pārerem, I made everything else secondary, in my desire to obey the injunctions of my father;
nulla obstat tibi, dum nē sit dītor alter, nothing hinders you in your desire that your neighbor may not be richer than you.

II. They are used to express a proviso (‘provided that’); as,—

5derint, dum metuant, let them hate, provided they fear;
manent ingénia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria,
old men retain their faculties, provided only they retain their interest and vigor;
nūbant, dum nē dōs flat comes, let them marry, provided no dowry goes with it.

Relative Clauses.

311. Relative Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns, Adjectives, or Adverbs.

312. 1. Relative clauses usually stand in the Indicative Mood, especially clauses introduced by those General Relatives which are doubled or have the suffix -cunque; as,—
quidquid id est, timeō Danaōs et dōna ferentēs, whatever it is, I fear the Greeks even when they offer gifts;
quidquid oritur, quaecunque est, causam ā nātūrā habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever sort it is, has its primal cause in Nature.

2. Any simple Relative may introduce a conditional sentence of any of the three types mentioned in §§ 302–304; as, —
quī hōc dīcit, errat, he who says this is mistaken (First Type);
quī hōc dīcit, errēt, he would be mistaken who should say this (Second Type);
quī hōc dīxisset, errāsset, the man who had said this would have been mistaken.

**INDIRECT DISCOURSE (ŌRĀTIŌ OBLĪQUA).**

313. When the language or thought of any person is reproduced without change, that is called Direct Discourse (Ōrātiō Rēcta): as, Caesar said, 'The die is cast.' When, on the other hand, one's language or thought is made to depend upon a verb of saying, thinking, etc., that is called Indirect Discourse (Ōrātiō Obliqua); as, Caesar said that the die was cast; Caesar thought that his troops were victorious.

a. For the verbs most frequently employed to introduce Indirect Discourse, see § 331.

**MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.**

**Declarative Sentences.**

314. 1. Declarative Sentences upon becoming Indirect change their main clause to the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, while all subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive; as, —

Rēgulus dīxit quam dīd ūrē jūrāndō hostium tenērētur nōn esse sē senātōrem, Rēgulus said that as long as he was held by his pledge to the enemy he was not a senator. (Direct: quam dīd teneor nōn sum senātor.)
2. The verb of saying, thinking, etc., is sometimes to be inferred from the context; as,—

*tum Rōmulus lēgātōs cīrca vīnīs gentēs māsit qui societātem cōnībiunque peterent: urbēs quoque, ut cītera, ex infinitō nāscī.* Then Romulus sent envoys around among the neighboring tribes, to ask for alliance and the right of intermarriage, (saying that) cities, like everything else, start from a modest beginning.

*Subordinate clauses which contain an explanatory statement of the writer and so are not properly a part of the Indirect Discourse, or which emphasize the fact stated, take the Indicative; as,—*

*nūntiātūm est Ariovistus ad occupandum Vesontiōnem, quod est oppidum maximum Sēquanōrum, contendere, it was reported that Ariovistus was hastening to seize Vesontio, which is the largest town of the Sequani.*

4. Sometimes a subordinate clause is such only in its external form, and in sense is principal. It then takes the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. This occurs especially in case of relative clauses, where *qui* is equivalent to *et hic, nam hic, etc.*; as,—

*dixit urbem Athēnēnsium prōpugnāculum oppositum esse barbaras, apud quam jam bīs classēs rēgiās fāciisse naufragium, he said the city of the Athenians had been set against the barbarians like a bulwark, near which (= and near it) the fleets of the King had twice met disaster.*

5. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is sometimes omitted when it refers to the same person as the subject of the leading verb, or can easily be supplied from the context; as,—

*cum id nescire Māgō diceret, when Mago said he did not know this (for sā nescire).*

**Interrogative Sentences.**

315. 1. Real questions of the Direct Discourse, upon becoming indirect, are regularly put in the Subjunctive; as,—

*Ariovistus Čaesāri respondit: sā prius in Galliam vēnisse quam populum Rōmānum. Quid sibi vellet? Cūr in suis possessās veniret, Ariovistus replied to Caesar that he*
had come into Gaul before the Roman people. What did he
(Cæsar) mean? Why did he come into his domain? (Direct:
quid tibi vīs? cūr in meās possessiōnēs venīs?)

2v Rhetorical questions, on the other hand, being asked
merely for effect, and being equivalent in force to emphatic
statements, regularly stand in the Infinitive in Indirect
Discourse. Thus: —

quid est levius (lit. what is more trivial, = nothing is more trivial)
of the Direct Discourse becomes quid esse levius in the In-
direct.

3. Deliberative Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse remain un-
changed in mood in the Indirect; as, —
quid faceret, what was he to do? (Direct: quid faciat?)

—

Imperative Sentences.

316. All Imperatives or Jussive Subjunctives of the
Direct Discourse appear as Subjunctives in the In-
direct; as, —
militēs certērēs fēcit paulisper intermittērent proelium, he
told the soldiers to stop the battle for a little. (Direct:
intermittēte.)
a. The Negative in such sentences is nē; as, —
nē suae virtūtī tribueret, let him not attribute it to his own
valor!

TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

A. Tenses of the Infinitive.

317. These are used in accordance with the regular
principles for the use of the Infinitive as given in § 270.

a. The Perfect Infinitive may represent any past tense of the
Indicative of Direct Discourse. Thus: —

scīō tē haec āgisse may mean —

I know you were doing this. (Direct: haec āgēbās.)
I know you did this. (Direct: haec āgisti.)
I know you had done this. (Direct: haec āgeriās.)
B. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

318. These follow the regular principle for the Sequence of Tenses, being Principal if the verb of saying is Principal; Historical if it is Historical. Yet for the sake of vividness, we often find the Present Subjunctive used after an historical tense (Repraesentātiō); as,—

Caesar respondit, si obśidēs dentur, sēēs pācem esse factūrum,
Caesar replied that, if hostages be given, he would make peace.

a. For the sequence after the Perfect Infinitive, see § 268, 2.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Conditional Sentences of the First Type.

319. A. The Apodosis. Any tense of the Indicative is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive (§§ 270; 317, a).

B. The Protasis. The protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive which are required by the Sequence of Tenses.

Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Indirect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>si hoc crēdis, errās,</td>
<td>{ dicō, si hoc crēdisās, tē errāre;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>{ dixi, si hoc crēderēs, tē errāre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>si hoc crēdēsās, errābis,</td>
<td>{ dicō, si hoc crēdisās, tē errātūrum esse;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>{ dixi, si hoc crēderēsās, tē errātūrum esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>si hoc crēdideris, errābis,</td>
<td>{ dicō, si hoc crēdisās, tē errātūrum esse;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>{ dixi, si hoc crēderēsās, tē errātūrum esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>si hoc crēdēbās, errāvisti,</td>
<td>{ dicō, si hoc crēderēs, tē errāvisse;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>{ dixi, si hoc crēderēs, tē errāvisse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Note that a Future Perfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse regularly appears in the Indirect as a Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and as a Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense.
Conditional Sentences of the Second Type.


B. **The Protasis.** The Protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive demanded by the sequence of tenses.

Examples:—

\[ \text{si hoc crēdēs, errēs, } \]
\[ \text{dicō, si hoc crēdēs, tē errātūrum esse; } \]
\[ \text{dixī, si hoc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse. } \]

Conditional Sentences of the Third Type.

321. A. **The Apodosis.**

1. The Imperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes the Future Infinitive.

   a. But this construction is rare, being represented in the classical Latinity by a single example (Caesar, V. 29. 2). Some scholars question the correctness of this passage.

2. The Pluperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes:—

   a) In the Active Voice the Infinitive in -ārus fuisse.

   b) In the Passive Voice it takes the form futūrum fuisse ut with the Imperfect Subjunctive.

B. **The Protasis.** The protasis in Conditional Sentences of this type always remains unchanged.

Examples:—

\[ \text{si hoc crēderēs, errēs, } \]
\[ \text{dicō (dixi), si hoc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse; } \]
\[ \text{si hoc crēdidissēs, errāvissēs, } \]
\[ \text{dicō (dixi), si hoc crēdidissēs, tē errātūrum fuisse; } \]
\[ \text{si hoc dixissēs, pāntus essēs, } \]
\[ \text{dicō (dixi), si hoc dixissēs fūtūrum fuisse ut pānirēris. } \]

322. When an apodosis of a conditional sentence of the Third Type referring to the past is at the same time a Result clause, or a
Indirect Discourse.

quīn-clause (after nōn dubitō, etc.), it stands in the Perfect Subjunctive in the form -ūrus fuerim; as,—

ita terrīt sunt, ut arma trādīturī fuerint, nīs Caesar subītō advēnisset, they were so frightened that they would have given up their arms, had not Caesar suddenly arrived;
nōn dubitō quīn, si hōc dīxissēs, erūtūrus fuerīs, I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have made a mistake.

a. This peculiarity is confined to the Active Voice. In the Passive, such sentences, when they become dependent, remain unchanged; as,—
nōn dubitō quīn, si hōc dīxissēs, vituperātus essēs, I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have been blamed.

b. When an Indirect Question becomes an apodosis in a conditional sentence of the Third Type, -ūrus fuerim (rarely -ūrus fuissem) is used; as,—
quaeō, num, si hōc dīxissēs, errūtūrus fuerīs (or fuissem).

c. Potūī, when it becomes a dependent apodosis in sentences of this Type, usually changes to the Perfect Subjunctive; as,—
concurreōtōtus cōvitātīs dēfēnīt sunt, ut frigidēsimōs quōque grātōrēs populi studia excūtīrē potuerint, they were defended before a gathering of all the citizens, so that the interest of the people would have been enough to excite even the most apathetic orators.

IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

323. The Subjunctive is often used in subordinate clauses whose Indirect character is merely implied by the context; as,—
dēmōnstrābatur mihi præterēs quae Socratēs dē immortālitāte animōrum dēseruisset, there were explained to me besides, the arguments which Socrates had set forth concerning the immortality of the soul (i.e. the arguments which, it was said, Socrates had set forth);
Paetus omnēs librēs quōs pater suus relēquisset mihi dōnāvit,
Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said) his father had left.

1 Trāditūrī fuerint and errūtūrus fuerīs are to be regarded as representing trāditūrī fuērant and errūtūrus fuērī of Direct Discourse. (See § 304. 2.)
SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION.

324. 1. Subordinate clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive are frequently attracted into the same mood, especially when they do not express a fact, but constitute an essential part of one complex idea; as, —

namō avārus adhuc inventus est, cuī, quod habēret, esset satīns

or niser has yet been found who was satisfied with what he had;

cum diversās causās afferrent, dum fōrmam suī quisque et

animī et ingenī redderent, as they brought forward different

arguments, while each mirrored his own individual type of

mind and natural bent;

quod ego fater, pudeat? should I be ashamed of a thing which I

admit?

2. Similarly a subordinate clause dependent upon an Infinitive

is put in the Subjunctive when the two form one closely united

whole; as, —

mōs est Athēnēs quotannis in contiūne laudāri eōs quī sint in

proelīs interfēctū. it is the custom at Athens every year for

those to be publicly eulogized who have been killed in battle.

(Here the notion of 'praising those who fell in battle' forms

an inseparable whole.)

NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

325. These are the Infinitive, Participle, Gerund, and Supine. All of these partake of the nature of the Verb, on the one hand, and of the Noun or Adjective, on the other. Thus: —

As Verbs, —

a) They may be limited by adverbs;

b) They admit an object;

c) They have the properties of voice and tense.

As Nouns or Adjectives,—

a) They are declined;

b) They take Noun or Adjective constructions.
THE INFINITIVE.

Infinitive without Subject Accusative.

326. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also as predicate or Appositive.

Note.—The Infinitive was originally a Dative, and traces of this are still to be seen in the poetical use of the Infinitive to express purpose; as, nec dulcēs occur-
rent ōscula nātī praeripere, and no sweet children will run to snatch kisses.

A. As Subject.

327. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Subject of esse and various impersonal verbs, particularly opus est, necessē est, oportet, juvāt, délēcat, placet, libet, licet, praestat, docet, pudet, interest, etc.; as, —
dulce et decōrum est prō patria morti, it is sweet and noble to die for one's country;
virōrum est fortium toleranter dolorēm pati, it is the part of brave men to endure pain with patience;
señātūrī placuit légātōs mittere, the Senate decided (lit. it pleased the Senate) to send envoys.

2. Even though the Infinitive itself appears without Subject, it may take a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the Accusative; as, —
aliud est Irācundum esse, aliud Irātum, it is one thing to be irascible, another to be angry;
impùne quaelibet facere, id est rēgem esse, to do whatever you please with impunity, that is to be a king.

a. But when licet is followed by a Dative of the person, a Predicate Noun or Adjective with esse is attracted into the same case; as,
līcult esse cōstīs Themistocli, lit. it was permitted to Themistocles to be at leisure. So sometimes with other Impersonals.

B. As Object.

328. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Object of many verbs, to denote another action of the same subject, particularly after —
volē, cupīō, mālō, nōsī;
dēbeō, ought;
statūō, cūstituō, decide;
cūgitō, meditor, intend;
negeō, neglect;
vereō, timeō, fear;
Syntax.

audeō, dare; mātrō,festinō, properō, contendō, hasten;
studeō, contendō, strive;
parsō, prepare (so parātus);
incipiō, coepi, Instituō, begin;
pergō, continue;
dēsinō, dēsistō, cease;
possum, can;
coniō, try;

Tū hōs intuēris audeās, do you dare to look on these men?
Dēmothēnēs aēs flōtūs mariēs dēclāmāre solēbat, Demosthenes
used to declaim by the waves of the sea.

2. A Predicate Noun or Adjective with these Infinitives is attracted
into the Nominative; as,—

beātus esse sine virtūte nēmō potest, no one can be happy without
virtue;
Catō esse quam vidērī bonus mālēbat, Cato preferred to be good
rather than to seem so.

Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

329. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also
as Predicate or Appositive.

A. As Subject.

330. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative (like the
simple Infinitive) is used as Subject with esse and Impersonal verbs, particularly with aequum est, utile est, turpe
est, fāma est, apēs est, fās est, nefās est, opinus est, necessē
est, oportet, cōnātum, praestat, licet, etc.; as,—
nihil in bellō oportet contemnī, nothing ought to be despised in war;
apertum est a hāc quomque nātūrā esse cārum, it is manifest that
by nature everybody is dear to himself.

B. As Object.

331. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used as
Object after the following classes of verbs:—

1. Most frequently after verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, per-
ceiving, and the like (Verba Sentiendi et Dēclārandī). This is the
regular construction of Principal Clauses of Indirect Discourse. Verbs that take this construction are, among others, the following: sentīō, audiō, videō, cognōscō; putō, jūdícō, spērō, cōnfidō; scīō, meminī; dicō, affirmō, negō (say that . . . not), trādō, nārrō, fatores, respondeō, scribō, prōmittō, glōrior. Also the phrases: certōrem faciō (inform), memoriā teneō (remember), etc.

Example: —
Epicūrēi putant cum corporibus simul animōs interire, the Epicureans think that the soul perishes with the body.
Thalēs dixit aquam esse initium rērum, Thales said that water was the first principle of the universe.
Dēmocritus negat quicquid esse sempiternum, Democritus says nothing is everlasting.
spērō cum ventūrum esse, I hope that he will come.

II. With jubeō, order, and vetō, forbid; as,—
Caesar militēs pontem facere jussit, Caesar ordered the soldiers to make a bridge.
   a. When the name of the person who is ordered or forbidden to do something is omitted, the Infinitive with jubeō and vetō is put in the Passive; as, Caesar pontem fieri jussit.

III. With patior and sinō, permit, allow; as,—
nūlla sē implicārī negōtiō paenās est, he did not permit himself to be involved in any difficulty.

IV. With volō, nōlō, mālō, cupō, when the Subject of the Infinitive is different from that of the governing verb; as,—
nec mīhi hunc errorem extorquērī volō, nor do I wish this error to be wrested from me.
ēsē rēs jactārī nōlēbat, he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed.
ēsē τuis divitiās fruī cupimus, we desire that you enjoy your wealth.
   a. When the Subject of both verbs is the same, the simple Infinitive is regularly used in accordance with § 302. 1. But exceptions occur, especially in case of esse and Passive Infinitives; as,—
cupō mō esse clāmentem, I desire to be lenient.
Timoleōn mālit sē dīligī quam metuī, Timoleon preferred to be loved rather than feared.

V. volō also admits the Subjunctive, with or without ut; nōlō the Subjunctive alone. (See § 296, 1. e.)
V. With Verbs of emotion (joy, sorrow, regret, etc.), especially
gaudē, laetor, dolē; aestē ferō, molestimō ferō, graviter ferō, am
angered, distressed; mīror, queror, indignor; as,—
gaudē sē salūm advenire, I rejoice that you arrive safely;
nōn molestimō sē libidinum vinculis laxātōs esse, they are
not troubled at being released from the bonds of passion;
mīror sē ad mē nihil scribere, I wonder that you write me nothing.
   a. Instead of an Infinitive these verbs also sometimes admit a quod-
      clause as Object. (See § 239.) Thus:—
mīror quod nōn loqueris, I wonder that you do not speak.

VI. Some verbs which take two Accusatives, one of the Person and
the other of the Thing (§ 178, 1), may substitute an Infinitive for the
second Accusative; as,—
cōgō sē hōc facere, I compel you to do this (cf. sē hōc cōgō);
docui sē contentum esse, I taught you to be content (cf. sē modes-
tiam docui, I taught you temperance).

Passive Construction of the Foregoing Verbs.

332. Those verbs which in the Active are followed by
the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, usually admit the
personal construction in the Passive. This is true of the
following and of some others:—
   a) jubeor, vetor, sinor; as,—
mīlitēs pontem facere jussī sunt, the soldiers were ordered
to build a bridge;
pōns fieri jussus est, a bridge was ordered built;
mīlitēs castra exile vetērē sunt, the troops were forbidden
to go out of the camp;
Sēstius Clōdiūm accusāre nōn est situs, Sextus was
not allowed to accuse Clodius.
   b) videor, īam seen, īsem; as,—
vidētūr compleāsse, he seems to have discovered.
   c) dīcor, putor, existimor, jādicor (in all persons); as,—
dīcitūr in Italianam vēnisse, he is said to have come into
Italy;
Rōmulus prīmus īx Rōmānōrum fuissē putātur, Romu-
lus is thought to have been the first king of the Romans.
Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb. 217

d) fortur, feruntur, trāditur, trāduntur (only in the third person); as,—
fortur Homērus caecus fuisse, Homer is said to have been blind;
carmine Archilochoi contumēlis referta esse trāduntur,
Archilocho’s poems are reported to have been full of abuse.

NOTE. — In compound tenses and periphrastic forms, the last two classes of verbs, i), ii), more commonly take the impersonal construction; as,—
trāditum est Homērum caecum fuisse, the story goes that Homer was blind.

Infinitive with Adjectives.

333. The Infinitive with Adjectives (except parātus, assuētus, etc.; see § 328, 1) occurs only in poetry and post-Augustan prose writers; as,—
contentus dēmōnstrāsse, contented to have proved;
audāx omnia perpetu, bold for enduring everything.

Infinitive in Exclamations.

334. The Infinitive is used in Exclamations implying scorn, indignation, or regret. An intensive -ne is often attached to some word in the clause. Examples:—
huncī sōlem tam nigrum surrēxī mihi, to think that to-day’s sun rose with such evil omen for me!
seḍēre tōtōs dīēs in villā, to stay whole days at the villa!

Historical Infinitive.

335. The Infinitive is often used in historical narrative instead of the Imperfect Indicative. The Subject stands in the Nominative; as,—
interimcottīdēi Caesār Haeduōs frumentum fāgitāre, meanwhile Caesar was daily demanding grain of the Haeduī.

PARTICIPLES.

Tenses of the Participle.

336. i. The tenses of the Participle, like those of the Infinitive (see § 270), express time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb upon which the Participle depends.
2. The Present Participle denotes action contemporary with that of the verb. Thus:

audīō tē loquentem = you are speaking and I hear you;

audībam tē loquentem = you were speaking and I heard you;

audiam tē loquentem = you will be speaking and I shall hear you.

2a. The Present Participle is sometimes employed with Conative force; as,—

assurientem rēgem resūpīnatos, as the king was trying to raise, he threw him down.

3. The Perfect Passive Participle denotes action prior to that of the verb. Thus:

locūtus taceō = I have spoken and am silent;
locūtus tacui = I had spoken and then was silent;
locūtus tacēbō = I shall speak and then shall be silent.

4. The absolute time of the action of a participle, therefore, is determined entirely by the finite verb with which it is connected.

5. Certain Perfect Passive Particiles of Deponent and Semi-Deponent Verbs are used as Presents, viz. arbitrātus, ausus, ratus, gāvisus, solitus, ēsus, cōnīitus, diffusus, secūtus, veritus.

Use of Participles.

337. As an Adjective the Participle may be used either as an attributive or predicate modifier of a Substantive.

1. Attributive Use. This presents no special peculiarities. Examples are:—

glória est cōnserentiās laus bonōrum, glory is the unanimous praise of the good;

Conōn mārōs a Līsandrō dīruitēs reficit, Conon restored the walls destroyed by Lysander.

2. Predicate Use. Here the Participle is often equivalent to a subordinate clause. Thus the Participle may denote:—

a) Time; as,—

omne malum nāscēns facile opprimitur, every evil is easily crushed at birth.

b) A Condition; as,—

mente ēti nōn possumus cibō et pōtōne complēti, if gorged with food and drink, we cannot use our intellects.
c) Manner; as,—
Solōn senācere sē dicēbat multa in diēs addiscētām,
Solon said he grew old learning many new things daily.

d) Means; as,—
sōl oriēns diēm cōnācit, the sun, by its rising, makes the
day.

e) Opposition (‘though’); as,—
mendāci hominē nē vērum quidem dicēnti crēdīmus,
we do not believe a liar, though he speaks the truth.

f) Cause; as,—
perfidiām veritās ad suōs recessit, since he feared
treachery, he returned to his own troops.

3. Videō and audiō, besides the Infinitive, take the Present Participle in the Predicate use; as,—
videō tē fugiēntem, I see you fleeing.

a. So frequently faciō, fingō, indicō, etc.; as,—
elī Cātōnem respondēntem faciēmus, we represent Cato replying
to them;
Homerus Laértem colementem agrum faciēt, Homer represents
Laertes tilling the field.

4. The Future Active Participle (except futūrus) is regularly con-
fined to its use in the Periphrastic Conjugation, but in poets and later
writers it is used independently, especially to denote purpose; as,—
vēnērunt castra oppugnātūtī, they came to assault the camp.

5. The Perfect Passive Participle is often equivalent to a coordi-
nate clause; as,—
urbem captam dīruit, he captured and destroyed the city (lit. he de-
stroyed the city captured).

6. The Perfect Passive Participle in combination with a noun is
sometimes equivalent to an abstract noun with a dependent Genitive;
as,—
post urbem conditam, after the founding of the city;
Quincoitus dēfēnsus, the defense of Quinctius;
quībus anūmus occupātus, the preoccupation of the mind with which.

7. Habeō sometimes takes a Perfect Passive Participle in the Predic-
ate construction with a force not far removed from that of the Perfect
or Pluperfect Indicative; as,—
cōpiās quās coāctās habēbat, the forces which he had collected.
8. The Gerundive denotes obligation, necessity, etc. Like other Participles it may be used either as Attributive or Predicate.
   
a) Less frequently as Attributive. Thus:
   
   *liber legendas, a book worth reading;*
   *leges observandae, laws deserving of observance.*
   
b) More frequently as Predicate.
   
   1) In the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (*amandus est, etc.*). In this use Intransitive Verbs can be used only impersonally, but admit their ordinary case- construction (Gen., Dat., Abl.); as,
   
   *veniendum est, it is necessary to come;*
   *obliviscendum est injuriarum, one must forget injuries;*
   *numquam prodictus credeniendum est, you must never trust a traitor;*
   
   *suo cuique etendum est judio, every man must use his own judgment.*
   
   2) After *curo,* provide for; *dō, tradō,* give over; *relinquō,* leave; *concedō,* hand over; and some other verbs, instead of an object clause or to denote purpose; as,
   
   *Caesar pontem in Ararī faciendum cūrāvit, Caesar provided for the construction of a bridge over the Arar;*
   *imperator urbem militibus dērpliendam concessit, the general handed over the city to the soldiers to plunder.*
   
9. For the Gerundive as the equivalent of the Gerund, see § 339, i.

THE GERUND.

338. As a verbal noun the Gerund admits noun constructions as follows:—

1. Genitive. The Genitive of the Gerund is used—

   a) With Nouns, as Objective or Appositional Genitive (see §§ 200, 202); as,
   
   *cupiditās dominandī, desire of ruling;*
   *ars scribendi, the art of writing.*
   
   b) With Adjectives; as,
   
   *cupidus audīendi, desires of hearing.*
   
   c) With causā, grātuā; as,
   
   *discessi causā, for the sake of learning.*
2. Dative. The Dative of the Gerund is used —
   a) With Adjectives as —
      *aqua utilis est bibendō, water is useful for drinking.*
   b) With Verbs (rarely) as —
      *adul scrībendō, I was present at the writing.*

3. Accusative. The Accusative of the Gerund is used only with
   Prepositions, chiefly ad and in to denote purpose; as —
   *homō ad agendum nātus est, man is born for action.*

4. Ablative. The Ablative of the Gerund is used —
   a) Without a Preposition, as an Ablative of Means, Cause, etc.
      (see §§ 218, 219); as —
      *mānes discendō altur et cōgitandō, the mind is nourished
       by learning and reflection.*
      *Themistocles mari tūm praeōns cōnsecandō mare
       tātum reddidit, Themistocles made the sea safe by
       following up the pirates.*
   b) After the prepositions ā, ē, ex, in; as —
      *summa voluptās ex discendō capitur, the keenest pleas-
       sure is derived from learning.*
      *multa ā bene beātīque viōndō & Platōne disputāta
       sunt, there was much discussion by Plato on the subject
       of living well and happily.*

5. As a rule, only the Genitive of the Gerund and the Ablative
   (without a preposition) admit a Direct Object.

**Gerundive Construction instead of the Gerund.**

339. 1. Instead of the Genitive or Ablative of the Gerund with a
   Direct Object, another construction may be, and very often is, used.
   This consists in putting the Direct Object in the case of the Gerund
   (Gen. or Abl.) and using the Gerundive in agreement with it. This
   is called the Gerundive Construction. Thus: —

   GERUND CONSTRUCTION.                      GERUNDIVE CONSTRUCTION.
   cupidīus urbm vīdendī, desires of seeing the city;  cupidīus urbīs vīdendae;
   dēlector ōrātorēs legendī, I am charmed with reading the orators;  dēlector ōrātoribus legendae.
2. The Gerundive Construction must be used to avoid a Direct Object with the Dative of the Gerund, or with a case dependent upon a Preposition; as,—

locus castris muniendis aptus, a place adapted to fortifying a camp;
ad pæcem petendum vénérunt, they came to ask peace;
multum temporis cónsumó in legendis poétis, I spend much time in reading the poets.

3. In order to avoid ambiguity (see § 236, 2), the Gerundive Construction must not be employed in case of Neuter Adjectives used substantively. Thus regularly—

philosophi cupidí sunt vērum invēstigandī, philosophers are eager for discovering truth (rarely vēri invēstigandī);

studium plùra cognōscendī, a desire of knowing more (not plùrimum cognōscendōrum).

4. From the nature of the case only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Gerundive Construction; but stōr, fuōr, fūngōr, potior (originally transitive) regularly admit it; as,—

hostēs in spēm potiūndōrum castrōrum vēnerant, the enemy had conceived the hope of gaining possession of the camp.

5. The Genitives meī, tui, sui, nostri, vestrī, when used in the Gerundive Construction, are regularly employed without reference to Gender or Number, since they were originally Neuter Singular Adjectives used substantively. Thus:—

mulier suī servandī causā aŭfīgit, the woman fled for the sake of saving herself;

légātī in castrā vēnērunt suī pūrīndī causā, the envoys came into camp for the purpose of clearing themselves.

So nostri servandī causā, for the sake of saving ourselves.

6. Occasionally the Genitive of the Gerundive Construction is used to denote purpose; as,—

quaerī licērit aec libertātis subvertundae, which he undertook for the purpose of overthrowing the laws and liberty.

7. The Dative of the Gerundive Construction occurs in some expressions which have the character of formulas; as,—

decemvīrī légibus scribundīs, decemvirs for codifying the laws;
quīndecimvīrī sacrīs faciundīs, quindecimvirs for performing the sacrifices.
THE SUPINE.

340. 1. The Supine in -um is used after Verbs of motion to express purpose; as,—

lēgātī ad Caesarem grātulātum convēnērunt, envoys came to Caesar to congratulate him.

a. The Supine in -um may take an Object; as,—
pācem petītum ērātōrēs Rōmam mittunt, they send envoys to Rome to ask for peace.

b. Note the phrase: —
dō ( colloccō) filiam nūptum, I give my daughter in marriage.

2. The Supine in -ā is used as an Ablative of Specification with facile, difficultis, incrēdibilis, jācundus, optimus, etc.; also with fās est, nefās est, opus est; as,—

haec rēs est facilis cognītū, this thing is easy to learn;
hōo est optimum factū, this is best to do.

a. Only a few Supines in -ā are in common use, chiefly audītū, cognītū, dictū, factū, visū.

b. The Supine in -ā never takes an Object.

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CHAPTER VI. — Particles.

COORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

341. Copulative Conjunctions. These join one word, phrase, or clause to another.

1. a) et simply connects.

b) -que joins more closely than et, and is used especially where the two members have an internal connection with each other; as,—

parentēs libērique, parents and children;
cum hōminēs aestū fabrīque jactantur, when people are tossed about with heat and fever.
c) *atque* (ac) usually emphasizes the second of the two things connected, — and also, and indeed, and in fact. After words of likeness and difference *atque* (ac) has the force of *at*, *than*. Thus: —

> ego idem sentiō ac tū, *I think the same as you;*
> haud alter ac, *not otherwise than.*

*d) *neque* (nec) means *and not, neither, nor.*

2.  

2.  

a) *-que* is an enclitic, and is appended always to the second of two words connected. Where it connects phrases or clauses it is appended to the first word of the second clause; but when the first word of the second clause is a Preposition, *-que* is regularly appended to the next following word; as,—

> ob eamque rem, *and on account of that thing.*

b) *atque* is used before vowels and consonants; *ac* never before vowels, and seldom before *e, g, qu.*

c) *et nōn* is used for *neque* when the emphasis of the negative rests upon a special word; as,—

> vētus et nōn ignōbilis sērētor, *an old and not ignoble orator.*

d) *For and nowhere, and never, and none,* the Latin regularly said *nequā quam, nec unquam, nec tūlīs,* etc.

3.  

Correlatives. Copulative Conjunctions are frequently used correlative; as,—

> et . . . et, *both . . . and;*
> neque (nec) . . . neque (nec), *neither . . . nor;*
> quam . . . tum, *while . . . at the same time;*
> tum . . . tum, *not only . . . but also.*

Less frequently:—

> et . . . neque; neque . . . et.

a. Note that the Latin, with its tendency to emphasize antithetical relations, often uses correlatives, especially *et . . . et, et . . . neque,* *neque . . . et,* where the English employs but a single connective.

4.  

In enumerations —

a) The different members of a series may follow one another without connectives (Asyndeton; see § 346). Thus: —

> ex cupidītātibus odia, discidia, discordiae, sēditioṇēs, bella nāscuntur, *from covetous desires spring up hatred, dissensions, discord, sedition, wars.*
§ 342. Disjunctive Conjunctions indicate an alternative.

1. a) aut must be used when the alternatives are mutually exclusive; as,—
   
   cita mors venit aut victoria laeta, (either) swift death or glad victory comes.

b) vel, -ve (enclitic) imply a choice between the alternatives; as,—
   
   quid aether vel caelum nominatur, which is called aether or heaven.

2. Correlatives. Disjunctive Conjunctions are often used correlatively; as,—
   
   aut ... aut, either ... or;
   vel ... vel, either ... or;
   alve ... alve, if ... or if.

§ 343. Adversative Conjunctions. These denote opposition.

1. a) sed, but, merely denotes opposition.
   
   b) verum, but, is stronger than sed, but is less frequently used.
   
   c) autem, but on the other hand, however, marks a transition.
   
   It is always post-positive.

Definition. A post-positive word is one that cannot begin a sentence, but is placed after one or more words.

1) at, but, is used especially in disputation, to introduce an opposing argument.

2) aequi means but yet.

3) tamen, yet, usually stands after the emphatic word, but not always.

4) verò, however, indeed, in truth, is always post-positive.
2. Note the correlative expressions:—

nón nón (nón modo) . . . sed etiam, not only . . . but also;
nón modo nón . . . sed nè . . . quidem, not only not, but not
    even; as,—

nón modo tibi nón tràscor, sed nè reprehendō quidem factum
tuum, I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even blame
your action.

a. But when the sentence has but one verb, and this stands with the second
   member, nón modo may be used for nón modo nón; as,—
   adesentō nón modo amicō sed nè liberō quidem digna
   est. fatuity is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a
   free man.

344. Illative Conjunctions. These represent the statement which they introduce as following from or as in conformity with what has preceded.

1. a) itaque = and so, accordingly.
   b) ergō = therefore, accordingly.
   c) igitur (regularly post-positive ²) = therefore, accordingly.

2. igitur is never combined with et, atque, -que, or neque.

345. Causal Conjunctions. These denote cause, or give an explanation. They are nam, namque, enim (post-positive), etenim, for.

346. Asyndeton. The conjunction is sometimes omitted between coordinate members, particularly in lively or impassioned narration. Thus:—

   a) A Copulative Conjunction is omitted; as,—
   aversa infinta insatiābilis est, avarice is boundless
   (and) insatiable;
   Cn. Pompejō, M. Crassō cōnsulibus, in the consuls of
   Gnaeus Pompey (and) Marcus Crassus.
   The conjunction is regularly omitted between the names of
   consuls when the praenomen (Marcus, Gaius, etc.) is expressed.

   b) An Adversative Conjunction may be omitted; as,—
   rationēs dēfuērunt, libertasōrēōnēs non dēfuit, arguments
   were lacking, (but) abundance of words was not.

² Except in Sallust and Silver Latin.
ADVERBS.

347. 1. The following particles, sometimes classed as Conjunctions, are more properly Adverbs:—

*etiam*, also, even.

*quoque* (always post-positive), also.

*quidem* (always post-positive) lays stress upon the preceding word.

It is sometimes equivalent to the English *indeed, in fact*, but more frequently cannot be rendered, except by vocal emphasis.

*nē . . . quidem* means *not even*; the emphatic word or phrase always stands between; as, *nē ille quidem, not even he.*

*tamen* and *verō*, in addition to their use as Conjunctions, are often employed as Adverbs.

2. **Negatives.** Two Negatives are regularly equivalent to an affirmative as in English, as *nōn nūllī, some*; but when *nōn, nāmō, nihil, numquam, etc.*, are accompanied by *neque . . . neque, nōn . . . nōn, nōn modo, or nē . . . quidem*, the latter particles simply take up the negation and emphasize it; as,—

*habeō hic nāminem neque amīcum neque cognātum, I have here no one, neither friend nor relative.*

*nōn enim praetererundum est nē id quidem, for not even that must be passed by.*

a. *Haud* in Cicero and Caesar occurs almost exclusively as a modifier of Adjectives and Adverbs, and in the phrase *haud sōlō an*. Later writers use it freely with verbs.

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Chapter VII. — *Word-Order and Sentence-Structure.*

**A. WORD-ORDER.**

348. In the normal arrangement of the Latin sentence the Subject stands at the beginning of the sentence, the Predicate at the end; as,—

*Dārus classem quingentārum nāvium comparāvit, Darius got ready a fleet of five hundred ships.*
349. But for the sake of emphasis the normal arrangement is often abandoned, and the emphatic word is put at the beginning, less frequently at the end of the sentence; as,—

*magnus in hōc bellō Themistocles fuit, great was Themistocles in this war;

allud iter habēmus nūllum, other course we have none.

SPECIAL PRINCIPLES.

350. 1. Nouns. A Genitive or other oblique case regularly follows the word upon which it depends. Thus:—

a) Depending upon a Noun:—

*tribūnus plēbis, tribune of the plebs;
*filius rēgis, son of the king;
*vir magnō animā, a man of noble spirit.
Yet always *senātūs cōnsultum, plēbis sofītum.

b) Depending upon an Adjective:—

*ignārus rērum, ignorant of affairs;
*dignō amićitātī, worthy of friendship;
*plūs aequō, more than (what it) fair.

2. Appositives. An Appositive regularly follows its Subject; as,—

*Philippus, rēx Macedonum, Philip, king of the Macedonians;
*adventūrī, vītōrīum adjūtērī, flattery, promoter of evils.
Yet *flīman Rhēnum, the River Rhine; and always in good prose
*urbs Rōma, the city Rome.

3. The Vocative usually follows one or more words; as,—

*audi, Caesar, hear, Caesar!*

4. Adjectives. No general law can be laid down for the position of Adjectives. On the whole they precede the noun oftener than they follow it.

a. Adjectives of *quantity* (including *numerals*) regularly precede their noun; as,—

*omnēs homīnes, all men;
septingētēs nāvēs, seven hundred vessels.*
6. Note the force of position in the following:—
media urbs, the middle of the city;
urbs media, the middle city;
extrōnum bellum, the end of the war;
bellum extrōnum, the last war.

c. Rōmānus and Latīnus regularly follow; as,—
seu tūs populusque Rōmānus, the Roman Senate and
Peoplen;
lūdī Rōmānī, the Roman games;
fēriae Latīnae, the Latin holidays.

d. When a Noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, a favorite order is: Adjective, Genitive, Noun; as,—
summa omnium rērum abundantia, the greatest abundance of all things.

5. Pronouns.
a. The Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns regularly precede the Noun; as,—
hīc homō, this man;
ille homō, that man;
erant duo itinera, quibus itineribus, etc., there were two
routes, by which, etc.
qui homō? what sort of a man?

b. But ille in the sense of 'that well known,' 'that famous,'
usually stands after its Noun; as,—
testula illa, that well-known custom of ostracism;
Mēdēa illa, that famous Medea.

c. Possessive and Indefinite Pronouns usually follow their
Noun; as,—
pater meus, my father;
homō quidam, a certain man;
mulier aliqua, some woman.
But for purposes of contrast the Possessive often precedes
its Noun; as,—
meus pater, my father (i.e. as opposed to yours, his, etc.).

d. Where two or more Pronouns occur in the same sentence,
the Latin is fond of putting them in close proximity; as,—
mihi forte ego vōbis cessāre videor, unless perchance I
seem to you to be doing nothing.
6. Adverbs and adverbial phrases regularly precede the word they modify; as, —

valde diligem, extremely diligent;
saepe dixi, I have often said;
tā jam diā hortāmur, we have long been urging you;
paulum post, a little after.

7. Prepositions regularly precede the words they govern.
a. But limiting words often intervene between the preposition and its case; as, —

dē communī hominum memoriā, concerning the common memory of men;
ad beatē vīendum, for living happily.

b. When a noun is modified by an adjective, the adjective is often placed before the preposition; as, —
magnō in dolōre, in great grief;
summā cum laude, with the highest credit;
quā dē causā, for which cause;
hanc ob rem, on account of this thing.

c. For Anastrophe, by which a preposition is put after its case, see § 144, 3.

8. Conjunctions. Autem, enim, and igitur regularly stand in the second place in the sentence, but when combined with est or sunt they often stand third; as, —

ita est enim, for so it is.

9. Words or phrases referring to the preceding sentence or to some part of it, regularly stand first; as, —

id ut audīvit, Corinthiam dēmigrāvit, when he heard that (referring to the contents of the preceding sentence), he moved to Corinth;
eō cum Caesar vēnisset, timentēs confirmavit, when Caesar had come thither (i.e. to the place just mentioned), he encouraged the timid.

10. The Latin has a fondness for putting side by side words which are etymologically related; as, —

ut ad senem senex dē senectūte, sic hōcō lūbrō ad amicum amicissimus dē amicitia scripti, as I, an old man, wrote to an old man, on old age, so in this book, as a fond friend, I have written to a friend concerning friendship.
11. Special rhetorical devices for indicating emphasis are the following:

a) **Hypórbaton**, which consists in the separation of words that regularly stand together; as, —

> septímus mihi *Originum liber est in manibus, the seventh book of my *Originum* is under way;
> receptó Caesar *Orius* profíscitur, having recovered Orius, Caesar set out.

b) **Anáphora**, which consists in the repetition of the same word or the same word-order in successive phrases; as, —

> sed pléni omnés sunt libri, plénae sapientium vócés, pléna exemplórum vetusítas, but all books are full of it, the voices of sages are full of it, antiquity is full of examples of it.

c) **Chiásma**, which consists in changing the relative order of words in two antithetical phrases; as, —

> multitós dêfendi, laesi nêminem, many have I defended, I have injured no one;
> horribílem illum diêm alíus, nóbis faustum, that day dreadful to others, for us fortunate.

d) **Sínclysis**, or the interlocked arrangement. This is mostly confined to poetry, yet occurs in rhetorical prose, especially that of the Imperial Period; as, —

> simulátem Pompejánarum gratiam partium, pretended interest in the Pompeian party.

12. **Metrical Close.** At the end of a sentence certain cadences were avoided; others were much employed. Thus: —

a) Cadences avoided.

> — v — x ; as, *esse vidētur* (close of hexameter).
> — v — v ; as, *esse potest* (close of pentameter).

b) Cadences frequently employed.

> — v — i ; as, **aucterant**.
> — v — v ; as, **comprobavit**.
> — v v v i v ; as, **esse videñtur**.
> — v v v v ; as, **rogánt tuō**.

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1 So named from a fancied analogy to the strokes of the Greek letter χ (chi).

Thus: —

> mulösa lasÍ
> dêfendi nêminem
B. SENTENCE-STRUCTURE.

351. 1. Unity of Subject. — In complex sentences the Latin regularly holds to unity of Subject in the different members; as,—

Caesar primum suō, deinde omnium ex obséctis remótis equis, ut æsquató periculō am̄̄ phugae tolleret, cohors-tātus suōs proelium commissit, Caesar having first removed his own horse from sight, then the horses of all, in order, by making the danger equal, to take away hope of flight, encouraged his men and joined battle.

2. A word serving as the common Subject or Object of the main clause and a subordinate one, stands before both; as,—

Haedui cum sē défendere nōn possent, lēgātōs ad Caesarem mittunt, since the Haedui could not defend themselves, they sent envoys to Caesar;

ille etiam belli André cupiditātem, tamen pāce serviendum putāvit, although he was burning with a desire to fight, yet he thought he ought to aim at peace.

a. The same is true also

1) When the Subject of the main clause is Object (Direct or Indirect) of a subordinate clause; as,—

Caesar, cum hoc ei nuntiatum esset, mātturāt ab urbe proficiscit, when this had been reported to Caesar he hastened to set out from the city.

2) When the Subject of a subordinate clause is at the same time the Object (Direct or Indirect) of the main clause; as,—

L. Māniō, cum dictātor fuisse, M. Pompōnius tri-būnus plēbis diem dīxit, M. Pomponius, tribune of the people, instituted proceedings against Lucius Manlius though he had been dictator.

3. Of subordinate clauses, temporal, conditional, and adversative clauses more commonly precede the main clause; indirect questions and clauses of purpose or result more commonly follow; as,—

postquam hæc dīxit, profectus est, after he said this, he set out;

si quis ita agat, imprudēns sit, if any one should act so, he would be devoid of foresight;

accidit ut unā nocte omnēs Hermae dēcerentur, it happened that in a single night all the Hermae were thrown down.
4. Sometimes in Latin the main verb is placed within the subordinate clause; as,—

si quid est in me ingent, quod sentio, quam sit exiguum, if there is any talent in me, and I know how little it is.

5. The Latin Period. The term Period, when strictly used, designates a compound sentence in which the subordinate clauses are inserted within the main clause; as,—

Caesar etiam intellegebat quod se causae exercebiseretur, tamen, ne aestatem in Treveris omanum oegeretur, Indutiorem ad eam venire jussit, though Caesar perceived why this was said, yet, lest he should be forced to spend the summer among the Treveri, he ordered Indutiomarus to come to him.

In the Periodic structure the thought is suspended until the end of the sentence is reached. Many Roman writers were extremely fond of this sentence-structure, and it was well adapted to the inflectional character of their language; in English we generally avoid it.

6. When there are several subordinate clauses in one Period, the Latins so arrange them as to avoid a succession of verbs. Thus:—

At hostes cum manisset, quae in castra gererentur, cognecerent, ubi se deceperat intellectuere, omnibus copiis subsecuerat ad flumen contendunt, but the enemy when they had sent men to learn what was going on in camp, after discovering that they had been outwitted, followed with all their forces and hurried to the river.

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Chapter VIII.—Hints on Latin Style.

352. In this chapter brief consideration is given to a few features of Latin diction which belong rather to style than to formal grammar.

Nouns.

353. 1. Where a distinct reference to several persons or things is involved, the Latin is frequently much more exact in the use of the Plural than is the English; as,—
Syntax.

domōs eunt, they go home (i.e. to their homes);
Germānī corpora cūrant, the Germans care for the body;
animōs militum recreat, he renews the courage of the soldiers;
dieā noctēsque timēre, to be in a state of fear day and night.

2. In case of Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively the Latin often employs the Plural where the English uses the Singular; as,—
omnia sunt perdīta, everything is lost;
quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
hae omnibus pervulgāta sunt, this is very well known to all.

3. The Latin is usually more concrete than the English, and especially less bold in the personification of abstract qualities. Thus:—
ā puerō, ā puero, from boyhood;
Sullā dictātōre, in Sulla’s dictatorship;
mē duce, under my leadership;
Rōmānī cum Carthāgiōnīēnsibus pācem fācērunt = Rome made peace with Carthage;
līber doctrīnāe plānuus = a learned book;
prōdestītūs Themistoclis Graecia servāta est = Themistocles’s fore-sight saved Greece.

4. The Nouns of Agency in -tor and -tor (see § 147. 1) denote a permanent or characteristic activity; as,—
acusātōrēs (professional) accusers;
ōrātorēs, pleaders;
cantōrēs, singers;
Arminius, Germaṇiāe liberātor, Arminius, liberator of Germany.
a. To denote single instances of an action, other expressions are commonly employed; as,—
Numa, qui Rōmulō successit, Numa, successor of Romulus;
qui mea legunt, my readers;
quī mē audiunt, my auditors.

5. The Latin avoids the use of prepositional phrases as modifiers of a Noun. In English we say: ‘The war against Carthage’; ‘a journey through Gaul’; ‘cities on the sea’; ‘the book in my hands’; ‘the fight at Salamis’; etc. The Latin in such cases usually employs another mode of expression. Thus:—
a) A Genitive; as,—
dolor injūriārum, resentment at injuries.
8) An Adjective; as,—
     urbēs maritimae, cities on the sea;
     pugna Salamīnia, the fight at Salamis.

9) A Participle; as,—
     pugna ad Cannae facta, the battle at Cannae.

10) A Relative clause; as,—
     liber qui in meīs manibus est, the book in my hands.

Note.—Yet within certain limits the Latin does employ Prepo-
sitional phrases as Noun modifiers. This is particularly frequent
when the governing noun is derived from a verb. The following are
typical examples:

     transtūs in Britanniam, the passage to Britain;
     excessus e vitā, departure from life;
     odium ergā Rōmānīs, hatred of the Romans;
     liber dē senectūte, the book on old age;
     amor in patriam, love for one’s country.

ADJECTIVES.

354. 1. Special Latin Equivalents for English Adjectives are—

   a) A Genitive; as,—
     virūtūs animī = moral virtues;
     dolōris corporis = bodily ills.

   b) An Abstract Noun; as,—
     novitīa reli = the strange circumstance;
     asperitās viārum = rough roads.

   c) Hendiadys (see § 374. 4); as,—
     ratiō et ōrdō = systematic order;
     ārdor et impetus = eager onset.

   d) Sometimes an Adverb; as,—
     omnēs circa populēs, all the surrounding tribes;
     suēs semper hostēs, their perpetual foes.

2. Often a Latin Noun is equivalent to an English Noun modified
   by an Adjective; as,—
     doctrīna, theoretical knowledge;
     prūdentia, practical knowledge;
     oppidum, walled town;
     libellus, little book.
3. Adjectives are not used in immediate agreement with proper names; but an Adjective may limit vir, homō, ille, or some other word used as an Appositive of a proper name; as,—

Sōcratēs, homō sapiēns = the wise Socrates;
Scipīō, vir fortissimus = the doughty Scipio;
Syrācūsae, urbe praeclārissima = famous Syracuse.

4. An Adjective may be equivalent to a Possessive or Subjective Genitive; as —
pāstor rēgīus, the shepherd of the king;
tumultus servilis, the uprising of the slaves.

PRONOUNS.

355. In Compound Sentences the Relative Pronoun has a fondness for connecting itself with the subordinate clause rather than the main one; as,—

ā quō cum quaerētur, quid maximē expedīret, respondit, when it was asked of him what was best, he replied. (Less commonly, quī, cum ab eō quaerētur, respondit.)

2. Uterque, ambō. Uterque means each of two; ambō means both; as,—

uterque frāter abibit, each of the two brothers departed (i.e. separately);
ambō frātrēs abiērunt, i.e. the two brothers departed together.

a. The Plural of uterque occurs —

1) With Nouns used only in the Plural (see § 56); as,—
in utriāque castrīs, in each camp.

2) Where there is a distinct reference to two groups of persons or things; as,—
utriāque ducēs clāri fuērunt, the generals on each side (several in number) were famous.

VERBS.

356. 1. In case of Defective and Deponent Verbs, a Passive is supplied;—

a) By the corresponding verbal Nouns in combination with esse, etc.; as,—

in odio sumus, we are hated;
in invidiā sum, I am envied;
admiration est, he is admired;
oblivione obruitur, he is forgotten (lit. is overwhelmed by oblivion);
In facie esse, to be used.

b) By the Passive of Verbs of related meaning. Thus: —
agitāri as Passive of persecūri;
temptāri as Passive of adorīri.

2. The lack of the Perfect Active Participle in Latin is supplied —
a) Sometimes by the Perfect Passive Participle of the Dependent; as, —
adhortātus, having exhorted;
veritus, having feared.
b) By the Ablative Absolute; as, —
hostium agris vāstātīs Caesar exercitum redīxīt, hav-
ing ravaged the country of the enemy, Caesar led back his army.
c) By subordinate clauses; as, —
‘eō cum advenisset, castra posuit, having arrived there,
he pitched a camp;
hostēs quī in urbem irrūperant, the enemy having burst into the city.

3. The Latin agrees with English in the stylistic employment of the
Second Person Singular in an indefinite sense (= ‘one’). Cf.
the English ‘You can drive a horse to water, but you can’t make him
drink.’ But in Latin this use is mainly confined to certain varieties of the
Subjunctive, especially the Potential (§ 280), Jussive (§ 275), De-
liberative (§ 277), and the Subjunctive in conditional sentences of the
sort included under § 302, 2, and 303. Examples: —
vidēre, you could see;
ūtāre virtūs, use your strength;
quid hoc homine facīs, what are you to do with this man?
mēns quoque et animus, nisi tamquam lūminis oleum īntulīs,
exstinguuntur senectūte, the intellect and mind too are ex-
tinguished by old age, unless, so to speak, you keep pouring oil
into the lamp;
tantō amore possessionēs suās amplexīi tenēbant, ut ab ea
membra divellī situs posse dīcēris, they clung to their poss-
sessions with such an affectionate embrace, that you would have
said their limbs could sooner be torn from their bodies.
PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.

357. 1. To denote 'so many years, etc., afterwards or before' the Latin employs not merely the Ablative of Degree of Difference with post and ante (see § 223), but has other forms of expression. Thus: —

post quinqué annós, five years afterward;
paucós ante diés, a few days before;
ante quadriennium, four years before;
post diem quartum quam ab urbe discesserāmus, four days after we had left the city;
ante tertium annum quam dēcesserat, three years before he had died.

2. The Latin seldom combines both Subject and Object with the same Infinitive; as, —

Rōmānōs Hannibalem vīcisse cōnstit.

Such a sentence would be ambiguous, and might mean either that the Romans had conquered Hannibal, or that Hannibal had conquered the Romans. Perspicuity was gained by the use of the Passive Infinitive; as, —

Rōmānōs ab Hannibale vīctōs esse cōnstit, it is well established that the Romans were defeated by Hannibal.

PECULIARITIES IN CONNECTION WITH THE USE OF THE DATIVE.

358. 1. The English for does not always correspond to a Dative notion in Latin, but is often the equivalent of prō with the Ablative, viz. in the senses —

a) In defense of; as, —

prō patriā moriō, to die for one's country.

b) Instead of, in behalf of; as, —

ēnus prō omnibus dīxit, one spoke for all;
haec prō lēge dicta sunt, these things were said for the law.

c) In proportion to; as, —

prō multitūdine hominum eōrum finēs erant angustī, for the population, their territory was small.
2. Similarly, English to when it indicates motion is rendered in Latin by ad.

a. Note, however, that the Latin may say either scorbere ad aliquem, or scorbere aliquui, according as the idea of motion is or is not predominant. So in several similar expressions.

3. In the poets, verbs of mingling with, contending with, joining, clinging to, etc., sometimes take the Dative. This construction is a Grecism. Thus:

aē miacet virīs, he mingles with the men;
contendis Homērō, you contend with Homer;
dextrae dextram jungere, toclasphandwithhand.

PECULARITIES IN THE USE OF THE GENITIVE

359. 1. The Possessive Genitive gives emphasis to the possessor, the Dative of Possessor emphasizes the fact of possession; as,—
hortus patris est, the garden is my father's;
mihi hortus est, I possess a garden.

2. The Latin can say either stultus or stultum est dicere, it is foolish to say; but Adjectives of one ending permit only the Genitive; as,—
sapiens est haec sōnum reputāre, it is the part of a wise man to consider this.
PART VI.

PROSODY.

360. Prosody treats of metres and versification.

361. Latin Verse. Latin Poetry was essentially different in character from English. In our own language, poetry is based upon accent, and poetical form consists essentially in a certain succession of accented and unaccented syllables. Latin poetry, on the other hand, was based not upon accent, but upon quantity, so that with the Romans poetical form consisted in a certain succession of long and short syllables, i.e. of long and short intervals of time.

This fundamental difference in the character of English and Latin poetry is a natural result of the difference in character of the two languages. English is a strongly accented language, in which quantity is relatively subordinate. Latin, on the other hand, was a quantitative language, in which accent was relatively subordinate.

QUANTITY OF VOWELS AND SYLLABLES.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

362. The general principles for the quantity of vowels and syllables have been given above in § 5. The following peculiarities are to be noted here: —

1. A vowel is usually short when followed by another vowel (§ 5. A. 2), but the following exceptions occur: —
Quantity of Vowels and Syllables.

A) In the Genitive termination -ius (except alterius); as, illius, totius. Yet the i may be short in poetry; as, illius, totius.

b) In the Genitive and Dative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diēi, acīēi. But fidēi, rēi, spēi (§ 52, 1).

c) In flō, excepting it and forms where i is followed by er. Thus: flēbām, flāt, flīunt; but flērī, flēreō.

d) In a few other words, especially words derived from the Greek; as, diōn, Aenēs, Dārius, hērōes, etc.

2. A diphthong is usually long (§ 5. B. 2), but the preposition prae in composition is often shortened before a vowel; as, præcātus.

3. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants (§ 5. B. 2) is long, even when one of the consonants is in the following word; as, terrēt populum. Occasionally the syllable is long when both consonants are in the following word; as, prō segete sploās.

4. Compounds of jaciō, though written inicīt, adicīt, etc., have i the first syllable long, as though written inī-, adī-.

5. Before ā and ē made a long syllable, e.g. in major, pejor, ejus, ejudōmen, Pompeius, rejīcit, etc. These were pronounced, maijōr, pejōr, ei-jus, Pompej-us, rejēcit, etc. So also sometimes before i, e.g. Pompe-ī, pronounced Pompeī-; re-iciō, pronounced re-iciō.

Quantity of Final Syllables.

A. Final Syllables ending in a Vowel.

363. 1. Final a is mostly short, but is long —

a) In the Ablative Singular of the First Declension; as, portā.

b) In the Imperative; as, laudā.

c) In indeclinable words (except itā, quīā); as, trīgintā, contra, posteā, interēa, etc.

2. Final e is usually short, but is long —

a) In the Ablative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diē, rē; hence hodie, quārē. Here belongs also famē (§ 59. 2. b).

b) In the Imperative of the Second Conjugation; as, monē, habē, etc.; yet occasionally cavē, valē.

c) In Adverbs derived from Adjectives of the Second Declension, along with ferē and fermē. Bene, malē, temerē, saepē have e.

d) In fē, dē, mē, tē, sē, nē (not, lest), nē (verily).
Prosody.

3. Final i is usually long, but is short in nial and quasi. Mibi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi, have regularly i, but sometimes i; yet always ibidem, ibique, ubique.

4. Final o is regularly long, but is short —
   a) In ego, duò, modò (only), citò.
   b) Rarely in the First Person Singular of the Verb, and in Nominatives of the Third Declension; as, amò, iecò.
   c) In a few compounds beginning with the Preposition pro, especially before f; as pròfundere, pròfuscì, pròfugere.

5. Final u is always long.

B. Final Syllables ending in a Consonant.

364. 1. Final syllables ending in any other consonant than s are short. The following words, however, have a long vowel: sài, sòl, Lár, pár, vér, fár, dic, dúc, én, nón, quìn, sín, sic, cùr, hic
   (thir). Also adverbs in e; as, hic, hùc, istìc, illùc, etc.

2. Final syllables in -as are long; as, terrás, amás.

3. Final syllables in -es are regularly long; but are short —
   a) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of dental stems (§ 33) of the Third Declension which have a short penult in the Genitive; as, segés (segetis), obsés (obsidias), mflés, ìlevés. But a few have -és; úv. pós, ariés, abióes, pariés.
   b) In ès (thou art), penés.

4. Final -os is usually long, but short in òs (oasis), compós.

5. Final -is is usually short, but is long —
   a) In Plurals; as, portís, horíis, nóbìs, vóbìs, nóbís (Acc.).
   b) In the Second Person Singular Perfect Subjunctive Active, as amàveríis, monuéríis, audíveríis, etc. Yet occasional exceptions occur.
   c) In the Second Person Singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation; as, audíis.
   d) In víis, force; ès, thou goest; sís; vélís; nóls; víis, thou wilt (mávis, quamvis, quívís, etc.).

6. Final -us is usually short, but is long —
   a) In the Genitive Singular and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural of the Fourth Declension; as, fríctús.

1 Rarely hic.
Verse-Structure.

365. Greek Nouns retain in Latin their original quantity; as, Ἀθῆναι, epítome, Δίός, Pallas, Simóla, Salámis, Dídys, Parídii, άρης, aethér, orátor, hérōs. Yet Greek nouns in -op regularly shorten the vowel of the final syllable; as, rōstōr, Hēctōr.

VERSE-STRUCTURE.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

366. 1. The metrical unit in versification is a short syllable, technically called a mora (☉). A long syllable (☉☉) is regarded as equivalent to two morae.

2. A Foot is a group of syllables. The following are the most important kinds of fundamental feet:

   **Feet of Three Morae.**
   ☉  Trochee.
   ☉☉ Iambus.

   **Feet of Four Morae.**
   ☉☉ Dactyl.
   ☉☉☉ Anapaest.

3. A Verse is a succession of feet.

4. The different kinds of verses are named Trochaic, Iambic, Dactylic, Anapaestic, according to the foot which forms the basis of their structure.

5. Ictus. In every fundamental foot the long syllable naturally receives the greater prominence. This prominence is called Ictus. It is denoted thus: ☉☉; ☉☉☉.

6. Thesis and Arsis. The syllable which receives the Ictus is called the Thesis; the rest of the foot is called the Arsis.

7. Elision. Final syllables ending in a vowel, a diphthong, or -m are regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or h. In reading, we ordinarily omit the elided syllable entirely. Probably the ancients slurred the words together in some way. This may be indicated as follows: corpore in finō; multum ille et; mōnstrum horrendum; causae īrārum.

   a. Omission of elision is called Hiatus. It occurs especially before and after monosyllabic Interjections; as, Ó et præsidium.

---

1 Ictus was not accent,—neither stress accent nor musical accent,—but was simply the quantitative prominence inherent in a long syllable.
8. The ending of a word within a foot is called a Caesura (cutting). Every verse usually has one prominent caesura. The ending of a word and foot together within the verse is called a diaeresis.

9. Verses are distinguished as Catalectic or Acatalectic. A Catalectic verse is one in which the last foot is not complete, but lacks one or more syllables; an Acatalectic verse has its last foot complete.

10. At the end of a verse a slight pause occurred. Hence the final syllable may be either long or short (syllaba anceps), and may terminate in a vowel or m, even though the next verse begins with a vowel.

11. Jambic, Trochaic, and Anapaestic verses are further designated as dimeter, trimeter, tetrameter, according to the number of dipodies (pairs of feet) which they contain. Dactylic verses are measured by single feet, and are designated as tetrameter, pentameter, hexameter, accordingly.

SPECIAL PECULIARITIES.

387. 1. Synizesis (Synaeresis). Two successive vowels in the interior of a word are often united into a long syllable; as, —

aureis, deinde, anteire, deesse.

2. Diastole. A syllable usually short is sometimes long; as, —

videt, audet.

3. Syntone. A syllable usually long is sometimes short; as, —

stetetrunut.

a. Diastole and Syntone are not mere arbitrary processes. They usually represent an earlier pronunciation which had passed out of vogue in the ordinary speech.

4. After a consonant, l and u sometimes become j and v. The preceding syllable then becomes long; as, —

abjete for ablete; genua for genua.

5. Sometimes v becomes u; as, —

silua for silua; dissolvus for dissolvus.

6. Sometimes a verse has an extra syllable. Such a verse is called an Hypermeter. The extra syllable ends in a vowel or m, and is united with the initial vowel or h of the next verse by Synaphesia. Thus: —

. . . . . . . . ignari hominumque loquremsque erramus.
7. **Tmesis** (cutting). Compound words are occasionally separated into their elements; as,—

quō mā cunque rapit tempestās, for quāsōnque, etc.

8. **Syncope.** A short vowel is sometimes dropped between two consonants; as,— repetitus for repositus.

---

**THE DACTYLIC HEXAMETER.**

368. 1. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. But in all the feet except the fifth, a spondee (−−) may take the place of the dactyl. The sixth foot may be either a spondee or a trochee, since the final syllable of a verse may be either long or short (syllaba anepa). The following represents the scheme of the verse:

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Sometimes we find a spondee in the fifth foot. Such verses are called Spondaic. A dactyl usually stands in the fourth place, and the fifth and sixth feet are generally made up of a quadrisyllable; as,—

armātumque auro circumspicit Ořōna
cāra deum subulis, magnum Jovis incrēmentum.

3. **Caesura.**

   a) The favorite position of the caesura in the Dactylic Hexameter is after the thesis of the third foot; as,—

   arma virumque canō ‖ Trojae qui prīmus ab ēris.

   b) Less frequently the caesura occurs after the thesis of the fourth foot, usually accompanied by another in the second foot; as,—

   inde torō ‖ pater Aenēs ‖ aec ērēus ab altō est.

   c) Sometimes the caesura occurs between the two short syllables of the third foot; as,—

   Ō passī gravīōra ‖ habēt deus hīs quoque finem.

   This caesura is called Feminine, as opposed to the caesura after a long syllable, which is called Masculine (as under a and b).
Prosody.

\*d\* A pause sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot. This is called the Bucolic Diacresis, as it was borrowed by the Romans from the Bucolic poetry of the Greeks. Thus:—

\ldots

\ldots

DACTYLIC PENTAMETER.

369. 1. The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts, each of which contains two dactyls, followed by a long syllable. Spondees may take the place of the dactyli in the first part, but not in the second. The long syllable at the close of the first half of the verse always ends a word. The scheme is the following:—

\ldots

\ldots

2. The Pentameter is never used alone, but only in connection with the Hexameter. The two arranged alternately form the so-called Elegiac Distich. Thus:—

\ldots

\ldots

IAMBIC MEASURES.

370. 1. The most important Iambic verse is the Iambic Triometer (§ 366. 11), called also Senarius. This is an accentual verse. It consists of six Iambi. Its pure form is:—

\ldots

\ldots

The Caesura usually occurs in the third foot; less frequently in the fourth.

2. In place of the Iambus, a Tribach (\ldots) may stand in any foot but the last. In the odd feet (first, third, and fifth) may stand a Spondee, Dactyl, or Anapaest, though the last two are less frequent. Sometimes a Procelematic (\ldots) occurs.

3. In the Latin comic writers, Plautus and Terence, great freedom is permitted, and the various equivalents of the Iambus, \*via\*, the Dactyl, Anapaest, Spondee, Tribach, Procelematic, are freely admitted in any foot except the last.
SUPPLEMENTS TO THE GRAMMAR.

I. JULIAN CALENDAR.

371. 1. The names of the Roman months are: Jānuārius, Februārius, Mārtiōs, Aprilīs, Majus, Jūnius, Jūlius (Quintīlia before 46 B.C.), Augustus (Sextīlia before the Empire), Septēmbre, Octōber, Novembar, Decembar. These words are properly Adjectives in agreement with mēnīs understood.

2. Dates were reckoned from three points in the month: —
   a) The Calends, the first of the month.
   b) The Nones, usually the fifth of the month, but the seventh in March, May, July, and October.
   c) The Ides, usually the thirteenth of the month, but the fiftieth in March, May, July, and October.

3. From these points dates were reckoned backward; consequently all days after the Ides of any month were reckoned as so many days before the Calends of the month next following.

4. The day before the Calends, Nones, or Ides of any month is designated as prīdiē Kalendās, Nōnās, Īdās. The second day before was designated as ċūdīē tertīō ante Kalendās, Nōnās, etc. Similarly the third day before was designated as ċūdīē quārtō, and so on. These designations are arithmetically inaccurate, but the Romans reckoned both ends of the series. The Roman numeral indicating the date is therefore always larger by one than the actual number of days before Nones, Ides, or Calends.

5. In indicating dates, the name of the month is added in the form of an Adjective agreeing with Kalendās, Nōnās, Īdās. Various forms of expression occur, of which that given under d) is most common: —
   a) ċūdīē quintō ante Īdās Mārtiōs;
   b) quintō ante Īdās Mārtiōs;
   c) quintō (V) Īdās Mārtiōs;
   d) ante diēm quintum Īdās Mārtiōs.

1 Originally the Roman year began with March. This explains the names Quintīlia, Sextīlia, Septēmbre, etc., fifth month, sixth month, etc.
6. These designations may be treated as nouns and combined with the prepositions in, ad, ex; as,—

ad ante diem IV Kalendās Octōbrēs, up to the 28th of September.
ex ante diem quintum Ídūs Octōbrēs, from the 11th of October.

7. In leap year the 25th was reckoned as the extra day in February.
The 24th was designated as ante diem VI Kalendās Mártīs, and the 25th as ante diem bis VI Kal. Márt.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days of the Month</th>
<th>March, May, July, October</th>
<th>January, August, December</th>
<th>April, June, September, November</th>
<th>February</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Kalendās</td>
<td>Kalendās</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>IV. Nōnās</td>
<td>IV. Nōnās</td>
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<td>IV.</td>
<td>Prīdiē Nōnās</td>
<td>Prīdiē Nōnās</td>
<td>Nōnās.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>Nōnās</td>
<td>Nōnās.</td>
<td>Nōnās.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Prīdiē Nōnās</td>
<td>VIII. Ídūs</td>
<td>VIII. Ídūs</td>
<td>Ídūs.</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Nōnās</td>
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<td>VIII. Ídūs</td>
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<td>IV.</td>
<td>Prīdiē Ídūs</td>
<td>Prīdiē Ídūs</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Prīdiē Ídūs</td>
<td>XIX. Kalend.</td>
<td>XVIII. Kalend.</td>
<td>XVI.</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Ídūs.</td>
<td>XVIII. Kalend.</td>
<td>XVIII. Kalend.</td>
<td>XVI.</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>XVI. Kalend.</td>
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<td>XVI.</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>IX.</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>VIII.</td>
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<td>VI.</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>Prīdiē Kal. (Prīdiē Kal.)</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>IV.</td>
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<td>IV.</td>
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<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>Prīdiē Kalend.</td>
<td>Prīdiē Kalend.</td>
<td>Prīdiē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Enclosed forms are for leap-year.)
II. PROPER NAMES.

373. 1. The name of a Roman citizen regularly consisted of three parts: the praenōmen (or given name), the nōmen (name of the gens or clan), and the cognōmen (family name). Such a typical name is exemplified by Mārcus Tullius Clōerō, in which Mārcus is the praenōmen, Tullius the nōmen, and Clōerō the cognōmen. Sometimes a second cognōmen (in later Latin called an agnōmen) is added — especially in honor of military achievements; as,—

Gāius Cornēlius Scipiō Africānus.

2. ABBREVIATIONS OF PROPER NAMES.

C. = Gāius.                                        P. = Pūblius.
Cn. = Gnāeus.                                      Q. = Quintus.
D. = Dēcimus.                                      Sex. = Sextus.
M. = Mārcus.                                       T. = Titus.
M'. = Mānius.                                      Ti. = Tiberius.

III. FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC.

A. Figures of Syntax.

374. 1. Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words; as,—

qūid multa, why (should I say) much?

2. Brachylogy is a brief or condensed form of expression; as,—

ut a āger sine cultūrā frūctuōsus esse nōn potest, sī sine doct-
trīnā animus, as a field cannot be productive without cultivation, so the mind (cannot be productive) without learning.

Special varieties of Brachylogy are —

a) Zeugma, in which one verb is made to stand for two; as,—

minūs aut blandimenta corrupta = (terrified) by threats
or corrupted by flattery.

b) Compendiary Comparison, by which a modifier of an
object is mentioned instead of the object itself; as,—

dissimilis erat Charēs eōrum et factūs et morībus, lit.

Chares was different from their conduct and character;

i.e. Chares's conduct and character were different, etc.
3. Pléonasmat is an unnecessary fullness of expression; as,—
   prius praedcam, lit. I will first say in advance.

4. Hendásys (tv àk oíno, one through two) is the use of two
   nouns joined by a conjunction, in the sense of a noun modified by a
   Genitive or an Adjective; as,—
   febris et aestus, the heat of fever;
   celeritáte cursáque, by swift running.

5. Prolépsis, or Anticipation, is the introduction of an epithet
   in advance of the action which makes it appropriate; as,—
   submersá est obrel puppés, lit. overwhelm their submerged ships,
   i.e. overwhelm and sink their ships.

   a. The name Prolépsis is also applied to the introduction of a noun
      or pronoun as object of the main clause where we should expect
      it to stand as subject of a subordinate clause. Thus: —
      nósti Márcellum quam tardus sit, you know how slow
      Marcellus is (lit. you know Marcellus, how slow he is).
      Both varieties of Prolépsis are chiefly confined to poetry.

6. Anacolouthon is a lack of grammatical consistency in the con-
   struction of the sentence; as,—
   tum Anol fili . . . impénsius eis indignáta créscre, then the sons
   of Anos . . . their indignation increased all the more.

7. Býsteron Fróteron consists in the inversion of the natural
   order of two words or phrases; as,—
   moriámus et in media arma ruámus = let us rush into the midst of
   arms and die.

B. Figures of Rhetoric.

375. 1. Idotes (literally softening) is the expression of an idea
   by the denial of its opposite; as,—
   haud parum labóris, no little toil (i.e. much toil);
   nón ignórof, I am not ignorant (i.e. I am well aware).

2. Oxymóron is the combination of contradictory conceptions;
   as,—
   sapiéns Ísáius, wise folly.

3. Alliteration is the employment of a succession of words
   presenting frequent repetition of the same letter (mostly initial);
   as, sénsim séne, sénsi aetás senéscit.

4. Onomatopóšia is the suiting of sound to sense; as,—
   quadrupédocs putrem sonitì quattuor lugulà campum, 'And shake
   with horny hoofs the solid ground.'
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