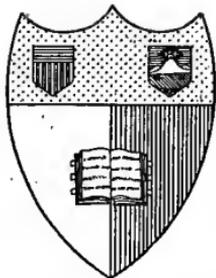


CONCISE
LATIN
GRAMMAR

D'OOGHE

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CONCISE LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

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Est modus in rebus, sunt certi denique fines — HORACE



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PREFACE

The purpose of the author in preparing this book has been to provide, in as concise a form as possible, a Latin grammar which should be of equal service to the high-school pupil and to the college undergraduate. To meet the needs of the former the fundamental and essential facts of the language have been stated as simply as possible and have been given due prominence on an open page. Statements of secondary importance appear in smaller type and all material that would be confusing to the beginner has been relegated to footnotes, and these have been reduced to a minimum. At the same time the scope of the book is such as to include all that is needed for translation of authors usually read in college. There is an obvious advantage to the student in using the same grammar throughout his Latin course.

The needs of the student have been made the guiding principle in the treatment of the examples. These are numerous and have been taken by preference from the portions of Cæsar, Cicero, and Vergil read in secondary schools. Furthermore, they have been simplified when too difficult for ready comprehension, without, however, destroying their validity.

In the matter of grammatical nomenclature a conservative attitude has been taken, but such of the new terms have been adopted as seem likely to win general acceptance.

Versification has been treated briefly and only the meters used by Vergil and Ovid have been explained. Further treatment is rendered superfluous by the fact that college texts

of the lyric and dramatic, poets now regularly include a detailed discussion of the meters used by their authors.

Other features which, it is hoped, will meet with a favorable reception are the introductory pages on the history of the Latin language, the brief and practical discussion of the formation of words, the paragraphs devoted to Roman names, the frequent synopses of constructions in the syntax, and a treatment of the Roman calendar somewhat fuller than is found in similar manuals. The rules for the order of words depart in some respects from doctrines previously held, and present the results, as far as they seem well established, of recent investigations in this field of research.

Grateful acknowledgment is due to Professor P. F. O'Brien, of St. Mary's College, Winona, Minnesota, for his careful revision of the proof and for many valuable suggestions and much useful criticism.

BENJAMIN L. D'OOGEE

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INTRODUCTION

THE LATIN LANGUAGE

The Italic Dialects. Latin, the language of the Latins, is one of several closely related dialects that constitute the Italic branch of the Indo-European parent speech. Some of these dialects, particularly the Umbrian and the Oscan, were originally more important and more widely extended than Latin; but in time the political supremacy of Rome, the chief town of the Latins, made Latin the language not only of all Italy but of most of the Roman world.

Ancient Latium. The Latins inhabited Latium, originally an area of about twenty-five square miles at the mouth of the Tiber. By about 300 B.C., however, Rome had so broadened her sway that Latium included the region from a little above the mouth of the Tiber on the north to Sinuessa on the south, and extended inland to the first main chain of the Apennines. Yet even in this small district some of the subjugated tribes continued to use their native dialects for at least a century longer, though Latin was the official language.

Periods of Latin. No living language is ever stationary, and Latin underwent many changes in the course of its long history. We may distinguish the following six periods:

1. *Preliterary Latin*, from the earliest times to the beginnings of literature at Rome (about 240 B.C.).

2. *Early Latin*, from the beginnings of literature to the date of Cicero's first extant oration (240-81 B.C.).

This period includes such writers as Livius Andronicus, Nævius, Cato the Elder, Plautus, and Terence.

3. *Classical Latin*, or the Latin of the Golden Age, from Cicero's first extant oration to the death of Augustus (81 B.C. -A.D. 14).

This period includes most of the authors read at school and college.

4. *Latin of the Silver Age*, from the death of Augustus (A.D. 14) to about A.D. 170.

This period includes such authors as Phædrus, Seneca, Pliny the Elder, Pliny the Younger, Tacitus, Quintilian, Juvenal, Persius, and Martial.

5. *Late Latin*, from about A.D. 170 to the fall of the Western Empire in A.D. 476.

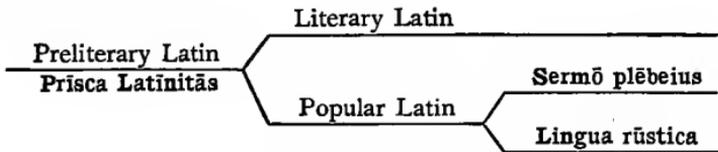
6. *Medieval Latin*, a general term applied to the Latin of the Middle Ages.

Development of Latin. A study of the development of Latin during these six periods is naturally based on surviving specimens of the language itself. Its earliest remains are in the form of inscriptions. The oldest inscription on metal is that on the golden fibula of Præneste; the oldest on stone is that found in 1899, carved on the four sides of a rectangular pillar of tufa lying about five feet below the pavement of the Roman Forum. Both are believed to be earlier than the fifth century B.C. Specimens of Latin earlier than the third century B.C. are exceedingly scanty, but soon after that time they become more numerous, and, after the earliest writers begin their labors (240 B.C.), materials are not lacking for constructing a history of the language.

Language rarely has a regular and uniform growth. There are many influences that may affect its character and determine its course of development. Chief among these are long and intimate association with a foreign tongue, the political superiority or inferiority of the people using the language, the degree of culture which they possess, and the use to which

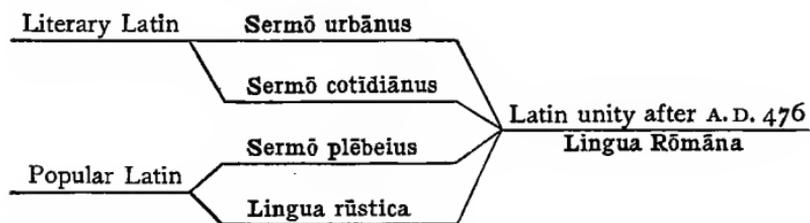
the language is put. How these influences affected the Latin language is briefly discussed in the following sections :

I. *Popular Latin and Literary Latin.* Preliterary Latin (*prīscā Latīnitās*), the language of early Latium, was spoken with comparatively little difference by all classes of society ; but with the birth of literature a distinction began. The speech of the common people (*sermō plēbeius*) continued free and untrammled, but the language of the literary classes was artificially developed on Greek models. The best examples of early popular Latin are found in the plays of Plautus, representing, as they do, the life of the common people. A ruder form of popular speech was that used in the country districts, hence called *lingua rŭstica*. On this Cato's " *Dē Agrī Cultŭrā* " is our only source of information. The development of Latin during the first two periods, then, may be represented by the diagram below :



As time went on the difference between the popular and literary forms of expression became greater and greater, in spite of the fact that the influence of the cultivated language filtered down through the lower grades of society and that, on the other hand, many plebeian forms and constructions found their way into cultivated speech. By the beginning of the classical period, literary Latin, now known as the *sermō urbānus*, had become so polished and formal, and had suffered such proportionate loss of vitality, and the *sermō plēbeius* had diverged so far from the recognized standard, that there developed between the two a sort of compromise known as the *sermō cotīdiānus*, which provided a free and easy means of communication

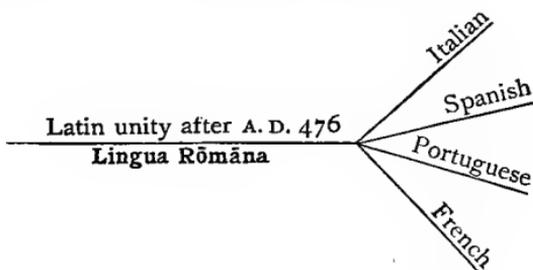
among all classes, and which even the educated doubtless used among intimates. Cicero's letters are the best example of the *sermō cotidiānus* of the upper classes of his day, and the "Cēna Trimalchiōnis" of Petronius of the period preceding Hadrian (A.D. 117). Further, along with the three varieties of Latin used at Rome as described above, probably the *lingua rūstica* was still spoken in the country districts. These forms of speech continued to develop more or less independently until the close of the fifth period, marked by the downfall of the Western Empire (A.D. 476). With the end of literary activity at Rome, literary Latin disappeared, and all the forms of speech merged in one, sometimes called the *lingua Rōmāna*, which was the common means of communication throughout the Western world until the rise of the modern languages. The following diagram roughly indicates the course of the development of Latin from the beginning of the classical period (81 B.C.) to the close of the seventh century of our era :



II. *Provincial Latin.* Rome always imposed her speech as well as her customs upon the nations which she subjugated, and Latin was the official language of the provinces. The Romans dwelling in the provinces were, as a rule, not of the cultivated classes; but soldiers and traders, speaking popular Latin, that is, the *sermō plēbeius* or *lingua rūstica*. And it was from these that the native inhabitants learned Latin. Since popular Latin was constantly changing, provinces which were

acquired at different times learned different kinds of Latin from the conquerors. For example, the Latin brought to Gaul by Cæsar's legions in the years 58–50 B. C. differed much from that brought to North Africa a century earlier by the soldiers of the younger Scipio. Another factor that caused variation was the difference in the native substratum. Latin spoken by a Gaul would, of course, not be quite the same as that spoken by a Spaniard or a German. Hence the Latin of the provinces was by no means homogeneous, but there was an increasing divergence from the accepted standard, especially in forms, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

III. *The Romance Languages.* It was the progressive development of the variations in provincial Latin that led in time to the formation of a number of different languages, which, because of their origin in the *lingua Rōmāna*, are known as the Romance languages. Of these the most important are Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and French. The process of development was slow and gradual, and for several centuries these provincial languages, though differing in minor points, remained substantially Latin. It is therefore impossible to draw a sharp line of division between Latin and its descendants. On practical grounds, however, such a line is convenient and has been fixed at about A. D. 700. Consequently, at that time we may say that Latin unity ceased and the Romance languages began their independent existence.



The following illustration, taken from Brunot's "Histoire de la langue française," shows in a striking manner the unbroken line of descent from classic Latin to modern French. In the third column is shown the opening sentence of the Oath of Strasburg, A. D. 842. In the other columns is given the form which the words would have assumed at different periods.¹

CLASSIC LATIN	SPOKEN LATIN, SEVENTH CENTURY	ACTUAL TEXT OF OATH (A. D. 842)
<p>Per Dei amorem et per christiani populi et nostram communem salutem, ab hac die, quantum Deus scire et posse mihi dat, servabo hunc meum fratrem Carolum.</p>	<p>Por deo amore et por chrestyano pob(o)lo et nostro comune salvamento, de esto die en avante, en quanto Deos sabere et podere me donat, sic salvarayo eo eccesto meon fradre Karlo.</p>	<p>Pro deo amur et pro christian poblo et nostro commun salvament, d'ist di en avant, in quant Deus savir et podir me dunat, si salvarai eo cist meon fradre Karlo,</p>
FRENCH, ELEVENTH CENTURY	FRENCH, FIFTEENTH CENTURY	MODERN FRENCH
<p>Por dieu amor et por del crestien poeple et nostre comun salvement, de cest jorn en avant, quant que Dieus saveir et podeir me donet, si salvarai jo cest mien fredre Charlon.</p>	<p>Pour l'amour Dieu et pour le sauvement du chrestien peuple et le nostre commun, de cest jour en avant, quant que Dieu savoir et pouvoir me done, si sauverai je cest mien frere Charle.</p>	<p>Pour l'amour de Dieu et pour le salut commun du peuple chrétien et le nôtre, à partir de ce jour, autant que Dieu m'en donne le savoir et le pouvoir, je soutiendrai mon frère Charles.</p>

¹ The "classic Latin" and "spoken Latin" are, of course, mere attempts to turn the words of the Oath into the earlier language without regard to differences of idiom.

LATIN GRAMMAR

1. Latin Grammar treats of the principles and usages of the Latin language. In this book the discussion is limited mainly to the Classical Period or Golden Age (81 B.C.—A.D. 14), and comprises four parts : Sounds, Forms, Syntax, and Versification.

PART I. SOUNDS

THE ALPHABET

2. The Latin alphabet is the same as the English except that it lacks the characters *j*, *u*, and *w*.

The Latin alphabet is derived from a form of the Greek alphabet, known as the Chalcidic, which was brought to Italy by Greek colonists as early as the ninth century B.C. It originally consisted of capital letters only. The small letters, or cursives, were not evolved until the eighth century of our era.

a. **C** had originally the value of **g**, and retained that value in the abbreviation **C.** for **Gaius** and **Cn.** for **Gnaeus**. Later it was used to express the sound of **k**, and **k** disappeared, except before **a** in a few words: **as**, **Kalendae**, **Karthägō**.

b. **I** and **v** were used both as vowels and as consonants. The character **j**, representing consonant **i**, dates from the seventeenth century, and the character **u**, representing vowel **v**, from the tenth.

In this book, **u** is used for vowel **v**, **v** for consonant **v**, and **i** is used for both vowel and consonant **i**: **as**, **iūdicium**, **veniō**, **iuventūs**.

c. The Greek letters **υ** (*upsilon*) and **ζ** (*zēta*) were added to the Latin alphabet as **y** and **z** in the first century B.C., and were used only in words borrowed from Greek or in Greek proper names.

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS

3. The sounds of language are either Vowels or Consonants.

In pronouncing a vowel, there is an uninterrupted flow of vocal sound; in pronouncing a consonant, the sound is more or less obstructed.

4. The simple vowels are *a, e, i, o, u, y*. The remaining letters represent consonants.

5. The diphthongs in common use are *ae, oe*, and *au*.

Eu and *ui* occur in a few words, and, in early Latin, *ai, ei, oi, ou*.

6. Consonants are either voiced (*sonant*) or voiceless (*surd*). Voiced consonants are pronounced with a vibration of the vocal chords. Voiceless consonants lack this vibration.

Thus, *d* in *den* is voiced; *t* in *ten* is voiceless.

a. The voiced consonants are *b, d, g*, consonant *i, l, m, n, r, v*.

b. The voiceless consonants are *c, f, h, k, p, q, s, t, x*.

7. Consonants are divided, according to the organs determining their peculiar sound, into *labials, dentals, and palatals*.

a. Labials are pronounced with the lips: as, *p, b*.

b. Dentals (sometimes called *Linguals*) are pronounced with the tip of the tongue touching or approaching the upper front teeth: as, *t, d*.

c. Palatals are pronounced with the upper surface of the tongue touching or approaching the palate: as, *k, g*.

8. Consonants are classified, according to the way in which the breath is used, as *mutes, nasals, liquids, and spirants*.

a. Mutes (speechless letters). In pronouncing a *mute* the breath, as it passes through the mouth, is checked for an instant and then allowed to escape explosively: as, *p, t*.

b. Nasals. In pronouncing a *nasal* the mouth is closed and the breath passes through the nose: as, *m, n*.

c. Liquids. In pronouncing a *liquid* the breath flows freely through the mouth : as, **l, r**.

d. Spirants or *Fricatives.* In pronouncing a *spirant* the breath passes continuously through the mouth with audible friction : as, **s, f**.

9. The vowels **i** and **u** when used as consonants (§ 2. *b*) so far retain their vocalic character that they are called semivowels.

10. The following table shows the consonants classified according to the preceding sections (§§ 6-9):

	LABIAL	DENTAL	PALATAL
Mutes { voiced	b	d	g
{ voiceless	p	t	c, k, q
Nasals, voiced	m	n	n (before c, g, q)
Liquids, voiced		l, r	
Spirants, voiceless	f	s	h
Semivowels, voiced	v		consonant i
x (= cs) is called a double consonant.			

ORTHOGRAPHY

11. The spelling of Latin varied considerably at different periods. Our knowledge rests mainly upon inscriptions for the earlier periods ; and to this testimony is added, for the later periods, the statements of the Latin grammarians.

12. The spelling of the first century of our era is fairly uniform, and is commonly used in modern editions of the classics. Some of the most important changes from the earlier spelling are the following :

a. After **v** or **u** an earlier **o** was changed to **u**. Thus, earlier **voltus**, **servos**, **mortuos**, became **vultus**, **servus**, **mortuus**.

b. Earlier **quo** became **cu** in the Augustan age, and this, in turn, became **qu** in the second century of our era. The spelling **qu** is

that adopted in most modern editions. Thus, earlier *equos* became *ecus*, then *equus*; *sequontur* became *secuntur*, then *sequuntur*.

NOTE. Earlier *quom* became *cum*, but did not change to *quum* till the sixth century of our era.

c. Similarly, *nguo* was changed first to *ngu*, then to *nguu*. Thus, original *exstinguont* became *exstingunt*, later *exstinguunt*.

d. Before labials *ũ* became *ĩ* in the Augustan age. This change is regular in unaccented syllables and occurs in some that are accented. Thus, earlier *maxumus*, *lacruma*, *frũctubus*, *pontufex*, *lubet*, became *maximus*, *lacrima*, *frũctibus*, *pontifex*, *libet*.

PRONUNCIATION

13. Latin, in the classical period, had approximately the following sounds:

14. Sounds of the Vowels.

ā as in *father*

ē as *a* in *fate*

ī as in *machine*

ō as in *bone*

ū as *oo* in *boot*

ǎ as the first *a* in *aha*

ě as in *pet*

ĩ as in *bit*

ǒ as in *obey*

ũ as in *full*, or as *oo* in *foot*

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

15. **Sounds of the Diphthongs.** In diphthongs (two-vowel sounds) both vowels are heard in a single syllable.

ae as *ai* in *aisle*

au as *ou* in *out*

ei as in *eight*

oe as *oi* in *toil*

eu as *ě'ōō* (a short *e* followed by a short *u*), almost like *ew* in *new*

ui as *ōō'ĩ* (a short *u* followed by a short *i*), almost like *wi* in *will*

16. **Sounds of the Consonants.** The consonants are pronounced as in English, except that—

c is always like *c* in *cat*, never as in *cent*.

g is always like *g* in *get*, never as in *gem*.

i consonant is always like *y* in *yes*.

n before *c*, *q*, or *g* is like *ng* in *sing* (compare *n* in *anchor*).

qu, gu, and sometimes **su,** before a vowel have the sounds of *qw,* *gw,* and *sw.* Here **u** stands for consonant **v** and is not a vowel.

r is trilled as in French or Italian.

s is like *s* in *sea,* never as in *ease.*

t is always like *t* in *native,* never as in *nation.*

v is like *w* in *wine,* never as in *vine.*

x has the value of two consonants (**cs**) and is like *x* in *extract.*

z medial is like *dz* in *adze;* **z** initial probably like English *z.*

bs is like *ps,* and **bt** like *pt.*

17. The Greek combinations **ph, th, ch,** known as aspirates, were in that language equivalent to **p, t, k,** respectively, followed by a rough breathing or aspirate **h** (as in *up-hill, hot-house, ink-horn*). In Latin they are confined almost exclusively to words of Greek derivation, and in the classical period were probably sounded like simple **p, t, c.**

18. Between consonant **i** and a preceding **a, e, o,** or **u** a vowel **i** was developed, thus producing diphthong **ai, ei,** etc., before the consonant **i.** In such cases, however, but one **i** was written: as, **aiō** for **ai-iō,** **maius** for **mai-ius.**

19. In compounds **iaciō** was spelled **-iciō** (not **-iiciō**): as, **coniciō,** pronounced **coniiciō** (*con-yiciō,* consonant **i** preceding vowel **i**).

20. Doubled letters, as **tt, pp, ll,** should be pronounced with a slight pause between the two articulations. Thus, pronounce **tt** as in *rat-trap,* not as in *rattle;* **pp** as in *hop-pole,* not as in *upper.*

SYLLABLES

21. A Latin word has as many syllables as it has vowels and diphthongs. Thus, **aes-tā-te** has three syllables, **dē-lū-de-re** has four.

22. Words are divided into syllables as follows:

a. A single consonant between two vowels is pronounced with the following vowel: as, **a-mā-bi-lis, me-mo-ri-a, a-best, pe-rē-git.**

NOTE. The combination **qu** is treated as a single consonant: as, **e-quus.** The double consonant **x** (= **cs**) is joined sometimes with the preceding, sometimes with the following, vowel: **aux-it** or **au-xit.**

b. A mute and a liquid are pronounced with the following vowel except in the case of prepositional compounds: as, **pū-blicus**, **a-grī**; but **ob-lītus**, **ab-rumpō**.

NOTE. In poetry when a long syllable (cf. § 29) is needed, the mute may in all cases be joined with the preceding vowel: as, **ag-rī**.

c. In all other combinations of consonants the last of the group is pronounced with the following vowel: as, **mag-nus**, **il-le**, **sānc-tus**, **su-bāc-tus**, **hos-pes**, **sūmp-tus**.

NOTE. In dividing a word at the end of a line of writing or printing, prepositional compounds are separated into their component parts: as, **ab-est**, **per-ēgit**, **sub-āctus**, **circum-stō**.

23. A syllable ending in a consonant is called *closed*, one ending in a vowel or diphthong, *open*. Thus, the first syllable of **re-git** is *open*, the second *closed*.

24. The last syllable of a word is called the *ultima*; the next to the last, the *penult*; that before the penult, the *antepenult*. Thus, **amantur** consists of **a-** (antepenult), **-man-** (penult), **-tur** (ultima).

QUANTITY

25. The quantity¹ of a vowel or a syllable is the time occupied in pronouncing it. There are two degrees of quantity, *long* and *short*.

NOTE. Technically, a long vowel or syllable is regarded as having twice the length (in time) of a short one. Correct pronunciation, accent, and the scansion of verse depend upon the proper observance of quantity.

26. A vowel or a syllable that may be either long or short in quantity is said to be *common*.

¹ The rules for quantity are given with greater detail under Versification. Only a few of the leading facts are here stated.

I. QUANTITY OF SYLLABLES

27. A syllable is long if it contains a long vowel or a diphthong (as, *cū-rō*, *poe-nae*, *aes-tā-te*) or if it ends in a consonant which is followed by another consonant (as, *cor-pus*, *mag-nus*).¹

In the former case it is said to be *long by nature*; in the latter, *long by position*.

NOTE. The *vowel* in a long syllable may be either long or short and should be pronounced accordingly. Thus, in *ter-ra* the first syllable is long, but the vowel is short. In words like *saxum* the first syllable is long because *x* has the value of two consonants (§ 16).

28. A syllable is short if it ends in a short vowel: as, *a-mor*, *pi-grī*.

29. A syllable is common if its vowel is short and is followed by a mute and a liquid (l or r).

NOTE. The quantity here depends upon the way in which the word is divided into syllables. Thus, in *pig-rī* the first syllable ends in a consonant and is long; but in *pi-grī* the first syllable ends in a short vowel and is short. In prose the latter is the regular division (§ 22. *b*) and such syllables are regarded as short, but poets often find it convenient to divide the other way.²

30. A syllable ending in *a*, *e*, *o*, or *u*, and followed by consonant *i*, is long whether the vowel is long or short: as, *aiō*, *peius*.

31. In compounds of *iaciō*, the first syllable, if ending with a consonant, is long by position, the consonant *i* of the simple verb being pronounced though not written: as, *in-iciō* (for *in-iciō*).

32. In determining quantity by position, *h* and consonant *u* in *qu*, *gu*, *su* (§ 16), are not counted as consonants.

¹ When two consonants belonging to different syllables concur, the first is obstructed in its pronunciation by the presence of the second and is called an *obstructed consonant*. Length by position is due to the time consumed in pronouncing the two consonants and in passing from one to the other.

² The first syllable of prepositional compounds of this nature is always long (§ 22. *b*): as, *ob-litus*, *ab-rumpō*.

II. QUANTITY OF VOWELS

33. Vowels are either long (-) or short (◌) by nature and are pronounced accordingly.

NOTE. In this book long vowels are marked, and short vowels are, as a rule, unmarked. Vowels marked with both signs at once (◌-) occur sometimes as long and sometimes as short.

34. While there are no comprehensive rules for determining vowel quantity, the following statements are of practical value :

a. A vowel is long before **nf**, **ns**, **nx**, and **nct** (as, **inferō**, **regēns**, **sānxī**, **ūnctus**) or when it is the result of contraction : as, **nīl** for **nihil**.

b. A vowel is short before another vowel in the same word or before **h** (as, **rū-i-na**, **trā-hō**) ; before **nt** and **nd**, before final **m** or **t**, and (except in words of one syllable) before final **l** or **r** : as, **portānt**, **portāndus**, **portābām**, **portābāt**, **animāl**, **amōr**.

NOTE. A long vowel occasionally appears before **nt** or **nd** as the result of contraction (§ 34. *a*) : as, **cōntiō** (for **conventiō**), **nūntius** (for **noventius**), **prēndō** (for **prehendō**).

c. Diphthongs are always long by nature and are not marked.

ACCENT

35. In Latin, as in English, accent is a stress of voice which makes one syllable more prominent in utterance than another.

36. Original Accent. In the earliest times every Latin word was stressed strongly on the first syllable. This fact led to phonetic changes which will be discussed later (§§ 42 ff.).

37. Later Accent. Before the beginning of the classical period there had become established the "three-syllable law," by which the accent is restricted to the last three syllables of the word. Thus :

a. Words of two syllables are accented on the first : as, **mēn'sa**, **Cae'sar**.

b. Words of more than two syllables are accented on the penult if that is long, otherwise on the antepenult: as, **mo-nē'mus**, **a-man'dus**, **re'gi-tur**.

NOTE. Observe that the position of the accent is determined by the length of the *syllable*, and not by the length of the vowel in the syllable.

c. Compounds follow the same rules as simple words.

38. Exceptions.

a. **Faciō** when compounded with other words than prepositions retains the accent of the simple verb: as, **benefā'cit**, **satisfā'cit**.

b. Genitives in **-ī** (instead of **-ii**) and vocatives in **-ī** (instead of **-ie**; see § 88. *c*) accent the penult, even if it is short: as, **ingē'nī**, **Vergī'li**.

c. Certain words which have lost a final vowel or have suffered contraction are accented on the last syllable: as, **illīc'** (for **illī'ce**), **tantōn'** (for **tantō'ne**), **prōdūc'** (for **prōdū'ce**), **addīc'** (for **addī'ce**), **audīn'** (for **audīs'ne**), **Arpīnās'** (for **Arpīnā'tis**), **Quirīs'** (for **Quirī'tis**), **mūnit'** (for **mūnī'vit**).

39. Enclitics. An enclitic is a word which has no separate existence, but is joined to the word that precedes it.

The commonest enclitics are **-que**, *and*; **-ve**, *or*; **-ne**, the sign of a question; **-ce**, **-met**, **-nam**, and **-te**, used merely for emphasis.

40. When an enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether that syllable is long or short: as, **populus'que**, **dea'que**, **rēgna've**, **audit'ne**.

NOTE. This rule rests on the authority of Latin grammarians of the fourth and fifth centuries of our era, and, while valid for that period, may not have been followed in the Augustan age.

a. In some combinations **-que** has lost its meaning of *and*, and forms a real part of the word to which it is attached. Such words are accented regularly: as, **de'nique**, **un'dique**, **i'taque** (*accordingly*).

NOTE. **Utrā'que**, *each*, and **plērā'que**, *most*, from **uter'que** and **plērus'que**, accent the penult, though **-que** is not enclitic.

41. Adjacent words pronounced together are sometimes written as one, the second sometimes assuming the character of an enclitic. The resulting combinations may show changes in form (cf. English *I'm* for *I am*, *I've* for *I have*).

NOTE. Such combinations are most frequent in colloquial Latin, and occur especially when *es* or *est* is preceded by a word ending in a vowel, *m*, or *s*: thus, *homōst* (*homō est*), *periculumst* (*periculum est*), *auditas* (*audita es*), *quālist* (*quālis est*), *vīn* (*vīsne*), *scīn* (*scīsne*), *sīs* (*sī vīs*), *sōdēs* (*sī audēs*), *sultis* (*sī vultis*).

PHONETIC CHANGES

42. Classical Latin often differs in form from that of the earlier periods. Such changes are due to the working of certain laws of speech (*phonetic laws*) which, in general, had the effect of weakening, shortening, or dropping vowels in unaccented syllables and of changing or dropping consonants difficult to pronounce.

I. CHANGES IN VOWELS

A. WEAKENING OF VOWELS

43. Most of the changes in vowels were due to the strong stress accent which, in early Latin, fell on the first syllable of every word. (Cf. § 36.) This tended to preserve a vowel or diphthong of the accented syllable, but to weaken it in other syllables not accented.

44. Weakening of vowels in syllables *originally unaccented* regularly took the following direction:

a. *ǎ* before two consonants became *ě*, except that before *ng* it became *ī*: as, *cōnfectus* for **cōn-factus*,¹ but *contingō* for **con-tangō*.

b. *ǎ* before a single consonant became *ī*: as, *cōnficiō* for **cōn-faciō*, *cecidī* for **cecadī*.

¹ Assumed forms are marked by an asterisk.

c. ě, usually retained before two consonants or r, became ĭ before a single consonant: as, **adimō** for ***ad-emō**; **miles** for ***mīlets**, but **mīlitis** for ***mīletes**.

d. ae became ĭ: as, **existimō** for ***ex-aestimō**.

e. au became ū: as, **inclūdō** for ***in-claudō**.

45. Long vowels and diphthongs in syllables *originally accented* suffered no weakening, but in classical Latin the old diphthongs ai and oi were written ae and oe: as, **quaestor**, early **quaistor**; **poena**, early **poina**.

In the second century B.C. the diphthong oe became ū, but oe was retained in some words. Thus, in **poena** and **pūniō**, **moenia** and **mūniō**, both forms go back to an original spelling with oi. In late Latin oe became ē: as, **fēderātus**.



B. CONTRACTION OF VOWELS

46. Two concurrent vowels were often contracted into one long vowel.

a. Two like vowels might be contracted into the corresponding long vowel: as, **nīl** from ni(h)il, **cōpia** from ***coopia**, **prēndō** from pre(h)endō.

b. Two unlike vowels were usually contracted into the long form of the first: as, **dēgō** from ***dē-agō**, **cōgō** from ***co-agō**, **dēbeō** from ***dē-(h)abeō**, **amāsse** from **amā(v)isse**, **cōnsuēsse** from **cōnsuē(v)isse**.

c. Many concurrent vowels remained uncontracted: as, **audiō**, **maria**, **tuus**, **dēleō**, etc.

C. DROPPING OF VOWELS

47. a. A short vowel' following an accented syllable was sometimes dropped: as, **valdē** from va'lidē, **rettulī** from *re'tetulī, **dextra** from dex'tera. This is called *syn'cope*.

b. A final short vowel was sometimes dropped: as, **dūc** from dūce, **animal** from *animāli. This is called *a-poc'o-pe*.

II. CHANGES IN CONSONANTS

48. *dt, tt* became *ds, ts*, then *s* or *ss* (§ 53. *a*): *as, sessus* from **sedtus, clausus* from **claudtus, passus* from **pattus*.

49. An original *s* between two vowels became *r*: *as, honōris* from **honōsis, amāre* from **amāse, eram* from **esam*. This is called *rho'tacism* from the Greek letter *rho* = *r*.

NOTE. Words like *misī* and *causa* are from original *missī* and *caussa*.

50. *g, c, or h* combined with a following *s* to form *x*: *as, rēx* from **rēgs, dux* from **ducs, trāxī* from **trahsī*.¹

51. When two consonants came together, they tended to assimilate, that is, become like each other.

NOTE. Sometimes the assimilation was complete: *as, sella* from **sedla, siccus* from **sitcus, collis* from **colnis, summus* from **supmus*. Sometimes the assimilation went only so far that one letter became like the other in character: thus a voiced consonant might change to a voiceless one; or, when the concurrent consonants were sounded with different vocal organs, one of them might be changed to another using the same vocal organ as its neighbor. Thus **scribtus* became *scriptus*, the voiced consonant *b* becoming voiceless to agree with the voiceless *t*; and **primceps* became *princeps*, the labial nasal *m* changing to the palatal nasal *n* to agree with the palatal mute *c*.

52. Complete or partial assimilation occurred both in inflections and in composition, and was especially marked in the last consonant of prepositions in composition.

53. Complete Assimilation :

a. *ds* and *ts* became *ss*, which was simplified to *s* after a long vowel or diphthong: thus, **cedsī* became *cessī*, **dividsī* became *divisī*, **claudsī* became *clausī*, **concutsī* became *concessī*.

b. A mute was often assimilated to a following mute, liquid, or nasal: thus, **adger* became *agger*, **sedla* became *sella*, **supmus*

¹ The *h* in *trahō* represents an original *gh*.

became **summus**, ***sitcus** became **siccus**, **adligō** became **alligō**, **adpellō** became **appellō**, ***obcurrō** became **occurrō**, ***subplicō** became **supplicō**.

NOTE. In prepositional compounds the final consonant of the preposition was often assimilated (cf. the last four examples above); but usage varied, and in many compounds the assimilated form was found rarely, if at all, in the classical period.

54. Partial Assimilation :

a. Voiced **b** or **g** before voiceless **s** or **t** was usually changed to corresponding voiceless **p** or **c** : thus, ***scribsī** became **scripsī**, ***scribtus** became **scriptus**, ***augtus** became **auctus**.

b. Labial **m** before dental mutes was regularly changed to dental **n**, and before palatal mutes was often changed to palatal **n** : thus, ***tamtus** became **tantus**, ***eumdem** became **eundem**, ***primceps** became **princeps**.

c. A labial mute before **n** became **m** : thus, ***sopnus** became **somnus**.

55. Dropping of Consonants :

a. In final syllables a **d** or a **t** before **s** was dropped : thus, ***lapids** became **lapis**, ***milets** became **miles**.

b. Final consonants were often dropped : thus, ***virgon** became **virgō**, ***cord** became **cor**, **praedād** became **praedā**, **habētōd** became **habētō**.

NOTE. When several consonants formed a group difficult to pronounce, one or more were sometimes dropped : as, **ostendō** for ***obstendō**, **quintus** for ***quinctus**, **misceō** for ***migsceō**. But when the group could be easily pronounced, no consonants were lost : as, **iūnxī**, **rōstrum**, **stringō**, **ūnctus**, **sprētus**.

III. VOWEL GRADATION OR ABLAUT

56. The Indo-European parent speech, of which most of the languages of Europe are descendants, showed a regular system of vowel variation in the same word or kindred words. This variation is called vowel gradation or *ablaut*. Plain traces of *ablaut* remain in all the languages derived from the Indo-European. Compare, for example, English *drink*, *drank*, *drunk* ; *steal*, *stole* ; *bind*, *bound*.

57. Vowel gradation in Latin appears sometimes as a mere difference of quantity in the same vowel (as, ī, i ; ū, u ; etc.) and sometimes as a difference in the vowel itself (as, e, o ; i, ae ; etc.).

rēgere, *rule*

rēx, *king*

dūcere, *lead*

dūx, *leader*

dāre, *give*

dōnum, *gift*

tēgere, *cover*

tōga, *robe*

tēgula, *tile*

fidere, *trust*

fidēs, *faith*

foedus, *treaty*

mōnēre, *remind*

mēns, *mind*

miser, *wretched*

maestus, *sad*

sēdēs, *seat*

sēdere, *sit*

sōdālis, *companion*

sīdō (for *sī-sd-ō), *sit*

nōcēre, *harm*

nēx, *murder*

PART II. FORMS

58. Parts of Speech. Latin has eight parts of speech : nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

Latin has no article. This must be supplied by the context.

59. Inflections. Words may change their forms to show some change in sense or use. This change is called *inflection*

In Latin, nouns,¹ adjectives, pronouns, and verbs are capable of inflection. Adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections are not inflected, and are called particles.

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

vōx, a voice	vocō, I call	vocet, let him call	tangit, he touches
vōcis, of a voice	vocat, he calls	vocāvit, he has called	tetigit, he touched

60. Declension and Conjugation. The inflection of nouns, adjectives,² and pronouns is called declension ; that of verbs is called conjugation.

61. Roots. Words are built up from roots.

A root is the simplest form to which a word can be reduced. It is always a monosyllable, and contains the fundamental meaning of the word, but cannot, as a rule, be used as a part of speech without modification.

Thus from the root *sta-* we form the adjective *sta-bilis* by adding to it an ending called a suffix.

¹ A few nouns are incapable of inflection. These are called indeclinable nouns : *as, fās, right; nihil, nothing.*

² Adjectives are sometimes said to have inflections of *comparison*. The forms of comparison are, however, really new stems and are not strictly to be regarded as forms of inflection.

62. Stems. The stem or theme is the body of a word to which terminations are attached.

Sometimes the stem is the same as the root, but usually the stem is formed from the root by the addition of a suffix or by changing or lengthening its vowel.

Thus the root **duc-** is also the stem of **duc-is**, of a leader; but from the root **voc-** we may form **voc-ā-**, stem of **vocāre**, call; **voc-āto-**, stem of **vocātus**, called; **voc-ātiōn-**, stem of **vocātiōnis**, of a calling; etc. By lengthening the vowel of this same root we get **vōc-**, the stem of **vōc-is**, of a voice.

NOTE. The root itself may have various forms. See § 57.

63. Bases. The base is that part of a word which remains unchanged in inflection: as, **serv-** in **servus**, **mēns-** in **mēnsa**, **am-** in **amem**.

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

GENDER

64. Latin, like English, has three genders: masculine, feminine, and neuter.

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

I. NATURAL GENDER

66. Natural gender is determined by *sex* and belongs only to animate beings.

puer, M., boy
puella, F., girl

vir, M., man
mulier, F., woman

equus, M., horse
equa, F., mare

NUMBER

71. Latin, like English, has two numbers, the singular and the plural. The singular number denotes one, the plural number more than one.

NOUNS AND THEIR DECLENSION

72. A noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea.

Caesar, Cæsar *Rōma, Rome* *domus, house* *virtūs, virtue*

NOTE. The term *substantive* is often applied to a noun or to any word or expression used like a noun.

a. Names of individual persons or places are called proper nouns: as, *Caesar, Rōma*. Other nouns are called common nouns.

b. Nouns are either abstract or concrete.

1. An abstract noun is the name of a quality or idea: as, *virtūs, virtue*; *metus, fear*.

2. A concrete noun is the name of something that has physical existence and can be seen, touched, or handled: as, *domus, house*; *aqua, water*.

NOTE. Nouns that are abstract are often used in a concrete sense and *vice versa*.

c. A collective noun is a concrete noun denoting a group or class of objects.

exercitus, army *grex, herd* *populus, people*

73. Declension. Nouns are declined by adding certain terminations to a common base or stem. The resulting form is called a *case*.

Each case form, therefore, consists of two distinct elements, the base or stem and the case ending. If the stem ends in a consonant, the base and the stem are identical and the case endings appear distinct and unchanged. But if the stem ends in a vowel, this vowel may so combine with the case endings that the stem and real endings are hard to distinguish. The suffix produced by the combination of

the final vowel of the stem and the case ending is called a *case termination*, and this term may be conveniently extended to all inflectional suffixes added to the base.

Thus **duc-is** consists of the consonant stem or base **duc-** and the case termination **-is**, which is also the actual case ending; but **iugō** (base **iug-**, case termination **-ō**) goes back to an original ***iugo-ai**, which shows the stem to be **iugo-** and the actual case ending **-ai**.

74. The Cases. There are six cases in Latin :

Nominative, case of the subject.

Genitive, case of the possessor or of the object with *of*.

Dative, case of the object with *to* or *for*, especially the indirect object.

Accusative, case of the direct object.

Vocative, case of address.

Ablative, case of the object with *from*, *with*, *by*, *in*, or *at*.

a. The Locative Case. Forms of another case, the *locative*, denoting the *place where*, appear in some names of towns and a few other words.

b. The Oblique Cases. All the cases except the nominative and the vocative are called the *oblique cases*.

THE FIVE DECLENSIONS OF NOUNS

75. Nouns are inflected in five declensions, distinguished by the final letter of the stem and by the case termination of the genitive singular.

DECLENSION	FINAL LETTER OF THE STEM	TERMINATION OF THE GENITIVE
First	ā-	-ae
Second	ō-	-ī
Third	ī- or a consonant.	-īs
Fourth	ŭ-	-ūs
Fifth	ē-	-ēī

a. The *base* of a noun may always be found by dropping the case termination. In consonant stems the *base* and the *stem* are identical. In vowel stems the stem is formed from the base by adding the final stem-vowel.

Thus the *base* of **domin-ī**, the genitive singular of **dominus**, a noun of the second declension, is **domin-**, and the *stem* is **domino-**, formed by adding **-o-**, the final stem-vowel of the second declension, to the *base*.

GENERAL RULES OF DECLENSION

76. a. The vocative is always the same as the nominative except in some Greek nouns and in the singular of nouns in **-us** of the second declension.

It is not included in the paradigms unless it differs from the nominative.

b. In neuters the nominative and accusative are always alike and in the plural end in **-ā**. The first and fifth declensions have no neuters.

c. The accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in **-m**, the accusative plural in **-s**.

d. The dative and ablative plural are always alike.

e. In the third, fourth, and fifth declensions the accusative plural is like the nominative plural.

f. Final **-i**, **-o**, **-u** in case forms are always *long*; final **-a** is always *short*, except in the ablative singular of the first declension.

THE FIRST DECLENSION — \bar{A} -STEMS

77. The stem of nouns of the first declension ends in \bar{a} : as, **dominā-**, stem of **dominā**, *lady*.

78. The Nominative Singular. Latin nouns of the first or \bar{a} -declension end in **-ā** in the nominative singular, and they are regularly feminine unless they denote males.

a. Examples of masculine nouns in **-a** are:

scrība, *scribe* **verna**, *slave* **agricola**, *farmer* **nauta**, *sailor*

also some proper nouns: as,

Mūrēna, *Murena* **Belgae**, *the Belgæ* **Hadria**, *the Adriatic*

79. Declension. Nouns of the first declension are declined as follows :

domina, F., the (a) lady

STEM dominā-		BASE domin-	
		SINGULAR	
CASES		MEANINGS	TERMINATIONS
NOM.	domina	<i>the lady</i> (subject)	-a
GEN.	dominae	<i>of the lady</i> or <i>the lady's</i>	-ae
DAT.	dominae	<i>to</i> or <i>for the lady</i>	-ae
ACC.	dominam	<i>the lady</i> (direct object)	-am
ABL.	dominā	<i>with, from, by, etc. the lady</i>	-ā
PLURAL			
NOM.	dominae	<i>the ladies</i> (subject)	-ae
GEN.	dominārum	<i>of the ladies</i> or <i>the ladies'</i>	-ārum
DAT.	dominīs	<i>to</i> or <i>for the ladies</i>	-īs
ACC.	dominās	<i>the ladies</i> (direct object)	-ās
ABL.	dominīs	<i>with, from, by, etc. the ladies</i>	-īs

PECULIAR CASE FORMS IN THE FIRST DECLENSION

80. a. An old genitive singular in **-ās** is sometimes preserved in the form **familiās**, used in the combination **pater (māter, filius, filia) familiās**, *father (mother, son, daughter) of a family*; plural, **patrēs familiās** or **familiārum**.

b. In early Latin the genitive singular ended in **-āi** (pronounced in two syllables): as, **aulāi**. This ending is sometimes found later in poetry.

aulāi mediō libābant pōcula Bacchī, *in the midst of the court they poured libations of wine*

c. The singular of names of towns in **-a** and of a few common nouns has a *locative* case in **-ae** (for **-āi**) to denote the *place where*.

Rōmae, *at Rome* **militiae**, *in military service*

Names of towns that are plural in form and belong to the first declension have a locative in **-īs** not distinguishable from the ablative.

Athēnīs, *at Athens* **Thēbīs**, *at Thebes*

d. A genitive plural in **-um** instead of in **-ārum** is sometimes found in poetry, especially in Greek nouns denoting descent.

Aeneadum, of the descendants of Æneas
caelicolum, of the heaven dwellers

e. The dative and ablative plural of **dea**, *goddess*, and **filia**, *daughter*, and of some other words take the ending **-ābus** instead of **-īs** to distinguish them from corresponding masculine forms.

Thus **deābus** and **filiābus** are distinguished from **deīs** and **filiīs**, corresponding forms of **deus**, *god*, and **filius**, *son*, respectively.

GREEK NOUNS OF THE FIRST DECLENSION

81. Most *common* nouns of the first declension borrowed from the Greek have Latin forms throughout (as, **aula**, *court*; **philosophia**, *philosophy*); but *proper* nouns generally retain traces of their Greek case forms in the singular.

Such Greek proper nouns end in **-ā** or **-ē**, feminine, and **-ās** or **-ēs**, masculine. In the singular they are declined as follows :

	Ēlectrā		Andromachē
NOM.	Ēlectrā (-a)		Andromachē (-a)
GEN.	Ēlectrae		Andromachēs (-ae)
DAT.	Ēlectrae		Andromachae
ACC.	Ēlectrān (-am)		Andromachēn (-am)
ABL.	Ēlectrā		Andromachē (-ā)
VOC.	Ēlectrā (-a)		Andromachē (-a)
	Aenēās		Anchīsēs
NOM.	Aenēās		Anchīsēs
GEN.	Aenēae		Anchīsae
DAT.	Aenēae		Anchīsae
ACC.	Aenēān (-am)		Anchīsēn (-am)
ABL.	Aenēā		Anchīsē (-ā)
VOC.	Aenēā (-a)		Anchīsē (-a)

In the plural no Greek forms of declension occur.

THE SECOND DECLENSION — O-STEMS

82. The stem of nouns of the second declension ends in *o*-.

domino-, stem of *dominus*, *master*

viro-, stem of *vir*, *man*

puero-, stem of *puer*, *boy*

pilo-, stem of *pilum*, *spear*

83. **The Nominative Singular.** The nominative singular of Latin nouns of the second or *o*- declension ends in *-us*, *-er*, *-ir*, masculine; and in *-um*, neuter.

NOTE. The terminations *-us* and *-um* were originally *-os* and *-om*, and after *u* and *v* these old endings were retained until the Augustan age: as, *equos*, *equom*; *servos*, *servom*.

84. The masculines in *-us* and neuters in *-um* are declined as follows :

<i>dominus</i> , M., <i>master</i>		<i>pilum</i> , N., <i>spear</i>	
STEM <i>domino</i> -; BASE <i>domin</i> -		STEM <i>pilo</i> -; BASE <i>pil</i> -	
SINGULAR			
	CASES	TERMINATIONS	
NOM.	<i>domin us</i>	<i>-us</i>	<i>pil um</i>
GEN.	<i>domin ī</i>	<i>-ī</i>	<i>pil ī</i>
DAT.	<i>domin ō</i>	<i>-ō</i>	<i>pil ō</i>
ACC.	<i>domin um</i>	<i>-um</i>	<i>pil um</i>
ABL.	<i>domin ō</i>	<i>-ō</i>	<i>pil ō</i>
VOC.	<i>domine</i>	<i>-e</i>	<i>pil um</i>
PLURAL			
NOM.	<i>domin ī</i>	<i>-ī</i>	<i>pil a</i>
GEN.	<i>domin ōrum</i>	<i>-ōrum</i>	<i>pil ōrum</i>
DAT.	<i>domin īs</i>	<i>-īs</i>	<i>pil īs</i>
ACC.	<i>domin ōs</i>	<i>-ōs</i>	<i>pil a</i>
ABL.	<i>domin īs</i>	<i>-īs</i>	<i>pil īs</i>

a. Nouns in *-us* of the second declension have a special form with the termination *-ĕ* for the vocative singular.

85. Nouns of the second declension in *-er* and *-ir* are declined like *dominus*, except for the loss of the terminations *-us* in the nominative and *-ě* in the vocative singular.

Thus we have *puer* (for **puerus*) in the nominative singular; *puer* (for **puere*) in the vocative singular.

	<i>puer</i> , M., <i>boy</i>	<i>ager</i> , M., <i>field</i>	<i>vir</i> , M., <i>man</i>	
	STEM <i>puero-</i>	STEM <i>agro-</i>	STEM <i>viro-</i>	
	BASE <i>puer-</i>	BASE <i>agr-</i>	BASE <i>vir-</i>	
	SINGULAR			TERMINATIONS
NOM.	<i>puer</i>	<i>ager</i>	<i>vir</i>	(<i>-us lost</i>)
GEN.	<i>puerī</i>	<i>agrī</i>	<i>virī</i>	<i>-ī</i>
DAT.	<i>puerō</i>	<i>agrō</i>	<i>virō</i>	<i>-ō</i>
ACC.	<i>puerum</i>	<i>agrum</i>	<i>virum</i>	<i>-um</i>
ABL.	<i>puerō</i>	<i>agrō</i>	<i>virō</i>	<i>-ō</i>
Voc.	<i>puer</i>	<i>ager</i>	<i>vir</i>	(<i>-ě lost</i>)
	PLURAL			
NOM.	<i>puerī</i>	<i>agrī</i>	<i>virī</i>	<i>-ī</i>
GEN.	<i>puerōrum</i>	<i>agrōrum</i>	<i>virōrum</i>	<i>-ōrum</i>
DAT.	<i>puerīs</i>	<i>agrīs</i>	<i>virīs</i>	<i>-īs</i>
ACC.	<i>puerōs</i>	<i>agrōs</i>	<i>virōs</i>	<i>-ōs</i>
ABL.	<i>puerīs</i>	<i>agrīs</i>	<i>virīs</i>	<i>-īs</i>

a. With nouns in *-er*, if *e* belongs to the stem (as in *puer*), it is retained throughout; otherwise it appears (as in *ager*) in only the nominative and vocative singular, where it is inserted before the *-r* after *-o*, the stem vowel, has been dropped.

Most nouns in *-er* are declined like *ager*, but the following are declined like *puer*:

1. Compounds in *-fer* and *-ger*: as, *signifer*, *signiferī*, *standard bearer*; *armiger*, *armigerī*, *armor bearer*.

2. *Gener*, *son-in-law*; *Liber*, *Bacchus*; *liberī*, *children*; *socer*, *father-in-law*; *vesper*, *evening*; and a few others.

EXCEPTIONS TO GENDER IN THE SECOND DECLENSION

86. *Feminine* nouns in *-us* are :

a. Some names of *countries, towns, islands, and trees* (§ 67. b).

<i>Aegyptus, Egypt</i>	<i>Rhodus, Rhodes</i>
<i>Corinthus, Corinth</i>	<i>mālus, apple tree</i>

b. Some nouns of Greek origin.

<i>arctus, bear</i>	<i>methodus, method</i>
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c. These four nouns :

<i>alvus, belly</i>	<i>colus, distaff</i>
<i>carbasus, linen</i>	<i>humus, ground</i>

87. *Neuter* nouns in *-us* are :

<i>pelagus, sea</i>	<i>vīrus, poison</i>	<i>vulgus, crowd</i>
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Their accusative singular (as in all neuters) is the same as the nominative and they have no plural, except that *pelagus* has a rare accusative plural, *pelagē*. Rarely *vulgus* is masculine.

PECULIAR CASE FORMS IN THE SECOND DECLENSION

88. a. The locative singular ends in *-ī*, like the genitive.

<i>humī, on the ground</i>	<i>Corinthī, at Corinth</i>
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The locative plural ends in *-īs* and is not distinguished in form from the ablative : as, *Delphis, at Delphi*.

b. The genitive singular of nouns in *-ius* and *-ium* ended in *-ī* (*not in -ii*) until the Augustan age, and the accent was on the penult (§ 38. b).

<i>filī, from filius (son)</i>	<i>praesi'dī, from praesidium (garrison)</i>
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c. The vocative singular of *filius, son*, and of proper nouns in *-ius* ends in *-ī*, instead of in *-ie*, and the accent is on the penult.

<i>filī, O son</i>	<i>Vergi'li, O Vergil</i>
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In such words, therefore, the genitive and the vocative are alike.

d. The genitive plural sometimes retains the original **-um** (or **-om**) instead of using **-ōrum**, especially in poetry.

deum, **dīvom**, **superum**, of the gods
duumvirum, of the duumviri

sēstertium, of sesterces
nummum, of coins

This is the regular form in early Latin, the later **-ōrum** being merely an imitation of the genitive plural of the first declension.

e. The declension of **deus**, *god*, shows several peculiarities. The vocative singular does not occur in classic Latin. In late Latin the nominative is used as a vocative. The plural is declined as follows:

NOM.	deī, diī, dī
GEN.	deōrum, deum
DAT.	deīs, diīs, dīs
ACC.	deōs
ABL.	deīs, diīs, dīs

The forms **diī** and **diīs** are pronounced like **dī**, **dīs**.

GREEK NOUNS OF THE SECOND DECLENSION

89. Greek nouns of the second declension end in **-os**, **-ōs**, masculine or feminine, and in **-on**, neuter. They are mostly proper names, and are declined as follows in the singular (the plural, when found, being usually regular):

	mṃthos , M. <i>fable</i>	Androgeōs , M. <i>Androgeos</i>	Dēlos , F. <i>Delos</i>	Īlion , N. <i>Ilium</i>
NOM.	mṃthos	Androgeōs	Dēlos	Īlion
GEN.	mṃthī	Androgeō (-ī)	Dēlī	Īlīī
DAT.	mṃthō	Androgeō	Dēlō	Īlīō
ACC.	mṃthon	Androgeōn (-ō)	Dēlon (-um)	Īlion
ABL.	mṃthō	Androgeō	Dēlō	Īlīō
Voc.	mṃthe	Androgeōs	Dēle	Īlion

a. A rare genitive in **-ū** (Greek *ou*) sometimes occurs: as, **Menandrū**, of *Menander*.

b. The name **Panthus** has vocative **Panthū**.

c. The termination, *-oe* (Greek *oi*) is sometimes found in the nominative plural, and *-ōn* in the genitive plural.

Adelphoe, the Adelphi (a play of Terence)

Geōrgicōn, of the Georgics (a poem of Vergil)

d. For the declension of Greek names in *-eus* (like *Orpheus*) see § 112.

THE THIRD DECLENSION — CONSONANT AND I-STEMS

90. Stems of the third declension are classified as follows :

- | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|
| I. Consonant stems | { | <i>A.</i> Mute stems
<i>B.</i> Liquid stems
<i>C.</i> Nasal stems |
| II. I-stems | { | <i>A.</i> Pure i-stems
<i>B.</i> Mixed i-stems |
| III. Irregular nouns | | |

91. In consonant stems the stem is regularly the same as the base.

In i-stems the stem is formed by adding *i-* to the base.

I. CONSONANT STEMS

A. MUTE STEMS

92. Masculine and feminine nouns with stems ending in a mute (§ 10) form the nominative singular by adding *s* to the stem. Neuters use as nominative the simple stem, dropping the final mute.

93. In forming the nominative singular from the stem the following changes occur :

a. A lingual mute (*t* or *d*) is dropped before *-s*: as, *mīles* (stem *mīlīt-*), *custōs* (stem *custōd-*).

b. A palatal mute (*c* or *g*) unites with *-s* to form *-x*: as, *dux* (*duc-s*), *rēx* (*rēg-s*).

c. In stems of more than one syllable an original unaccented *e*, retained in the nominative singular (§ 44. c), is regularly changed to *i* in the other cases : as, **prīnceps**, **prīncipis**.

94. Mute stems are declined as follows :

	prīnceps , M. <i>chief</i>	mīles , M. <i>soldier</i>	lapis , M. <i>stone</i>	
BASES OR STEMS	} prīncip - ¹	mīlit - ¹	lapid -	
		SINGULAR		TERMINATIONS M. AND F.
NOM.	prīnceps	mīles	lapis	-s
GEN.	prīncipis	militis	lapidis	-is
DAT.	prīncipī	militī	lapidī	-ī
ACC.	prīncipem	militem	lapidem	-em
ABL.	prīncipe	milite	lapide	-e
	PLURAL			
NOM.	prīncipēs	militēs	lapidēs	-ēs
GEN.	prīncipum	militum	lapidum	-um
DAT.	prīncipibus	militibus	lapidibus	-ibus
ACC.	prīncipēs	militēs	lapidēs	-ēs
ABL.	prīncipibus	militibus	lapidibus	-ibus
	rēx , M. <i>king</i>	iūdex , M. <i>judge</i>	virtūs , F. <i>manliness</i>	
BASES OR STEMS	} rēg -	iūdic -	virtūt -	
		SINGULAR		TERMINATIONS M. AND F.
NOM.	rēx	iūdex	virtūs	-s
GEN.	rēgis	iūdicis	virtūtis	-is
DAT.	rēgī	iūdicī	virtūtī	-ī
ACC.	rēgem	iūdicem	virtūtem	-em
ABL.	rēge	iūdice	virtūte	-e

¹ The original form of these stems was **prīncep**- and **mīlet**-. See § 44. c.

PLURAL			TERMINATIONS M. AND F.	
NOM.	rēgēs	iūdicēs	virtūtēs	-ēs
GEN.	rēgum	iūdicum	virtūtum	-um
DAT.	rēgibus	iūdicibus	virtūtibus	-ibus
ACC.	rēgēs	iūdicēs	virtūtēs	-ēs
ABL.	rēgibus	iūdicibus	virtūtibus	-ibus

	cor, N.	caput, N.	poēma, N.
	<i>heart</i>	<i>head</i>	<i>poem</i>
BASES OR STEMS	} cord-	capit-	poēmat-

SINGULAR			TERMINATIONS NEUT.	
NOM.	cor	caput	poēma	—
GEN.	cordis	capitis	poēmatis	-is
DAT.	cordī	capitī	poēmatī	-ī
ACC.	cor	caput	poēma	—
ABL.	corde	capite	poēmate	-e

PLURAL				
NOM.	corda	capita	poēmata	-a
GEN.	—	capitum	poēmatum	-um
DAT.	cordibus	capitibus	poēmatibus	-ibus
ACC.	corda	capita	poēmata	-a
ABL.	cordibus	capitibus	poēmatibus	-ibus

95. Note the following irregularities :

a. The stem **capit-** becomes **caput** in the nominative singular, and does not drop the final mute (§ 92). An ablative **capitī** is found.

b. A number of monosyllabic nouns with mute stems are like **cor** in having no genitive plural. Among these are :

crux, *cross*
fax, *torch*

lūx, *light*
nex, *death*

pāx, *peace*
vas, *bail*

B. LIQUID STEMS

96. The nominative singular of stems ending in a liquid (l or r) is the same as the stem. But observe that —

a. Stems in **tr-** have **-ter** in the nominative: as, **pater**, stem **patr-**.

b. Stems in **ll-** or **rr-** lose one of the liquids in the nominative: as, **far**, **farris**; **mel**, **mellis**.

c. Stems in **ōr-** have short **o** in the nominative: as, **amor**, **amōris** (§ 34. b).

d. Many stems in **r-** originally ended in **s-**, which still appears in many nominatives: as, **mōs**, *custom*; **flōs**, *flower*. Some nominatives end in either **-r** or **-s**: as, **honor** or **honōs**, **arbor** or **arbōs**.

In the other cases original **s** regularly became **r** between two vowels (§ 49): as, genitive **flōris** (for **flōsis**), **mōris** (for **mōsis**).

e. Most neuter stems in **er-** and **or-** (originally **es-** and **os-**) have **-us** in the nominative: as, **genus** (stem **gener-**), **corpus** (stem **corpor-**).

97. Liquid stems are declined as follows:

	cōnsul, M. <i>consul</i>	flōs, M. <i>flower</i>	pāstor, M. <i>shepherd</i>	māter, F. <i>mother</i>	
BASES OR STEMS	cōnsul-	flōr-	pāstōr-	mātr-	
	SINGULAR				TERMINATIONS M. AND F.
NOM.	cōnsul	flōs	pāstor	māter	_____
GEN.	cōnsulis	flōris	pāstōris	mātris	-is
DAT.	cōnsulī	flōrī	pāstōrī	mātrī	-ī
ACC.	cōnsule m	flōre m	pāstōre m	mātre m	-e m
ABL.	cōnsule	flōre	pāstōre	mātre	-e
	PLURAL				
NOM.	cōnsulēs	flōrēs	pāstōrēs	mātrēs	-ēs
GEN.	cōnsul um	flōr um	pāstōr um	mātr um	- um
DAT.	cōnsul ibus	flōr ibus	pāstōr ibus	mātr ibus	- ibus
ACC.	cōnsulēs	flōrēs	pāstōrēs	mātrēs	-ēs
ABL.	cōnsul ibus	flōr ibus	pāstōr ibus	mātr ibus	- ibus

	tempus, N. <i>time</i>	opus, N. <i>work</i>	aequor, N. <i>sea</i>	
BASES OR STEMS	} tempor-	oper-	aequor-	
		SINGULAR		TERMINATIONS NEUT.
NOM.	tempus	opus	aequor	—
GEN.	temporis	operis	aequoris	-is
DAT.	temporī	operī	aequorī	-ī
ACC.	tempus	opus	aequor	—
ABL.	tempore	opere	aequore	-e
		PLURAL		
NOM.	tempora	opera	aequora	-a
GEN.	temporum	operum	aequorum	-um
DAT.	temporibus	operibus	aequoribus	-ibus
ACC.	tempora	opera	aequora	-a
ABL.	temporibus	operibus	aequoribus	-ibus

C. NASAL STEMS

98. The nominative singular of stems ending in a nasal (*n* or *m*) is the same as the stem, with the following slight modifications :

a. Stems in *ōn-* drop *n* in the nominative: as, *legiō*, stem *legiōn-*; *raziō*, stem *raziōn-*.

b. Stems in *din-* and *gin-* drop *n* and change *i* to *ō*: as, *ōrdō*, stem *ōrdin-*; *virgō*, stem *virgin-*. So also *homō* (stem *homin-*), *nēmō* (stem *nēmin-*), *Apollō* (stem *Apollin-*).

c. Neuters and a few masculine stems in *in-* (not in *din-* or *gin-*) have the nominative in *-en*: as, *nōmen*, N., stem *nōmin-*; *flāmen*, M., stem *flāmin-*.

NOTE. There is only one stem in *m-*, *hiems* (stem *hiem-*), genitive *hiemis*, *winter*. This nasal stem is peculiar also in adding *-s* to form the nominative singular.

99. Stems ending in a nasal are declined as follows :

	ōrdō, M.	legiō, F.		nōmen, N.	
	<i>row</i>	<i>legion</i>		<i>name</i>	
BASES OR STEMS	} ōrdin-	} legiōn-		} nōmin-	
			SINGULAR		
			TERMINATIONS M. AND F.		TERMINATIONS NEUT.
NOM.	ōrdō	legiō	—	nōmen	—
GEN.	ōrdinis	legiōnis	-is	nōminis	-is
DAT.	ōrdinī	legiōnī	-ī	nōminī	-ī
ACC.	ōrdinem	legiōnem	-em	nōmen	—
ABL.	ōrdine	legiōne	-e	nōmine	-e
			PLURAL		
NOM.	ōrdinēs	legiōnēs	-ēs	nōmina	-a
GEN.	ōrdinum	legiōnum	-um	nōminum	-um
DAT.	ōrdinibus	legiōnibus	-ibus	nōminibus	-ibus
ACC.	ōrdinēs	legiōnēs	-ēs	nōmina	-a
ABL.	ōrdinibus	legiōnibus	-ibus	nōminibus	-ibus

II. I-STEMS

100. The original distinction between the declension of consonant stems and that of i-stems is shown by the following comparison of case terminations:

	CONSONANT STEMS	I-STEMS
SINGULAR	{ Accusative (M. and F.) -em Ablative (M., F., and N.) -e	Accusative (M. and F.) -im Ablative (M., F., and N.) -ī
PLURAL	{ Nominative (N.) -a Genitive (M., F., and N.) -um Accusative (M. and F.) -ēs , (N.) -a	Nominative (N.) -ia Genitive (M., F., and N.) -ium Accusative (M. and F.) -is , (N.) -ia

This distinction was maintained throughout by relatively few words, the tendency being to displace the i- forms by the

corresponding forms of the consonant stems. Along with this went a tendency of certain consonant stems to assume *i*-forms in the plural. The *i*-forms which persisted most strongly were :

The ablative singular in *-ī* and the nominative and accusative plural in *-ia* for all neuters.

The genitive plural in *-ium*.

The accusative plural (M. and F.) in *-īs*.

A. PURE I-STEMS

101. Pure *i*-stems are those that have retained some or all of the *i*-forms in the singular and all of them in the plural.

102. Masculines and Feminines — Pure *I*-Stems. Masculine and feminine nouns of this class regularly end in *-is* in the nominative singular, in *-ium* in the genitive plural, and in *-īs* or *-ēs* in the accusative plural. They are declined as follows :

	tussis, F., <i>cough</i>	turris, F., <i>tower</i>	ignis, M., <i>fire</i>	
	STEM tussi-	STEM turri-	STEM igni-	
	BASE tuss-	BASE turr-	BASE ign-	
	SINGULAR			TERMINATIONS M. AND F.
NOM.	tussis	turris	ignis	-is
GEN.	tussis	turris	ignis	-is
DAT.	tussī	turrī	igni	-ī
ACC.	tussim	turrim (-em)	ignem	-im (-em)
ABL.	tussī	turrī (-e)	igni (-e)	-ī (-e)
	PLURAL			
NOM.	tussēs	turrēs	ignēs	-ēs
GEN.	tussium	turrium	ignium	-ium
DAT.	tussibus	turribus	ignibus	-ibus
ACC.	tussīs (-ēs)	turrīs (-ēs)	ignīs (-ēs)	-īs (-ēs)
ABL.	tussibus	turribus	ignibus	-ibus

a. Four *i*-stems end in **-er** in the nominative singular. These are **imber**, *rain*; **linter**, *boat*; **ūter**, *skin*; **venter**, *belly*.

b. Declined like **tussis** (acc. **-im**, abl. **-ī**) in the singular, but lacking the plural, are names of towns and rivers in **-is**, and **sitis**, *thirst*.

c. Declined like **turris** (acc. **-im**, **-em**; abl. **-ī**, **-e**) are: **febris**, *fever*; **nāvis**, *ship*; **puppis**, *stern*; **sēmentis**, *sowing*; and a few others.

d. Declined like **ignis** (acc. **-em**; abl. **-ī**, **-e**) are: **avis**, *bird*; **cīvis**, *citizen*; **classis**, *fleet*; **collis**, *hill*; **finis**, *end*; **orbis**, *circle*; **ovis**, *sheep*; and a few others.

e. **Messis**, *crop*; **restis**, *rope*; and **secūris**, *ax*, have the accusative singular in **-im** or **-em**, and in the ablative **messe**, **reste**, and **secūrī** respectively.

103. Neuters — Pure *I*-Stems. Neuter pure *i*-stems end in **-e**, **-al**, or **-ar** in the nominative singular. They have **-ī** in the ablative singular, **-ium** in the genitive plural, and **-ia** in the nominative and accusative plural.

a. In the nominative singular the final *i*- of the stem, if retained, is changed to **-e**: as, **insigne**, stem **insigni-**. But most neuters in which the *i*- of the stem is preceded by **ā**l or **ār** lose the final stem vowel and shorten the preceding **ā** (§ 34. *b*): as, **animal**, stem **animāli-**.

104. Neuter pure *i*-stems are declined as follows :

	insigne, N. <i>decoration</i>	animal, N. <i>animal</i>	calcar, N. <i>spur</i>	
STEMS	insigni-	animāli-	calcāri-	
BASES	insign-	animāl-	calcār-	
	SINGULAR			
				TERMINATIONS
NOM.	insigne	animal	calcar	-e or —
GEN.	insignis	animālis	calcāris	-is
DAT.	insignī	animālī	calcārī	-ī
ACC.	insigne	animal	calcar	-e or —
ABL.	insignī	animālī	calcārī	-ī

	PLURAL			TERMINATIONS
NOM.	īnsignia	animālia	calcāria	-ia
GEN.	īnsignium	animālium	calcārium	-ium
DAT.	īnsignibus	animālibus	calcāribus	-ibus
ACC.	īnsignia	animālia	calcāria	-ia
ABL.	īnsignibus	animālibus	calcāribus	-ibus

a. Geographical names in -e (as, **Praeneste**, **Sōracte**) have the ablative in -e. **Rēte**, *net*, has **rēte** or rarely **rēti**.

B. MIXED I-STEMS

105. Mixed i-stems are either original i-stems that have lost their i- forms in the singular, or consonant stems that have assumed i- forms in the plural. It is often impossible to distinguish between these two classes.

Masculines and Feminines. Mixed i-stems are masculine or feminine.

They are declined like consonant stems in the singular and like i-stems in the plural, and have —

- em in the accusative singular
- e in the ablative singular
- ium in the genitive plural
- īs or -ēs in the accusative plural

106. Mixed i-stems include the following :

a. Nouns in -ēs, genitive -is: as, **caedēs** (gen. **caedis**), **nūbēs** (gen. **nūbis**).

b. Monosyllables in -s or -x preceded by a consonant: as, **ars**, **pōns**, **arx**.

c. Polysyllables in -ns or -rs: as, **cliēns**, **cohors**.

d. The plurals **faucēs**, **optimātēs**, **penātēs**, **Quirītēs**, **Samnītēs**; the monosyllables **fraus**, **līs**, **mūs**, **nix**, **nox**; and sometimes nouns in -tās (gen. -tātis), as, **cīvitās** (genitive plural generally **cīvitātium**, but sometimes **cīvitātium**).

107. Mixed i-stems are declined as follows :

	nūbēs, F. <i>cloud</i>	urbis, F. <i>city</i>	nox, F. <i>night</i>	cliēns, M. <i>client</i>	aetās, F. <i>age</i>
STEMS	nūb(i)-	urb(i)-	noct(i)-	client(i)-	aetāt(i)-
BASES	nūb-	urb-	noct-	client-	aetāt-
SINGULAR					
NOM.	nūbēs	urbis	nox	cliēns	aetās
GEN.	nūbis	urbis	noctis	clientis	aetātis
DAT.	nūbī	urbī	noctī	clientī	aetātī
ACC.	nūbem	urbem	noctem	clientem	aetātem
ABL.	nūbe	urbe	nocte	cliente	aetāte
PLURAL					
NOM.	nūbēs	urbēs	noctēs	clientēs	aetātēs
GEN.	nūbium	urbium	noctium	clientium ¹	aetātium ²
DAT.	nūbibus	urbibus	noctibus	clientibus	aetātibus
ACC.	nūbīs (-ēs)	urbīs (-ēs)	noctīs (-ēs)	clientīs (-ēs)	aetātīs (-ēs)
ABL.	nūbibus	urbibus	noctibus	clientibus	aetātibus

a. Auris, ear, and a few other pure i-stems have lost their i- forms in the accusative and ablative singular and are declined like *nūbēs*.

b. Canis, dog, and iuuenis, youth, are consonant stems that have assumed some i- forms. They have **-em** in the accusative singular, **-e** in the ablative singular, **-um** in the genitive plural, and **-ēs** or **-īs** in the accusative plural.

c. Famēs, hunger, always has the ablative **famē**.

108. The declension of i-stems was unstable at all periods of the language and was confused even among the Romans themselves, early Latin having i- forms which afterwards disappeared. Thus an old nominative plural in **-īs** was completely lost. Lost in most words was the accusative singular in **-im**. Somewhat more stable was the ablative singular in **-ī**, while the genitive plural in **-ium** and the accusative plural in **-īs** were retained in nearly all words.

• ¹ Rarely *clientum*.

² Also *aetātium*.

III. IRREGULAR NOUNS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION

109. Among the nouns showing irregular case formations are the following:

	senex , M. <i>old man</i>	carō , F. <i>flesh</i>	os , N. <i>bone</i>	vīs , F. <i>force</i>	bōs , C. <i>ox, cow</i>
SINGULAR					
NOM.	senex	carō	os	vīs	bōs
GEN.	senis	carnis	ossis	vīs (rare)	bōvis
DAT.	senī	carnī	ossī	vī (rare)	bovī
ACC.	senem	carnem	os	vim	bovem
ABL.	sene	carne	osse	vī	bove
PLURAL					
NOM.	senēs	carnēs	ossa	vīrēs	bovēs
GEN.	senum	carnium	ossium	virium	boum
DAT.	senibus	carnibus	ossibus	viribus	bōbus (būbus)
ACC.	senēs	carnēs	ossa	virīs (-ēs)	bovēs
ABL.	senibus	carnibus	ossibus	viribus	bōbus (būbus)
SINGULAR					
	sūs , C. <i>swine</i>	Iuppiter , M. <i>Jupiter</i>	nix , F. <i>snow</i>	iter , N. <i>march</i>	
SINGULAR					
NOM.	sūs	Iuppiter	nix	iter	
GEN.	suīs	Iovīs	nivīs	itineris	
DAT.	suī	Iovī	nivī	itinerī	
ACC.	suem	Iovem	nivem	iter	
ABL.	sue	Iove	nive	itinere	
PLURAL					
NOM.	suēs		nivēs	itinerā	
GEN.	suum		nivium	itinerum	
DAT.	sūbus (suibus),		nivibus	itineribus	
ACC.	suēs		nivēs	itinerā	
ABL.	sūbus (suibus)		nivibus	itineribus	

a. Like *sūs* is declined *grūs*, *crane*, except that the dative and ablative plural are always *gruibus*. *Iecur*, N., *liver*, has genitive *iecoris* or *iecinoris*. *Supellex*, F., *furniture*, has genitive *supellectilis*, ablative *supellectilī* or *-e*; there is no plural.

THE LOCATIVE CASE

110. The locative singular for nouns of the third declension ends in *-ī* or *-e*.

rūrī (rarely *rūre*), *in the country*
Carthāginī or *Carthāgine*, *at Carthage*

The locative plural ends in *-ibus* and is not distinguished in form from the ablative: as, *Trallibus*, *at Tralles*.

GREEK NOUNS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION

111. Greek nouns of the third declension are often entirely regular, but many, especially proper names, show Greek terminations in the following cases:

- a. Genitive singular in *-os*: as, *tigrīdos*.
- b. Accusative singular in *-n* or *-a*: as, *basin*, *tigrīda*, *aethera*.
- c. Vocative singular like the stem: as, *Periclē*, *Orpheu*, *Atlā*.
- d. Nominative plural in *-ēs*: as, *hērōēs*.
- e. Accusative plural in *-ās*: as, *lampadās*.

112. Examples of these peculiarities are seen in the following:

	<i>hērōs</i> , M. <i>hero</i>	<i>lampas</i> , F. <i>torch</i>	<i>basis</i> , F. <i>base</i>	<i>tigris</i> , C. <i>tiger</i>	<i>nāis</i> , F. <i>naiad</i>
	SINGULAR				
NOM.	<i>hērōs</i>	<i>lampas</i>	<i>basis</i>	<i>tigris</i>	<i>nāis</i>
GEN.	<i>hērōis</i>	<i>lampados</i>	<i>baseōs</i>	<i>tigris (-idos)</i>	<i>nāidos</i>
DAT.	<i>hērōī</i>	<i>lampadī</i>	<i>basī</i>	<i>tigrī</i>	<i>nāidī</i>
ACC.	<i>hērōa</i>	<i>lampada</i>	<i>basin</i>	<i>tigrin (-ida)</i>	<i>nāida</i>
ABL.	<i>hērōe</i>	<i>lampade</i>	<i>basī</i>	<i>tigrī (-ide)</i>	<i>nāide</i>

PLURAL

NOM.	<i>hērōēs</i>	<i>lampadēs</i>	<i>bašēs</i>	<i>tigrēs</i>	<i>nāidēs</i>
GEN.	<i>hērōum</i>	<i>lampadum</i>	<i>basium (-eōn)</i>	<i>tigrimum</i>	<i>nāidum</i>
D., A.	<i>hērōibus</i>	<i>lampadibus</i>	<i>basibus</i>	<i>tigribus</i>	<i>nāidibus</i>
ACC.	<i>hērōās</i>	<i>lampadās</i>	<i>basīs (-ēis)</i>	<i>tigrīs (-idās)</i>	<i>nāidās</i>

GREEK PROPER NAMES

NOM.	<i>Dīdō</i>	<i>Simoīs</i>	<i>Capy s</i>
GEN.	<i>Dīdōnis (Dīdūs)</i>	<i>Simoentis</i>	<i>Capyos</i>
DAT.	<i>Dīdōnī (Dīdō)</i>	<i>Simoentī</i>	<i>Capyī</i>
ACC.	<i>Dīdōnem (Dīdō)</i>	<i>Simoenta</i>	<i>Capyn</i>
ABL.	<i>Dīdōne (Dīdō)</i>	<i>Simoente</i>	<i>Capyē</i>
VOC.	<i>Dīdō</i>	<i>Simoīs</i>	<i>Capy</i>
NOM.	<i>Orpheus</i>	<i>Periclēs</i>	<i>Paris</i>
GEN.	<i>Orpheī (-eōs)</i>	<i>Periclis (-ī)</i>	<i>Paridis</i>
DAT.	<i>Orpheī (-eō)</i>	<i>Periclī (-i)</i>	<i>Paridī</i>
ACC.	<i>Orphea (-um)</i>	<i>Periclem (-ea, -ēn)</i>	{ <i>Paridem</i> <i>Parim (-in)</i>
ABL.	<i>Orpheō</i>	<i>Pericle</i>	<i>Paride (Parī)</i>
VOC.	<i>Orpheu</i>	<i>Periclēs (-ē)</i>	<i>Pari</i>

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

a. Like *Simoīs* are declined stems in *ant-* (nominative in *-ās*): *as*, *Atlās*, *-antis*.

b. In a few Greek titles of books *-ōn* is found in the genitive plural: *as*, *Metamorphōseōn*, of the *Metamorphoses* (Ovid's well-known poem).

GENDER IN THE THIRD DECLENSION

113. There are no rules for gender in the third declension that do not present numerous exceptions. The gender of many nouns is determined by the general principles laid down in §§ 64 ff. The most important rules for the others, with their principal exceptions, are the following:

114. *Masculine* are nouns in **-or**, **-ōs**, **-ĕr**, **-ĕs** (gen. **-itis**), **-ex** (gen. **-icis**): **as**, **color**, **fĕs**, **imber**, **gurgēs** (**gurgitis**), **vertex** (**verticis**).

EXCEPTIONS

- a.** Feminine are **arbor**, *tree*; **linter**, *skiff*.
b. Neuter are **aequor**, *sea*; **cor**, *heart*; **marmor**, *marble*; **ōs**, *mouth*; **cadāver**, *dead body*; **iter**, *way*; **vĕr**, *spring*; and names of plants and trees in **-er**: **as**, **acer**, *maple*.

115. *Feminine* are nouns in **-ō**, **-is**, **-x**, and in **-s** preceded by a consonant or by any long vowel except **ō**: **as**, **legiō**, **avis**, **arx**, **urbs**, **nūbēs**, **cīvitās**, **virtūs**.

EXCEPTIONS

- a.** Masculine are:
- sermō**, *talk*; **cardō**, *hinge*; **margō**, *edge*; **ōrdō**, *order*; **turbō**, *storm*; and nouns in **-iō** denoting material objects: **as**, **pugiō**, *poniard*.
 - Nouns in **-nis** or **-guis**: **as**, **ignis**, *fire*; **sanguis**, *blood*. Also:

axis , <i>axle</i>	fūstis , <i>club</i>	piscis , <i>fish</i>
collis , <i>hill</i>	lapis , <i>stone</i>	postis , <i>post</i>
ēnsis , <i>sword</i>	mēnsis , <i>month</i>	pulvis , <i>dust</i>
fascis , <i>bundle</i>	orbis , <i>circle</i>	sentis , <i>brier</i>
 - Nouns in **-ex** (gen. **-icis**), and **grex**, **gregis**, *herd*, and **rĕx**, **rĕgis**, *king*.
 - dĕns**, *tooth*; **fōns**, *fountain*; **mōns**, *mountain*; **pōns**, *bridge*.
 - ariēs**, *ram*; **pariēs**, *wall*; **pēs**, *foot*.
 - mūs**, *mouse*.
- b.** Neuter are **vās** (**vāsis**), *dish*; **crūs**, *leg*; **iūs**, *law*; **rūs**, *country*.

116. *Neuter* are nouns in **-e**, **-al**, **-ar**, **-n**, **-ur**, **-us**: **as**, **mare**, **animal**, **calcar**, **nōmen**, **rōbur**, **corpus**; also **lac**, *milk*, and **caput**, *head*.

EXCEPTIONS

- a.** Masculine are **tībīcen**, *flute-player*; **vultur**, *vulture*; **lepus**, *hare*.
b. Feminine is **pecus** (gen. **-udis**), *beast*.

THE FOURTH DECLENSION — U-STEMS

117. The stem of nouns of the fourth declension ends in *u-*: as, *frūctu-*, stem of *fructus*.

118. The nominative singular of nouns of the fourth declension ends in *-us*, masculine; or in *-ū*, neuter. In masculines the nominative is formed by adding *-s* to the stem: as, *fructu-s*, *fruit*. The nominative singular of neuters is the simple stem with *-ū* lengthened: as, *cornū*, *horn*.

119. Nouns of the fourth declension are declined as follows:

<i>fructus</i> , M., <i>fruit</i>		<i>cornū</i> , N., <i>horn</i>	
STEM <i>fructu-</i> ; BASE <i>fruct-</i>		STEM <i>cornu-</i> ; BASE <i>corn-</i>	
SINGULAR			
TERMINATIONS		TERMINATIONS	
NOM.	<i>fructus</i> -us	<i>cornū</i> -ū	
GEN.	<i>fructūs</i> -ūs	<i>cornūs</i> -ūs	
DAT.	<i>fructuī</i> (-ū) -uī (-ū)	<i>cornū</i> -ū	
ACC.	<i>fructum</i> -um	<i>cornū</i> -ū	
ABL.	<i>fructū</i> -ū	<i>cornū</i> -ū	
PLURAL			
NOM.	<i>fructūs</i> -ūs	<i>cornua</i> -ua	
GEN.	<i>fructuum</i> -uum	<i>cornuum</i> -uum	
DAT.	<i>fructibus</i> -ibus	<i>cornibus</i> -ibus	
ACC.	<i>fructūs</i> -ūs	<i>cornua</i> -ua	
ABL.	<i>fructibus</i> -ibus	<i>cornibus</i> -ibus	

NOTE. *Cornū*, *horn*; *genū*, *knee*; and *verū*, *spit*, are the only neuters of the fourth declension in common use.

EXCEPTIONS TO GENDER IN THE FOURTH DECLENSION

120. The following nouns in *-us* are *feminine*: *acus*, *needle*; *domus*, *house*; *īdūs* (plural), *Ides*; *manus*, *hand*; *porticus*, *colonnade*; *tribus*, *tribe*.

PECULIAR CASE FORMS IN THE FOURTH DECLENSION

121. a. A genitive singular in **-ī** (following the second declension) is common in nouns in **-tus** in early writers. Other early genitive endings are **-uis** and **-uos**.

Thus, **senātī**, **senātuis**, **senātuos** occur for the regular **senātūs**. The form **senātī** is found as late as Cicero.

b. A genitive plural in **-um**, following the analogy of **o**-stems (cf. § 88. *d*), is sometimes used, especially by the poets: as, **currum** for **curruum**.

c. In the dative and ablative plural the original ending was **-ubus**, and this is retained in classical times in **arcus** and **tribus**. Some words have both **-ibus** and **-ubus**.

d. The word **domus**, F., *house*, shows forms of both the fourth and second declensions. The locative is **domī** (rarely **domuī**), *at home*. In the other cases it is declined as follows:

dōmus, F., *house* or *home*

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
NOM.	domus	domūs
GEN.	domūs, domī	domuum, domōrum
DAT.	domuī, domō	domibus
ACC.	domum	domōs, domūs
ABL.	domō, domū	domibus

NOTE. The genitive **domī** and the dative **domō** are early forms. The ablative **domū** is rare, and the genitive plural **domōrum** is poetical or late.

e. The nouns **iussū**, *by the command*; **iniussū**, *without the command*; and **nātū**, *by birth*, are found in the ablative singular only.

f. In early Latin the ablative singular ended in **-ūd**: as, **magistrātūd**.

THE FIFTH DECLENSION — **Ē**-STEMS

122. The stem of nouns of the fifth declension ends in **ē**. The nominative singular is formed from the stem by adding **-s**: as, **diē-s**, *day*.

123. Nouns of the fifth declension are declined as follows :

	diēs, M., <i>day</i>	rēs, F., <i>thing</i>	fidēs, F., <i>faith</i>	
	STEM diē- ; BASE di-	STEM rē- ; BASE r-	STEM fidē- ; BASE fid-	
	SINGULAR			TERMINATIONS
NOM.	diēs	rēs	fidēs	-ēs
GEN.	diēī	rēī	fidēī	-ēī
DAT.	diēī	rēī	fidēī	-ēī
ACC.	diem	rem	fidem	-em
ABL.	diē	rē	fidē	-ē
	PLURAL			
NOM.	diēs	rēs		-ēs
GEN.	diērum	rērum		-ērum
DAT.	diēbus	rēbus		-ēbus
ACC.	diēs	rēs		-ēs
ABL.	diēbus	rēbus		-ēbus

NOTE 1. The ē- of the stem is regularly shortened before -m in the accusative singular (§ 34. b).

NOTE 2. The ē- of the stem is shortened in the genitive and dative singular of fidēs, spēs, and rēs in classical Latin.

GENDER IN THE FIFTH DECLENSION

124. All nouns of the fifth declension are feminine except **diēs**, *day* (usually masculine), and **merīdiēs**, *midday* (always masculine). But **diēs** is sometimes feminine in the singular when it denotes an appointed time or extent of time.

cōstitutā diē, *on a set day* longa diēs, *a long time*

PECULIAR CASE FORMS IN THE FIFTH DECLENSION

125. a. Only **diēs** and **rēs** of the nouns of the fifth declension are declined throughout. Most of them have no plural forms at all, but a few have the nominative and accusative; among which are **aciēs**, *line of battle*; **faciēs**, *face*; **speciēs**, *sight*; **spēs**, *hope*.

b. A genitive and dative singular in -ē instead of -ēī are sometimes found: as, **diē** for **diēī**; and a genitive in -ī also occurs: as, **diī** for **diēī**.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS

NOUNS USED ONLY IN THE SINGULAR

126. Some nouns are limited by their signification to the singular. These are especially :

a. Names of Persons and Places : as, **Caesar, Rōma**. But the plural may be used to indicate two or more persons or places having the same name : as, **Caesarēs, the Caesars** ; **Galliae, the two Gauls** (Cisalpine and Transalpine) or to define persons as of a certain class or character : as, **Scīpiōnēs, men like Scipio**.

b. Names of Materials : as, **aurum, gold** ; **aes, bronze**. But the plural may be used to denote *pieces* or *kinds* of material, or *objects* made of it : as, **nivēs, snowflakes** ; **vīna, wines** ; **aera, bronzes**.

c. Abstract Nouns : as, **metus, fear** ; **fortitūdō, courage**. But the plural may be used to denote *instances* or *kinds* of the quality : as, **calōrēs, times of heat** ; **ōdia, kinds of hatred**. The poets often use the plural of abstract nouns in the sense of the singular.

NOUNS USED ONLY IN THE PLURAL

127. Some nouns are commonly or exclusively found only in the plural. Such are :

a. Many Names of Towns.¹Athēnae, *Athens*Pompeii, *Pompeii***b. Most Names of Festivals and Games.**Olympia, *the Olympic games*Bacchānālia, *the festival of Bacchus***c. Names of Classes.**posterī, *descendants*maiōrēs, *ancestors*liberī, *children*optimātēs, *the upper classes*penātēs, *household gods*Quirītēs, *citizens (of Rome)*

Some names of towns are either singular or plural : as, **Pergamum** or **Pergama**, *Pergamum*.

d. Words Plural by Signification. Many of these are translated into English by nouns in the singular.

angustiae, *narrow pass*

arma, *arms*

artūs, *joints*

cibāria, *food*

dīvitiae, *riches*

epulae, *banquet*

exsequiae, *funeral obsequies*

forēs, *double doors*

hiberna, *winter quarters*

Īdūs, *Ides*

indūtia, *truce*

insidiae, *ambush*

Kalendae, *Calends*

minae, *threats*

moenia, *city walls*

Nōnae, *Nones*

nūptiae, *wedding*

reliquiae, *remains*

tenebrae, *darkness*

vīscera, *flesh*

NOTE. The poets often use the plural for the singular, usually for the sake of the meter, but often for no apparent reason.

ōra (for ōs), *face*

scēptra (for scēptrum), *scepter*

NOUNS DEFECTIVE IN CERTAIN CASES

128. a. Indeclinable Nouns. Some neuters are used only as nominative and accusative singular and so appear as indeclinable. These are :

fās, *right*

īnstar, *likeness*

opus, *need*

nefās, *wrong*

nihil (nīl), *nothing*

secus, *sex*

b. Nouns used in One Case only. Some nouns of the fourth declension are found only in the ablative singular (§ 121. e). Also :

pondō, N., *by weight*

māne, N., *morning*

sponte, F., *voluntarily*

NOTE. Māne is used also as an indeclinable accusative.

The accusative plural, infitiās, *denial*, is used, but only with eō, *go*.

c. Nouns used in Two Cases only.

fors, F., forte, *chance*, nominative and ablative singular.

forās, F., forīs, *out of doors*, accusative and ablative plural, used as adverbs.

d. Defective Nouns used in More than Two Cases. Most of these are shown in the table on the next page.

e. Most nouns of the fifth declension want the whole or part of the plural (§ 125. a).

DEFECTIVE NOUNS USED IN MORE THAN TWO CASES

NOM.	SINGULAR				PLURAL					MEANING
	GEN.	DAT.	ACC.	ABL.	NOM.	GEN.	DAT.	ACC.	ABL.	
calx, F.	calcis	calcī	calcem	calce	calcēs		calcibus	calcīs, -ēs	calcibus	heel
cor, N.	cordis	cordī	cor	corde	corda		cordibus	corda	cordibus	heart
crux, F.	crucis	crucī	crucem	cruce	crucēs		crucibus	crucēs	crucibus	cross
fax, F.	dapis, F.	dapī	dapem	dape	dapēs		dapibus	dapēs	dapibus	feast
	facis	facī	facem	face	facēs		facibus	facēs	facibus	torch
impetus, M.	frūgis, F.	frūgī	frūgem	frūge	frūgēs		frūgibus	frūgēs	frūgibus	fruit
	iūris	impetuī	impetum	impetū	iūra	frūgum			impetibus	attack
iūs, N.	iūris	iūrī	iūs	iūre	iūra	iūrum ¹	lūcibus	iūra	lūcibus	right
lūx, F.	lūcis	lūcī	lūcem	lūce	lūcēs		lūcibus	lūcēs	lūcibus	light
mel, N.	mellis	melli	mel	melle	mella			mella		honey
	nēmō, ² C.	nēmīnī	nēmīnem		necēs		necibus	necēs	necibus	no one
nex, F.	necis	necī	necem	necce	necēs		necibus	necēs	necibus	death
ōs, N.	opis, F.	opem	opem	ope	opēs	opum	opibus	opēs	opibus	help
	ōris	ōrī	ōs	ōre	ōra		ōribus	ōra	ōribus	mouth
pāx, F.	pācis	pācī	pācem	pāce	pācēs		pācibus	pācēs	pācibus	peace
	rūris	precī, F.	precem	prece	precēs	precum	precibus	precēs	precibus	prayer
rūs, N.	rūris	rūrī	rūs	rūre	rūra		sōlibus	rūra	sōlibus	country
sōl, M.	sōlis	sōlī	sōlem	sōle	sōlēs		sōlibus	sōlēs	sōlibus	sun
tūs, N.	tūris	tūrī	tūs	tūre	tūra		vadibus	tūra	vadēs	incense
vas, M.	vadis	vadī	vadem	vade	vadēs		vadibus	vadēs	vadibus	bail
	vīcis, F.	vīcī	vīcem	vice	vīcēs		vīcibus	vīcēs	vīcibus	change

¹ Rarely found and only in early Latin.² The genitive and ablative singular of *nēmō* are supplied from *nullus*: namely, *nullius, nullō*.

VARIABLE NOUNS

129. Nouns may vary in declension, in gender, or in meaning.

NOUNS THAT VARY IN DECLENSION

130. A few nouns are partly of one declension and partly of another. Such nouns are called *heteroclites*.

a. Some nouns of four syllables vary between the first and fifth declensions.

māteria or *māteriēs*, *material*

saevitia or *saevitiēs*, *fury*

b. Some nouns vary between the second and fourth declensions, having a nominative in **-um** of the second declension and another in **-us** of the fourth: as, *ēventum* or *ēventus*, *event*. For the declension of *domus*, *house*, see § 121. d.

c. The name *heteroclite* is applied also to nouns that vary between different stems of the same declension.

femur, N., *thigh*, gen. *femoris* or *feminis*

iecur, N., *liver*, gen. *iocineris*, *iocinoris*, or *iecoris*

d. Neuter plural names of festivals in **-ālia** (as, *Sāturnālia*), *ancile*, *shield*, and a few other nouns regularly of the third declension have the genitive plural in **-ium** or **-ōrum**.

e. Among other heteroclites of frequent occurrence are:

epulum, N., *feast*; plural *epulae*, F., singular in sense.

famēs, F., *hunger*, regularly of the third declension, has ablative *famē* of the fifth.

iugerum, N., *acre*, generally of the second declension in the singular, and of the third in the plural.

pecus, N., *flock*, gen. *pecoris*, etc., has also nom. *pecū*, abl. *pecū*, nom. and acc. plural *pecua*, gen. *pecuum*.

requiēs, F., *rest*, gen. *requiētis*, etc., has also acc. *requiem*, abl. *requiē*. The dative singular and the entire plural are lacking.

vās, N., *vessel*, gen. *vāsis*, etc., of the third declension in the singular; but *vāsa*, *vāsōrum*, etc., of the second declension in the plural.

vesper, M., *evening*, has gen. *vesperis* or *vesperī*, acc. *vesperum*, abl. *vespere* or *vesperō*, loc. *vesperī*, no plural.

NOUNS THAT VARY IN GENDER

131. The following nouns of the second declension are declined as either masculine or neuter :

balteus or balteum, *belt*
 clipeus or clipeum, *shield*

pilleus or pilleum, *cap*
 vällus or vällum, *rampart*

132. The following nouns are of one gender in the singular and of another in the plural :

balneum, N., *bath*
 carbasus, F., *sail*
 epulum, N., *feast*
 frēnum, N., *a bit*
 iocus, M., *jest*
 locus, M., *place*
 rästrum, N., *rake*

balneae, F., *bath house*
 carbasa, N., *sails*
 epulae, F., *feast*
 frēnī, M., or frēna, N., *bits or bridle*
 ioca, N., or iocī, M., *jest*
 loca, N., *places*; locī, M., *passages, topics*
 rästrī, M., or rästra, N., *rakes*

NOTE. **Balneum** and **epulum** are also heteroclites (§ 130).

NOUNS THAT VARY IN MEANING

133. Some nouns have one meaning in the singular and another in the plural, or are plural in form and singular in sense. Among these are :

SINGULAR

aedēs, F., *temple*
 auxiliū, N., *help*
 carcer, M., *prison*
 castrum, N., *fort*
 comitium, N., *place of assembly*
 cōpia, F., *plenty*
 finis, M., *end*
 fortūna, F., *fortune*
 grātia, F., *favor*
 impedimentum, N., *hindrance*
 littera, F., *letter* (of the alphabet)
 locus, M., *place, spot*

PLURAL

aedēs, *house*
 auxilia, *auxiliary troops*
 carcerēs, *barriers or stalls* (of a race course)
 castra, *camp*
 comitia, *an election*
 cōpiae, *troops, resources*
 finēs, *borders, territory*
 fortūnae, *possessions*
 grātiae, *thanks*
 impedimenta, *baggage*
 litterae, *epistle, literature*
 locī, *passages* (in books), *topics*

SINGULAR	PLURAL
mōs , M., <i>habit, custom</i>	mōrēs , <i>character</i>
opera , F., <i>work</i>	operae , <i>day laborers</i>
rōstrum , N., <i>beak</i> (of a ship)	rōstra , <i>speaker's platform</i>
vigilia , F., <i>wakefulness</i>	vigiliae , <i>watchmen, sentinels</i>

NAMES OF PERSONS

I. NAMES OF CITIZENS

134. In classical times a Roman citizen regularly had three names: (1) the **praenōmen**, corresponding to our Christian, or given, name; (2) the **nōmen**, or name of the **gēns** or clan; (3) the **cognōmen**, or name of the family.

NOTE. Thus, in **Mārcus Tullius Cicerō** we have **Mārcus**, the **praenōmen**; **Tullius**, the name of the **gēns**; and **Cicerō**, the name of the family.

a. The **praenōmina** were never very numerous, and from these the several **gentēs** were in the habit of selecting a few only, which were repeated over and over again. In Latin prose these were regularly abbreviated as follows:

A. , Aulus	L. , Lūcius	Q. , Quīntus
App. , Appius	M. , Mārcus	Ser. , Servius
C. , Gaius	M' , Mānius	Sex. , Sextus
Cn. , Gnaeus	Mām. , Māmercus	Sp. , Spurius
D. , Decimus	N. , Numerius	T. , Titus
K. , Kaesō	P. , Pūblius	Ti. or Tib. , Tiberius

NOTE. In the abbreviations **C.** and **Cn.**, **C.** has the value of **G.** (§ 2. *a*).

b. The **nōmen**, the name of the **gēns** or clan, regularly ends in **-ius**, and is really an adjective derived from the name of the real or supposed founder of the clan.

NOTE. So, according to Vergil, the Julian **gēns** derived its name, **Iūlius**, from **Iūlus**, the son of **Æneas**. Usually a large number of families belonged to the same **gēns**.

c. The **cognōmina**, or family names, are derived from common nouns or adjectives, applied originally, in many cases, because of some personal peculiarity or occupation, like such English surnames as White, Potter, Miller, etc.

NOTE. Thus, **Cicerō** is from **cicer**, a *chick-pea*; **Barbātus** signifies *bearded*; **Scīpiō**, a *staff*; **Figulus**, a *potter*; etc.

Later these names continued to be used after their original meaning had ceased to apply.

Sometimes a family in a **gēns** became sufficiently numerous to start a branch or family of its own. In that case both the old and the new family name would be used and there would be two **cognōmina**: as, **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Nāsica**.

d. Sometimes a Roman was given a name as a mark of honor to commemorate some great achievement, usually of a military character. This name (**agnōmen**) was added to his three regular names.

NOTE. Thus **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō**, because of his victories in Africa, received the additional name **Āfricānus**.

e. A son adopted into another family took the full name of his adopted father, and added to that the name of his own **gēns** in the form of an adjective with the ending **-ānus**.

NOTE. Thus, one of the sons of **Lucius Æmilius Paulus** was adopted by **Publius Cornelius Scipio**, and thereupon took the name **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Aemiliānus**.

II. NAMES OF WOMEN

135. Women had no **cognōmen** and, in classical times, rarely a **praenōmen**, but were known only by the feminine form of the name of their **gēns**.

Thus, the daughter of **Mārcus Tullius Cicerō** was **Tullia**. A second daughter would have been called **Tullia Secunda**, a third **Tullia Tertia**, and so on. Or of two daughters the older would be **Maior** and the younger **Minor**. Often the name of a wife or daughter is accompanied by that of her husband or father in the genitive: as, **Caecilia Metelli**, *Caecilia, daughter of Metellus*.

III. NAMES OF SLAVES

136. A slave was merely a 'piece of property and had no legal rights. His master, therefore, could give him any name that suited his fancy. Often slaves were given the names of foreign potentates or were named from the country of their origin: as, **Pharnacēs**, **Syrus** (*Syrian*), **Āfer** (*African*). If set free, a slave usually took the **praenōmen** and **nōmen** of his former master, and added his servile name as **cognōmen**.

Thus, Terence, the famous comic poet, was a slave in his youth and was given the name **Āfer**, from the country of his birth. His master, Publius Terentius Lucanus, set him free and Terence assumed the name **Pūblius Terentius Āfer**.

NOTE. Sections 134-136 apply to the system of naming employed during the classical period. In later times much confusion arose both in the number and in the order of names.

ADJECTIVES

137. An adjective is a word that describes or limits a noun, and generally denotes *quality*.

bonus, *good* **malus**, *bad* **gravis**, *heavy* **levis**, *light*

138. Adjectives are, in general, formed and declined like nouns, but distinguish gender by different forms of the same word. According to their inflection they are divided into:

- I. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions.
- II. Adjectives of the Third Declension.

I. ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS

139. Adjectives of the first and second declensions (**ā-** and **o-**stems) are declined in the masculine like **dominus**, **puer**, or **ager**; in the feminine like **domina**; and in the neuter like **pīlum**.

140. Masculine declined like *dominus* (§ 84):

bonus, bona, bonum, good

STEMS M. AND N. **bono-**, F. **bonā-**; BASE **bon-**

SINGULAR

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	bonus	bona	bonum
GEN.	bonī	bonae	bonī
DAT.	bonō	bonae	bonō
ACC.	bonum	bonam	bonum
ABL.	bonō	bonā	bonō
VOC.	bone	bona	bonum

PLURAL

NOM.	bonī	bonae	bona
GEN.	bonōrum	bonārum	bonōrum
DAT.	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs
ACC.	bonōs	bonās	bona
ABL.	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs

a. The genitive singular masculine and neuter of adjectives in **-ius** ends in **-iī** and the vocative masculine in **-ie**; not in **-ī**, as in nouns (§ 88. *b* and *c*).

b. The possessive pronominal adjective **meus**, *my*, has **mī** in the vocative masculine singular.

141. Masculine declined like *puer* (§ 85):

liber, libera, liberum, free

STEMS M. AND N. **libero-**, F. **liberā-**; BASE **liber-**

SINGULAR

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	liber	libera	liberum
GEN.	liberī	liberae	liberī
DAT.	liberō	liberae	liberō
ACC.	liberum	liberam	liberum
ABL.	liberō	liberā	liberō

	PLURAL		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	liberī	liberae	libera
GEN.	liberōrum	liberārum	liberōrum
DAT.	liberīs	liberīs	liberīs
ACC.	liberōs	liberās	libera
ABL.	liberīs	liberīs	liberīs

142. Masculine declined like *ager* (§ 85):

pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum, pretty

STEMS M. AND N. **pulchro-**, F. **pulchrā-**; BASE **pulchr-**

	SINGULAR		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	pulcher	pulchra	pulchrum
GEN.	pulchrī	pulchrae	pulchrī
DAT.	pulchrō	pulchrae	pulchrō
ACC.	pulchrum	pulchram	pulchrum
ABL.	pulchrō	pulchrā	pulchrō

	PLURAL		
NOM.	pulchrī	pulchrae	pulchra
GEN.	pulchrōrum	pulchrārum	pulchrōrum
DAT.	pulchrīs	pulchrīs	pulchrīs
ACC.	pulchrōs	pulchrās	pulchra
ABL.	pulchrīs	pulchrīs	pulchrīs

a. Most adjectives in **-er** are declined like **pulcher**, but the following are declined like **liber**:

asper, rough **lacer, torn** **miser, wretched** **tener, tender**

Also compounds in **-fer** and **-ger** (*bearing*), as, **mortifer** (*death-bearing*), **deadly**, **āliger** (*wing-bearing*), **winged**; and sometimes **dexter, right**. In these the **e** belongs to the stem (§ 85. a).

b. The adjective **satur, full**, is declined **satur, satura, saturum**.

THE NINE IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES

143. The following nine adjectives, with their compounds, have the genitive singular in *-iūs* and the dative in *-ī* in all genders. Otherwise they are declined like *bonus*, *liber*, or *pulcher*.

<i>alius, alia, aliud, other, another</i> (of several)	<i>nūllus, -a, -um, none, no</i>
<i>alter, altera, alterum, the one, the other</i> (of two)	<i>sōlus, -a, -um, alone</i>
<i>ūnus, -a, -um, one, alone; only</i> (in the plural)	<i>tōtus, -a, -um, all, whole, entire</i>
<i>ūllus, -a, -um, any</i>	<i>uter, utra, utrum, which?</i> (of two)
	<i>neuter, neutra, neutrum, neither</i> (of two)

a. The singular of these is declined as follows :

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	<i>nūllus</i>	<i>nūlla</i>	<i>nūllum</i>	<i>alius</i>	<i>alia</i>	<i>aliud</i>
GEN.	<i>nūllī'us</i>	<i>nūllī'us</i>	<i>nūllī'us</i>	(<i>alī'us</i>)	(<i>alī'us</i>)	(<i>alī'us</i>)
DAT.	<i>nūllī</i>	<i>nūllī</i>	<i>nūllī</i>	<i>alī</i>	<i>alī</i>	<i>alī</i>
ACC.	<i>nūllum</i>	<i>nūllam</i>	<i>nūllum</i>	<i>alium</i>	<i>aliam</i>	<i>aliud</i>
ABL.	<i>nūllō</i>	<i>nūllā</i>	<i>nūllō</i>	<i>alīō</i>	<i>alīā</i>	<i>alīō</i>

The plural is regular.

b. Note the peculiar neuter singular ending in *-d* of *alius*. The genitive *alīus* (contracted from *alīiūs*) is rare ; *alteriūs*, the genitive of *alter*, or *aliēnus*, *another's*, is commonly used instead.

c. The long *i* of the genitive *-iūs* may be short in verse ; so often in *alteriūs* and regularly in *utriusque*.

II. ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION

144. Adjectives of the third declension are of the following classes :

A. Adjectives of Three Terminations, having a distinct form for the nominative singular in each gender.

B. Adjectives of Two Terminations, having the nominative singular alike in the masculine and feminine, but a different form for the neuter.

C. Adjectives of One Termination, having the same form for all three genders in the nominative singular.

145. Adjectives of the third declension include both consonant stems and i-stems, but all consonant stems (except comparatives and a few other words) have assumed i- forms and show the following characteristic terminations :

- ī in the ablative singular ;
- ia in the nominative and accusative plural neuter ;
- ium in the genitive plural ;
- is as well as -ēs in the accusative plural masculine and feminine.

A. ADJECTIVES OF THREE TERMINATIONS

146. Adjectives of three terminations end in -er in the nominative masculine singular, and the stem ends in ri-. They are declined as follows :

ācer, ācris, ācre, keen

STEM ācri-; BASE ācr-

SINGULAR

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	ācer	ācris	ācre
GEN.	ācris	ācris	ācris
DAT.	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī
ACC.	ācrem	ācrem	ācre
ABL.	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī

PLURAL

NOM.	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācria
GEN.	ācrium	ācrium	ācrium
DAT.	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus
ACC.	ācrīs (-ēs)	ācrīs (-ēs)	ācria
ABL.	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus

a. To this class belong the names of the months in **-ber**, found only in the masculine and feminine: as, **Octōber**, **Octōbris**.

b. **Celer**, *celeris*, **celere**, *swift*, in which the second e belongs to the stem, is declined like **ācer**. **Volucer**, *flying*, generally has **volucrum** in the genitive plural.

NOTE. Some adjectives of this type, as **terrestris**, use the feminine forms for the masculine, or, more rarely, the masculine for the feminine. This peculiarity is found especially in early or late Latin and in poetry.

B. ADJECTIVES OF TWO TERMINATIONS

147. Adjectives of two terminations end in **-is** in the nominative singular masculine and feminine, and the stem ends in **i**. They are declined as follows:

omnis, **omne**, *every*, *all*

STEM **omni-**; BASE **omn-**

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	omnis	omne	omnēs	omnia
GEN.	omnis	omnis	omnium	omnium
DAT.	omnī	omnī	omnibus	omnibus
ACC.	omnem	omne	omnīs (-ēs)	omnia
ABL.	omnī	omnī	omnibus	omnibus

NOTE. Adjectives of this type sometimes have an ablative in **-e** in poetry, very rarely in prose.

C. ADJECTIVES OF ONE TERMINATION

48. Adjectives of one termination have in the nominative singular the same form for all three genders. This class includes all adjectives of the third declension that end neither in **-er**¹ nor in **-is**. They are by origin consonant stems, but, with few exceptions, have assumed the forms of **i**-stems (§ 145). Typical examples are shown on the next page.

¹ **Pauper** and **über**, adjectives of one termination, are exceptions to this rule.

atrōx, fierceSTEM OR BASE **atrōc-****egēns, needy**STEM OR BASE **egent-**

SINGULAR

	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	atrōx	atrōx	egēns	egēns
GEN.	atrōcis	atrōcis	egentis	egentis
DAT.	atrōcī	atrōcī	egentī	egentī
ACC.	atrōcem	atrōx	egentem	egēns
ABL.	atrōcī (-e)	atrōcī (-e)	egentī (-e)	egentī (-e)

PLURAL

NOM.	atrōcēs	atrōcia	egentēs	egentia
GEN.	atrōcium	atrōcium	egentium	egentium
DAT.	atrōcibus	atrōcibus	egentibus	egentibus
ACC.	atrōcīs (-ēs)	atrōcia	egentīs (-ēs)	egentia
ABL.	atrōcibus	atrōcibus	egentibus	egentibus

dīves, richSTEM OR BASE **dīvit-****vetus, old**STEM OR BASE **veter-**

SINGULAR

	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	dīves	dīves	vetus	vetus
GEN.	dīvitis	dīvitis	veteris	veteris
DAT.	dīvitī	dīvitī	veterī	veterī
ACC.	dīvitem	dīves	veterem	vetus
ABL.	dīvite	dīvite	vetere	vetere

PLURAL

NOM.	dīvitēs	[dītia]	veterēs	vetera
GEN.	dīvitum	dīvitum	veterum	veterum
DAT.	dīvitibus	dīvitibus	veteribus	veteribus
ACC.	dīvitīs (-ēs)	[dītia]	veterēs	vetera
ABL.	dīvitibus	dīvitibus	veteribus	veteribus

a. Most adjectives of one termination may have either **-e** or **-ī** in the ablative singular and are declined like **atrōx** or **egēns**. The following have regularly only **-ī**:

āmēns , <i>mad</i>	inops , <i>poor</i>
anceps , <i>doubtful</i>	memor , <i>mindful</i>
concors , <i>harmonious</i>	pār , <i>equal</i>
ingēns , <i>huge</i>	praeceps , <i>headlong</i>

b. Note that **vetus** is declined like a pure consonant stem. Of similar declension are:

compos , <i>master of</i>	pauper , <i>poor</i>	sōspes , <i>safe</i>
particeps , <i>sharing</i>	pūbēs (gen. -eris), <i>adult</i>	superstes , <i>surviving</i>

NOTE. **Ūber**, *rich*, otherwise like **vetus**, usually has the ablative singular in **-ī**.

c. Most adjectives of one termination have **-ium** in the genitive plural. The following have **-um**: **dīves**, *rich*; **inops**, *poor*; **memor**, *mindful*; and adjectives declined like **vetus** (cf. b).

149. Present participles (ending in **-āns** and **-ēns**) are declined like **egēns**¹ (§ 148). When used as participles or as nouns, they end in **-e** in the ablative singular, but in **-ī** when used as adjectives.

Caesare dūcente, *under the leadership of Caesar* (lit. *Caesar leading*)
ab amante, *by a lover*
ab amanti rēgīnā, *by the loving queen*

DECLENSION OF COMPARATIVES

150. Comparatives are declined as follows:

	altior , <i>higher</i>	
	STEM OR BASE altiōr- (for original altiōs-)	
	SINGULAR	
	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	altior	altius
GEN.	altiōris	altiōris
DAT.	altiōrī	altiōrī
ACC.	altiōrem	altius
ABL.	altiōre (-ī)	altiōre (-ī)

¹ As nouns and in poetry present participles often have **-um** in the genitive plural.

	M. AND F.	PLURAL	NEUT.
NOM.	altiōrēs		altiōra
GEN.	altiōrum		altiōrum
DAT.	altiōribus		altiōribus
ACC.	altiōrēs (-īs)		altiōra
ABL.	altiōribus		altiōribus

a. All comparatives except **plūs** are declined like **altior**.

b. Except for the occasional use of **-ī** in the ablative singular and the rare use of **-īs** in the accusative plural, comparatives are declined like **vetus** (§ 148).

NOTE. The stem of comparatives originally ended in **ōs-**; but the final **s** regularly became **r** between two vowels (§ 49), and so appears also in the nominative singular masculine and feminine by analogy with the other cases. In the neuter, however, the original stem ending **-ōs** (shortened to **-os**) was retained, becoming **-us** in the classical period.

151. The declension of **plūs**, *more*, stem or base **plūr-** (for **plūs-**), is as follows :

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	—	plūs	plūrēs	plūra
GEN.	—	plūris	plūrium	plūrium
DAT.	—	—	plūribus	plūribus
ACC.	—	plūs	plūrēs (-īs)	plūra
ABL.	—	plūre (rare)	plūribus	plūribus

a. In the singular **plūs** is used only as a neuter noun. The compound **complūrēs**, *several*, sometimes has neuter plural **complūria**.

INDECLINABLE ADJECTIVES

152. A few adjectives are indeclinable.

frūgi, *thrifty* **nēquam**, *worthless* **nesesse**, *necessary*

So also the following pronominal adjectives :

tot, *so many* **quot**, *how many*
totidem, *just as many* **aliquot**, *several*

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

153. There are three degrees of comparison: the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*.

154. The comparative is regularly formed by adding *-ior* (neuter *-ius*), the superlative by adding *-issimus* (*-a*, *-um*), to the stem of the positive, which loses its final vowel.

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
altus, <i>high</i> (stem alto-)	alt-ior, <i>higher</i>	alt-issimus, <i>highest</i>
clārus, <i>bright</i> (stem clāro-)	clār-ior, <i>brighter</i>	clār-issimus, <i>brightest</i>
brevis, <i>short</i> (stem brevi-)	brev-ior, <i>shorter</i>	brev-issimus, <i>shortest</i>
fortis, <i>brave</i> (stem forti-)	fort-ior, <i>braver</i>	fort-issimus, <i>bravest</i>
atrōx, <i>fierce</i> (stem atrōc-)	atrōc-ior, <i>fiercer</i>	atrōc-issimus, <i>fiercest</i>
prūdēns, <i>wise</i> (stem prūdent-)	prūdent-ior, <i>wiser</i>	prūdent-issimus, <i>wisest</i>
dīves, <i>rich</i> (stem dīvit-)	dīvit-ior, <i>richer</i>	dīvit-issimus, <i>richest</i>

NOTE. The comparative often has the force of *too* or *somewhat*, and the superlative that of *very*: as, clārior, *too bright, somewhat bright*; clārissimus, *very bright*.

a. Participles used as adjectives are similarly compared.

amāns, <i>loving</i> (stem amant-)	amantior	amantissimus
sciēns, <i>skilled</i> (stem scient-)	scientior	scientissimus
nōtus, <i>known</i> (stem nōto-)	nōtior	nōtissimus

155. Adjectives in *-er* form the superlative by adding *-rimus* to the nominative of the positive. The comparative is formed regularly.

pulcher, <i>pretty</i>	pulchr-ior	pulcher-rimus
miser, <i>wretched</i>	miser-ior	miser-rimus
ācer, <i>keen</i>	ācr-ior	ācer-rimus
celer, <i>swift</i>	celer-ior	celer-rimus

a. *Vetus, old*, and *mātūrus, ripe*, are compared as follows:

vetus	vetustior	veterrimus
mātūrus	mātūrior	mātūrrimus or mātūrissimus

156. Six adjectives in *-lis* form the superlative by adding *-limus* to the stem, which loses its final *i*. The comparative is regular.

<i>facilis, easy</i>	<i>facil-ior</i>	<i>facil-limus</i>
<i>difficilis, difficult</i>	<i>difficil-ior</i>	<i>difficil-limus</i>
<i>similis, similar</i>	<i>simil-ior</i>	<i>simil-limus</i>
<i>dissimilis, dissimilar</i>	<i>dissimil-ior</i>	<i>dissimil-limus</i>
<i>gracilis, slender</i>	<i>gracil-ior</i>	<i>gracil-limus</i>
<i>humilis, low</i>	<i>humil-ior</i>	<i>humil-limus</i>

157. Compounds in *-dicus*, *-ficus*, and *-volus* are compared as follows :

<i>maledicus, slanderous</i>	<i>maledicentior</i>	<i>maledicentissimus</i>
<i>magnificus, grand</i>	<i>magnificentior</i>	<i>magnificentissimus</i>
<i>benevolus, kindly</i>	<i>benevolentior</i>	<i>benevolentissimus</i>

IRREGULAR COMPARISON

158. Several adjectives are *irregular* in comparison.

<i>bonus, good</i>	<i>melior</i>	<i>optimus</i>
<i>malus, bad</i>	<i>peior</i>	<i>pessimus</i>
<i>magnus, great</i>	<i>maior</i>	<i>maximus</i>
<i>parvus, small</i>	<i>minor</i>	<i>minimus</i>
<i>multus, much</i>	<i>plūs (§ 151)</i>	<i>plūrimus</i>
<i>nēquam (indeclinable), worthless</i>	<i>nēquior</i>	<i>nēquissimus</i>
<i>frūgī (indeclinable), thrifty</i>	<i>frūgālior</i>	<i>frūgālissimus</i>

159. The following four adjectives have two superlatives :

<i>exterus, outward</i>	<i>exterior</i>	<i>extrēmus</i> or <i>extimus</i> (rare)
<i>inferus, below</i>	<i>inferior</i>	<i>īnifimus</i> or <i>īmus</i>
<i>posterus, following</i>	<i>posterior</i>	<i>postrēmus</i> or <i>postumus</i> (rare)
<i>superus, above</i>	<i>superior</i>	<i>suprēmus</i> or <i>summus</i>

a. These adjectives are rare in the positive except when used as nouns in the masculine plural :

<i>exterī, foreigners</i>	<i>posterī, posterity</i>
<i>inferī, the gods below</i>	<i>superī, the gods above</i>

DEFECTIVE COMPARISON

160. Some adjectives lack one or more of the degrees of comparison.

a. Adjectives without the Positive.

citerior, <i>hither</i>	citimus, <i>hithermost</i>
dēterior, <i>worse</i>	dēterrīmus, <i>worst</i>
interior, <i>inner</i>	intimus, <i>inmost</i>
ōcior, <i>swifter</i>	ōcissimus, <i>swiftest</i>
potior, <i>preferable</i>	potissimus, <i>most important</i>
prior, <i>former</i>	prīmus, <i>first</i>
propior, <i>nearer</i>	proximus, <i>nearest</i>
ulterior, <i>farther</i>	ultimus, <i>farthest</i>

NOTE. The adjective **propinquus**, *near*, is used as the positive of **propior**.

1. **Potis**, *able*, the positive of **potior**, occurs in early Latin.

b. Adjectives without the Comparative.

falsus, <i>false</i>	—	falsissimus
meritus, <i>merited</i>	—	meritissimus
novus, <i>new</i>	—	novissimus, <i>last</i> (in order)
pius, <i>dutiful</i>	—	piissimus (rare)
sacer, <i>sacred</i>	—	sacerrimus

1. For the comparative and superlative of **novus**, *new*, the forms **recentior** and **recentissimus** are sometimes used. For the comparison of **vetus**, *old*, see § 155. a.

c. Adjectives without the Superlative. Many adjectives ending in **-ilis** or **-ibilis** (as, **agilis**, **probābilis**) have no superlative. Also the following :

adulēscēns, <i>young</i>	adulēscēntior	—
alacer, <i>active</i>	alacrior	—
longinquus, <i>long</i>	longinquior	—
obliquus, <i>sidelong</i>	obliquior	—
propinquus, <i>near</i>	propior (propinquior)	—
salūtāris, <i>healthful</i>	salūtārior	—
vīcīnus, <i>near</i>	vīcīnior	—

1. The adjectives *iuvenis*, *young*, and *senex*, *old*, are compared as follows:

iuvenis	iūnior or iuuenior	minimus nātū
senex	senior	maximus nātū

In these superlatives *nātū* is the ablative of respect (§ 478) and is often omitted.

ADJECTIVES NOT COMPARED

161. Some adjectives are not compared. Such are especially:

a. Adjectives denoting material.

aureus, *golden* *ferreus*, *iron* *ligneus*, *wooden*, etc.

b. Adjectives expressing personal relationship.

māternus, *maternal* *frāternus*, *fraternal*, etc.

c. Adjectives expressing relations of time.

hodiernus, *of to-day* *aestivus*, *of summer* *sempiternus*, *everlasting*, etc.

d. The following special words:

<i>almus</i> , <i>nourishing</i>	<i>immemor</i> , <i>forgetful</i>	<i>mūtus</i> , <i>dumb</i>
<i>claudus</i> , <i>lame</i>	<i>impār</i> , <i>unequal</i>	<i>nefāstus</i> , <i>impious</i>
<i>curvus</i> , <i>curved</i>	<i>mediocris</i> , <i>medium</i>	<i>rudis</i> , <i>rough</i>
<i>ferus</i> , <i>wild</i>	<i>mīrus</i> , <i>wonderful</i>	<i>vagus</i> , <i>wandering</i>

Also most adjectives compounded of verbs or substantives.

ADJECTIVES COMPARED WITH *MAGIS* AND *MAXIMĒ*

162. Many adjectives, instead of using terminations, are compared by means of the adverbs *magis*, *more*, and *maximē*, *most*, followed by the positive.

This method is especially common with participles, compound adjectives, and adjectives ending in *-us* preceded by a vowel: as, *idōneus*, *fit*, *magis idōneus*, *maximē idōneus*.

NUMERALS

163. The Latin numerals are of two classes : adjectives and adverbs. Numeral adjectives include *cardinals*, *ordinals*, and *distributives*.

a. Cardinals answer the question *how many?*

ūnus, *one*

duo, *two*

b. Ordinals, derived in most cases from the cardinals, answer the question *which in order?*

prīmus, *first*

secundus, *second*

c. Distributives answer the question *how many at a time? how many each?*

singuli, *one by one*

binī, *two by two*

I. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES

164. The cardinal, ordinal, and distributive numeral adjectives are shown in the following table :

CARDINALS	ORDINALS	DISTRIBUTIVES
1. <i>ūnus</i>	<i>prīmus</i>	<i>singuli</i>
2. <i>duo</i>	<i>secundus</i>	<i>binī</i>
3. <i>trēs</i>	<i>tertius</i>	<i>ternī, trinī</i>
4. <i>quattuor</i>	<i>quārtus</i>	<i>quaternī</i>
5. <i>quīnque</i>	<i>quīntus</i>	<i>quīnī</i>
6. <i>sex</i>	<i>sextus</i>	<i>sēnī</i>
7. <i>septem</i>	<i>septimus</i>	<i>septēnī</i>
8. <i>octō</i>	<i>octāvus</i>	<i>octōnī</i>
9. <i>novem</i>	<i>nōnus</i>	<i>novēnī</i>
10. <i>decem</i>	<i>decimus</i>	<i>dēnī</i>
11. <i>ūndecim</i>	<i>ūndecimus</i>	<i>ūndēnī</i>
12. <i>duodecim</i>	<i>duodecimus</i>	<i>duodēnī</i>
13. <i>tredecim</i>	<i>tertius decimus</i>	<i>ternī dēnī</i>
14. <i>quattuordecim</i>	<i>quārtus decimus</i>	<i>quaternī dēnī</i>
15. <i>quīndecim</i>	<i>quīntus decimus</i>	<i>quīnī dēnī</i>

	CARDINALS	ORDINALS	DISTRIBUTIVES
16.	sēdecim	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī
17.	septendecim	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī
18.	duodēviginti	duodēvicēsimum	duodēvicēnī
19.	ūndēviginti	ūndēvicēsimum	ūndēvicēnī
20.	vīgintī	vicēsimum	vicēnī
21.	vīgintī ūnus	vicēsimum primus	vicēnī singulī
	or ūnus et vīgintī	or ūnus et vicēsimum	or singulī et vicēnī
28.	duodētrīgintā	duodētricēsimum	duodētricēnī
29.	ūndētrīgintā	ūndētricēsimum	ūndētricēnī
30.	trīgintā	tricēsimum	tricēnī
40.	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsimum	quadrāgēnī
50.	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsimum	quīnquāgēnī
60.	sexāgintā	sexāgēsimum	sexāgēnī
70.	septuāgintā	septuāgēsimum	septuāgēnī
80.	octōgintā	octōgēsimum	octōgēnī
90.	nōnāgintā	nōnāgēsimum	nōnāgēnī
100.	centum	centēsimum	centēnī
101.	centum (et) ūnus	centēsimum (et) primus	centēnī singulī
200.	ducentī	ducentēsimum	ducentī
300.	trecentī	trecentēsimum	trecentī
400.	quadringentī	quadringentēsimum	quadringēnī
500.	quīngentī	quīngentēsimum	quīngēnī
600.	sescentī	sescentēsimum	sescentī
700.	septingentī	septingentēsimum	septingēnī
800.	octingentī	octingentēsimum	octingēnī
900.	nōngentī	nōngentēsimum	nōngēnī
1,000.	mille	millēsimum	singula milia
2,000.	duo milia	bis millēsimum	bina milia
10,000.	decem milia	decīens millēsimum	dēna milia
100,000.	centum milia	centīens millēsimum	centēna milia

NOTE 1. The ordinals in -ēsimum, as, vicēsimum, tricēsimum, etc., are spelled vicēsimum, tricēsimum, etc., in early Latin.

NOTE 2. The plural of mille, *thousand*, is millia or milia. The spelling with one l is preferred in Latin of the best period.

165. Numbers above 100,000 are expressed by placing numeral adverbs of multiplication before *centēna milia* for the cardinals, and before *centiēns millēsimum* for the ordinals.

Thus, 1,000,000 is expressed *deciēns centēna milia* (*ten times a hundred thousand*), cardinal; *deciēns centiēns millēsimum* (*ten times the hundred thousandth*), ordinal.

DECLENSION OF NUMERALS

166. Of the cardinals only *ūnus*, *duo*, *trēs*, the hundreds above one hundred, and *mille* used as a noun, are declined.

a. *Ūnus*, *one* or *only*, is one of the nine irregular adjectives (§ 143) and is declined as follows:

	SINGULAR		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	ūnus	ūna	ūnum
GEN.	ūnī'us	ūnī'us	ūnī'us
DAT.	ūnī	ūnī	ūnī
ACC.	ūnum	ūnam	ūnum
ABL.	ūnō	ūnā	ūnō

The plural is regular, and has the meaning *alone* or *only*, unless used with nouns plural in form and singular in sense (§ 133): as, *ūna castra*, *one camp*; *ūnī mōrēs*, *one set of habits*.

b. *Duo* and *trēs* are declined as follows:

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	duo	duae	duo	trēs	tria
GEN.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum	trium	trium
DAT.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus	tribus
ACC.	duōs (duo)	duās	duo	trēs (trīs)	tria
ABL.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus	tribus

1. *Ambō*, *both*, is declined like *duo*, but its final *o* is long.

c. The hundreds above one hundred are declined like the plural of *bonus*; as, *ducentī*, *-ae*, *-a*, *two hundred*.

d. Mille in the singular is regularly used as an adjective and is indeclinable.

mille modis, *in a thousand ways*

cum mille hominibus, *with a thousand men*

Mille in the plural (**mīlia**) is used as a neuter noun, is followed by the genitive of the objects enumerated, and is declined as follows :

NOM.	mīlia
GEN.	mīlium
DAT.	mīlibus
ACC.	mīlia
ABL.	mīlibus

EXAMPLES: **decem mīlia hominum mīsit**, *he sent ten thousand men*
(lit. *ten thousands of men*)

castra mīlia passuum tria absunt, *the camp is three miles off* (lit. *three thousands of paces*)

NOTE 1. The singular **mille** is rarely used as a noun in the nominative and accusative: as, **mille hominum mīsit**, *he sent a thousand (of) men*.

NOTE 2. When a declinable numeral follows **mīlia**, the form of expression is as follows: **duo mīlia ducenti mīlitēs**, or **duo mīlia mīlitum et ducenti**, *2200 soldiers*.

167. The ordinals are declined like **bonus**, and the distributives like the plural of **bonus** (§ 140).

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF CARDINALS AND ORDINALS

168. In numbers below 100, if units precede tens, **et** is generally inserted; otherwise **et** usually is omitted: as, **duo et vīginti**, *two and twenty*, or **vīginti duo**, *twenty-two*.

169. Compound numerals above 100 generally have the largest denomination first, and the others follow without **et**; but **et** may be inserted between the two highest denominations: as, **mille (et) septingenti sexāgintā quattuor**, *1764*.

170. The numerals 18 and 19 are generally expressed by *duodēviginti* (*two from twenty*) and *ūndēviginti* (*one from twenty*), rarely by *octōdecim* and *novendecim*.

Similarly, the other numerals ending in 8 and 9 are usually expressed by the subtraction of *two* and *one* rather than by the addition of *eight* and *nine* respectively: as, *duodeoctōgintā* rather than *septuāgintā octō*, 78.

171. When referring to two persons or things, instead of using *prīmus* and *secundus*, Latin generally employs *ūnus* and *alter* respectively.

erant duo cōsulēs, ūnus Cicerō alter Antōnius, there were two consuls, one Cicero, the other Antony

a. The usual Latin expressions for *twenty-first*, *thirty-fifth*, etc., are *vicēsīmus prīmus*, *tricēsīmus quīntus*, etc.

172. *Ūnus*, when part of a compound number, is used in the singular, and agrees with its noun in gender and case: as, *viginti militēs et ūnus*, or *ūnus et viginti militēs, twenty-one soldiers*.

USES OF THE DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERALS

173. Distributive numerals are used:

a. To express *so many apiece, so many at a time*: as, *cēnsōrēs binī in singulās cīvitātēs, two censors to each state*.

b. To express multiplication: as, *bis bīna sunt quattuor, twice two are four*.

c. With nouns that are plural in form and usually singular in sense: as, *bīna castra, two camps*.

With such nouns *ūnī*, not *singulī*, is used for *one*, and *trīnī*, not *ternī*, for *three*: as, *ūna castra, one camp*; *trīna castra, three camps*.

d. With nouns denoting objects that go in *pairs* or *sets*.

binī bovēs, a yoke of oxen *bīna hastilia, a pair of spears*

e. By the poets instead of cardinal numbers: as, *quīna armenta* (Vergil), *five herds*.

FRACTIONS

174. Fractions are expressed, as in English, by cardinals in the numerator and ordinals in the denominator. The feminine gender is used to agree with **pars** expressed or understood.

duae septimae (partēs), two sevenths

quinque octavae (partēs), five eighths

a. When the numerator is *one*, it is omitted and **pars** is expressed with the denominator.

dīmidia pars (or dīmidium), one half

tertia pars, one third

quārta pars, one fourth

b. When the denominator is but one greater than the numerator, the denominator is omitted and **partēs** is used with the numerator.

duae partēs, two thirds

trēs partēs, three fourths

EXAMPLE: *dīmidia pars et trēs partēs et septem duodecimae sunt unum et quinque partēs, $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{4} + \frac{7}{12} = 1\frac{5}{6}$.*

II. NUMERAL ADVERBS

175. Numeral adverbs answer the question *how often?*
how many times?

1. <i>semel, once</i>	11. <i>ūndeciēns</i>	21. { <i>viciēns semel</i> <i>semel et viciēns</i>
2. <i>bis, twice</i>	12. <i>duodeciēns</i>	
3. <i>ter, thrice</i>	13. <i>terdeciēns</i>	30. <i>triciēns</i>
4. <i>quater</i>	14. <i>quaterdeciēns</i>	40. <i>quadrāgiēns</i>
5. <i>quīnquiēns</i>	15. <i>quīndeciēns</i>	50. <i>quīnquāgiēns</i>
6. <i>sexiēns</i>	16. <i>sēdeciēns</i>	60. <i>sexāgiēns</i>
7. <i>septiēns</i>	17. <i>septiēns deciēns</i>	70. <i>septuāgiēns</i>
8. <i>octiēns</i>	18. <i>octiēns deciēns</i>	80. <i>octōgiēns</i>
9. <i>noviēns</i>	19. <i>noviēns deciēns</i>	90. <i>nōnāgiēns</i>
10. <i>deciēns</i>	20. <i>viciēns</i>	100. <i>centiēns</i>

The termination *-iēs* is often used instead of *-iēns*: as, *sexiēs*.

a. The accusative or ablative neuter singular of the ordinals is sometimes used as a numeral adverb.

primum, for the first time
primō, at first

secundō, for the second time
tertiō or *tertium*, for the third time, etc.

THE ROMAN NUMERAL SYSTEM

176. The following characters are used as Roman numerals :

1. I	15. XV	100. C
2. II	16. XVI	200. CC
3. III	17. XVII	300. CCC
4. IIII or IV	18. XVIII	400. CCCC
5. V	19. XVIIII or XIX	500. D
6. VI	20. XX	600. DC
7. VII	21. XXI	700. DCC
8. VIII	30. XXX	800. DCCC
9. VIIII or IX	40. XXXX or XL	900. DCCCC
10. X	50. L	1,000. CD , OO , or CI
11. XI	60. LX	5,000. D or $\bar{\text{V}}$
12. XII	70. LXX	10,000. C or $\bar{\text{X}}$
13. XIII	80. LXXX	100,000. C or $\bar{\text{C}}$
14. XIIII or XIV	90. LXXXX or XC	1,000,000. $\bar{\text{X}}$

a. The original numerical symbols were representations of the fingers; as, I, one finger; II, two fingers; V, the hand, for *five* (only the thumb and little finger being drawn); and X, the two hands crossed, for *ten*. X, however, is sometimes regarded as an Etruscan symbol for *ten*, the upper half of which was used for *five*. To these original symbols were added the three Chalcidic (§ 2) aspirates, *ch*, Ψ (altered into J , L , L), for 50; *th*, \odot (altered into C), for 100; and *ph*, C (broken into OO , CI), for 1000. The fact that the original numerals I, V, X were identical in form with certain letters of the alphabet no doubt assisted the changes of Ψ to L, and of \odot to C, the latter change being favored also by the fact that C was the first letter of *centum*. In a similar way the second half of C , 1000, written D, was used for 500.

b. At an early date *milia passuum* (*miles*) was represented by **M·P**, but the separate use of **M** for the word *mille* or *milia* is not found before the second century of our era.

c. While **CD** denotes 1000, the addition of a second circle outside the first makes it mean 10,000 (**Ⓒ**), and of a third, 100,000 (**Ⓓ**).

d. Toward the end of the Republic the thousands were denoted by drawing a line above the numeral: as, \overline{V} , 5000. By adding lateral lines the numeral was multiplied by 100,000: as, \overline{V} , 500,000.

e. The symbols **I** and **X**, when placed at the left of a higher number, are to be subtracted from it; but symbols like **IIII**, **VIIII**, **XIIII** are earlier and more usual than **IV**, **IX**, **XIV**. Such symbols as **CM** for 900, **MCM** for 1900, are modern. The Romans wrote **DCCCC** for 900, **MDCCCC** for 1900.

PRONOUNS

177. A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. Pronouns and their corresponding pronominal adjectives are divided into the following eight classes:

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

178. Pronouns have special forms of declension differing in some respects from those of nouns.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

179. The personal pronouns are:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
FIRST PERS.	ego, I	nōs, we
SECOND PERS.	tū, thou or <i>you</i>	vōs, ye or <i>you</i>

Pronouns of the third person, *he, she, it, they*, are wanting, a demonstrative or relative being used instead.

180. The personal pronouns *ego*, *I*, and *tū*, *thou* or *you*, are declined as follows :

	FIRST PERSON		SECOND PERSON	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
NOM.	<i>ego</i>	<i>nōs</i>	<i>tū</i>	<i>vōs</i>
GEN.	<i>meī</i>	<i>nostrum, nostrī</i>	<i>tuī</i>	<i>vestrum, vestrī</i>
DAT.	<i>mihi (mī)</i>	<i>nōbīs</i>	<i>tibi</i>	<i>vōbīs</i>
ACC.	<i>mē</i>	<i>nōs</i>	<i>tē</i>	<i>vōs</i>
ABL.	<i>mē</i>	<i>nōbīs</i>	<i>tē</i>	<i>vōbīs</i>

a. Emphatic forms of *tū* are *tūte* and *tūtemet*. The other forms of the personal pronouns, except the genitive plural, may be made emphatic by adding *-met* as an enclitic (§ 39): as, *egomet*, *vōsmet*.

b. The accusative and ablative forms *mē* and *tē* are sometimes doubled, or reduplicated: as, *mēmē*, *tētē*.

c. The preposition *cum*, *with*, when used with the ablative of a personal pronoun, is added to it as an enclitic (§ 39): as, *mēcum*, *tēcum*, *nōbiscum*, *vōbiscum*.

d. In early Latin the accusative and ablative singular forms were *mēd*, *tēd*. Instead of *vestrum* and *vestrī* the forms *vostrum* and *vostrī* occur in early and late Latin.

II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

181. Reflexive pronouns refer to the subject of the sentence or clause in which they stand: as, *he loves himself*, *we love ourselves*.

182. Reflexive pronouns have no nominative. In the other cases the reflexives of the first and second person are the same as the personal pronouns.

ego mē videō, I see myself

nōs nōbīs persuādēmus, we persuade ourselves

tū tē vidēs, you see yourself

vōs vōbīs persuādētis, you persuade yourselves

183. The reflexive of the third person has a special form, the same for both singular and plural. It is declined thus :

GEN.	suī , <i>of himself, herself, itself, themselves</i>
DAT.	sibi , <i>to or for himself, herself, itself, themselves</i>
ACC.	sē , <i>himself, herself, itself, themselves</i>
ABL.	sē (with ā , etc.), <i>from, etc., himself, herself, itself, themselves</i>

a. In the accusative and ablative the reduplicated form **sēsē** occurs. Emphatic forms in **-met** are made as in the personal pronouns (§ 180. a). The preposition **cum** is added enclitically to the ablative: as, **sēcum** (cf. § 180. c).

b. In early Latin the form **sēd** occurs in the accusative and ablative.

III. POSSESSIVE PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

184. The possessives are pronominal adjectives of the first and second declensions, and are similarly declined (cf. §§ 140, 142). They are :

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
FIRST PERS.	meus, -a, -um , <i>my</i>	noster, -tra, -trum , <i>our</i>
SECOND PERS.	tuus, -a, -um , <i>thy, your</i>	vester, -tra, -trum , <i>your</i>
THIRD PERS.	suus, -a, -um , <i>his, her, its</i>	suus, -a, -um , <i>their</i>

a. **Suus** is used only as a reflexive possessive adjective.

puer patrem suum videt, *the boy sees his (own) father*

When not reflexive, *his, her, and its* are usually expressed by **eius**, the genitive singular of **is**; and *their* by **eōrum**, M. and N., and **eārum**, F., the genitive plural of **is**.

puer patrem eius videt, *the boy sees his (not his own) father*

puerī patrēs eōrum vident, *the boys see their (not their own) fathers*

b. The vocative singular masculine of **meus** is regularly **mī** (rarely **meus**).

c. Emphatic forms in **-pte** are found in the ablative singular: as, **suōpte**.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

185. The demonstrative pronouns, are **hic**, **iste**, **ille**, **is**, and **idem**. They are used to *point out* a person or thing, and stand either alone as *pronouns* or with nouns as *pronominal adjectives*.

186. The demonstratives **hic**, **iste**, and **ille** are used to make a distinct reference to place or time, and are called demonstratives of the first, second, and third person respectively. Thus :

First person, **hic**, *this, he*, near the speaker

Second person, **iste**, *that, he*, near the person addressed

Third person, **ille**, *that, he*, remote from both

187. The demonstrative **is**, *he, this, that*, refers to objects either far or near, and makes no definite reference to place or time. **Idem**, *the same*, is a compound of **is**.

DECLENSION OF THE DEMONSTRATIVES

188.	hic, this, he			ille, that, he		
	SINGULAR					
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	hic	haec	hoc	ille	illa	illud
GEN.	huius	huius	huius	illius	illius	illius
DAT.	huic	huic	huic	illi	illi	illi
ACC.	hunc	hanc	hoc	illum	illam	illud
ABL.	hōc	hāc	hōc	illō	illā	illō
	PLURAL					
NOM.	hī	hae	haec	illi	illae	illa
GEN.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum	illōrum	illārum	illōrum
DAT.	hīs	hīs	hīs	illis	illis	illis
ACC.	hōs	hās	haec	illōs	illās	illa
ABL.	hīs	hīs	hīs	illis	illis	illis

NOTE. An earlier form of **ille** is **ollus**, of which several forms occur.

a. **Hic** is a compound of the stem **ho-** with the demonstrative enclitic **-ce**, which in some forms loses its vowel and in others is wholly dropped. The same enclitic is sometimes added for emphasis to forms of **hic** ending in **-s**: as, **huiusce**, **hāsce**, etc.; likewise to certain forms of **iste** and **ille**: as, **istic**, **istanc**, **illaec**, **illōc**.

b. The forms **hoius** (for **huius**), **hoic** (for **huic**), **hīsce** (for **hī**), and **hībus** (for **hīs**) occur in early Latin.

189. **Iste**, *that, he*, is declined like **ille** (§ 188).

190. **is**, *this, that, he*

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	is	ea	id	īi or eī	cae	ea
GEN.	eius	eius	eius	eōrum	eārum	eōrum
DAT.	eī	eī	eī	īis or eīs	īis or eīs	īis or eīs
ACC.	eum	eam	id	eōs	eās	ea
ABL.	eō	eā	eō	īis or eīs	īis or eīs	īis or eīs

a. The forms **īi** and **īīs** are preferred to **eī** and **eīs**, and are pronounced and sometimes written as monosyllables, **ī** and **īs**.

191. **idem**, *the same*

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	idem	eādem	idem	idem (eidem)	eaedem	eādem
GEN.	eius'dem	eius'dem	eius'dem	eōrun'dem	eārun'dem	eōrun'dem
DAT.	eīdem	eīdem	eīdem	īsdem or eīsdem		
ACC.	eundem	eandem	īdem	eōsdem	eāsdem	eādem
ABL.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem	īsdem or eīsdem		

a. **Īdem** is a compound of the demonstrative **is** with the indeclinable suffix **-dem**. It is sometimes called the identifying pronoun.

b. The plural forms **īdem** and **īsdem** are often written **īidem**, **īisdem**, but the pronunciation remains dissyllabic.

V. THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN

192. The intensive pronoun is *ipse*, *self*, and is used either adjectively to strengthen another word or as an emphatic pronoun.

Ipse is compounded of *is* and *-pse* (a suffix of uncertain origin), and is declined like *ille* (§ 188) except that it has *ipsum* in the nominative and accusative neuter singular.

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	<i>ipse</i>	<i>ipsa</i>	<i>ipsum</i>	<i>ipsī</i>	<i>ipsae</i>	<i>ipsa</i>
GEN.	<i>ipsius</i>	<i>ipsius</i>	<i>ipsius</i>	<i>ipsōrum</i>	<i>ipsārum</i>	<i>ipsōrum</i>
DAT.	<i>ipsī</i>	<i>ipsī</i>	<i>ipsī</i>	<i>ipsis</i>	<i>ipsis</i>	<i>ipsis</i>
ACC.	<i>ipsum</i>	<i>ipsam</i>	<i>ipsum</i>	<i>ipsōs</i>	<i>ipsās</i>	<i>ipsa</i>
ABL.	<i>ipsō</i>	<i>ipsā</i>	<i>ipsō</i>	<i>ipsis</i>	<i>ipsis</i>	<i>ipsis</i>

VI. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN

193. The relative pronoun is *quī*, *who*, *which*, *that*. It is declined as follows :

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	<i>quī</i>	<i>quae</i>	<i>quod</i>	<i>quī</i>	<i>quae</i>	<i>quae</i>
GEN.	<i>cuius</i>	<i>cuius</i>	<i>cuius</i>	<i>quōrum</i>	<i>quārum</i>	<i>quōrum</i>
DAT.	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>quibus</i>	<i>quibus</i>	<i>quibus</i>
ACC.	<i>quem</i>	<i>quam</i>	<i>quod</i>	<i>quōs</i>	<i>quās</i>	<i>quae</i>
ABL.	<i>quō</i>	<i>quā</i>	<i>quō</i>	<i>quibus</i>	<i>quibus</i>	<i>quibus</i>

a. An old ablative form *quī* (for *quō*, *quā*, or *quibus*) is found, especially in the combination *quicum*, *with which* or *with whom*.

b. *Quis* is sometimes used for *quibus* as either dative or ablative plural.

c. Early forms *quoius* (for *cuius*) and *quoi* (for *cui*) continued to be used as late as Cicero.

d. The preposition *cum* is added enclitically to all forms of the ablative: as, *quācum*, *quibuscum* (cf. § 180. *c*).

194. The following are indefinite relatives :

quisquis } *whoever*
 quicumque }
 utercumque, *whichever* (of two)

a. In *quicumque* and *utercumque* only the first part is declined. Poets often separate *-cumque* and its relative (§ 992).

b. Of *quisquis* the only forms in common use are *quisquis*, *quicquid* (*quidquid*), and *quōquō*.

VII. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

195. The interrogative pronouns, substantive and adjective, are :

a. *quis*, *who?* *quid*, *what?* substantive.

b. *quī*, *quae*, *quod*, *what kind of?* *what sort of?* *which?* *what?* adjective.

c. *uter*, *utra*, *utrum*, *which?* (of two persons or things) either substantive or adjective.

196. The interrogative pronoun *quis*, *who?* *quid*, *what?* is declined in the singular as follows :

	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	quis	quid
GEN.	cuius	cuius
DAT.	cui	cui
ACC.	quem	quid
ABL.	quō	quō

The plural is the same as that of the relative.

197. The interrogative pronominal adjective *quī*, *quae*, *quod* is declined throughout like the relative.

a. *Quī* is sometimes used for *quis* : as, *quī nōminat mē?* *who calls my name?* and *quis*, with words denoting persons, is apparently used like an adjective : as, *quis homō?* *what man?* but the substantive that follows is best regarded as in apposition. *Quī homō?* means *what kind of man?*

b. Early forms of the interrogative are the same as those of the relative (cf. § 193. *c*). The old ablative **quī** is used chiefly as an adverb meaning *how*?

c. The preposition **cum** is added enclitically to the ablative, singular and plural, as with the personal and relative pronouns: as, **quōcum**, **quibuscum**.

d. The forms of **quis** and **quī** may be made emphatic by adding the enclitic **-nam**.

quisnam, *who, pray?*

quidnam, *what, pray?*

198. **Uter, utra, utrum**, *which?* (of two persons or things) is declined like **pulcher**, except that the genitive singular has the termination **-ius** (**utrīus**) and the dative singular **-ī** (**utrī**). Cf. § 143.

199. Other interrogative pronominal adjectives are:

quālis, quāle (declined like **omnis**), *of what kind?*

quantus, -a, -um (declined like **bonus**), *how great?*

quot (indeclinable), *how many?*

VIII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

200. The most common indefinite pronouns and pronominal adjectives, with the general meaning of *some one, any one, something, anything, some, any*, are shown in the following table:

MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER
quis , <i>some one, any one</i>		quid , <i>something, anything</i> (substantive)
quī	qua or quae	quod , <i>some, any</i> (adjective)
aliquis , <i>some one, any one</i>		aliquid , <i>something, anything</i> (substantive)
aliqui	aliqua	aliquod , <i>some, any</i> (adjective)
quidam , <i>a certain person</i>		quiddam , <i>a certain thing</i> (substantive)
quīdam	quaedam	quoddam , <i>a certain</i> (adjective)

MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER
quīvis } <i>any one</i>		quidvis } <i>anything you wish</i>
quilibet } <i>you wish</i>		quidlibet } (substantive)
quīvis	quaevīs	quodvis } <i>any you wish</i> (adjective)
quilibet	quaelibet	quodlibet } (substantive)
quisquam, <i>any one</i>		quicquam or quidquam } <i>anything</i> (substantive)
quisque, <i>each one</i>		quidque, <i>each thing</i> (substantive)
quisque	quaeque	quodque, <i>each, every</i> (adjective)
quispiam, <i>any one</i>		quidpiam, <i>anything</i> (substantive)
quispiam	quaepiam	quodpiam, <i>any</i> (adjective)

a. Observe that all the indefinites are compounds of **quis** or **quī**.

b. The indefinites **quis** and **quī** are declined like the interrogative and relative pronouns, but usually have **qua** for **quae** except in the feminine nominative plural. The same is true of **aliquis** and **aliquī**.

NOTE. Occasionally **quis** and **aliquis** are used adjectively and **quī** and **aliquī** substantively.

c. In **quīdam** the **m** in the accusative singular and genitive plural is changed to **n** before **d**: as, **quendam**, **quōrundam**.

d. **Quisquam** has no plural, and the plural of **quispiam** is very rare.

e. The indefinites **ecquis**, *any one* (substantive), and **ecquī**, *any* (adjective), are generally interrogative. They are declined like **aliquis** and **aliquī** (§ 200. b), but are rare in the plural.

f. The indefinites have the same early forms as the relative and interrogative (cf. §§ 193. c, 197. b).

g. For the indefinite relatives see § 194.

201. The relative, interrogative, and indefinite pronouns are originally from the same stems, and most of the forms are the same. The stems in the masculine and neuter are **quo-** and **qui-**, and in the feminine **quā-**. From the stem **qui-** the only forms are **quis**, **quid**, **quibus**, and the old ablative **quī**. The accusative from the stem **qui-** would be **quim**, but, like nouns with **i-**stems, it has borrowed the ending **-em** from the consonant declension.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

202. Several adjectives are frequently used like pronouns and have adopted pronominal forms in the genitive and dative singular. Among these are :

<i>alius, another</i> (of several)	<i>alter, the other</i> (of two)
<i>ūnus, one</i>	<i>nūllus</i> (for <i>nēmō</i>), <i>no one</i>
<i>uter, which ?</i> (of two)	<i>neuter, neither</i> (of two)

For the declension of these adjectives see § 143.

VERBS

CONJUGATION

203. The inflection of the verb is called its conjugation. Through their conjugation verbs express voice, mood, tense, person, and number.

VOICE

204. There are two voices : active and passive, corresponding in general to the active and passive in English.

a. Verbs that are passive in form but active in meaning are called Deponent (§ 247). Semi-deponent verbs are active in meaning, and have active forms in some of the tenses and passive forms in others (§ 248).

MOOD

205. There are three moods : indicative, subjunctive, and imperative.¹ These make up what is known as the *finite verb*.

a. In addition, the verb system includes the following non-modal verb forms :

1. Verbal Nouns : infinitive, gerund, and supine.
2. Verbal Adjectives : participles.

¹ The infinitive is often included among the moods, though it is really a verbal noun both in origin and in use.

TENSE

206. The tenses are six in number :

Present	Future	Past Perfect (or Pluperfect)
Past (or Imperfect)	Perfect	Future Perfect

Only the indicative mood has all six tenses. In this mood the past tense is known as the *past descriptive*.

The subjunctive has four tenses : the present, past, perfect, and past perfect. The imperative has two : the present and future.

PERSON

207. There are three persons : first, second, and third.

NUMBER

208. There are two numbers : singular and plural.

THE THREE TENSE SYSTEMS

209. A verb is inflected by adding certain endings to three different tense stems, known as the Present stem, the Perfect stem, and the Participial stem.

From these stems are derived the three tense systems, known as the Present System, the Perfect System, and the Participial System, which, taken together, make up the whole conjugation of the verb.

I. **The Present System**, derived from the present stem, consists of :

The present, past descriptive, and future indicative, active and passive.

The present and past subjunctive, active and passive.

The present and future imperative, active and passive.

The present infinitive, active and passive.

The present participle, the gerund, and the gerundive.

NOTE. Observe that from the present stem are derived all the presents, pasts, and futures of the finite verb (§ 205).

II. **The Perfect System**, derived from the perfect stem, consists of :

The perfect, past perfect, and future perfect indicative active.

The perfect and past perfect subjunctive active.

The perfect infinitive active.

III. **The Participial System**, derived from the participial stem, consists of :

The past participle passive, which combines with the forms of the verb **sum** to make :

The perfect, past perfect, and future perfect indicative passive ;

The perfect and past perfect subjunctive passive ;

The perfect infinitive passive.

The future active participle,¹ and, hence, the future infinitive active.

The supine,¹ and, hence, the future infinitive passive.

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS

210. Regular verbs show four types of inflection, known as the Four Conjugations, which are distinguished by the final vowel of the present stem. This vowel, called the *distinguishing* or *characteristic vowel*, appears before *-re* in the present infinitive active :

CONJUGATION	PRESENT INFINITIVE	PRESENT STEM	DISTINGUISHING VOWEL
I	amāre , <i>to love</i>	amā-	ā
II	monēre , <i>to advise</i>	monē-	ē
III	regere , <i>to rule</i>	regē-	ē
IV	audire , <i>to hear</i>	audi-	i

211. Verbs which do not conform to one of the four regular conjugations are called Irregular Verbs (cf. §§ 251 ff.).

¹ These forms are most conveniently associated with the participial stem, though strictly of different origin.

PRINCIPAL PARTS

212. Certain forms of the verb, which show its conjugation and its stems, are called its Principal Parts. These are the present indicative active, first person singular; the present infinitive active; the perfect indicative active, first person singular; the past participle passive, nominative singular masculine.

amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus, love

a. The present stem may be found by dropping *-re* from the present infinitive active: as, *amā-* from *amā|re*.

b. The perfect stem may be found by dropping *-ī* from the perfect indicative active, first person singular: as, *amāv-* from *amāv|ī*.

c. The participial stem may be found by dropping *-us* from the past participle passive, nominative singular masculine: as, *amāt-* from *amāt|us*.

NOTE. In giving the principal parts of intransitive verbs the neuter of the past participle passive should be given instead of the masculine.¹

veniō, venīre, vēnī, ventum, come

If the past participle passive is wanting, the future participle active (from the same stem) may be given.

fugiō, fugēre, fūgī, fugitūrus, flee

213. In the passive voice there are three principal parts: the present indicative passive, first person singular; the present infinitive passive; and the perfect indicative passive, first person singular: as, *amor, amārī, amātus sum*.

214. The conjugation to which a verb is referred is determined by its present infinitive, no matter how irregular its principal parts may be. For example, *domō, domāre, domuī, domitus* is referred to the first conjugation; and *petō, petere, petīvī, petitus* to the third.

¹ As intransitive verbs are used only impersonally in the passive, their past participle is always neuter.

PERSONAL ENDINGS

215. The person of the verb is indicated, for each of the three persons, both singular and plural, active and passive, by regular terminations, known as *personal endings*. Most of these seem to be remnants or fragments of old pronouns whose signification is thus added to that of the verb stem.

216. The personal endings of the indicative (except in the perfect active) and of the subjunctive are as follows :

		SINGULAR	
PERSON	ACTIVE		PASSIVE
1	-m or -ō { sum, <i>I am</i> amō, <i>I love</i>	-r	amor, <i>I am loved</i>
2	-s amās, <i>you love</i>	-ris or -re { amāris } amāre }	<i>you are loved</i>
3	-t amat, <i>he, she, it loves</i>	-tur	amātur, <i>he, she, it is loved</i>
		PLURAL	
1	-mus amāmus, <i>we love</i>	-mur	amāmur, <i>we are loved</i>
2	-tis amātis, <i>you love</i>	-mini	amāmini, <i>you are loved</i>
3	-nt amant, <i>they love</i>	-ntur	amantur, <i>they are loved</i>

a. A long vowel is regularly shortened before final **m**, **t**, or **r**, or before **nt** (cf. § 34. *b*).

b. Observe that the letter **r** appears in all but one of the passive personal endings. This is sometimes called the *passive sign*.

217. The perfect indicative active indicates the person by the following terminations, of doubtful origin :

PERSON	SINGULAR	
1	-ī	amāvī, <i>I have loved</i>
2	-istī	amāvistī, <i>you have loved</i>
3	-it	amāvit, <i>he, she, it has loved</i>

PERSON		PLURAL
1	-imus	amāvimus, <i>we have loved</i>
2	-istis	amāvistis, <i>you have loved</i>
3	-ērunt or -ēre	amāvērunt or -ēre, <i>they have loved</i>

218. The imperative has the following terminations, of uncertain origin :

PRESENT ACTIVE			
PERSON	SINGULAR		PLURAL
2	— amā, <i>love thou</i>	-te	amāte, <i>love ye</i>
FUTURE ACTIVE			
2	-tō amātō, <i>thou shalt love</i>	-tōte	amātōte, <i>ye shall love</i>
3	-tō amātō, <i>he, she, it shall love</i>	-ntō	amantō, <i>they shall love</i>
PRESENT PASSIVE			
2	-re amāre, <i>be thou loved</i>	-mini	amāmini, <i>be ye loved</i>
FUTURE PASSIVE			
2	-tor amātor, <i>thou shalt be loved</i>	—	—
3	-tor amātor, <i>he, she, it shall be loved</i>	-ntor	amantor, <i>they shall be loved</i>

FORMATION OF THE VERB STEMS

THE PRESENT STEM

219. The present stem may be found by dropping **-re** in the present infinitive active : as, **amā-** from **amāre**.

220. In the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations the present stem ends in a long vowel.

NOTE. Sometimes the root ends in a long vowel, and the present stem and the root are identical : as, **stā-**, present stem and root of **stāre**, *stand*. But generally the final vowel of the root, or of a noun or adjective stem, has been contracted with a formative verb suffix.

a. First Conjugation. The stem vowel is *ā-*.

Most verbs of the first conjugation are derived from the stems of nouns and adjectives. The *ā-* of the present stem generally appears also in the perfect and participial stems: as, *amāvī*, *amātus*.

b. Second Conjugation. The stem vowel is *ē-*.

In most verbs of the second conjugation the stem vowel *ē-* appears only in the present system. The long stem vowel *ē-* is shortened before another vowel (§ 34. *b*): as, *monēō*. Some of these verbs are formed directly from the root, but most of them are derived from the stems of nouns and adjectives.

c. Fourth Conjugation. The stem vowel is *ī-*.

The long stem vowel *ī-* is shortened before another vowel (§ 34. *b*): as, *audīō*. These verbs are formed from the root or derived from the stems of nouns and adjectives.

1. The *ī-*, in verbs formed from the root, usually appears only in the present system: as, *veniō*, *venīre*, *vēnī*, *ventum*, *come*, from the root *ven-*.

2. If the verbs are derived from the stems of nouns and adjectives, the *ī-* appears also in the perfect and participial systems: as, *finiō*, *finīre*, *finīvī*, *finītus*, *finish*, from *fini-*, stem of *finis*, *end*.

221. In the Third Conjugation the present stem ends in a short vowel, *e-* or *o-*,¹ changed in most forms to *i-* or *u-*. In most cases this vowel, known as the *thematic vowel*,² is added directly to the unmodified root: as, *dic^e/o-*, present stem of *dicō*, *speak*. Often, however, various stem elements are added to the root, and sometimes the root itself is changed.

Thus arise seven different kinds of formation of the present stem, making the following seven classes³ of verbs:

¹ The variation of the stem vowel between *e-* and *o-* is caused by *ablaut* (§ 56), and its variable character is generally indicated by writing it *e/o* (or, as it usually appears, *i/u*).

² The thematic vowel, appearing between the root and the personal endings, is a part of the stem but not of the root. Its origin is unknown.

³ In the first five classes the stem endings added to the root are, respectively, *e/o* (the thematic vowel), *y^e/o*, *n^e/o*, *t^e/o*, *sc^e/o*. In classes 6 and 7 the thematic vowel is added directly to the root, but the root itself is changed.

- a. The root class : as, **dīc-ō**, *speak* ; root **dīc-**.
- b. The **-iō** class : as, **cap-iō**, *take* ; root **cap-**.
- c. The **-nō** class : as, **tem-nō**, *despise* ; root **tem-**.
- d. The **-tō** class : as, **flec-tō**, *bend* ; root **flec-**.
- e. The **-scō** class : as, **crē-scō**, *grow* ; root **crē-**.
- f. The reduplicating class : as, **gi-gn-ō**, *bear* ; root **gen-** or **gn-**.
- g. The nasal class : as, **iu-n-g-ō**, *join* ; root **iug-**.

1. In the reduplicating class the root is changed by reduplication ; that is, by prefixing its first consonant with **i**.

2. In the nasal class a nasal (**m** or **n**) is inserted before the final consonant of the simple root, and usually appears only in the present system.

THE PERFECT STEM

222. The perfect stem may be found by dropping **-ī** from the first person singular of the perfect indicative active.

223. The perfect stem is formed in various ways :

a. The suffix **-v-** is added to the present stem.

This formation is common to most verbs of the first and fourth conjugations.

vocā-v-ī, from **vocāre**, *call*

audī-v-ī, from **audire**, *hear*

b. The suffix **-v-** is added to the root, or to a modified form of the root ending in a long vowel.

This formation is found in several verbs of the second and third conjugations.

flē-v-ī, from **flēre**, *weep* ; root **flē-**

strā-v-ī, from **sternere**, *strew* ; root **ster-**, modified root **strā-**

nō-v-ī, from **nōscere**, *know* ; root **gno-**, modified root **nō-**

lē-v-ī, from **linere**, *smear* ; root **li-**, modified root **lē-**

c. The suffix **-u-** is added to the root or to a modified form of it.

This formation is common to most verbs of the second conjugation, and also appears in some verbs of the third and (rarely) of the first and fourth conjugations.

mon-u-ī, from **monēre**, *advise*; root **man-**, modified root **mon-**

col-u-ī, from **colere**, *till*; root **col-**

vet-u-ī, from **vetāre**, *forbid*; root **vet-**

aper-u-ī, from **aperire**, *open*; preposition **ab** + root **par-**, modified root **per-**

NOTE. The suffix **-u-** is in reality the same as the suffix **-v-**, the Latin having but one character for both the vowel and the consonant (§2. *b*).

d. The suffix **-s-** is added to the root.

This formation is common to verbs of the third conjugation having roots ending in a mute (cf. § 10). It often appears also in the second conjugation and occasionally in the fourth.

The combination of the final mute and **s** gives rise to various consonant changes (cf. § 50), and the quantity of the vowel in the root syllable of the perfect and of the present is sometimes not the same.

rēx-ī, from **regere**, *rule*; root **reg-**

mī-s-ī, from **mittere**, *send*; root **mit-**

ār-s-ī, from **ārdēre**, *burn*; root **ār-**, modified root **ārd-**

sēn-s-ī, from **sentire**, *feel*; root **sent-**

e. The root is *reduplicated* by prefixing the first consonant, generally with **ē**, sometimes with the root vowel. An **a** in the root syllable is weakened to **i** or **e**, and an **ae** to **ī** (cf. § 44).

This formation is found only in the third conjugation, in **mordeō**, **pendeō**, **spondeō**, and **tondeō** of the second conjugation, and in **dō** and **stō**. Examples are:

ce-cid-ī, from **cadere**, *fall*; root **cad-**

ce-cid-ī, from **caedere**, *cut*; root **caed-**

te-tig-ī, from **tangere**, *touch*; root **tag-**

to-tond-ī, from **tondēre**, *shear*; root **tond-**

1. In compounds the reduplicated syllable usually disappears: as, **incidī**, perfect of **incidō** (compound of **cadō**); **contigī**, perfect of **contingō** (compound of **tangō**).

2. When the verb begins with **sp** or **st**, both consonants appear in the reduplication, but **s** disappears from the root: as, **steti** (for ***ste-stī**), perfect of **stō**.

f. The vowel of the root syllable is lengthened or changed.

This formation is confined mostly to verbs of the second and third conjugations.

mōv-ī, from *movēre*, *move*; root **mov-**
fēc-ī, from *facere*, *make*; root **fac-**
ēg-ī, from *agere*, *drive*; root **ag-**
vēn-ī, from *venīre*, *come*; root **ven-**

g. Sometimes the perfect stem has the same form that appears in the present.

This formation is common in the third conjugation, and occurs in nearly all verbs ending in **-uō**.

vert-ī, from *vertere*, *turn*
solv-ī, from *solvere*, *loosen*
metu-ī, from *metuere*, *fear*
tribu-ī, from *tribuere*, *assign*

224. The rules in § 223 may be summarized by the statement that, in general, the perfect stem is formed by adding a suffix to the root or present stem, by reduplication, or by changing the root vowel.

THE PARTICIPIAL STEM

225. The participial stem may be found by dropping **-us** or **-um** from the nominative of the past participle, or **-um** from the supine.

226. The participial stem is formed by adding **-t-** or **-s-**:

a. To the present stem.

amā-t-, from *amāre*, *love*
dēlēt-t-, from *dēlēre*, *destroy*
audī-t-, from *audīre*, *hear*

b. To the root, with or without an intervening **-i-**.

cap-t-, from *capere*, *take*
mon-i-t-, from *monēre*, *advise*

The addition of the suffix leads to many consonant changes, for which see §§ 48, 54. *a*. The vowel of the root syllable is generally the same as in the present.

NOTE. Verbs in *-uō* form the participial stem by adding *-ūt-* to the root syllable.

stat-ūt-, from *statuere*, *set*

trib-ūt-, from *tribuere*, *assign*

FORMATION OF THE MOODS AND TENSES

227. The different moods and tenses are, as a rule, distinguished by certain formative signs, known as mood signs or tense signs, which precede the personal endings. Long vowels are regularly shortened before another vowel, before a final *m*, *r*, or *t*, and before *nt* or *nd* (cf. § 34. *b*).

INDICATIVE MOOD

228. The tenses of the indicative mood are the present, past descriptive, future, perfect, past perfect, and future perfect.

229. The present, past descriptive, and future are formed from the present stem as follows :

a. The **Present Indicative** has no tense sign, the personal endings being added directly to the stem. Thus, from the present stem *arā-* are formed *arā-s*, *arā-tis*, etc.

1. In the first conjugation the stem vowel *ā-* disappears in the first person singular by contraction : as, *amō*, for **amā-ō*.

2. In the third conjugation the thematic vowel *e/o* (§ 221) disappears in the first person singular by contraction (as, *regō* for **reg-e-ō*); appears as *e* before *r* (as, *reg-e-ris*); appears as *u* before *nt* (as, *reg-u-nt*); and becomes *i* before all the other personal endings (as, *reg-i-s*, *reg-i-t*).

3. In the fourth conjugation the thematic vowel appears as *u* in the third person plural between the stem and the personal ending: as, *audi-u-nt*.

b. The **Past Descriptive Indicative** adds **-bā-** as a tense sign to the present stem : as, **amā-bā-s**.

1. In the third conjugation the stem vowel appears as **ē-** : as, **regē-ba-m**.

2. In the fourth conjugation **ē** generally occurs between the stem and the tense sign : as, **audi-ē-ba-m**. This is the regular form in classical Latin. The earlier formation is without **ē** : as, **audi-ba-m**.

c. The **Future Indicative** in the first and second conjugations has as a tense sign **-b** + the thematic vowel **i/u** (changed from **e/o** except in the first person singular). This is added to the present stem : as, **amā-bō**, **amā-bi-s**, **monē-bu-nt**.

In the third and fourth conjugations the tense sign is **-ā-** in the first person singular and **-ē-** in the remaining forms. In the third conjugation the tense signs take the place of the stem vowel, but not in the fourth : as, **reg-a-m**, **reg-ē-mus**, **audi-a-m**, **audi-ē-mus**.

NOTE 1. The tense signs **-ā-** and **-ē-** are really subjunctive mood signs, and futures so formed are in origin present subjunctives.

NOTE 2. In early Latin a future in **-bō** is found also in verbs of the fourth conjugation : as, **scībō**, for **sciam** ; **audībō**, for **audiam**.

230. The perfect, past perfect, and future perfect indicative active are formed from the perfect stem as follows :

a. The **Perfect Indicative** is formed by adding the endings of the perfect (cf. § 217) to the perfect stem (cf. § 222).

1. Perfects in **-āvī**, **-ēvī**, and **-ōvī**, and also other tenses formed from similar perfect stems, sometimes lose **v** and its following vowel before **s** or **r**.

amāstī, for **amāvistī**
dēlerunt, for **dēlēverunt**

commōrat, for **commōverat**
nōstī, for **nōvistī**

2. Perfects in **-ivī** often omit **v**, but the following vowel is not dropped except before **s**.

audiit, for **audivīt**
audistī, for **audivistī**

audiērunt, for **audivērunt**
petistis, for **petivistis**

b. The **Past Perfect Indicative** adds **-erā-** as a tense sign to the perfect stem : as, **amāv-erā-m**.

c. The **Future Perfect Indicative** has as a tense sign **-er** + the thematic vowel **i/u** (changed from **e/o** except in the first person singular). This is added to the perfect stem: as, **amāv-erō**, **amāv-eri-s**. The third person plural, however, ends in **-int** (not in **-unt**) in imitation of the perfect subjunctive.

NOTE 1. The same imitation has given rise to occasional forms of the second person singular and first and second person plural in **-is**, **-imus**, **-itis**, instead of **-is**, **-imus**, **-itis**, the forms with **i** being original in the perfect subjunctive.

NOTE 2. In early Latin the future perfect indicative sometimes has forms in **-sō** or **-ssō**: as, **faxō** (**fac-sō**), from **faciō**; **capsō**, from **capiō**; **amāssō**, from **amō**.

231. The **Perfect Indicative Passive** and all other passive tenses of the perfect system are formed by combining the past participle with present, past descriptive, and future forms of the auxiliary verb **esse**, **be**: as, **amātus sum**, **amātus eram**, **amātus erō**, **amātus sim**, **amātus esse**, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

232. The tenses of the subjunctive mood are the present, past, perfect, and past perfect. Long vowels are shortened before a final **m**, **r**, or **t**, and before **nt** or **nd**, as in the indicative (cf. § 34. *b*).

233. The present and past subjunctive are formed from the present stem as follows:

a. The **Present Subjunctive** has the mood sign **-ē-** in the first conjugation and **-ā-** in the others. The mood sign takes the place of the final stem vowel in the first and third conjugations, but not in the second and fourth: as, **am-e-m**, **mone-ā-mus**, **reg-ā-s**, **audi-ā-tis**.

i. Many irregular verbs have **-i-** for a present subjunctive mood sign: as, **s-i-m**, **vel-i-mus**, **du-i-nt**, **ed-i-s**.

b. The **Past Subjunctive** adds the mood sign **-sē-** to the present stem, the **s** becoming **r** between two vowels (cf. § 49): as, **es-sē-mus**, **monē-rē-s**.

234. The perfect and past perfect subjunctive active are formed from the perfect stem as follows :

a. The **Perfect Subjunctive Active** adds the tense sign **-erī-** to the perfect stem : as, **amāv-eri-m**, **amāv-erī-s**.

1. The *i* of the mood sign, originally long, is often shortened through confusion with the future perfect indicative (cf. § 230. *c. N. 1*). Except in the first person singular the Romans did not maintain a clear distinction between these two tenses.

NOTE 1. In early Latin a perfect subjunctive appears with the ending **-sim** : as, **faxim** (**fac-sim**), from **faciō** ; **ausim**, from **audeō**.

NOTE 2. For the passive see § 231.

b. The **Past Perfect Subjunctive Active** adds the tense sign **-issē-** to the perfect stem : as, **amāv-issē-s**, **dix-isse-m**.

NOTE. For the passive see § 231.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

235. The imperative mood has neither mood sign nor tense signs. Its forms are made by adding its characteristic endings (cf. § 218) to the present stem : as, **amā-te**, **mone-ntō**.

a. In the third conjugation the final vowel of the stem (the thematic vowel, § 221) appears as *ē* in the second person singular, and elsewhere as in the present indicative : as, **rege**, **regi-tō**.

b. In the fourth conjugation the thematic vowel appears as *u* between the stem and the ending in the third person plural of the future imperative, just as in the third person plural of the present indicative (cf. § 229. *a. 3*) : as, **audi-u-ntō**.

c. Four verbs, **dicō**, **dūcō**, **faciō**, and **ferō**, drop the final vowel in the singular of the present active imperative, making **dic**, **dūc**, **fac**, and **fer**.

But prepositional compounds of **faciō** retain the final vowel : as, **cōnfice** from **cōnficiō**.

NOTE. In early Latin **dīce**, **dūce**, and **face** are more frequent than the shortened forms.

FORMATION OF THE NON-MODAL VERB FORMS

236. The non-modal verb forms are the infinitive, gerund, supine, and participle.

237. The infinitive has three tenses : present, perfect, and future, active and passive.

a. 1. The **Present Infinitive Active** is formed by adding *-se* to the present stem : *as, es-se, be*. But when the *s* of this ending comes between two vowels; it is regularly changed to *r* (cf. § 49) : *as, amā-re*, for *amā-se* ; *monē-re*, for *monē-se*.

2. The **Present Infinitive Passive** is formed by adding *-rī* to the present stem in all conjugations but the third, where *-ī* is added to the root syllable : *as, amā-rī, monē-rī, audi-rī*, but *reg-ī*.

NOTE. In early Latin and in poetry a present infinitive passive occurs ending in *-ier* : *as, amārier, monērier, regier, audier*.

b. 1. The **Perfect Infinitive Active** is formed by adding *-isse* to the perfect stem : *as, amāv-isse, monu-isse, rēx-isse, audīv-isse*.

2. The **Perfect Infinitive Passive** consists of the past participle with *esse* : *as, amātus esse, monitus esse*. But *esse* is often omitted.

c. 1. The **Future Infinitive Active** consists of the forms of the future active participle with *esse* : *as, amātūrus esse*. But *esse* is very often omitted.

2. The **Future Infinitive Passive** consists of the supine in *-um* with *irī* (the present infinitive passive of *eō, go*) : *as, amātum irī, rēctum irī*.

238. The **Gerund** is a neuter verbal noun,¹ corresponding in meaning to the English verbal noun in *-ing* : *as, loquendī causā, for the sake of speaking*. It is found only in the oblique cases of the singular, and may be formed by adding *-ndī* to the present stem : *as, ama-ndī, mone-ndī, rege-ndī*. In the fourth conjugation the thematic vowel appears as *e* between the stem and the ending : *as, audi-e-ndī*.

NOTE. In early Latin *-undī* is often used for *-endī* in the third and fourth conjugations : *as, faciundī, audiundī*.

¹ The gerund is really the neuter of the gerundive used substantively.

239. The **Supine** is a verbal noun of the fourth declension, and is commonly found only in the accusative singular, ending in **-tum** or **-sum**, and in the ablative singular, ending in **-tū** or **-sū**: as, **amātum**, **amātū**; **vīsum**, **vīsū**.

240. There are four participles: the present active, the future active, the past passive, and the future passive, or gerundive.

Latin lacks the perfect active participle (as, *having heard*) and the present passive participle (as, *being heard*). But the past participle of deponent verbs (§ 247), though passive in form, is generally active in meaning.

a. The **Present Active Participle** has the same meaning as the English participle in *-ing*. It is formed by adding **-nt-** (nominative singular **-ns**) to the present stem (as, **vocā-ns**, *calling*), and is declined like an adjective of one ending of the third declension (cf. § 149). In the fourth conjugation the thematic vowel appears as **e** between the stem and the ending: as, **audi-ē-ns**, *hearing*.

b. The **Future Active Participle** is used to express what is *likely* or *about* to happen, and is regularly formed by adding **-ūrus**, **-a**, **-um** to the participial stem.

amāt-ūrus, *about to love*

monit-ūrus, *about to advise*

c. The **Past Participle Passive** has the meaning of the English past participle passive, and is regularly formed by adding **-us**, **-a**, **-um** to the participial stem: as, **amāt-us**, *loved*. It is used also with forms of **esse** to form the passive tenses of the perfect system (cf. § 231).

NOTE. The past participle of deponent verbs (§ 247) is generally active in meaning: as, **hortātus**, *having encouraged*.

d. The **Future Passive Participle**, or **Gerundive**, sometimes denotes obligation, propriety, or intention, but more frequently has the same meaning as the gerund (§ 238).

The gerundive is formed like the gerund (§ 238) from the present stem, but with the endings **-ndus**, **-a**, **-um** in the nominative singular, and is declined throughout like **bonus** (§ 140).

amandus, **-a**, **-um**, *to be loved*

regendus, **-a**, **-um**, *to be ruled*

CONJUGATION OF **SUM**

241. The verb **sum**, *to be*, is irregular, but is given first because of its importance as an auxiliary in the formation of the passive tenses of the regular verb.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *pres. indic. sum, pres. infin. esse, perf. indic. fui, fut. part. futūrus*¹

PRES. STEM es-	PERF. STEM fu-	PART. STEM fut-
	INDICATIVE	
	PRESENT	
SINGULAR		PLURAL
sum , <i>I am</i>		sumus , <i>we are</i>
es , <i>thou art</i>		estis , <i>you are</i>
est , <i>he (she, it) is</i>		sunt , <i>they are</i>
	PAST DESCRIPTIVE	
eram , <i>I was</i>		erāmus , <i>we were</i>
erās , <i>thou wast</i>		erātis , <i>you were</i>
erat , <i>he was</i>		erant , <i>they were</i>
	FUTURE	
erō , <i>I shall be</i>		erimus , <i>we shall be</i>
eris , <i>thou wilt be</i>		eritis , <i>you will be</i>
erit , <i>he will be</i>		erunt , <i>they will be</i>
	PERFECT	
fui , <i>I have been, was</i>		fuimus , <i>we have been, were</i>
fuiſtī , <i>thou hast been, wast</i>		fuiſtis , <i>you have been, were</i>
fuit , <i>he has been, was</i>		fuērunt
		fuēre } <i>they have been, were</i>
	PAST PERFECT	
fueram , <i>I had been</i>		fuerāmus , <i>we had been</i>
fuerās , <i>thou hadst been</i>		fuerātis , <i>you had been</i>
fuerat , <i>he had been</i>		fuerant , <i>they had been</i>

¹ Sum has no past participle (cf. § 212. N.).

FUTURE PERFECT

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

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT		PAST	
SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
<i>sim</i>	<i>simus</i>	<i>essem</i>	<i>essēmus</i>
<i>sīs</i>	<i>sitis</i>	<i>essēs</i>	<i>essētis</i>
<i>sit</i>	<i>sint</i>	<i>esset</i>	<i>essent</i>

PERFECT		PAST PERFECT	
<i>fuerim</i>	<i>fuerimus</i>	<i>fuissem</i>	<i>fuissemus</i>
<i>fueris</i>	<i>fueritis</i>	<i>fuisēs</i>	<i>fuisētis</i>
<i>fuerit</i>	<i>fuerint</i>	<i>fuisset</i>	<i>fuisissent</i>

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT		FUTURE	
2D PERS. SING.	<i>es, be thou</i>	2D PERS. SING.	<i>estō, thou shalt be</i>
2D PERS. PLUR.	<i>este, be ye</i>	3D PERS. SING.	<i>estō, he shall be</i>
		2D PERS. PLUR.	<i>estōte, ye shall be</i>
		3D PERS. PLUR.	<i>suntō, they shall be</i>

INFINITIVE

PARTICIPLE

PRES.	<i>esse, to be</i>	
PERF.	<i>fuisse, to have been</i>	
FUT.	<i>futūrus, -a, -um esse, or fore,</i> <i>to be about to be</i>	<i>futūrus, -a, -um, about to be</i>

a. In the past subjunctive *forem, forēs, foret, forent* are often used instead of *essem, essēs*, etc.; so in the future infinitive *fore* is used for *futūrus esse*.

b. The present participle is lacking in *sum*, but appears in the participial adjectives *ab-sēns* (*absent*) and *prae-sēns* (*present*).

c. Old present subjunctives are *siem, siēs, siet, sient*, and *fuam, fuās, fuat, fuant*.

REGULAR VERBS

242. FIRST CONJUGATION. *Ā*-VERBS. *AMŌ*PRINCIPAL PARTS: *amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus*PRES. STEM *amā-* PERF. STEM *amāv-* PART. STEM *amāt-*

ACTIVE

INDICATIVE

PASSIVE

PRESENT

*I love, am loving, do love, etc.**I am loved, etc.*

<i>amō</i>	<i>amāmus</i>	<i>amor</i>	<i>amāmur</i>
<i>amās</i>	<i>amātis</i>	<i>amāris (-re)</i>	<i>amāmini</i>
<i>amat</i>	<i>amant</i>	<i>amātur</i>	<i>amantur</i>

PAST DESCRIPTIVE

*I loved, was loving, did love, etc.**I was (being) loved, etc.*

<i>amābam</i>	<i>amābāmus</i>	<i>amābar</i>	<i>amābāmur</i>
<i>amābās</i>	<i>amābātis</i>	<i>amābāris (-re)</i>	<i>amābāmini</i>
<i>amābat</i>	<i>amābant</i>	<i>amābātur</i>	<i>amābantur</i>

FUTURE

*I shall love, etc.**I shall be loved, etc.*

<i>amābō</i>	<i>amābimus</i>	<i>amābor</i>	<i>amābimur</i>
<i>amābis</i>	<i>amābitis</i>	<i>amāberis (-re)</i>	<i>amābimini</i>
<i>amābit</i>	<i>amābunt</i>	<i>amābitur</i>	<i>amābuntur</i>

PERFECT

*I have loved, loved, did love, etc.**I have been (was) loved, etc.*

<i>amāvī</i>	<i>amāvimus</i>	<i>amātus</i> , {	<i>amātī</i> , {
<i>amāvistī</i>	<i>amāvistis</i>	<i>-a, -um</i> {	<i>-ae, -a</i> {
<i>amāvīt</i>	<i>amāvērunt (-re)</i>	<i>est</i>	<i>estis</i>
			<i>sunt</i>

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

PAST PERFECT

I had loved, etc.

I had been loved, etc.

amāveram	amāverāmus
amāverās	amāverātis
amāverat	amāverant

amātus, -a, -um	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{eram} \\ \text{erās} \\ \text{erat} \end{array} \right.$	amātī, -ae, -a	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{erāmus} \\ \text{erātis} \\ \text{erant} \end{array} \right.$

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have loved, etc.

I shall have been loved, etc.

amāverō	amāverimus
amāveris	amāveritis
amāverit	amāverint

amātus, -a, -um	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{erō} \\ \text{eris} \\ \text{erit} \end{array} \right.$	amātī, -ae, -a	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{erimus} \\ \text{eritis} \\ \text{erunt} \end{array} \right.$

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

amem	amēmus	amer	amēmur
amēs	amētis	amēris (-re)	amēmini
amet	ament	amētur	amentur

PAST

amārem	amārēmus	amārer	amārēmur
amārēs	amārētis	amārēris (-re)	amārēmini
amāret	amārent	amārētur	amārentur

PERFECT

amāverim	amāverīmus	amātus, -a, -um	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sim} \\ \text{sīs} \\ \text{sit} \end{array} \right.$	amātī, -ae, -a	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sīmus} \\ \text{sītis} \\ \text{sint} \end{array} \right.$

PAST PERFECT

amāvīsem	amāvīssēmus	amātus, -a, -um	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{essem} \\ \text{essēs} \\ \text{esset} \end{array} \right.$	amātī, -ae, -a	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{essēmus} \\ \text{essētis} \\ \text{essent} \end{array} \right.$

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT

amā, love thou
amāte, love ye

amāre, be thou loved
amāmini, be ye loved

FUTURE

amātō, thou shalt love
amātō, he shall love
amātōte, ye shall love
amantō, they shall love

amātor, thou shalt be loved
amātor, he shall be loved

amantor, they shall be loved

INFINITIVE

PRES.	<i>amāre</i> , to love	<i>amāri</i> , to be loved
PERF.	<i>amāvīsse</i> , to have loved	<i>amātus</i> , -a, -um esse, to have been loved
FUT.	<i>amātūrus</i> , -a, -um esse, to be about to love	<i>amātum iri</i> , to be about to be loved

PARTICIPLES

PRES.	<i>amāns</i> , -antis, loving	PRES.	_____
FUT.	<i>amātūrus</i> , -a, -um, about to love	GER. ¹	<i>amandus</i> , -a, -um, to be loved
PAST	_____	PAST	<i>amātus</i> , -a, -um, having been loved, loved

GERUND

SUPINE (Active Voice)

NOM.	_____	ACC.	<i>amātum</i> , to love
GEN.	<i>amandī</i> , of loving	ABL.	<i>amātū</i> , to love, in the loving
DAT.	<i>amandō</i> , for loving		
ACC.	<i>amandum</i> , loving		
ABL.	<i>amandō</i> , by loving		

• ¹ Gerundive, sometimes called the future passive participle.

243. SECOND CONJUGATION. *Ē*-VERBS. *MONEŌ*

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *moneŏ*, *monĕre*, *monuĭ*, *monitus*

PRES. STEM *monĕ-* PERF. STEM *monu-* PART. STEM *monit-*

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

INDICATIVE

PRESENT

I advise, etc.

I am advised, etc.

<i>moneŏ</i>	<i>monĕmus</i>	<i>moneor</i>	<i>monĕmur</i>
<i>monĕs</i>	<i>monĕtis</i>	<i>monĕris (-re)</i>	<i>monĕmini</i>
<i>monet</i>	<i>monent</i>	<i>monĕtur</i>	<i>monentur</i>

PAST DESCRIPTIVE

I was advising, etc.

I was advised, etc.

<i>monĕbam</i>	<i>monĕbamus</i>	<i>monĕbar</i>	<i>monĕbāmur</i>
<i>monĕbās</i>	<i>monĕbātis</i>	<i>monĕbāris (-re)</i>	<i>monĕbāmini</i>
<i>monĕbat</i>	<i>monĕbant</i>	<i>monĕbātur</i>	<i>monĕbantur</i>

FUTURE

I shall advise, etc.

I shall be advised, etc.

<i>monĕbŏ</i>	<i>monĕbimus</i>	<i>monĕbor</i>	<i>monĕbimur</i>
<i>monĕbis</i>	<i>monĕbitis</i>	<i>monĕberis (-re)</i>	<i>monĕbimini</i>
<i>monĕbit</i>	<i>monĕbunt</i>	<i>monĕbitur</i>	<i>monĕbuntur</i>

PERFECT

I have advised, etc.

I have been advised, etc.

<i>monuĭ</i>	<i>monuimus</i>	<i>monitus</i> , { <i>sum</i>	<i>monitĭ</i> , { <i>sumus</i>
<i>monuisti</i>	<i>monuistis</i>	<i>-a, -um</i> { <i>es</i>	<i>-ae, -a</i> { <i>estis</i>
<i>monuit</i>	<i>monuerunt (-re)</i>	{ <i>est</i>	{ <i>sunt</i>

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

PAST PERFECT

*I had advised, etc.**I had been advised, etc.*

monueram	monuerāmus	monitus, { -a, -um	eram erās erat	monitī, { -ae, -a	erāmus erātis erant
monuerās	monuerātis				
monuerat	monuerant				

FUTURE PERFECT

*I shall have advised, etc.**I shall have been advised, etc.*

monuerō	monuerimus	monitus, { -a, -um	erō eris erit	monitī, { -ae, -a	erimus eritis erunt
monueris	monueritis				
monuerit	monuerint				

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

moneam	moneāmus	monear	moneāmur
moneās	moneātis	moneāris (-re)	moneāmini
moneat	moneant	moneātur	moneantur

PAST

monērem	monērēmus	monērer	monērēmur
monērēs	monērētis	monērēris (-re)	monērēmini
monēret	monērent	monērētur	monērentur

PERFECT

monuerim	monuerīmus	monitus, { -a, -um	sim sīs sit	monitī, { -ae, -a	sīmus sītis sint
monuerīs	monuerītis				
monuerit	monuerint				

PAST PERFECT

monuissē	monuissēm	monitus, { -a, -um	essem essēs esset	monitī, { -ae, -a	essēm essētis essent
monuissēs	monuissētis				
monuisset	monuissent				

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT

monē, *advise thou*
monēte, *advise ye*

monēre, *be thou advised*
monēmini, *be ye advised*

FUTURE

monētō, *thou shalt advise*
monētō, *he shall advise*
monētōte, *ye shall advise*
monentō, *they shall advise*

monētor, *thou shalt be advised*
monētor, *he shall be advised*
—————
monentor, *they shall be advised*

INFINITIVE

PRES. monēre, *to advise*
PERF. monuisse, *to have advised*
FUT. monitūrus, -a, -um esse, *to be about to advise*

monēri, *to be advised*
monitus, -a, -um esse, *to have been advised*
monitum iri, *to be about to be advised*

PARTICIPLES

PRES. monēns, -entis, *advising*
FUT. monitūrus, -a, -um, *about to advise*
PAST —————

PRES. —————
GER. moneendus, -a, -um, *to be advised*
PAST monitus, -a, -um, *having been advised, advised*

GERUND

SUPINE (Active Voice)

NOM. —————
GEN. mone ndi, *of advising*
DAT. mone ndō, *for advising*
ACC. mone ndum, *advising*
ABL. mone ndō, *by advising*

ACC. monitum, *to advise*
ABL. monitū, *to advise, in the advising*

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

PAST PERFECT

I had ruled, etc.

I had been ruled, etc.

rēxeram rēxerāmus
rēxerās rēxerātis
rēxerat rēxerant

rēctus,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{eram} \\ \text{erās} \\ \text{erat} \end{array} \right.$	rēctī,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{erāmus} \\ \text{erātis} \\ \text{erant} \end{array} \right.$
-a, -um		-ae, -a	

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have ruled, etc.

I shall have been ruled, etc.

rēxerō rēxerimus
rēxeris rēxeritis
rēxerit rēxerint

rēctus,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{erō} \\ \text{eris} \\ \text{erit} \end{array} \right.$	rēctī,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{erimus} \\ \text{eritis} \\ \text{erunt} \end{array} \right.$
-a, -um		-ae, -a	

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

regam regāmus
regās regātis
regat regant

regar regāmur
regāris (-re) regāmini
regātur regantur

PAST

regerem regerēmus
regerēs regerētis
regeret regerent

regerer regerēmur
regerēris (-re) regerēmini
regerētur regerentur

PERFECT

rēxerim rēxerimus
rēxeris rēxeritis
rēxerit rēxerint

rēctus,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sim} \\ \text{sīs} \\ \text{sit} \end{array} \right.$	rēctī,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{sīmus} \\ \text{sītis} \\ \text{sint} \end{array} \right.$
-a, -um		-ae, -a	

PAST PERFECT

rēxissem rēxissemus
rēxisēs rēxissetis
rēxisset rēxisissent

rēctus,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{essem} \\ \text{essēs} \\ \text{esset} \end{array} \right.$	rēctī,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{essēmus} \\ \text{essētis} \\ \text{essent} \end{array} \right.$
-a, -um		-ae, -a	

CONJUGATION OF *REGŌ*

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT

rege, *rule thou*
regite, *rule ye*

regerere, *be thou ruled*
regimini, *be ye ruled*

FUTURE

regitō, *thou shalt rule*
regitō, *he shall rule*
regitōte, *ye shall rule*
reguntō, *they shall rule*

regitor, *thou shalt be ruled*
regitor, *he shall be ruled*
—————
reguntor, *they shall be ruled*

INFINITIVE

PRES. regere, *to rule*
PERF. rēxisse, *to have ruled*
FUT. rēctūrus, -a, -um esse, *to be about to rule*

regī, *to be ruled*
rēctus, -a, -um esse, *to have been ruled*
rēctum irī, *to be about to be ruled*

PARTICIPLES

PRES. regēns, -entis, *ruling*
FUT. rēctūrus, -a, -um, *about to rule*
PAST —————

PRES. —————
GER. regendus, -a, -um, *to be ruled*
PAST rēctus, -a, -um, *having been ruled, ruled*

GERUND

SUPINE (Active Voice)

NOM. —————
GEN. regendī, *of ruling*
DAT. regendō, *for ruling*
ACC. regendum, *ruling*
ABL. regendō, *by ruling*

ACC. rēctum, *to rule*
ABL. rēctū, *to rule, in the ruling*

245. FOURTH CONJUGATION. *Ī*-VERBS. *AUDIŌ*

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *audiŏ, audire, audivĭ, auditus*

PRES. STEM *audi-* PERF. STEM *audiv-* PART. STEM *audit-*

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

INDICATIVE

PRESENT

I hear, etc.

I am heard, etc.

<i>audiŏ</i>	<i>audimus</i>	<i>audior</i>	<i>audimur</i>
<i>audis</i>	<i>auditis</i>	<i>audiris (-re)</i>	<i>audimini</i>
<i>audit</i>	<i>audiunt</i>	<i>auditur</i>	<i>audiuntur</i>

PAST DESCRIPTIVE

I was hearing, etc.

I was heard, etc.

<i>audiēbam</i>	<i>audiēbāmus</i>	<i>audiēbar</i>	<i>audiēbāmur</i>
<i>audiēbās</i>	<i>audiēbātis</i>	<i>audiēbāris (-re)</i>	<i>audiēbāmini</i>
<i>audiēbat</i>	<i>audiēbant</i>	<i>audiēbātur</i>	<i>audiēbantur</i>

FUTURE

I shall hear, etc.

I shall be heard, etc.

<i>audiam</i>	<i>audiēmus</i>	<i>audiar</i>	<i>audiēmur</i>
<i>audiēs</i>	<i>audiētis</i>	<i>audiēris (-re)</i>	<i>audiēmini</i>
<i>audiet</i>	<i>audient</i>	<i>audiētur</i>	<i>audientur</i>

PERFECT

I have heard, etc.

I have been heard, etc.

<i>audivĭ</i>	<i>audivimus</i>	<i>auditus, {</i>	<i>auditĭ, {</i>
<i>audivistĭ</i>	<i>audivistis</i>	<i>-a, -um {</i>	<i>sumus {</i>
<i>audivit</i>	<i>audivērunt (-re)</i>	<i>es {</i>	<i>estis {</i>
		<i>est }</i>	<i>sunt }</i>

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

PAST PERFECT

*I had heard, etc.**I had been heard, etc.*

audīveram	audīverāmus	audītus, { -a, -um	eram erās erat	auditī, { -ae, -a	erāmus erātis erant
audīverās	audīverātis				
audīverat	audīverant				

FUTURE PERFECT

*I shall have heard, etc.**I shall have been heard, etc.*

audīverō	audīverimus	audītus, { -a, -um	erō eris erit	auditī, { -ae, -a	erimus eritis erunt
audīveris	audīveritis				
audīverit	audīverint				

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

audiā ^m	audiā ^m us	audiar	audiā ^m ur
audiās	audiātis	audiāris (-re)	audiāmini
audiat	audiant	audiātur	audiantur

PAST

audīrem	audīrēmus	audīrer	audīrēmur
audīrēs	audīrētis	audīrēris (-re)	audīrēmini
audīret	audīrent	audīrētur	audīrentur

PERFECT

audīverim	audīverī ^m us	audītus, { -a, -um	sim sis sit	auditī, { -ae, -a	sīmus sītis sint
audīverīs	audīverītis				
audīverit	audīverint				

PAST PERFECT

audīvissem	audīvisse ^m us	audītus, { -a, -um	essem essēs esset	auditī, { -ae, -a	esse ^m us essētis essent
audīvisse ^s	audīvissetis				
audīvisset	audīvissent				

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT

audi, *hear thou*
audite, *hear ye*

audi^re, *be thou heard*
audi^mini, *be ye heard*

FUTURE

auditō, *thou shalt hear*
auditō, *he shall hear*
auditōte, *ye shall hear*
audiuntō, *they shall hear*

audit^ror, *thou shalt be heard*
audit^ror, *he shall be heard*
—————
audiunt^ror, *they shall be heard*

INFINITIVE

PRES. audire, *to hear*
PERF. audivisse, *to have heard*
FUT. auditūrus, -a, -um esse, *to be about to hear*

audi^ri, *to be heard*
audit^us, -a, -um esse, *to have been heard*
audit^um iri, *to be about to be heard*

PARTICIPLES

PRES. audiēns, -ientis, *hearing*
FUT. auditūrus, -a, -um, *about to hear*
PAST —————

PRES. —————
GER. audiendus, -a, -um, *to be heard*
PAST audit^us, -a, -um, *having been heard, heard*

GERUND

SUPINE (Active Voice)

NOM. —————
GEN. audiendī, *of hearing*
DAT. audiendō, *for hearing*
ACC. audiendum, *hearing*
ABL. audiendō, *by hearing*

ACC. audit^um, *to hear*
ABL. auditū, *to hear, in the hearing*

VERBS IN *-ĪŌ* OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION

246. Certain verbs in *-iō* do not belong to the fourth conjugation but to the third. In the present system, however, they follow the fourth conjugation wherever in the fourth conjugation a vowel follows the *i* of the stem. Verbs of this class are conjugated as follows :

*capīō, take*PRINCIPAL PARTS: *capīō, capere, cēpī, captus*PRES. STEM *cape-* PERF. STEM *cēp-* PART. STEM *capt-*

ACTIVE

INDICATIVE

PASSIVE

PRESENT

<i>capīō</i>	<i>capimus</i>	<i>capior</i>	<i>capimur</i>
<i>capis</i>	<i>capitis</i>	<i>caperis (-re)</i>	<i>capimini</i>
<i>capit</i>	<i>capiunt</i>	<i>capitur</i>	<i>capiuntur</i>

PAST DESCRIPTIVE

<i>capiebam</i>	<i>capiebāmus</i>	<i>capiebar</i>	<i>capiebāmur</i>
<i>capiebās</i>	<i>capiebātis</i>	<i>capiebāris (-re)</i>	<i>capiebāmini</i>
<i>capiebat</i>	<i>capiebant</i>	<i>capiebātur</i>	<i>capiebantur</i>

FUTURE

<i>capiam</i>	<i>capiemus</i>	<i>capiar</i>	<i>capiemur</i>
<i>capies</i>	<i>capietis</i>	<i>capieris (-re)</i>	<i>capiemini</i>
<i>capiet</i>	<i>capient</i>	<i>capietur</i>	<i>capientur</i>

PERFECT

<i>cēpī, cēpisti, cēpit, etc.</i>	<i>captus, -a, -um sum, es, est, etc.</i>
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PAST PERFECT

<i>cēperam, cēperās, cēperat, etc.</i>	<i>captus, -a, -um eram, erās, erat, etc.</i>
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FUTURE PERFECT

<i>cēperō, cēperis, cēperit, etc.</i>	<i>captus, -a, -um erō, eris, erit, etc.</i>
---------------------------------------	--

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

capiam, capiās, capiat, etc. capiar, -iāris (-re), -iātur, etc.

PAST

cape**rem**, caperēs, caperet, etc. caperer, -erēris (-re), -erētur, etc.

PERFECT

cēperim, cēperīs, cēperit, etc. captus, -a, -um sim, sīs, sit, etc.

PAST PERFECT

cēpisse**m**, cēpissēs, cēpisset, etc. captus, -a, -um essem, essēs, esset, etc.

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT

2D PERS. cape capite capere capi**minī**

FUTURE

2D PERS. capitō capitōte capitor ———
3D PERS. capitō capiuntō capitor capiuntor

INFINITIVE

PRES. capere capī
PERF. cēpisse captus, -a, -um esse
FUT. captūrus, -a, -um esse captum irī

PARTICIPLES

PRES. capiēns, -ientis PRES. ———
FUT. captūrus, -a, -um GER. capiendus, -a, -um
PAST ——— PAST captus, -a, -um

GERUND

SUPINE (Active Voice)

GEN. capiendī ACC. captum
etc. ABL. captū

DEPONENT VERBS

247. A number of verbs, called *deponent*, have in general the forms of the passive but the meanings of the active.

Deponent verbs have, however, the following active forms: the future infinitive, the present and future participles, the gerund, and the supine.

Passive in *meaning* as well as in *form* are *always* the future passive participle (or gerundive) and *sometimes* the past participle.

Deponent verbs are inflected like regular verbs. Examples :

PRINCIPAL PARTS	}	I. hortor, hortārī, hortātus sum, <i>urge</i>
		II. vereor, verērī, veritus sum, <i>fear</i>
		III. sequor, sequī, secūtus sum, <i>follow</i>
		IV. partior, partirī, partītus sum, <i>share, divide</i>

INDICATIVE

PRES.	hortor	vereor	sequor	partior
	hortārīs (-re)	verērīs (-re)	sequerīs (-re)	partirīs (-re)
	hortātur	verētur	sequitur	partitur
	hortāmur	verēmur	sequimur	partimur
	hortāminī	verēminī	sequiminī	partiminī
	hortantur	verentur	sequuntur	partiuntur
P. D.	hortābar	verēbar	sequēbar	partiēbar
FUT.	hortābor	verēbor	sequar	partiar
PERF.	hortātus sum	veritus sum	secūtus sum	partītus sum
P. P.	hortātus eram	veritus eram	secūtus eram	partītus eram
F. P.	hortātus erō	veritus erō	secūtus erō	partītus erō

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRES.	horter	verear	sequar	partiar
PAST	hortārer	verērer	sequerer	partirer
PERF.	hortātus sim	veritus sim	secūtus sim	partītus sim
P. P.	hortātus essem	veritus essem	secūtus essem	partītus essem

IMPERATIVE

PRES. hortāre	verēre	sequere	partire
FUT. hortātor	verētor	sequitor	partitor

INFINITIVE

PRES. hortārī	verērī	sequī	partīrī
PERF. hortātus esse	verītus esse	secūtus esse	partītus esse
FUT. hortātūrus esse	verītūrus esse	secūtūrus esse	partītūrus esse

PARTICIPLES

PRES. hortāns	verēns	sequēns	partiēns
FUT. hortātūrus	verītūrus	secūtūrus	partītūrus
PAST hortātus	verītus	secūtus	partītus
GER. hortandus	verendus	sequendus	partiendus

GERUND

hortandī, etc.	verendī, etc.	sequendī, etc.	partiendī, etc.
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SUPINE

hortātum, -tū	veritum, -tū	secūtum, -tū	partitum, -tū
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a. Dependent verbs in **-iō** of the third conjugation are inflected like the passive of **capīō** (§ 246).

SEMI-DEPONENTS

248. A few verbs, called *semi-deponents*, have active forms in the present system, and passive forms with active meanings in the perfect system. These are :

audeō, audēre, ausus sum, ¹ <i>dare</i>
fidō, fidere, fīsus sum, <i>trust</i>
gaudeō, gaudēre, gāvīsus sum, <i>rejoice</i>
soleō, solēre, solitus sum, <i>be accustomed</i>

a. Some of the compounds of **vertō**, *turn*, are deponent except in the perfect system: as, **revertor**, **revertī** (infin.), **revertī** (perf.), **reversus**, *return*.

¹ The forms **ausim**, **ausis**, **ausit**, **ausint** occur as perfect subjunctives.

THE PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATIONS

249. There are two periphrastic conjugations, the active and the passive.

a. The active periphrastic conjugation denotes a *future* or *intended* action, and is made by combining the future active participle with the forms of **sum**.

b. The passive periphrastic conjugation denotes *obligation*, *necessity*, or *propriety*, and is made by combining the gerundive with the forms of **sum**.

250. The following is the inflection of the active and passive periphrastic forms of a verb of the first conjugation. The inflection is similar in the other conjugations.

ACTIVE	INDICATIVE	PASSIVE
	PRESENT	
laudātūrus sum, <i>I am about to (or intend to) praise</i>		laudandus sum, <i>I am to be (or must be) praised</i>
	PAST DESCRIPTIVE	
laudātūrus eram		laudandus eram
	FUTURE	
laudātūrus erō		laudandus erō
	PERFECT	
laudātūrus fui		laudandus fui
	PAST PERFECT	
laudātūrus fueram		laudandus fueram
	FUTURE PERFECT	
laudātūrus fuerō		laudandus fuerō

ACTIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	PASSIVE
	PRESENT	
laudātūrus sim		laudandus sim
	PAST	
laudātūrus essem		laudandus essem
	PERFECT	
laudātūrus fuerim		laudandus fuerim
	PAST PERFECT	
laudātūrus fuissem		laudandus fuissem
	INFINITIVE	
	PRESENT	
laudātūrus esse		laudandus esse
	PERFECT	
laudātūrus fuisse		laudandus fuisse

a. The periphrastic conjugations lack the imperative, participles, gerund, and supine.

IRREGULAR VERBS

251. The irregular verbs are *sum*, *volō*, *nōlō*, *mālō*, *ferō*, *edō*, *dō*, *eō*, *queō*, *fiō*, and their compounds.

In verbs that are regular the personal endings are preceded by the thematic or stem vowel (cf. §§ 210, 221). Irregular verbs contain forms in which the personal endings are added directly to the root, with no intervening vowel,¹ as in *es-t*, *vul-t*, etc. However, most of the forms of the irregular verbs differ in no way from those of regular verbs.

¹ Because of the absence of the thematic vowel (§ 221), irregular verbs are sometimes called *athematic*.

SUM AND ITS COMPOUNDS

252. For the conjugation of **sum** see § 241. Most compounds of **sum** are conjugated like the simple verb.

The present participle, which is lacking in **sum**, appears in the participial adjectives **ab-sēns** (*absent*) from **absum**, and **prae-sēns** (*present*) from **praesum**.

253. **Prōsum**, *help*, is a compound of **prōd** (the earlier form of **prō**) and **sum**. The final **d** of the preposition disappears before a consonant, but is retained before a vowel.

Hence in the present indicative the inflection is :

prōsum	prō'sumus
prōdes	prōdes'tis
prōdest	prōsunt

Similarly we have **prōderam**, **prōderō**, **prōdessem**, etc.

254. **Possum**, *be able*, in its present system is a compound of the adjective **potis**, or **pote**, *able*, and **sum**. The remaining forms are from an obsolete verb **potēre**.

PRINCIPAL PARTS : **possum**, **posse**, **potuī**, ———

	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
PRES.	possum	pos'sumus	possim	possī'mus
	potes	potes'tis	possis	possī'tis
	potest	possunt	possit	possint
PAST	poteram	poterāmus	possem	possē'mus
FUT.	poterō	poterimus	—————	—————
PERF.	potuī	potuimus	potuerim	potuerīmus
P. PERF.	potueram	potuerāmus	potuissem	potuissēmus
F. PERF.	potuerō	potuerimus	—————	—————

PRES. posse

INFINITIVE

PERF. potuisse

PARTICIPLE

- PRES. potēns, potentis (adjective), *powerful*

VOLŌ, NŌLŌ, AND MĀLŌ

255. Nōlō and mālō are compounds of volō. Nōlō is for *ne* (*not*) + volō, and mālō for *mā* (from *magia*, *more*) + volō. The form *vīs*, the second person singular of volō, is from a different root.

These verbs are inflected as follows :

PRINCIPAL PARTS	{ volō, velle, voluī, —, <i>be willing, will, wish</i>
	{ nōlō, nōlle, nōluī, —, <i>be unwilling, will not</i>
	{ mālō, mälle, māluī, —, <i>be more willing, prefer</i>

INDICATIVE

SINGULAR

PRES.	volō	nōlō	mālō
	vīs	nōn vīs	māvīs
	vult	nōn vult	māvult
		PLURAL	
	volumus	nōlumus	mālumus
	vultis	nōn vultis	māvult'is
	volunt	nōlunt	mālunt
P. DESCR.	volēbam	nōlēbam	mālēbam
FUT.	volam, volēs, etc.	nōlam, nōlēs, etc.	mālam, mālēs, etc.
PERF.	voluī	nōluī	māluī
P. PERF.	volueram	nōlueram	mālueram
F. PERF.	voluerō	nōluerō	māluerō

SUBJUNCTIVE

SINGULAR

PRES.	velim	nōlim	mālim
	velis	nōlis	mālis
	velit	nōlit	mālit

118 CONJUGATION OF *VOLŌ*, *NŌLŌ*, AND *MĀLŌ*

		PLURAL	
	veli'mus	nōli'mus	māli'mus
	veli'tis	nōli'tis	māli'tis
	velint	nōlint	mālint
		SINGULAR	
PAST	vellem, vellēs, etc.	nōllem, nōllēs, etc.	māllem, mällēs, etc.
		PLURAL	
	vellē'mus	nōllē'mus	mällē'mus
	vellē'tis	nōllē'tis	mällē'tis
	vellent	nōllent	mällent
PERF.	voluerim	nōluerim	māluerim
P. PERF.	voluissem	nōluissem	māluissem
		IMPERATIVE	
PRES.	————	nōli, nōlite	————
FUT.	————	nōlitō, nōlitōte nōlitō, nōluntō	————
		INFINITIVE	
PRES.	velle	nōlle	mālle
PERF.	voluisse	nōluisse	māluisse
		PARTICIPLE	
PRES.	volēns, -entis	nōlēns, -entis	————

NOTE. *Vellem* is for *vel-sem*, and *velle* for *vel-se* (cf. § 51).

***FERŌ* AND ITS COMPOUNDS**

256. *Ferō*, *bear*, has two independent roots : *fer-* in the present system, and *tul-*, for *tol-* (cf. *tollō*), in the perfect. The past participle *lātus* is for *tlātus*, *tlā-* being another form of the root *tol-*. The past subjunctive *ferrem* is for *fer-sem*, and the present infinitive *ferre* for *fer-se* (cf. §§ 51, 233. *b*, 237. *a. 1*).

Ferō is inflected as follows :

PRINCIPAL PARTS : *ferō, ferre, tulī, lātus*

	PRES. STEM <i>fer-</i>	PERF. STEM <i>tul-</i>	PART. STEM <i>lāt-</i>	
	ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
	INDICATIVE			
PRES.	<i>ferō</i>	<i>ferimus</i>	<i>feror</i>	<i>ferimur</i>
	<i>fers</i>	<i>fertis</i>	<i>ferris (-re)</i>	<i>ferimini</i>
	<i>fert</i>	<i>ferunt</i>	<i>fertur</i>	<i>feruntur</i>
PAST DESCR.	<i>ferēbam</i>		<i>ferēbar</i>	
FUT.	<i>feram, ferēs, etc.</i>		<i>ferar, ferēris, etc.</i>	
PERF.	<i>tulī</i>		<i>lātus, -a, -um sum</i>	
PAST PERF.	<i>tuleram</i>		<i>lātus, -a, -um eram</i>	
FUTURE PERF.	<i>tulerō</i>		<i>lātus, -a, -um erō</i>	
	SUBJUNCTIVE			
PRES.	<i>feram, ferās, etc.</i>		<i>ferar, ferāris, etc.</i>	
PAST	<i>ferrem</i>		<i>ferrer</i>	
PERF.	<i>tulerim</i>		<i>lātus, -a, -um sim</i>	
PAST PERF.	<i>tulissēm</i>		<i>lātus, -a, -um essem</i>	
	IMPERATIVE			
PRES. 2D PERS.	<i>fer</i>	<i>ferte</i>	<i>ferre</i>	<i>ferimini</i>
FUT. 2D PERS.	<i>fertō</i>	<i>fertōte</i>	<i>fertor</i>	_____
3D PERS.	<i>fertō</i>	<i>feruntō</i>	<i>fertor</i>	<i>feruntor</i>
	INFINITIVE			
PRES.	<i>ferre</i>		<i>ferri</i>	
PERF.	<i>tulisse</i>		<i>lātus, -a, -um esse</i>	
FUT.	<i>lāturus, -a, -um esse</i>		<i>lātum iri</i>	
	PARTICIPLES			
PRES.	<i>ferēs, -entis</i>		PRES. _____	
FUT.	<i>lāturus, -a, -um</i>		GER. <i>ferendus, -a, -um</i>	
PAST	_____		PAST <i>lātus, -a, -um</i>	
	GERUND		SUPINE (Active Voice)	
GEN.	<i>ferendī</i>	ACC. <i>ferendum</i>	ACC. <i>lātum</i>	
DAT.	<i>ferendō</i>	ABL. <i>ferendō</i>	ABL. <i>lātū</i>	

a. The compounds of **ferō**, conjugated like the simple verb, are the following :

ad-	adferō	adferre	attulī	allātus
au-, ab-	auferō	auferre	abstulī	ablātus
con-	cōnferō	cōnferre	contulī	conlātus
dis-, dī-	differō	differre	distulī	dilātus
ex-, ē-	efferō	efferre	extulī	ēlātus
in-	inferō	inferre	intulī	inlātus
ob-	offerō	offerre	obtulī	oblātus
re-	referō	referre	rettulī	relātus
sub-	sufferō	sufferre	sustulī	sublātus

NOTE. **Ab-** and **au-** are two distinct prepositions with the same meaning. **Sustulī** and **sublātus** serve also respectively as the perfect indicative and past participle of the verb **tollō**.

EDŌ

257. **Edō**, *eat*, has the inflection of a regular verb of the third conjugation and, in addition, alternative forms in certain tenses of the present system. Thus :

PRINCIPAL PARTS: **edō, edere (ēsse), ēdī, ēsus**

ACTIVE

INDICATIVE

PRES. edō, edis (ēs), edit (ēst)
edimus, editis (ēstis), edunt

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRES. edam (edim), edās (edīs), edat (edit)
edāmus (edīmus), edātis (editis), edant (edint)
PAST ederem (ēessem), ederēs (ēssēs), ederet (ēsset)
ederēmus (ēssēmus), ederētis (ēssētis), ederent (ēssent)

IMPERATIVE

SINGULAR

PLURAL

INFINITIVE

PRES. 2D PERS. ede (ēs) editē (ēste)
FUT. 2D PERS. editō (ēstō) editōte (ēstōte)
• 3D PERS. editō (ēstō) eduntō

edere (ēsse)

PASSIVE

PRES. INDIC. 3D SING. editur (ēstur)

PAST SUBJV. 3D SING. ederētur (ēssētur)

a. Note that the long vowel of the shorter forms distinguishes them from the corresponding forms of the verb *esse*, *be*.

b. The shorter forms of the present indicative, and the present subjunctive forms **edim**, **edīs**, etc., were those commonly used till the latter part of the classical period.

c. **Comedō**, *consume*, has either **comēstus** or **comēsus** as a past participle.

DŌ

258. The verb **dō**, *give*, is conjugated like a verb of the first conjugation, but the root vowel (a-) is everywhere short except in the second person singular of the present indicative and the present imperative active, and in the nominative singular of the present participle.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: **dō**, **dāre**, **dedī**, **datus**

PRES. STEM **dā-**

PERF. STEM **ded-**

PART. STEM **dat-**

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

INDICATIVE

PRES.	dō	damus	—————	damur
	dās	datis	daris (-re)	daminī
	dat	dant	datur	dantur
P. DESCR.	dabam		dabar	
FUT.	dabō		dabor	
PERF.	dedī		datus, -a, -um	sum
P. PERF.	dederam		datus, -a, -um	eram
F. PERF.	dederō		datus, -a, -um	erō

CONJUGATION OF *DŌ*

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE
		SUBJUNCTIVE	
PRES.	dem, dēs, det, etc.		———, dēris (-re), dētur, etc.
PAST	darem		darer
PERF.	dederim		datus, -a, -um sim
P. PERF.	dedissem		datus, -a, -um essem

IMPERATIVE				
PRES. 2D PERS.	dā	date	dare	daminī
FUT. 2D PERS.	datō	datōte	dator	———
3D PERS.	datō	dantō	dator	dantor

INFINITIVE			
PRES.	dare		darī
PERF.	dedisse		datus, -a, -um esse
FUT.	datūrus, -a, -um esse		datum iri

PARTICIPLES			
PRES.	dāns, dantis	PRES.	———
FUT.	datūrus, -a, -um	GER.	dandus, -a, -um
PAST	———	PAST	datus, -a, -um

GERUND		SUPINE (Active Voice)			
GEN.	dandī	ACC.	dandum	ACC.	datum
DAT.	dandō	ABL.	dandō	ABL.	datū

a. In early Latin and in poetry occur forms from the related root *du-*: as, present subjunctive **duim**, **duīs**, etc., and sometimes **duam**, **duās**, etc.

b. In compounds, **dō** generally has the meaning *put*.¹ Most of these compounds, if the prefix is a monosyllable, are conjugated as verbs of the third conjugation: as, **condō**, **condere**, **condidī**, **conditus**, *found*.

¹ Some grammarians consider this as a different verb from **dō**, *give*.

259.

eō, go

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *eō, ire, ii (īvī), itum*

	PRES. STEM <i>ī-</i>		PERF. STEM <i>ī-</i> OR <i>īv-</i>		PART. STEM <i>it-</i>	
	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE		IMPERATIVE	
					SING.	PLUR.
PRES.	<i>eō</i>	<i>imus</i>	<i>eam</i>		2D PERS. <i>ī</i>	<i>ite</i>
	<i>is</i>	<i>itis</i>				
	<i>it</i>	<i>eunt</i>				
PAST	<i>ibam</i>		<i>irem</i>			
FUT.	<i>ibō</i>		_____		{ 2D PERS. <i>itō</i>	<i>itōte</i>
PERF.	<i>ii (īvī)</i>		<i>ierim (īverim)</i>		{ 3D PERS. <i>itō</i>	<i>euntō</i>
P. PERF.	<i>ieram (īveram)</i>		<i>issem (īvissem)</i>			
F. PERF.	<i>ierō (īverō)</i>		_____			
	INFINITIVE			PARTICIPLES		
PRES.	<i>ire</i>			PRES. <i>iēns, euntis</i>		
PERF.	<i>isse (īvisse)</i>			FUT. <i>itūrus, -a, -um</i>		
FUT.	<i>itūrus, -a, -um esse</i>			GER. <i>eundum</i>		
	GERUND			SUPINE		
GEN.	<i>eundī</i>	ACC. <i>eundum</i>		ACC. <i>itum</i>		
DAT.	<i>eundō</i>	ABL. <i>eundō</i>		ABL. <i>itū</i>		

a. The passive of the simple verb *eō* is used only in the third person singular¹: as, *itur, itum est*, etc. But transitive compounds, such as *adeō, approach, ineō, enter*, have the passive complete.

b. In the perfect system the forms with *v* are very rare.

c. The compound *ambiō, go round*, is inflected regularly like a verb of the fourth conjugation.

d. In *prōdeō, go forth*, the preposition retains its original final *d*.

260. *Queō, be able*, and *nequeō, be unable*, are inflected like *eō*, but are rare except in the present indicative active.

¹ Verbs appearing only in the third person singular are called *impersonal*, because they have no personal subject.

FĪŌ AND ITS COMPOUNDS

261. The active of *faciō*, *make*, is regular,¹ but in the passive *fiō*, *be made, become*, takes its place in the present system, except in the gerundive *faciendus*. The perfect passive system is formed regularly from *faciō*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *fiō*, *ferī*, *factus sum*

	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	IMPERATIVE
PRES.	<i>fiō</i> ———	<i>fīam</i>	2D PERS. <i>fī</i> <i>fite</i>
	<i>fīs</i> ———		
	<i>fiunt</i> <i>fiunt</i>		
PAST	<i>fīēbam</i>	<i>fīerem</i>	
FUT.	<i>fīam</i>	—————	
PERF.	<i>factus, -a, -um sum</i>	<i>factus, -a, -um sim</i>	
P. PERF.	<i>factus, -a, -um eram</i>	<i>factus, -a, -um essem</i>	
F. PERF.	<i>factus, -a, -um erō</i>	—————	

	INFINITIVE	PARTICIPLES
PRES.	<i>fīerī</i>	PRES. ———
PERF.	<i>factus, -a, -um esse</i>	GER. <i>faciendus, -a, -um</i>
FUT.	<i>factum fīrī</i>	PAST <i>factus, -a, -um</i>

a. Most prepositional compounds of *faciō* are inflected regularly like verbs in *-iō* of the third conjugation.

Active, *cōnficiō*, *cōnficere*, *cōnfēcī*, *cōnfectus*
 Passive, *cōnficior*, *cōnficī*, *cōnfectus sum*

b. Syntactic compounds (cf. § 292. *a*) of *faciō*, — like *benefaciō*, *calefaciō*, etc., — in which *faciō* remains unchanged, have the forms of *fiō* in the passive: as, *benefiō*, *-fieri*, *-factus sum*.

c. Isolated forms of *fiō* occur in a few words: as, *cōnfit*, *dēfit*, etc.

¹ But it has imperative *fac* (§ 235. *c*) and, besides the regular forms, the future perfect *faxō* and the perfect subjunctive *faxim*.

DEFECTIVE VERBS

262. Defective verbs lack certain forms.

263. The following defective verbs lack the present system :

	<i>coepī, began</i>	<i>ōdī, hate</i>	<i>meminī, remember</i>
	INDICATIVE		
PERF.	<i>coepī</i>	<i>ōdī</i>	<i>meminī</i>
P. PERF.	<i>coeperam</i>	<i>ōderam</i>	<i>memineram</i>
F. PERF.	<i>coeperō</i>	<i>ōderō</i>	<i>meminerō</i>
	SUBJUNCTIVE		
PERF.	<i>coeperim</i>	<i>ōderim</i>	<i>meminerim</i>
P. PERF.	<i>coepissem</i>	<i>ōdissem</i>	<i>meminissem</i>
	IMPERATIVE		
			<i>mementō</i>
			<i>mementōte</i>
	INFINITIVE		
PERF.	<i>coepisse</i>	<i>ōdisse</i>	<i>meminisse</i>
FUT.	<i>coeptūrus, -a, -um esse</i>	<i>ōsūrus, -a, -um esse</i>	
	PARTICIPLES		
PAST	<i>coeptus, -a, -um, begun</i>	<i>ōsus, -a, -um, hating or hated</i>	
FUT.	<i>coeptūrus, -a, -um</i>	<i>ōsūrus, -a, -um, likely to hate</i>	

a. When used with the passive infinitive, the form of *coepī* is regularly passive: as, *coeptus sum vocārī, I began to be called*; but *coepī vocāre, I began to call*. For the present system *incipiō* is used.

b. The perfect, past perfect, and future perfect of *ōdī* and *meminī* have the meanings of a present, past, and future respectively.

ōdī, I hate ōderam, I hated (was hating) ōderō, I shall hate

The passive of *ōdī* is supplied by the idiom *ōdiō esse, to be hated* (lit. *to be for hatred*).

264. Many verbs are used only in the present system.

maereō, -ēre, *grieve*

feriō, -ire, *strike*

265. Some verbs occur in only a few forms.

a. Aiō, *say*:

INDICATIVE

PRES. aiō, ais, ait; —, —, aiunt

P. DESCR. aiēbam, aiēbās, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRES. —, aiās, aiat; —, —, aiant (rare)

IMPERATIVE

ai (rare)

PARTICIPLE

aiēns

1. The vowels a and i are pronounced separately (a-is, a-it) except sometimes in old or colloquial Latin. Before a vowel, one i stands for two (see § 18): thus aiō was pronounced ai-yō and was sometimes written aiīō.

2. The second singular ais with the interrogative -ne is often written ain. An old past aibam, aibās, etc. (dissyllabic) is sometimes found.

3. The present ait often has the meaning of a perfect.

b. Inquam, *say*, except in poetry, is used only in direct quotations (cf. the English *quoth*).

INDICATIVE

PRES. inquam, inquis, inquit; inquitus, inquitis (late), inquit

P. DESCR. —, —, inquitēbat; —, —, —

FUT. —, inquitēs, inquiet; —, —, —

PERF. inquitī, inquitī, —; —, —, —

IMPERATIVE

PRES. inque

FUT. inquitō

1. The only common forms are the present inquam, inquis, inquit, inquitus, and the future inquitēs, inquiet. Inquam is sometimes, and inquit is often, used as a perfect.

c. The deponent **fāri**, *to speak*, has the following forms :

INDICATIVE	
PRES.	—, —, fātur ; —, —, fantur
FUT.	fābor, —, fābitur ; —, —, —
PERF.	—, —, fātus, -a, -um est ; —, —, fāti, -ae, -a sunt
P. PERF.	fātus, -a, -um eram, —, fātus, -a, -um erat ; —, —, —
IMPERATIVE	
PRES.	fāre
INFINITIVE	
PRES.	fārī
PARTICIPLES	
PRES.	fāns, fantis, etc. (in singular)
GER.	fandus, -a, -um, <i>to be spoken of</i>
PAST	fātus, -a, -um, <i>having spoken</i>
GERUND	
GEN.	fandī
ABL.	fandō
SUPINE	
ABL.	fātū

i. Several forms occur in compounds : as, **praefābor**, **affārī**.

d. Isolated defective forms are :

PRES. INDIC.	quaesō , <i>I beg</i> , quaesumus
IMPERATIVE	salvē , <i>hail</i> , salvēte , salvētō ; INFIN. salvēre
IMPERATIVE	(h)avē , <i>hail</i> , (h)avēte , (h)avētō ; INFIN. (h)avēre
IMPERATIVE	cedo , <i>give</i> , plural cette

IMPERSONAL VERBS

266. Impersonal verbs are used only in the *third person singular of the indicative and subjunctive*, and in the *infinitive*.

The following verbs are almost always impersonal :

<p>deceat, <i>it is becoming</i> fulgurat, <i>it lightens</i> libet (lubet), <i>it pleases</i> licet, <i>it is permitted</i> miseret, <i>it distresses</i> ninguit or ningit, <i>it snows</i> oportet, <i>it is fitting</i></p>	<p>paenitet, <i>it repents</i> piget, <i>it grieves</i> pluit, <i>it rains</i> pudet, <i>it shames</i> rēfert, <i>it concerns</i> taedet, <i>it wearies</i> tonat, <i>it thunders</i></p>
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a. Verbs that generally have a personal subject are sometimes used impersonally.

accidit, it happens *placet, it pleases* *vidētur, it seems*

b. Intransitive verbs in the passive are always impersonal.

pugnātur, there is fighting (it is fought)

ītur, some one goes (it is gone)

parcitur mihi, I am spared (it is spared to me)

ventum est, they (he, we, etc.) came (it was come)

LIST OF VERBS

267. Regular verbs of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations are omitted from this list unless lacking the Perfect or the Participial System.

Compounds of regular formation, with the vowel of the root syllable unchanged, and conjugated like the simple verbs, are omitted. A prefixed hyphen indicates that the verb is found only in compounds.

The Past Participle of transitive verbs is given in the masculine, that of intransitives in the neuter (cf. § 212 and Note).

ab-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus

ab-iciō, 3, -iēcī, -iectus [iaciō]

ab-igō, 3, -ēgī, -āctus [agō]

ab-oleō, 2, -ēvī, -itus .

ab-olēscō, 3, -olēvī, — [aboleō]

ab-ripiō, 3, -ripuī, -reptus [rapiō]

abs-cidō, 3, -cidī, -cīsus [caedō]

abs-condō, 3, -dī (-didī), -ditus

abs-sistō, 3, -stitī, —

abs-tineō, 2, -tinuī, -tentus [teneō]

ab-sum, abesse, āfui, āfutūrus. Irreg-

ular, 252

accersō, see accessō

ac-cidō, 3, -cidī, — [cadō]

ac-cidō, 3, -cidī, -cīsus [caedō]

ac-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]

ac-colō, 3, -uī, —

ac-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum

ac-ēscō, 3, -acuī, — [inceptive of aceō,
290. a; compound coacēscō]

acuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus

ad-do, 3, -didī, -ditus

ad-ferō, -ferre, attulī, allātus. Irregu-
lar, 256. a

ad-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]

ad-gredior, -ī, -gressus sum [gradior].

Deponent

ad-hibeō, 2, -uī, -itus [habeō]

ad-igō, 3, -ēgī, -āctus [agō]

ad-imō, 3, -ēmī, -ēptus [emō]

ad-ipīscor, -ī, -eptus sum [apīscor].

Deponent

- ad-olēscō, 3, -olēvī, -ultum [alēscō]
 ad-quirō, 3, -quisivī, -quisitus [quaerō]
 ad-sentior, -irī, -sēnsus sum. Deponent
 ad-sideō, 2, -sēdī, -sessum [sedeō]
 ad-sidō, 3, -sēdī (-sīdī), —
 ad-stō, 1, -stitī, —
 a-gnōscō, 3, -gnōvī, -gnītus [nōscō]
 agō, 3, ēgī, āctus [-igō in most com-
 pounds, but see cōgō and peragō]
 aiō. Defective, 265. *a*
 albeō, 2, —, —
 alēscō, 3, —, — [alō, 290. *a*; com-
 pounds adolēscō, coalēscō, etc.]
 algeō, 2, alsī, —
 algēscō, 3, alsī, — [algeō], 290. *a*
 alō, 3, aluī, altus (alitus)
 amb-igō, 3, —, — [agō]
 amb-iō, 4, -iī (-īvī), -ītus (ambībat)
 [eō], 259. *c*
 amiciō, 4, amixī (-cuī), amictus [iaciō]
 angō, 3, —, —
 aperīō, 4, aperuī, apertus
 apīscor, -ī, aptus sum. Deponent
 ap-pellō, 3, -pulī, -pulsus
 ap-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressus [premō]
 arceō, 2, -uī, — [-erceō in compounds]
 arcessō (accersō), 3, arcessivī, arces-
 sītus
 ārdeō, 2, ārsī, ārsūrus
 ārdēscō, 3, ārsī, — [ārdeō], 290. *a*
 āreō, 2, —, —
 ārēscō, 3, -āruī, — [āreō], 290. *a*
 arguō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
 ar-rigō, 3, -rēxī, -rēctus [regō]
 ar-ripiō, 3, -uī, -reptus [rapiō]
 a-scendō, 3, -dī, -scēnsus [scandō]
 a-spergō, 3, -spersī, -spersus [spargō]
 at-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus
 at-tineō, 2, -tinuī, -tentus [teneō]
- at-tingō, 3, -tigī, -tāctus [tangō]
 audeō, audēre, ausus sum. Semi-
 deponent, 248
 au-ferō, -ferre, abstulī, ablātus.
 Irregular, 256. *a*
 augeō, 2, auxī, auctus
 avē (havē), avēre (havēre). Defec-
 tive, 265. *d*
- balbūtiō, 4, —, —
 bātuō, 3, -uī, —
 bibō, 3, bibī, pōtus
- cadō, 3, cecīdī, cāsum [-cīdō in com-
 pounds]
 caedō, 3, cecīdī, caesus [-cīdō in
 compounds]
 caleō, 2, -uī, -itūrus
 calēscō, 3, -caluī, — [caleō], 290. *a*
 calleō, 2, —, —
 calveō, 2, —, —
 candeō, 2, -uī, —
 candēscō, 3, -canduī, — [candeō],
 290. *a*
 cāneō, 2, -uī, —
 cānēscō, 3, cānuī, — [cāneō], 290. *a*
 canō, 3, cecinī, — [-cinō in most
 compounds, perfect -cinuī]
 capessō, 3, capessivī, — [capiō],
 290. *b. i*
 capiō, 3, cēpī, captus [-cipiō in com-
 pounds except antecapiō]
 careō, 2, -uī, -itūrus
 carpō, 3, carpsī, carptus [-cerpō in
 compounds]
 caveō, 2, cāvī, cautus
 cedo (imperative). Defective, 265. *d*
 cēdō, 3, cessī, cessus
 cellō, 3, —, —

- cendō, 3, -cendī, -cēnsus
 cēnsēō, 2, -uī, cēnsus
 cernō, 3, crēvī, -crētus
 cieō (-ciō), ciēre (-cīre), cīvī, cītus
 (-cītus)
 cingō, 3, cīnxī, cīnctus
 -ciō, see cieō
 circum-sistō, 3, -stetī (-stītī), —
 circum-stō, 1, -stetī (-stītī), —
 clangō, 3, —, —
 clārēscō, 3, clārui, — [clāreō], 290. *a*
 claudeō, 2, —, —; see claudō
 (*limp*)
 claudō (*limp*), 3, —, —
 claudō (*close*), 3, clausī, clausus
 [-clūdō in compounds]
 clueō, 2, —, —
 co-alēscō, 3, -aluī, -alitus
 coepī, -isse, coeptus. Defective,
 263
 co-erceō, 2, -uī, -itus [arceō]
 co-gnōscō, 3, -gnōvī, -gnītus [nōscō]
 cōgō, 3, coēgī, coāctus [agō]
 col-ligō, 3, -lēgī, -lēctus [legō]
 colō, 3, coluī, cultus
 comb-ūrō, see ūrō
 com-minīscor, -ī, -mentus sum. De-
 pendent
 cōmō, 3, cōmpsi, cōmptus [emō]
 com-pellō, 3, -puli, -pulsus
 com-percō, 3, -persī, — [percō]
 com-pēscō, 3, -cuī, —
 com-pingō, 3, -pēgī, -pāctus [pangō]
 com-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressus [preimō]
 com-pungō, 3, -pūnxī, -pūnctus
 con-cidō, 3, -cīdī, — [cadō]
 con-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]
 con-cinō, 3, -uī, — [canō]
 con-cipiō, 3, -cēpi, -ceptus [-capiō]
- con-clūdō, 3, -clūsī, -clūsus [claudō]
 con-cupiscō, 3, -cupīvī, -cupītus [cupiō]
 con-currō, 3, -curri (-cucurri), -cursum
 con-cutiō, 3, -cussi, -cussus [quatiō]
 con-dō, 3, -didi, -ditus
 cōn-ferciō, 4, —, -fertus [farcīō]
 cōn-ferō, -ferre, contulī, conlātus.
 Irregular, 256. *a*
 cōn-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
 cōn-fit. Defective, 261. *c*
 cōn-fiteor, -ērī, -fessus sum [fateor].
 Dependent
 cōn-fringō, 3, -frēgī, -frāctus [frangō] •
 con-iciō, 3, -iēcī, -iectus [iaciō]
 con-līdō, 3, -līsī, -līsus [laedō]
 con-lūceō, 2, —, —
 con-quirō, 3, -quīsivī, -quīsītus
 [quaerō]
 cōn-sistō, 3, -stītī, —
 cōn-spergō, 3, -spersī, -spersus
 [spargō]
 cōn-stituō, 3, -uī, -ūtus [statuō]
 cōn-stō, 1, -stītī, -statūrus
 cōn-sulō, 3, -uī, -sultus
 con-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus
 con-ticēscō, 3, -ticuī, — [taceō]
 con-tineō, 2, -tinuī, -tentus [teneō]
 con-tingō, 3, -tigī, -tāctus [tangō]
 con-tundō, 3, -tudi, -tūsus (-tūsus)
 coquō, 3, coxī, coctus
 cor-rigō, 3, -rēxī, -rēctus [regō]
 cor-ripiō, 3, -ripuī, -reptus [rapiō]
 crēbrēscō, 3, -crēbrui, —, 290. *a*
 crēdō, 3, -didi, -ditus [-dō]
 crepō, 1, crepuī (-crepāvi), -crepītus
 crēscō, 3, crēvī, crētum [creō], 290. *a*
 crūdēscō, 3, -crūduī, —, 290. *a*
 cubō, 1, cubuī (-cubāvi), cubitum
 cūdō, 3, -cūdi, -cūsus

- cumbō, 3, -cubūi, -cubitum [compounds with dē-, ob-, prō-, re-, and sub- lack the past participle]
- cupiō, 3, cupīvi, cupītus
- curō, 3, cucurrī, cursum [in the perfect, compounds have either -currī or -cucurrī]
- dēbeō, 2, -uī, -itus [habēō]
- dē-cerpō, 3, -cerpsī, -cerptus [carpō]
- decet, decēre, decuit. Impersonal
- dē-cipiō, 3, -cēpi, -ceptus [capiō]
- dē-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursus
- dē-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
- dē-fetīscor, -ī, -fessus sum [fatīscō].
Deponent
- dēgō, 3, —, — [agō]
- dēleō, 2, -ēvi, -ētus
- dē-libuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
- dē-ligō, 3, -lēgī, -lēctus [legō]
- dēmō, 3, dēmpsī, dēmptus [emō]
- dē-pellō, 3, -pulī, -pulsus
- dē-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressus [prēmō]
- depsō, 3, -suī, -stus
- dē-scendō, 3, -dī, -scēnsus [scandō]
- dē-siliō, 4, -uī (-ī), — [saliō]
- dē-sipiō, 3, —, — [sapiō]
- dē-sistō, 3, -stīti, -stitum
- dē-spondeō, 2, -dī, -spōnsus
- dē-tendō, 3, —, -tēnsus
- dē-tineō, 2, -tinuī, -tentus [teneō]
- dē-vertor, -ī, —. Deponent
- dīcō, 3, dīxī, dīctus (imperative dīc, 235. c)
- dif-ferō, -ferre, distulī, dīlātus. Irregular, 256. a
- dif-fiteor, -ērī, — [fateor]. Deponent
- dī-gnōscō, 3, -gnōvī, — [nōscō]
- dī-ligō, 3, -lēxī, -lēctus [legō]
- dir-ibeō, 2, —, -itus [habēō]
- dir-imō, 3, -ēmī, -ēmptus [emō]
- dī-ripiō, 3, -ripuī, -reptus [rapiō]
- discō, 3, didicī, —
- dis-crepō, 1, -crepuī (-crepāvī), —
- dis-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum
- dis-iciō, 3, dis-iēcī, -iectus [iaciō]
- dis-sideō, 2, -sēdī, — [sedeō]
- dis-siliō, 4, -uī, — [saliō]
- dis-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus
- dī-stō, 1, —, —
- dītēscō, 3, —, —
- dī-vidō, 3, -vīsi, -vīsus
- dō, dāre, dedī, dātus [so circumdō, but most other compounds are of the third conjugation; see abdō, addō, condō, etc.]. Irregular, 258
- doceō, 2, -uī, doctus
- dolēscō, 3, -doluī, — [doleō], 290. a
- domō, 1, -uī, -itus
- dormīscō, 3, -dormīvi, — [dormiō], 290. a
- dūcō, 3, dūxī, ductus (imperative dūc, 235. c)
- dulcēscō, 3, —, —, 290. a
- dūrēscō, 3, dūruī, —, 290. a
- ē-bulliō, 4, ēbullī, —
- edō (*eat*), edere (ēsse), ēdī, ēsus. Irregular, 257
- ē-dō (*put forth*), 3, -didī, -ditus
- ef-ferō, -ferre, extulī, ēlātus. Irregular, 256. a
- ef-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
- egeō, 2, -uī, —
- ē-iciō, 3, -iēcī, -iectus [iaciō]
- ē-liciō, 3, -uī, -itus [-liciō]

- ē-ligō, 3, -lēgī, -lēctus [legō]
 ē-micō, 1, -micuī, —
 ē-mineō, 2, -uī, — [maneō]
 emō, 3, ēmī, ēmptus [-imō in most compounds, as adimō, dirimō; but coēmō, cōmō, dēmō, prēmō, sūmō]
 ē-necō, 1, -necuī (-necāvī), -nectus (-necātus)
 eō, īre, īī (īvī), ītum [so in compounds except ambiō, 4, -ivī, -itus; see also vēneō]. Irregular, 259
 ē-rigō, 3, -rēxī, -rēctus [regō]
 ēsurīō, 4, —, ēsurītūrus [edō], 290. *d*
 ē-vādō, 3, -vāsī, -vāsus
 ē-vanēscō, 3, ēvanuī, —, 290. *u*
 ex-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]
 ex-clūdō, 3, -clūsī, -clūsus [claudō]
 ex-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum
 ex-cutiō, 3, -cussī, -cussus [quatiō]
 ex-erceō, 2, -uī, -itus [arceō]
 ex-imō, 3, -ēmī, -ēmptus [emō]
 ex-olēscō, 3, -olēvī, -olētum [alēscō]
 ex-pellō, 3, -pulī, -pulsus
 ex-pergīscor, -ī, -perrēctus sum [pergō]. Deponent
 ex-plōdō, 3, -sī, -sus [plaudō]
 ex-pungō, 3, -pūnxī, -pūnctus
 ex-siliō, 4, -uī (-īī), — [saliō]
 ex-sistō, 3, -stitī, -stitum
 ex-stō, 1, —, —
 ex-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus (-tēnsus)
 exuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus

 facessō, 3, facessī, facessitus [faciō], 290. *b*. 1
 faciō, 3, fēcī, factus [-ficiō in prepositional compounds] (imperative fac, 235. *c*; for passive see fiō)
 fallō, 3, fefellī, falsus
 farciō, 4, farsī, fartus [-ferciō in compounds]
 fateor, -ērī, fassus sum [-fiteor in compounds]. Deponent
 fatīscō, 3, —, —, 290. *a*
 faveō, 2, fāvī, fautum
 -fendō, 3, -fendī, -fēnsus
 feriō, 4, —, —
 ferō, ferre, tulī, lātus (imperative fer, 235. *c*). Irregular, 256
 ferveō, 2, fervī (ferbuī), —; also fervō, 3
 fidō, fidere, fisis sum. Semi-deponent, 248
 figō, 3, fixī, fixus
 findō, 3, fidī, fissus
 fingō, 3, finxī, fictus
 fiō, fierī, factus sum. Irregular, used as the passive of faciō, 261
 flectō, 3, flexī, flexus
 fleō, 2, -ēvī, -ētus
 -flīgō, 3, -flixī, -flīctus
 flōreō, 2, -uī, —
 flōrēscō, 3, -flōruī, — [flōreō], 290. *a*
 fluō, 3, flūxī, fluxum
 fodiō, 3, fōdī, fossus [for], fārī, fātus. Defective, 265. *c*
 foveō, 2, fōvī, fōtus
 frangō, 3, frēgī, frāctus [-fringō in compounds]
 fremō, 3, fremuī, —
 fricō, 1, fricuī, frictus (fricātus)
 frīgeō, 2, —, —
 frīgēscō, 3, -frixī, — [frīgeō], 290. *a*
 frīgō, 3, frīxī, frīctus
 frondeō, 2, —, —
 fruor, -ī, frūctus sum (fut. part. frūitūrus). Deponent

- fugiō, 3, fūgī, fugitūrus
 fulciō, 4, fulsī, fultus
 fulgēō, 2, fulsī, —; also fulgō, 3
 fundō, 3, fūdī, fūsus
 fungor, -ī, fūnctus sum. Deponent
 furō, 3, —, —
- ganniō, 4, —, —
 gaudeō, gaudere, gāvīsus sum. Semi-deponent, 248
 gemō, 3, genuī, —
 gerō, 3, gessī, gestus
 gestiō, 4, -īvī, —
 gignō, 3, genuī, genitus
 glīscō, 3, —, —
 glūbō, 3, —, —
 gradior, -ī, gressus sum [-gredior in compounds]. Deponent
- habeō, 2, -uī, -itus [-hibeō in most compounds; but praebeō (from prae-hibeō), diribeō (from dis-hibeō), dēbeō (from dē-hibeō)]
 haereō, 2, haesī, haesūrus
 hauriō, 4, hausī, haustus (fut. part. preferably hausūrus)
 havē, see avē
 hebeō, 2, —, —
 hebēscō, 3, —, — [hebeō], 290. a
 hinniō, 4, —, —
 hīscō, 3, —, — [hiō], 290. a
 horreō, 2, horruī, —
 horrēscō, 3, -horruī, — [horreō], 290. a
- iaceō, 2, iacuī, —
 iaciō, 3, iēcī, iactus [-iciō in compounds except superiaciō]
 icō, 3, icī, ictus
 ignōscō, 3, -gnōvī, -gnōtum [nōscō]
- imbuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
 im-mineō, 2, —, — [maneō]
 im-pellō, 3, -pulī -pulsus
 im-pingō, 3, -pēgī, -pāctus [pangō]
 in-cessō, 3, incessīvī, — [incēdō]
 in-cidō, 3, -cīdī, -cāsūrus [cadō]
 in-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]
 in-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]
 in-clūdō, 3, -clūsī, -clūsus [claudō]
 in-colō, 3, -uī, —
 in-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum
 in-cutiō, 3, -cussī, -cussus [quatiō]
 ind-igeō, 2, -uī, — [egeō]
 ind-ipīscor, -ī, -eptus sum [apīscor].
 Deponent
 in-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
 indulgeō, 2, indulī, indultum
 induō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
 in-gredior, -ī, -gressus sum [gradior].
 Deponent
 in-hibeō, 2, -uī, -itus [habeō]
 in-līdō, 3, -līsī, -līsus [laedō]
 in-olēscō, 3, -olēvī, — [alēscō]
 inquam. Defective, 265. b
 in-quirō, 3, -quisīvī, -quisītus [quaerō]
 in-sideō, 2, -sēdī, -sessus [sedeō]
 in-sīdō, 3, -sēdī, -sessus
 in-siliō, 4, -uī, — [saliō]
 in-sistō, 3, -stitī, —
 in-stituō, 3, -uī, -ūtus [statuō]
 in-stō, 1, -stitī, -statūrus
 intel-legō, 3, -lēxī, -lēctus
 inter-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
 irāscor, -ī, irātus sum. Deponent
 iubeō, 2, iussī, iussus
 iungō, 3, iūnxī, iūnctus
 iuvenēscō, 3, —, —, 290. a
 iuvō, 1, iūvī, iūtus (fut. part. also iuvātūrus)

- lābor, -ī, lāpsus sum. Deponent
 lacessō, 3, lacessivī, lacessitus, 290,
b. 1
 laedō, 3, laesī, laesus [-līdō in com-
 pounds]
 lambō, 3, —, —
 langueō, 2, —, —
 languēscō, 3, languī, — [languēō]
 lateō, 2, -uī, —
 lavō, 3, lavī, lautus (lōtus) (also reg-
 ular of the first conjugation)
 legō, 3, lēgī, lēctus [so in most com-
 pounds, but the root vowel
 changes in colligō, dēligō, diligō,
 ēligō, sēligō; and dīligō, intellegō,
 and neglegō have x in the perfect :
 as, dīligō, 3, dīlēxī, dīlēctus]
 libet (early lubet), -ēre, libuit or libi-
 tum est. Impersonal, 266
 liceō, 2, licuī, —
 licet, -ēre, licuit or licitum est (fut.
 part. licitūrum). Impersonal, 266
 -licio, 3, -lexī, -lectus [for *lacio in
 compounds; but ēlicio, 3, ēlicuī,
 ēlicitus]
 linō, 3, lēvī (līvī), litus
 linqūō, 3, liquī, -lictus
 liqueō, 2, licuī, —
 liquēscō, 3, -licuī, — [liqueō], 290. *a*
 liquor, ī, —. Deponent
 liveō, 2, —, —
 loquor, -ī, locūtus sum. Deponent
 lūceō, 2, lūxī, —
 lūcēscō (-ciscō), 3, -lūxī, — [lūceō],
 290. *a*
 lūdō, 3, lūsī, lūsus
 lūgeō, 2, lūxī, —
 luō (*loose*), 3, luī, luitūrus
 -luō (*wash*), 3, -luī, -lūtus
 madeō, 2, maduī, —
 madēscō, 3, maduī, — [madeō],
 290. *a*
 maereō, 2, —, —
 mālō, malle, māluī, —. Irregular,
 255
 mandō, 3, mandī, mānsus
 maneō, 2, mānsī, mānsus
 mānsuēscō, see suēscō
 marcēscō, 3, -marcuī, — [marceō],
 290. *a*
 mātūrēscō, 3, mātūruī, —, 290. *a*
 medeor, -ērī, —. Deponent
 memini, -isse. Defective, 263
 mereō, 2, meruī, meritus, or depo-
 nent, mereor, etc.
 mergō, 3, mersī, mersus
 mētiōr, -īrī, mēnsus sum. Deponent
 metō, 3, messuī, -messus
 metuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
 micō, 1, micuī, — [so in com-
 pounds except dīmicō, 1, -āvī,
 -ātum]
 minuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
 misceō, 2, -cuī, mixtus
 misereor, -ērī, miseritus (rarely
 misertus) sum. Deponent
 miseret. Impersonal, 266
 mītēscō, 3, —, —, 290. *a*
 mittō, 3, mīsī, missus
 mōliōr, -īrī, -ītus sum. Deponent
 molō, 3, moluī, molitus
 mordeō, 2, momordī, morsus
 moriōr, -ī (-īrī), mortuus sum (fut.
 part. moritūrus). Deponent
 moveō, 2, mōvī, mōtus
 mulceō, 2, mulsi, mulsus
 mulgeō, 2, mulsi, mulsus (mulctus)
 muttiō, 4, -īvī, -ītus

nancīscor, -ī, nactus (nānctus) sum.

Deponent

nāscor, -ī, nātus sum. Deponent

necō, 1, -āvī (-uī), -ātus [but ēnecō, 1,

-necūī (-necāvī), -nectus (-necātus)]

nectō, 3, nexī (nexuī), nexus

neg-legō, 3, -lēxī, -lēctus

neō, 2, nēvī, —

nequeō, -quīre, -quīvī, -quītus. De-
fective, 260

nigrēscō, 3, nigrūī, —, 290. *a*

ninguit (ningit), 3, nīnxit. Imper-
sonal, 266

niteō, 2, nituī, —

nitēscō, 3, —, — [niteō], 290. *a*

nītor, -ī, nīsus (nīxus) sum. Deponent

-nīveō, 2, -nīvī (-nīxī), —

nō, 1, nāvī, —

noceō, 2, nocuī, nocitūrus

ñōlō, nōlle, nōluī, —. Irregular, 255

nōscō, 3, nōvī, nōtus [so in com-
pounds, except that agnōscō has
agnitus and cognōscō has cognitus]

nōtēscō, 3, nōtuī, —, 290. *a*

nūbō, 3, nūpsī, nūptum

-nuō, 3, -nuī, —

ob-dō, 3, -didī, -dītus

ob-livīscor, -ī, oblītus sum. Deponent

ob-mūtēscō, 3, -mūtuī, —

ob-sideō, 2, -sēdī, -sessus [sedeō]

ob-sidō, 3, —, —

ob-sistō, 3, -stītī, -stītum

obs-olēscō, 3, -olēvī, -olētum [alēscō]

ob-stō, 1, -stītī, -statūrus

ob-tīneō, 2, -tīnuī, -tētus [teneō]

ob-tingit, 3, obtīgīt [tangō]. Im-
personal, 266

ob-tundō, 3, -tudī, -tūsus (-tūsus)

oc-callēscō, 3, -calluī, — [calleō]

oc-cidō, 3, -cīdī, -cāsus [cadō]

oc-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]

oc-cinō, 3, -cinuī, — [canō]

oc-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]

oc-culō, 3, -culuī, -cultus

oc-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum

ōdī, ōdisse, ōsūrus. Defective, 263

of-ferō, -ferre, obtulī, oblātus.

Irregular, 256. *a*

oleō (*smell*), 2, oluī, —

operiō, 4, operuī, opertus

opōrtet, -ēre, -uit. Impersonal, 266

op-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressus [pēmō]

ōrdior, -īrī, ōrsus sum. Deponent

orior, -īrī, ortus sum (fut. part. oritū-
rus). Deponent; usually of the
third conjugation except in the
present infinitive

os-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus (-tēnsus)

pacīscor, -ī, pactus sum [compound
dēpecīscor]. Deponent

paenitet, -ēre, -uit. Impersonal, 266

palleō, 2, palluī, —

pallēscō, 3, palluī, — [palleō], 290. *a*

pāndō, 3, pandī, pānsus (passus) [so
expandō, but dispanndō or dispendō]

pangō, 3, pepigī (pēgī or pānxi),
pāctus [-pingō in compounds, per-
fect -pēgī]

parcō, 3, pepercī (parsī), parsūrus
[compound compercō or comparcō]

pāreō, 2, -uī, —

pariō, 3, peperī, partus (fut. part.
paritūrus)

partior, -īrī, -ītus sum. Deponent

parturiō, 4, -īyī, — [pariō], 290. *d*

pāscō, 3, pāvī, pāstus

- pateō, 2, patuī, —
 patior, -ī, passus sum [-petior in compounds]. Deponent
 paveō, 2, pāvī, —
 pavescō, 3, -pāvī, — [paveō], 290. *a*
 pectō, 3, pexī, pexus
 pel-liciō, 3, -lexī, -lectus [-liciō]
 pellō, 3, pepulī, pulsus [compounds have -pulī in the perfect, but repellō has reppulī for repepulī]
 pendeō, 2, pependī, -pēnsus [compounds have -pendī in the perfect]
 pendō, 3, pependī, pēnsus [compounds have -pendī in the perfect]
 per-agō, 3, -ēgī, -āctus
 per-cellō, 3, -culī, -culus
 per-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursus
 per-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
 per-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
 per-fringō, 3, -frēgī, -fractus [frangō]
 pergō, 3, perrēxī, perrēctus [regō]
 -periō, 4, -perī, -pertus; also -perior, deponent [so in compounds, but reperiō has perfect repperī]
 per-petior, -ī, -pessus sum [patior]. Deponent
 per-quirō, 3, -quisivī, -quisītus [quaerō]
 per-stō, 1, -stitī, -statūrus
 per-tineō, 2, -uī, — [teneō]
 per-tundō, 3, -tudi, -tūsus
 petessō (petissō), 3, —, — [petō], 290. *b*. 1
 petō, 3, petivī (-iī), petītus
 piget, -ēre, piguit or pigitum est. Impersonal, 266
 pingō, 3, pīnxī, pictus
 pīnsō (pīsō), 3, pīnsuī (pīsivī), pīstus (pīnsītus)
 plangō, 3, plānxī, plānctus
 plaudō, 3, plausī, plausus [so in compounds except explōdō]
 plectō, 3, plexī, plexus
 -plector, -ī, -plexus sum. Deponent
 -pleō, 2, -plēvī, -plētus
 plicō, 1, -plicuī (-plicāvī), -plicitus (-plicātus)
 pluit, 3, pluit (plūvit). Impersonal, 266
 polleō, 2, —, —
 pol-luō, 3, -uī, -ūtus [-luō (*wash*)]
 pōnō, 3, posuī, positus [sinō]
 porr-iciō, 3, —, porrectus [iaciō]
 por-rigō (porgō), 3, -rēxī, -rēctus [regō]
 poscō, 3, poposcī, — [so in compounds], 290. *u*. N.
 pos-sideō, 2, -sēdī, -sessus [sedeō]
 possum, posse, potuī, —. Irregular, 254
 potior, -īrī, -ītus sum. Deponent; usually of the third conjugation in the present system except in the infinitive
 pōtō, 1, -āvī, -ātus (pōtus)
 praebeō, 2, -uī, -itus [habeō]
 prae-cellō, 3, —, —
 prae-cinō, 3, -cinuī, — [canō]
 prae-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), —
 prae-sāgiō, 4, -īvī, —
 prae-sideō, 2, -sēdī, — [sedeō]
 prae-stō, 1, -stitī, -stītum (-stātum)
 prandeō, 2, prandī, prānsus
 pre-hendō, 3, -hendī, -hēnsus, or prēndō, 3, prēndī, prēnsus
 premō, 3, pressī, pressus [-primō in compounds]
 prēndō, seeprehendō
 prō-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum
 prōd-eō, -īre, -iī, -ītum. Irregular, 259. *d*

- prōd-igō, 3, -ēgī, -actus [agō]
 prō-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
 prō-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
 prō-ficiscor, -ī, profectus sum. De-
 ponent
 prō-fiteor, -ērī, professus sum [fateor].
 Deponent
 prō-mineō, 2, -uī, — [maneō]
 prōmō, 3, prōmpsi, prōmptus [emō]
 prō-siliō, 4, -uī (-īvī), — [saliō]
 prō-sum, prōdesse, prōfui, prōfu-
 tūrus. Irregular, 253
 prō-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus (-tēnsus)
 psallō, 3, -ī, —
 pūbescō, 3, pūbuī, —, 290. *a*
 pudet, -ēre, puduit or puditum est.
 Impersonal, 266
 pungō, 3, pupugī, pūctus [perfect
 -pūxī in compounds]
 pūtescō, 3, pūtuī, — [pūteō], 290. *a*

 quaerō, 3, quaesivī, quaesitus [-quīrō
 in compounds]
 quaesō, 3. Defective, 265. *d*
 quatiō, 3, —, quassus [-cutiō, -cussī,
 -cussus in compounds]
 queō, quīre, quīvī, quitus. Defective,
 260
 queror, -ī, questus sum. Deponent
 quiēscō, 3, quiēvī, quiētum, 290. *a*

 rabō (rabiō), 3, —, —
 rādō, 3, rāsī, rāsus
 rapiō, 3, rapuī, raptus [-ripiō, -ripuī,
 -reptus in compounds]
 re-cidō, 3, reccīdī, recāsūrus [cadō]
 re-cidō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]
 re-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]
 re-clūdō, 3, -clūsī, -clūsus [claudō]
- red-dō, 3, reddidī, redditus
 red-igō, 3, -ēgī, -actus [agō]
 red-imō, 3, -ēmī, -ēemptus [emō]
 re-fellō, 3, -fellī, — [fallō]
 re-ferciō, 4, -fersī, -fertus [farcīō]
 re-ferō, -ferre, rettulī, relātus. Ir-
 regular, 256. *a*
 re-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
 regō, 3, rēxī, rēctus [-rīgō in com-
 pounds, but see pergō and surgō]
 re-miniscor, -ī, —. Deponent
 reor, rērī, ratus sum. Deponent
 re-pellō, 3, reppulī, repulsus
 re-periō, 4, repperī, repertus [pariō]
 rēpō, 3, rēpsi, —
 re-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressus [premō]
 re-quirō, 3, -quisivī, -quisitus [quaerō]
 re-sideō, 2, -sēdī, — [sedeō]
 re-siliō, 4, -uī (-īi), — [saliō]
 re-sipiscō, 3, -sipivī, — [sapiō], 290. *a*
 re-sistō, 3, -stitī, -stitum
 re-spergō, 3, -spersī, -spersus [spargō]
 re-spondeō, 2, -spondī, -spōnsus
 re-stō, 1, -stitī, —
 re-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus (-tēnsus)
 re-tineō, 2, -tinuī, -tentus [teneō]
 re-tundō, 3, rettudī, retūnsus (-tūsus)
 rīdeō, 2, rīsī, -rīsus
 rigeō, 2, riguī, —
 rigescō, 3, riguī, — [rigeō], 290. *a*
 rōdō, 3, rōsī, rōsus
 rubeō, 2, —, —
 rubescō, 3, rubuī, — [rubeō], 290. *a*
 rudō, 3, —, —
 rumpō, 3, rūpī, ruptus
 ruō, 3, ruī, -rutus (fut. part. ruitūrus)

 saepiō, 4, saepsī, saeptus
 saliō, 4, saluī, — [-siliō in compounds]

- salvē, salvēre. Defective, 265. *d*
 sanciō, 4, sānxī, sānctus
 sapiō, 3, sapīvī, — [-sipiō in compounds]
 sarcio, 4, sarsī, sartus
 scabō, 3, scābī, —
 scalpō, 3, scalpsī, scalptus
 scandō, 3, -scendi, -scēsus [-scendō in compounds]
 scateō, 2, —, —; also scatō, 3
 scindō, 3, scidī, scissus
 sciō, 3, scīvī, scītus [sciō], 290. *a*
 scribō, 3, scripsī, scrīptus
 sculpō, 3, sculpsī, sculptus
 secō, 1, secuī, sectus
 sedeō, 2, sēdī, sessum [-sideō in compounds except circumsedeō and supersedeō]
 sē-ligō, 3, -lēgī, -lēctus [legō]
 sentiō, 4, sēnsī, sēnsus
 sepeliō, 4, sepelīvī, sepultus
 sequor, -ī, secūtus sum. Deponent
 serō (*entwine*), 3, -seruī, sertus
 serō (*sow*), 3, sēvī, satus
 serpō, 3, serpsī, —
 sīdō, 3, sīdī (-sēdī), -sessum
 sileō, 2, -uī, —
 sinō, 3, sīvī, situs
 sistō, 3, stitī, status
 sitiō, 4, -ivī, —
 soleō, solēre, solitus sum. Semi-deponent, 248
 solvō, 3, solvī, solūtus [luō (*loose*)]
 sonō, 1, -uī, -ātūrus
 sorbeō, 2, sorbuī (rarely sorpsī), —
 spargō, 3, sparsī, sparsus [-spergō in compounds]
 spernō, 3, sprēvī, sprētus
 -spiciō, 3, -spexī, -spectus
 splendeō, 2, —, —
 spondeō, 2, spopondī, spōnsus [perfect -spondī in compounds]
 spuō, 3, -spuī, -spūtus
 squāleō, 2, —, —
 statuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus [-stituō in compounds]
 sternō, 3, strāvī, strātus
 sternuō, 3, -uī, —
 stertō, 3, -stertuī, —
 stinguō, 3, -stīnxī, -stīnctus
 stō, stāre, steti, statūrus [perfect -stitī in most compounds]
 strepō, 3, -uī, —
 strīdeō, 2, strīdī, —; also strīdō, 3
 stringō, 3, strīnxī, strictus
 struō, 3, strūxī, strūctus
 studeō, 2, -uī, —
 stupeō, 2, -uī, —
 stupescō, 3, -stupuī, — [stupeō]
 suādeō, 2, suāsī, suāsus
 sub-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
 sub-igō, 3, -ēgī, -āctus [agō]
 suc-cidō, 3, -cīdī, — [cadō]
 suc-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]
 suc-currō, 3, -currī, -cursum
 suēscō, 3, suēvī, suētus, 290. *a*
 suf-ferō, sufferre, sustulī, sublātus.
 Irregular, 256. *a*
 suf-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
 sūgō, 3, sūxī, sūctus
 sum, esse, fuī, futūrus. Irregular,
 241
 sūmō, 3, sūmpsī, sūmptus [emō]
 suō, 3, -suī, sūtus
 super-fluō, 3, —, —
 surgō, 3, surrēxī, surrēctum [regō]
 sur-ripiō, 3, -ripuī (surpuī), -reptus [rapiō]

- tābeō, 2, —, —
 tābescō, 3, tābuī, — [tābeō], 290. *a*
 taedet, -ēre, taedit or taesum est.
 Impersonal, 266
 tangō, 3, tetigī, tāctus [-tingō, -tigī
 in compounds]
 tegō, 3, tēxī, tēctus
 temnō, 3, -temp̄sī, -temptus
 tendō, 3, tetendī, tentus (tēnsus)
 [perfect -tendī in compounds]
 teneō, 2, tenuī, -tentus [-tineō in
 compounds]
 tergeō, 2, tersī, tersus; also, rarely,
 tergō, 3
 terō, 3, trīvī, trītus
 texō, 3, texuī, textus
 timeō, 2, -uī, —
 -timescō, 3, -timuī, — [timeō], 290. *a*
 tingō (tinguō), 3, tīnxī, tīnctus
 tollō, 3, sustulī, sublātus
 tondeō, 2, -totondī (-tondī), tōnsus
 tonō, 1, tonuī, -tonitum (-tonātum)
 torpeō, 2, —, —
 torqueō, 2, torsī, tortus
 torreō, 2, torruī, tostus
 trā-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
 trahō, 3, trāxī, trāctus
 trāns-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī),
 -cursus
 tremō, 3, tremuī, —
 tribuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
 trūdō, 3, trūsī, trūsus
 tueor, -ēri, tuitus (tūtus) sum. De-
 ponent
 tumeō, 2, —, —
 tumescō, 3, -tumuī, — [tumeō], 290. *a*
 tundō, 3, tudidī, tūnsus (-tūsus)
 [perfect -tudī in compounds, but
 retundō has rettudī for retutudī].
- turgeō, 2, tursī, —
 tussio, 4, —, —
 ulciscor, -ī, ultus sum. Deponent
 unguō (ungō), 3, ūnxī, ūnctus
 urgeō, 2, ursī, —
 ūrō, 3, ussī, ūstus
 ūtor, -ī, ūsus sum. Deponent
 vādō, 3, -vāsī, -vāsūm
 vāgiō, 4, -iī, —
 valeō, 2, -uī, -itūrus
 valēscō, 3, -valuī, — [valeō], 290. *a*
 vehō, 3, vexī, vectus
 vellō, 3, vellī (vulsī), vulsus
 vēndō, 3, -didī, -ditus [vēnum + dō]
 vēneō (*be sold*), -ire, -iī, — [vēnum
 + eō]
 veniō (*come*), 4, vēnī, ventum
 vereor, -ēri, -itus sum. Deponent
 vergō, 3, —, —
 verrō (vorrō), 3, -verrī, versus
 vertō (vörtō), 3, vertī, versus
 vēscor, -ī, —. Deponent
 vesperāscit, 3; vesperāvit. Imper-
 sonal, 266; 290. *a*
 vetō, 1, -uī, -itus
 videō, 2, vidī, vīsus
 vigeō, 2, -uī, —
 vincio, 4, vīnxī, vīnctus
 vincō, 3, vicī, victus
 vireō, 2, -uī, —
 vīsō, 3, vīsī, —
 vīvō, 3, vīxī, vīctum
 volō, velle, voluī, —. Irregular,
 255.
 volvō, 3, volvī, volūtus
 vomō, 3, vomuī, vomitus
 voveō, 2, vōvī, vōtus

PARTICLES

268. Adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections are called particles. They have no inflection.

a. Particles cannot always be distinctly classified, for many adverbs are used also as prepositions and many as conjunctions.

ADVERBS

FORMATION OF ADVERBS

269. Most adverbs are derived from adjectives and, like them, are compared.

270. Regular Formation. Adverbs regularly formed from adjectives end in *-ē* or *-ter*.

a. Adverbs are formed from adjectives of the *first and second declensions* by changing the characteristic vowel of the stem to *-ē*.

cārē, dearly, from cārus, dear (stem cāro-)

amicē, like a friend, from amicus, friendly (stem amīco-)

NOTE. The ending *-ē* is a relic of an old ablative in *-ēd* (cf. § 55. *b*).

b. Adverbs are formed from adjectives of the *third declension* by adding *-ter* to the stem. Stems in *nt-* (nom. *-ns*) lose the *t-*; nearly all others are treated as *i*-stems.

fortiter, bravely, from fortis (stem forti-), brave

ācriter, eagerly, from ācer (stem ācri-), eager

vigilanter, watchfully, from vigilāns (stem vigilant-)

prūdentē, prudently, from prūdens (stem prūdent-)

aliter, otherwise, from alius (old stem ali-)

c. Some adjectives of the first and second declensions have adverbs of both forms (*-ē* and *-ter*): Thus *dūrus, hard*, has both *dūrē* and *dūriter*; *miser, wretched*, has both *miserē* and *miseriter*. A few have only *-ter* as, *violentus, violent*, has only *violenter*.

271. Special Formations. The accusative and ablative of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, especially in the neuter singular, are often used as adverbs. Examples :

a. Accusative neuter singular :

multum, *much* **facile**, *easily* **quid**, *why*

b. Ablative neuter singular :

falsō, *falsely* **eō**, *thither* **forte**, *by chance*
vulgō, *commonly* **quō**, *whither* **crēbrō**, *frequently*

c. Accusative feminine singular or plural :

partim, *partly* **cōram**, *face to face* **aliās**, *at other times*
vicem, *by turns* **quam**, *how* **forās**, *out of doors*

d. Ablative feminine singular or plural :

rēctā, *straightway* **quā**, *where* **forīs**, *out of doors*
postēā, *after wards* **ūnā**, *together* **extrā**, *outside*

272. Other adverbial endings, some of which are case terminations in origin, are -ī or -ē, -tim or -sim, -tus or -itus.

a. The ending -ī or -ē is, originally, a locative case termination.

ibi, *there* **hīc** (for hī-ce), *here* **hodiē**, *to-day*
ubi, *where* **illīc** (for illī-ce), *there* **prīdiē**, *the day before*

b. The ending -tim or -sim originated in accusatives in -tim, like **partim**.

sēparātim, *separately* **cursim**, *quickly* **tribūtīm**, *tribe by tribe*

c. The ending -tus or -itus is of doubtful origin.

funditus, *utterly* **dīvīnitus**, *providentially* **penitus**, *within*

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

273. Adverbs formed from adjectives are similarly compared. The comparative ends in -ius, and is in origin the neuter accusative singular of the comparative of the corresponding adjective. The superlative may be formed from the superlative of the corresponding adjective by changing final -us to -ē. Examples of adverbial comparison are the following :

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
cārē, <i>dearly</i>	cārius	cārissimē
pulchrē, <i>beautifully</i>	pulchrius	pulcherrimē
liberē, <i>freely</i>	liberius	liberrimē
fortiter, <i>bravely</i>	fortius	fortissimē
audācter, <i>boldly</i>	audācius	audācissimē
facile, <i>easily</i>	facilius	facillimē

a. Adverbs are sometimes compared by using the adverbs **magis**, *more*, and **maximē**, *most*, with the positive: as, **apertē**, *openly*, **magis apertē**, **maximē apertē**. Many adverbs are not compared.

274. Irregular or Defective Comparison

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
bene, <i>well</i>	melius, <i>better</i>	optimē, <i>best</i>
diū, <i>a long time</i>	diūtius, <i>longer</i>	diūtissimē, <i>longest</i>
male, <i>ill, badly</i>	peius, <i>worse</i>	pessimē, <i>worst</i>
magnopere multum } <i>greatly</i>	magis, <i>more</i>	maximē, <i>most</i>
multum, <i>much</i>	plūs, <i>more</i>	plūrimum, <i>most</i>
nūper, <i>recently</i>	—————	nūperrimē, <i>most recently</i>
parum, <i>too little</i>	minus, <i>less</i>	minimē, <i>least</i>
—————	potius, <i>rather</i>	potissimum, <i>especially</i>
—————	prius, <i>before</i>	primum, <i>first</i>
prope, <i>near</i>	propius, <i>nearer</i>	proximē, <i>nearest</i>
saepe, <i>often</i>	saepius, <i>oftener</i>	saepissimē, <i>oftenest</i>
satis, <i>enough</i>	satius, <i>better</i>	—————

PREPOSITIONS

275. Prepositions were not originally distinguished from adverbs in form or meaning, and developed from them comparatively late in the history of language. Many of them continued to be used as adverbs after they assumed the function of prepositions.

276. The following prepositions are used with the accusative :

ad, to	iūxtā, near, beside
adversus } over against, towards	ob, on account of
adversum }	penes, in the power of
ante, before	per, through
apud, at, near	pōne, behind
circā } around	post, after
circum }	praeter, beyond, past
circiter, about	prope, near
cis, citrā, on this side of	propter, on account of, near
contrā, against	secundum, next to
ergā, towards (a person)	suprā, above
extrā, outside	trāns, across
infrā, below	ultrā, on the further side of
inter, among, between	versus, towards
intrā, inside	

a. Versus always follows its case : as, *Arpinum versus*, towards *Arpinum*.

277. The following prepositions are used with the ablative :

ā, ab, abs, away from, by	ē, ex, out of
absque, without, but for	prae, in comparison with
cōram, in the presence of	prō, in front of, for the sake of
cum, with	sine, without
dē, from, down from, concerning	tenus, up to, as far as

a. **Ā** is used only before consonants. **Ab** is used before vowels or **h**, and may be used before most consonants. **Abs** is used only in the phrase **abs tē**. **Absque** is very rare.

b. **Ex** is used before vowels or **h**. Before consonants either **ē** or **ex** may be used.

c. **Tenus** always follows its case : as, *capulō tenus*, up to the hilt.

d. **Cum** is usually joined enclitically with all ablative forms of the pronouns **ego**, **tū**, **suī**, **quī**, and **quis** : as, *mēcum*, *tēcum*, *vōbīscum*, *sēcum*, *quōcum*, *quīcum*, *quibuscum*.

NOTE. In poetry and late prose the adverbs **palam**, **procul**, and **simul** are used as prepositions with the ablative.

278. Four prepositions, **in**, **sub**, **subter**, and **super**, are used with either the accusative or the ablative.

a. **In**, *in, into*, and **sub**, *under*, with the accusative denote *motion to or into*, with the ablative *rest in*.

in aedīs vēnit, *he came into the house*

in aedibus erat, *he was in the house*

sub iugum exercitum misit, *he sent the army under the yoke*

sub arbore sēdit, *he sat under a tree*

b. **Super** meaning *about, concerning*, takes the ablative; in all its other senses (*above, beyond, on*, etc.) it usually has the accusative.

c. **Subter**, *beneath*, with the ablative is rare.

CONJUNCTIONS

279. Conjunctions are closely related to adverbs and are of similar origin (cf. § 268. *a*). They are used to connect words, phrases, or sentences, and are of two classes, coördinating and subordinating.

a. Coördinating conjunctions connect expressions of equal rank.

b. Subordinating conjunctions connect a subordinate, or dependent, clause with the clause upon which it depends.

The uses of conjunctions are discussed under the head of syntax (§§ 597 ff.).

INTERJECTIONS

280. Interjections are particles expressing feeling, as *surprise, joy, sorrow*, etc. Some of them are mere natural exclamations; others are derived from inflected parts of speech.

ō lūx Dardaniae, *O light of Dardania!*

iō triumphe, hurrah! *victory!*

heu mē miserum, *alas for poor me!*

heus Syre, *hello there, Syrus!*

euge, puer, *well done, boy!*

a. Names of deities occur as interjections in oaths: as, **hercle**, *by Hercules*; **pol**, *by Pollux*; **ēcastor**, *by Castor*.

FORMATION OF WORDS

281. Most Latin words are either derived from or composed of other simpler words, and, according to their formation, are divided into two classes, derivatives and compounds.

a. Derivatives are formed from stems of nouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs by adding certain endings called suffixes.¹

1. Most suffixes are of pronominal origin, and in many cases their definite meaning is not clear.

b. Compounds are formed by adding together two or more stems or complete words.

armi-ger, *armor-bearer* (cf. **arma**, *arms*; **gerō**, *carry*)

omni-potēns, *omnipotent* (cf. **omnis**, *all*; **potēns**, *powerful*)

septen-decim, *seventeen* (cf. **septem**, *seven*; **decem**, *ten*)

bene-dīcō, *bless* (cf. **bene**, *well*; **dīcō**, *speak*)

I. DERIVATIVES

A. NOUNS

282. Nouns derived from Nouns. **a.** *Diminutives* are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes :

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

riv-ulus, *streamlet*

gladi-olus, *small sword*

fili-olus, *little son*

fili-ola, *little daughter*

rivus, *brook*

gladius, *sword*

filius, *son*

filia, *daughter*

¹ It is the *stem* of the derived word, not the *nominative*, that is formed by the suffix. For convenience, however, the nominative singular will be given.

ātri-olum, <i>little hall</i>	ātrium, <i>hall</i>
fīōs-culus, <i>floweret</i>	fīōs, <i>flower</i>
auri-cula, <i>little ear</i>	auris, <i>ear</i>
mūnus-culum, <i>little gift</i>	mūnus, N., <i>gift</i>
lib-ellus, <i>little book</i>	liber, <i>book</i>
lap-illus, <i>pebble</i>	lapis, <i>stone</i>

1. Diminutives regularly take the gender of the nouns from which they are derived, and may differ from them in meaning: as, **avunculus**, *uncle*, from **avus**, *grandfather*; **ōsculum**, *kiss*, from **ōs**, *mouth*.

2. Diminutives often express affection, pity, or contempt.

dēliciolae, <i>little pet</i>	dēliciae, <i>pet</i>
muliercula, <i>a poor (weak) woman</i>	mulier, <i>woman</i>
Graeculus, <i>a miserable Greek</i>	Graecus, <i>a Greek</i>

b. Nouns denoting *place of keeping or growing* are formed from nouns by means of the neuter suffixes :

-ārium, -ētum or -tum, -ile

aer-ārium, <i>treasury</i>	aes, <i>copper</i>
oliv-ētum, <i>olive grove</i>	olīva, <i>olive</i>
arbus-tum, <i>orchard</i>	arbor, <i>tree</i>
bov-ile, <i>ox stall</i>	bōs, <i>ox</i>

c. Nouns denoting the *person employed about anything* are formed from nouns by means of the masculine suffixes :

-iō, -ārius, -icus

mūl-iō, <i>mule driver</i>	mūlus, <i>mule</i>
falc-ārius, <i>scythe maker</i>	falx, <i>scythe</i>
vīl-icus, <i>steward</i>	vīlla, <i>farm</i>

d. Nouns denoting the *place where a business is carried on* are formed from nouns denoting persons by adding the suffix -ina or -inum.

sūtr-ina, F., <i>cobbler's shop</i>	sūtor, <i>cobbler</i>
tōnstr-ina, F., <i>barber's shop</i>	tōnsor, <i>barber</i>
pīstr-inum, N., <i>gristmill</i>	pīstor, <i>miller</i>

e. Nouns denoting *rank* or *office* are formed from nouns by means of the masculine suffix *-ātus*.

magistr-ātus, *a civil office*
 cōsul-ātus, *office of consul*
 tribūn-ātus, *office of tribune*

magister, *officer*
 cōsul, *consul*
 tribūnus, *tribune*

f. Nouns denoting *characteristic* or *condition* are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes :

-tia, -tās, -tūs, -tium

pueri-tia, F., *boyhood*
 cīvi-tās, F., *citizenship*
 vir-tūs, F., *manhood*
 senec-tūs, F., *old age*
 servi-tium, N., *servitude*
 cōnsor-tium, N., *comradeship*

puer, *boy*
 cīvis, *citizen*
 vir, *man*
 senex, *old man*
 servus, *slave*
 cōnsors, *comrade*

g. Nouns known as patronymics, indicating *descent* or *relationship*, are formed from Greek proper names, or names formed in imitation of the Greek, by means of the endings :

MASC. *-adēs, -idēs, -idēs*

FEM. *-ēis, -ias, -is*

Anchīsi-adēs, *son of Anchises*
 Tantal-idēs, *son of Tantalus*
 Pēl-idēs, *son of Peleus*

Nēr-ēis, *daughter of Nereus*
 Thest-ias, *daughter of Thestius*
 Atlant-is, *daughter of Atlas*

283. Nouns derived from Adjectives. Abstract nouns denoting *quality* or *condition* are formed from adjectives by means of the feminine suffixes :

-ia, -tās, -tia, -tiēs, -tūdō

audāc-ia, *boldness*
 boni-tās, *goodness*
 trīsti-tia, *sadness*
 sēgni-tiēs, *slowness*
 magni-tūdō, *greatness*

audāx, *bold*
 bonus, *good*
 tristis, *sad*
 sēgnis, *slow*
 magnus, *great*

284. Nouns derived from Verbs. *a.* Nouns denoting the *agent* or *doer* are formed from verbs by means of the suffixes :

MASC. **-tor** (-sor)

FEM. **-trix**

can-tor, M., can-trix, F., *singer*

vic-tor, M., vic-trix, F., *victor*

tōn-sor, M., *barber*

peti-tor, M., *candidate*

canere, *sing*

vincere, *conquer*

tondēre, *shear*

petere, *seek*

1. A few nouns in **-tor** are formed from nouns.

viā-tor, *traveler*

iāni-tor, *doorkeeper*

via, *way*

iānua, *door*

b. Nouns denoting *action* or *its result* are formed from verbs by means of the suffixes :

MASC. **-or, -tus** (-sus)

FEM. **-ēs, -iō, -mōnia, -tiō** (-siō), **-tūra**

NEUT. { **-ium, -men, -mentum, -mōnium**
 { **-us** (gen. **-eris** or **-oris**)

tim-or, *fear*

am-or, *love*

audi-tus, *hearing*

vī-sus, *seeing*

sēn-sus, *feeling*

caed-ēs, *slaughter*

leg-iō, *a collecting (levy), legion*

queri-mōnia, *complaint*

vocā-tiō, *calling*

dīvi-siō, *division*

scrip-tūra, *writing*

gaud-ium, *joy*

certā-men, *contest*

ōrnā-mentum, *ornament*

testi-mōnium, *testimony*

gen-us, *birth*

timēre, *fear*

amāre, *love*

audire, *hear*

videre, *see*

sentire, *feel*

caedere, *kill*

legere, *collect*

queri, *complain*

vocare, *call*

dīvidere, *divide*

scribere, *write*

gaudere, *rejoice*

certare, *contend*

ōrnare, *adorn*

testari, *testify*

gen-, root of *gignere, bear*

c. Nouns denoting *means, instrument, or place* are formed from verbs by means of the neuter suffixes :

-bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum, -trum

pā-bulum, <i>fodder</i>	pāscere, <i>feed</i>
sta-bulum, <i>stall</i>	stāre, <i>stand</i>
vehi-culum, <i>wagon</i>	vehere, <i>carry</i>
dēlū-brum, <i>shrine</i>	dēluere, <i>cleanse</i>
sepul-crum, <i>tomb</i>	sepelire, <i>bury</i>
claus-trum (*claud-trum), <i>bar</i>	claudere, <i>shut</i>
arā-trum, <i>plow</i>	arāre, <i>plow</i>

i. A few masculines and feminines of the same formation occur.

fā-bula, <i>tale</i>	fāri, <i>speak</i>
fa-ber, <i>smith</i>	facere, <i>make</i>
late-bra, <i>hiding place</i>	latēre, <i>hide</i>
mulc-tra, <i>milk pail</i>	mulgēre, <i>milk</i>

B. ADJECTIVES

285. Adjectives derived from Nouns. a. Adjectives meaning *full of* are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes :

-ōsus, -lēns, -lentus

fluctu-ōsus, <i>billowy</i>	fluctus, <i>billow</i>
fōrm-ōsus, <i>beautiful</i>	fōrma, <i>beauty</i>
pericul-ōsus, <i>dangerous</i>	periculum, <i>danger</i>
pesti-lēns, pesti-lentus, <i>pestilent</i>	pestis, <i>pest</i>
vīno-lentus, vīn-ōsus, <i>given to drink</i>	vīnum, <i>wine</i>

b. Adjectives meaning *provided with* are formed from nouns by means of the suffix -tus.

togā-tus, <i>wearing a toga</i>	toga, <i>toga</i>
barbā-tus, <i>bearded</i>	barba, <i>beard</i>
turrī-tus, <i>turreted</i>	turris, <i>tower</i>
cornū-tus, <i>horned</i>	cornū, <i>horn</i>

c. Adjectives denoting *material* are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes :

-eus, -āceus, -nus, -neus

aur-eus, <i>golden</i>	aurum, <i>gold</i>
ros-āceus, <i>of roses</i>	rosa, <i>rose</i>
acer-nus, <i>of maple</i>	acer, <i>maple</i>
ebur-neus, <i>of ivory</i>	ebur, <i>ivory</i>

d. Adjectives meaning *belonging to* are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes :

-ālis, -ilis, -ānus, -ēnus, -īnus, -nus
 -āris, -ārius, -icus, -icius, -ius, -cus
 -ester, -īvus, -ēnsis, -timus

1. From *common* nouns :

mort-ālis, <i>mortal</i>	mors, <i>death</i>
vir-ilis, <i>manly</i>	vir, <i>man</i>
mont-ānus, <i>of the mountains</i>	mōns, <i>mountain</i>
terr-ēnus, <i>earthly</i>	terra, <i>earth</i>
libert-īnus, <i>of the class of freedmen</i>	libertus, <i>one's freedman</i>
frāter-nus, <i>fraternal</i>	frāter, <i>brother</i>
vulg-āris, <i>commonplace</i>	vulgus, <i>common people</i>
legiōn-ārius, <i>legionary</i>	legiō, <i>legion</i>
bell-icus, <i>of war</i>	bellum, <i>war</i>
patr-icius, <i>patrician</i>	pater, <i>father</i>
rēg-ius, <i>royal</i>	rēx, <i>king</i>
cīvi-cus, <i>civic</i>	cīvis, <i>citizen</i>
silv-ester, <i>woody</i>	silva, <i>a wood</i>
aest-ivus, <i>of summer</i>	aestās, <i>summer</i>
for-ēnsis, <i>of the forum</i>	forum, <i>forum</i>
fini-timus, <i>on the borders</i>	finis, <i>end, limit</i>

2. From *proper* nouns :

FROM NAMES OF TOWNS

Rōm-ānus, <i>Roman</i>	Rōma, <i>Rome</i>
Corinth-ius, <i>Corinthian</i>	Corinthus, <i>Corinth</i>
Cann-ēnsis, <i>of Cannæ</i>	Cannæ, <i>Cannæ</i>
Athēni-ēnsis, <i>Athenian</i>	Athēnæ, <i>Athens</i>

FROM NAMES OF PERSONS

Sull-ānus, of <i>Sulla</i>	Sulla, <i>Sulla</i>
Mari-ānus, of <i>Marius</i>	Marius, <i>Marius</i>
Caesar-iānus, of <i>Caesar</i>	Caesar, <i>Caesar</i>
Plaut-inus, of <i>Plautus</i>	Plautus, <i>Plautus</i>

NOTE 1. Observe that -iānus is sometimes used instead of -ānus.

FROM NAMES OF COUNTRIES

Gall-icus, <i>Gallic</i>	Gallia, <i>Gaul</i>
Germān-icus, <i>German</i>	Germānia, <i>Germany</i>
Ital-icus, <i>Italian</i>	Italia, <i>Italy</i>
Āfr-icus, <i>African</i>	Āfrica, <i>Africa</i>

NOTE 2. From these adjectives are formed adjectives in -ānus meaning *stationed in* or *associated with* a country, but not native to it.

legiōnēs Gallicānae, *legions stationed in Gaul* (but not made up of Gauls)
 Scīpiō Āfricānus, *Scipio Africanus* (so called from his victories in Africa)

286. Adjectives derived from Adjectives. These are mostly diminutives and are formed like diminutive nouns (§ 282. a).

parv-ulus, <i>very small</i>	parvus, <i>small</i>
pauper-culus, <i>rather poor</i>	pauper, <i>poor</i>
vet-ulus, <i>somewhat old</i>	vetus, <i>old</i>

287. Adjectives derived from Verbs. Adjectives are derived from verbs as follows :

a. Adjectives with *present participial meaning* are formed from verbs by means of the suffixes :

-bundus, -cundus

vītā-bundus, <i>avoiding</i>	vītāre, <i>shun</i>
treme-bundus, <i>trembling</i>	tremere, <i>tremble</i>
mori-bundus, <i>dying, at the point of death</i>	morī, <i>die</i>
fā-cundus, <i>eloquent</i>	fārī, <i>speak</i>
irā-cundus, <i>irascible</i>	cf. irāscī, <i>be angry</i>

b. Adjectives expressing *characteristic* or *tendency* are formed from verbs by means of the suffixes :

-āx, -ulus

pugn-āx, *pugnacious*aud-āx, *bold*crēd-ulus, *credulous*bib-ulus, *fond of drink*pugnāre, *fight*audēre, *dare*crēdere, *believe*bibere, *drink*

c. Adjectives expressing a *state* or *settled condition* are formed from verbs by means of the suffix -dus.

timi-dus, *timid*flōri-dus, *blooming*cupi-dus, *desirous*avi-dus, *greedy*timēre, *fear*flōrere, *bloom*cupere, *desire*avere, *long for*

d. Adjectives expressing *capability* (generally passive) are formed from verbs by means of the suffixes :

-ilis, -bilis

frag-ilis, *breakable, frail*fac-ilis, *able to be done, easy*crēdi-bilis, *capable of belief, credible*amā-bilis, *lovable*frangere, *break*facere, *do*crēdere, *believe*amāre, *love*

288. Adjectives derived from Adverbs. Adjectives are derived from adverbs by means of the suffixes :

-ernus, -ternus, -turnus, -tinus

hodi-ernus, *of to-day*hes-ternus, *of yesterday*diū-turnus, *lasting*crās-tinus, *of to-morrow*hodiē, *to-day*herī, *yesterday*diū, *long time*crās, *to-morrow*

C. VERBS

289. Verbs derived from Nouns or Adjectives. Verbs were formed in Latin from almost every form of noun stem and adjective stem. Most of these verbs are of the first conjugation; but the other conjugations are also represented.

1ST CONJ.	{	fugō, -āre, <i>put to flight</i> ; from fuga, <i>flight</i>
	{	piō, -āre, <i>expiate</i> ; from pius, <i>pure</i>
	{	exsulō, -āre, <i>be in exile</i> ; from exsul, <i>exile</i>
2D CONJ.	{	albeō, -ēre, <i>be white</i> ; from albus, <i>white</i>
	{	clāreō, -ēre, <i>shinē</i> ; from clārus, <i>bright</i>
3D CONJ.	{	metuō, -ere, <i>fear</i> ; from metus, <i>fear</i>
	{	statuō, -ere, <i>set up</i> ; from status, <i>position</i>
4TH CONJ.	{	finiō, -ire, <i>bound</i> ; from finis, <i>end</i>
	{	custōdiō, -ire, <i>guard</i> ; from custōs, <i>guardian</i>

290. Verbs derived from Verbs. Verbs derived from verbs are of four classes.

a. Inceptives or *Inchoatives*, denoting the *beginning* of an action, are formed by adding -scō to the present stem. They are of the third conjugation.

calē-scō, -ere, *grow warm*; from caleō, *be warm*

labā-scō, -ere, *begin to totter*; from labō, *totter*

NOTE. In some of these verbs no inceptive meaning is present: as, poscō, *demand*; quiēscō, *rest*; etc. Many are formed by analogy from nouns and adjectives.

b. Intensives or *Frequentatives*, denoting *forcible* or *repeated* action, are formed from the participial stem and end in -tō (-sō), -itō, or -titō. They are of the first conjugation.

iac-tō, -āre, *hurl*; from iaciō, *throw*

quas-sō, -āre, *shatter*; from quatiō, *shake*

vol-itō, -āre, *flit*; from volō, *fly*

dic-titō, -āre, *keep saying*; from dīcō, *say*

NOTE 1. Intensives from verbs of the first conjugation end in -itō, not -ātō: as, rogitō, from rogō, -āre, *ask*.

NOTE 2. Verbs of this formation sometimes show no intensive or frequentative meaning: as, cantō, *sing*.

1. Another form of intensives, of the third conjugation, ends in **-essō**.

cap-essō, -ere, seize eagerly; from **capīō, take**
fac-essō, -ere, do earnestly; from **faciō, do**

- c. *Diminutives*, denoting feeble action, end in **-illō**. They are rare and of the first conjugation.

cant-illō, -āre, chirp; from **cantō, sing**
sorb-illō, -āre, sip; from **sorbeō, drink**

- d. *Desideratives*, denoting desire, end in **-turiō** or **-suriō**. They are of the fourth conjugation, and only two are in common use:

par-turiō, -īre, be in labor; from **pariō, bear**
ē-suriō, -īre, be hungry; from **edō, eat**

II. COMPOUNDS

291. Compound words usually consist of two parts. The second part gives the essential meaning, and this is changed or modified in some way by the first part.

armi-ger, armor-bearer **omni-pōtēns, omnipotent, all-powerful**

292. Compounds may be formed in three ways:

- a. By the union of two or more words without change of form or meaning.

EXAMPLES: **pater-familiās, father of a family**; **senātūs-cōnsultum, decree of the senate**; **iūs-iūrandum, oath**; **aquae-ductus, aqueduct**; **hāc-tenus, thus far**; **quem-ad-modum, in what way**; **bene-faciō, benefit**.

NOTE. In this case the words retain their identity and are often written separately. There is no real *composition*, but merely *juxtaposition*. These are sometimes called syntactic compounds.

- b. By prefixing an indeclinable particle, usually a preposition.

EXAMPLES: **per-paucī, very few**; **sub-rūsticus, rather clownish**; **in-imicus, unfriendly**; **ad-vena, stranger**; **inter-ficiō, kill**; **ē-discō, learn by heart**; **amb-iō, go about**; **sē-cernō, separate**.

NOTE. In this case the meaning of the compound is generally unlike that of the component parts used separately.

c. By uniting two or more stems and adding inflectional suffixes when necessary.

EXAMPLES: **magnanimus** (**magno-** + **animus**), *high-minded*; **agricola** (**agro-** + **cola**), *farmer*; **carnifex** (**carn-** + **fex**), *executioner*; **princeps** (**primo-** + **ceps**), *chief*.

NOTE. In this case the stem vowel of the first part of the compound is dropped before a vowel and appears as *i* before consonants. Consonant stems usually add *i*.

293. Some compounds are derived from phrases so changed as to force them into the inflections of nouns.

prō-cōnsul, *proconsul* (for **prō cōnsule**, *instead of a consul*)
trium-vir, *triumvir* (singular, from **trium virōrum**, *of three men*)

INDECLINABLE PREFIXES

294. The indeclinable prefixes used in forming compounds are either *separable* or *inseparable*. Separable prefixes may generally be used separately as adverbs or prepositions. Inseparable prefixes are never so used.

Prepositions in composition sometimes retain their original adverbial sense.

a. **Separable Prefixes**, used also as prepositions or adverbs, are:

ā , ab , abs , <i>away</i>	ā-mittō , <i>send away</i>
ad , <i>to, towards</i>	ad-dūcō , <i>lead to</i>
ante , <i>before</i>	ante-currō , <i>run before</i>
circum , <i>around</i>	circum-eō , <i>go around</i>
com- , con- (cum), <i>together, forcibly, completely</i>	con-veniō , <i>come together</i>
	cōn-ficiō , <i>do completely, finish</i>
dē , <i>down, utterly</i>	dē-spiciō , <i>look down upon, despise</i>
	dē-struō , <i>destroy</i>
ē , ex , <i>out</i>	ē-iciō , <i>throw out</i>
in (with verbs), <i>in, on, against</i>	in-eō , <i>go in</i>
	in-ferō , <i>bear against</i>
inter , <i>between, together</i> (sometimes causing interruption or ruin)	inter-ficiō , <i>kill</i>
	inter-rumpō , <i>interrupt</i>

intrō , <i>within</i>	intrō-mittō , <i>send within</i>
ob , obs- , <i>towards, to meet, against</i>	op-pugnō , <i>fight against</i>
per , <i>through, thoroughly</i>	{ per-veniō , <i>come through, arrive</i>
post , <i>after</i>	{ per-discō , <i>learn thoroughly</i>
prae , <i>before</i>	post-habeō , <i>regard after, esteem less</i>
praeter , <i>beside, past</i>	prae-ferō , <i>bear before, prefer</i>
prō , prōd- , <i>forth, before</i>	praeter-eō , <i>go past, pass by</i>
retrō , <i>back</i>	{ prō-ferō , <i>bear forth</i>
sub , subs- , <i>under, somewhat</i>	{ prōd-eō , <i>go forth</i>
super , <i>over, upon</i>	retrō-cēdō , <i>go back</i>
suprā , <i>over</i>	{ sub-eō , <i>go under</i>
trāns , trā- , <i>across</i>	{ sub-tristis , <i>somewhat sad</i>
	super-fluō , <i>overflow</i>
	suprā-scandō , <i>climb over</i>
	{ trān-siliō , <i>leap across</i>
	{ trā-dō , <i>betray</i>

b. Inseparable Prefixes, used only in composition, are :

amb- , am- , <i>about, around</i>	amb-iō (§ 259. c), <i>go about</i>
dis- , ¹ dī- , <i>apart, asunder</i>	dis-cēdō , <i>go away</i>
in- , <i>not, un-</i> (common with adjectives and adverbs, and to be distinguished from the preposition in usually compounded with verbs)	{ im-memor , <i>unmindful</i>
	{ in-eptus , <i>clumsy</i>
por- , <i>forth</i>	por-tendō , <i>stretch forth</i>
re- , red- , <i>back, again</i>	{ re-vertō , <i>turn back</i>
sē- , sēd- , <i>apart</i>	{ red-eō , <i>go back</i>
vē- , <i>not, without</i>	{ sē-dūcō , <i>lead apart</i>
	{ sēd-itiō , <i>revolt (lit. a going apart)</i>
	vē-sānus , <i>not sane</i>

On the formation of adverbs see §§ 269 ff.

¹ **dis-** may have a negative or intensive meaning : as, **dis-pliceō**, *displease* ; **dis-perdō**, *ruin utterly*.

PART III. SYNTAX

295. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.

THE SENTENCE

296. A sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought. Sentences are of four kinds :

1. DECLARATIVE SENTENCES make a statement.

canis currit, the dog runs

2. INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES ask a question.

canisne currit, does the dog run ?

3. EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES have the force of an exclamation.

quam celeriter currit canis, how fast the dog runs !

4. IMPERATIVE SENTENCES express a command, exhortation, or entreaty.

dēsilitē, commilitōnēs, jump down, comrades

eāmus, let us go

currat canis, let the dog run

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

297. Every sentence consists of a subject and a predicate.

The Subject is the *person or thing about which something is said.*

The Predicate is *that which is said of the subject.*

Thus, in *equitēs ad Caesarem vēnērunt*, *the cavalry came to Caesar*, *equitēs* is the subject, and *ad Caesarem vēnērunt* is the predicate.

a. The subject may be implied in the personal ending of the verb, and thus a sentence may consist of a single word.

sedē-mus, *we are sitting*
crēdu-nt, *they believe*

curri-tis, *you are running*
rīs-istī, *you laughed*

b. The subject may be some word or group of words used as a noun.

haec perficere est facile, to accomplish these things is easy
accidit ut plēna lūna esset, it happened that the moon was full

SIMPLE, COMPOUND, AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

298. A Simple Sentence contains but one subject and one predicate.

Caesar Gallōs vīcit, Caesar conquered the Gauls

299. A Compound Sentence consists of two or more independent simple sentences related in thought. Each member of a compound sentence is called a *clause*, and the clauses are said to be *coördinate*, that is, "of equal rank," and are often joined by coördinating conjunctions (§ 279. a).

Caesar Gallōs vīcit et Rōmānī gaudēbant, Caesar conquered the Gauls and the Romans rejoiced

vēnī, vīdī, vīcī, I came, I saw, I conquered. [Observe that this compound sentence consists of three independent coördinate clauses, related in thought but not joined by conjunctions.]

300. A Complex Sentence consists of an independent simple sentence, known as the principal or main clause, modified by one or more dependent sentences, known as the subordinate or dependent clauses.

Rōmānī gāvīsī sunt quod Caesar Gallōs vīcerat, the Romans rejoiced because Caesar had conquered the Gauls

Here the complex sentence consists of the principal or main clause *Rōmānī gāvīsī sunt*, and the subordinate or dependent clause *quod Caesar Gallōs vīcerat*.

NOTE. A complex sentence often contains more than one subordinate clause, and a subordinate clause may itself be modified by other subordinate clauses.

Labiēnō imperāvit ut pontem interscinderet et equitātum praemitteret, *he commanded Labienus to destroy the bridge and send forward the cavalry.* [Two subordinate clauses modifying the principal clause **Labiēnō imperāvit.**]

Labiēnō imperāvit ut interscinderet pontem quī flūmen iungeret, *he commanded Labienus to destroy the bridge which spanned the river.* [Two subordinate clauses, of which **quī . . . iungeret** is subordinate to **ut . . . pontem**, which is itself subordinate to the principal clause **Labiēnō imperāvit.**]

PHRASES AND SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

301. A Phrase is a group of connected words not containing a subject and a predicate.

302. A phrase is often equivalent to a part of speech, especially to an adjective or an adverb.

Thus, in the sentence **vir fuit summā nōbilitāte,** *he was a man of the highest nobility,* the words **summā nōbilitāte,** *of the highest nobility,* are equivalent to the adjective **nōbilis,** *noble* (or **nōbilissimus,** *very noble*), and are called an *adjective phrase*.

Again, in the sentence **magnā celeritāte vēnit,** *he came with great speed,* the words **magnā celeritāte,** *with great speed,* are equivalent to the adverb **celeriter,** *quickly* (or **celerrimē,** *very quickly*), and are called an *adverbial phrase*.

303. A Subordinate Clause always has a finite verb or an infinitive in the predicate, and takes the place of some part of speech in its relation to the principal clause.

304. There are three kinds of subordinate clauses: noun (or substantive) clauses, adjective clauses, and adverbial clauses.

a. A noun (or substantive) clause takes the place of a noun.

fieri potest ut tū rēctē sentiās, *it is possible that you think rightly.*
[Here **ut tū rēctē sentiās** is a noun clause, the subject of **potest.**]

b. An adjective clause defines or modifies some noun or pronoun and is introduced by a relative pronoun or adverb.

Cōnsidius, quī rei militāris perītissimus habēbātur, cum explorātōribus praemittitur, Considius, who was considered very skilful in warfare, is sent in advance with scouts. [Here the clause *quī . . . habēbātur* is equivalent to an adjective modifying *Cōnsidius*.]
agrī ubi hadiē est haec urbs, the fields where to-day this city stands

c. An adverbial clause expresses some adverbial relation, such as purpose, result, time, or cause.

veniunt ut pācem petant, they come to seek peace. [The adverbial clause *ut . . . petant* expresses purpose.]

NOTE. A subordinate clause is incapable, by itself, of expressing a complete meaning.

SYNTAX OF NOUNS

PREDICATE NOUNS

305. A predicate noun is a noun in the predicate *describing* or *defining* the subject. It is connected with the subject by a form of **sum** or by an intransitive or passive verb.

a. The verb **sum** thus used as a connective is called the *copula*. When an intransitive or passive verb is used in the same way, it is called a *copulative* verb.

Caesar erat cōsul, Caesar was consul
ego patrōnus exstīti, I have come forward as an advocate
Caesar cōsul creātus est, Caesar was elected consul

306. A predicate noun agrees in case with the subject.

Ariovistus erat rēx, Ariovistus was king
Cicerō orātor clārissimus habitus est, Cicero was regarded as a most distinguished orator
somnus est imāgō mortis, sleep is the image of death

307. A predicate noun referring to two or more singular nouns is in the plural.

Claudius et Servilius cōsulēs factī sunt, Claudius and Servilius were elected consuls

308. When a predicate noun has different forms for different genders, it agrees with the subject in gender as well as in case.

ūsus magister est, experience is an instructor
historia est magistra, history is an instructress

309. In addition to *sum* the verbs most commonly used to connect a predicate noun with the subject are :

a. Intransitive verbs of *becoming, appearing, remaining, etc.* : *as, ēvādō, appāreō, maneō.*

b. The passive of verbs of *making, calling, choosing, regarding, etc.* : *as, creor, appellor, dēligor, habeor, iūdicor.*

homō magnus ēvāserat, he had become a great man
pater ā senātū populī Rōmānī amīcus appellātus erat, his father had been called friend by the senate of the Roman people
ducēs ii dēliguntur, those (men) are chosen as leaders

310. *Sum* in the sense of *exist* is not a copula, but makes a complete predicate without a predicate noun or adjective. It is then called the *substantive* verb.

sunt virī fortēs, there are (exist) brave men
est classis in portū, there is a fleet in the harbor

APPOSITIVES

311. A noun used to *describe* another, and standing in the same part of the sentence with the noun described, is called an appositive, and is said to be *in apposition*.

Cassius cōsul occīsus est, Cassius, the consul, was killed
persuādēt Rauracīs finitimīs, they persuade the Rauraci, their neighbors

312. An appositive agrees in case with the noun which it describes.

oppidum Rēmōrum nōmine Bibrax aberat mīlia passuum octō, a town of the Remi, Bibrax by name, was eight miles away. [Here the appositive belongs to the subject.]

Caesar T. Labiēnum lēgātum misit, Caesar sent Titus Labienus, the lieutenant. [Here both nouns are in the predicate.]

a. An appositive generally agrees with its noun in gender and number when it can.

sequuntur nātūram optimam ducem, they follow nature, the best guide.
[Observe that *ducem* is here feminine.]

omnium doctrinārum inventricēs Athēnae, Athens, the discoverer of all learning. [Observe that *inventricēs* is plural and feminine.]

b. Words expressing *parts* may be in apposition with a noun denoting the whole. This is called *partitive* apposition, and is especially common with *quisque, uterque, alius . . . alius*, and *alter . . . alter*.

Hannibal trānsfugās in suam quemque civitātem dīmisit, Hannibal sent the deserters each to his own state

duo cōsulēs eius annī alter ferrō, alter morbō periit, the two consuls of that year perished, the one by the sword, the other by disease

NOTE. For the explanatory genitive used instead of an appositive see § 335.

313. *Urbs* or *oppidum* in apposition with the locative case (§ 74. *a*) of the name of a town is put in the ablative, with or without the preposition *in*.

Antiochiaē, celebrī quondam urbe, at Antioch, once a famous city

Albae cōstitērunt, in urbe mūnitā, they halted at Alba, a fortified town

314. A clause or an infinitive may be used as an appositive.

illud etiam restiterat, ut tē in iūs ēdūcerent, this too remained — that they should drag you into court

stultitia haec sit, mē tibi meam operam pollicitārī, this would be folly, for me to offer you my assistance

315. An appositive is frequently equivalent to a relative clause, or to a clause of time or cause. Especially common in this construction are official titles and words like *adulēscēns*, *puer*, *senex*, etc., expressing time of life.

Cicerō cōsul Catilinam ex urbe ēiēcit, Cicero, $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{who} \\ \textit{since he} \\ \textit{when he} \end{array} \right\}$ *was consul,*

expelled Catiline from the city

Catō senex historiam scribere instituit, Cato began to write history
when he was an old man

THE NOMINATIVE CASE

316. The subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case. The finite verb includes all forms of the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative.

Caesar Rhēnum trānsire dēcrēverat, Caesar had determined to cross the
Rhine

a. The subject is usually a noun or a pronoun, but it may be a clause or an infinitive.

accidit ut esset lūna plēna, it happened that it was full moon. [The subject is the clause *ut esset* etc.]

dolēre malum est, to suffer pain is an evil. [The subject is the infinitive *dolēre*.]

317. Impersonal verbs and the passive of many intransitive verbs may be used without any subject expressed.

pluit, it rains

sic itur ad astra, thus men rise to the stars (itur, lit. there is going)

ācritur pugnātum est, there was sharp fighting (lit. it was fought sharply)

318. A personal pronoun, unless it is emphatic, is regularly omitted as subject, being implied in the personal ending of the verb.

significāmus quid sentiāmus, we show what we think

319. The nominative may be used in exclamations, but the accusative is more common (cf. § 436).

ēn dextra fidēsque, lo, the faith and plighted word!

NOTE. For the nominative used instead of the vocative see § 322.

320. The nominative is used as the subject of the historical infinitive (§ 844).

Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, Cæsar demanded grain from the Hædui

THE VOCATIVE CASE

321. The vocative is the case of direct address.

dēsilitē, commilitōnēs, leap down, comrades
ēgrederē ex urbe, Catilīna, depart from the city, Catiline

322. The nominative is sometimes used instead of the vocative.

audī tū, populus Albānus, hear thou, people of Alba

323. In poetry the nominative of an adjective is sometimes used with a vocative.

nāte, mea magna potentia sōlus, my son, thou alone my great power
prōice tēla, sanguis meus, cast away thy weapons, son of mine

THE GENITIVE CASE

324. The genitive is used with nouns, adjectives, verbs, and rarely with adverbs.¹

¹ The genitive case was used with nouns, adjectives, and verbs from the earliest period of the language to express a great variety of ideas. With nouns and adjectives it served to define or complete the meaning in any way suggested by the context, and it is this adnominal use that distinguishes the genitive from the other cases. Its use with verbs is still more difficult of exact definition. There being, then, no single fundamental value attached to the genitive, it follows that its constructions are extremely hard to classify. The categories given below include most of its recognized uses, and serve as a grammatical convenience; but many expressions remain which do not logically belong under any recognized category.

325. The relation of the genitive to the word that it limits is generally expressed in English by the preposition *of* or by the possessive case; but other translations must often be used.

libri Cicerōnis, *the books of Cicero or Cicero's books*
 talentum aurī, *a talent of gold*
 vir summae virtūtis, *a man of the greatest courage*
 vacātiō labōris, *a respite from toil*
 petitiō cōsulātūs, *candidacy for the consulship*
 rēgnum cīvitātis, *sovereignty over the state*
 perītus rei mīlītāris, *skilful in warfare*
 insuētus labōris, *unused to toil*
 capitis damnātus, *condemned on a capital charge*
 cāritās tuī, *affection for you*

326. Most of the uses of the genitive may be classified as either *subjective* or *objective*.

I. The Subjective Genitive is generally used with nouns, and denotes the subject of the action or feeling expressed by the modified word, or the author, cause, or possessor of something.

amor patris, <i>the father's love</i>	ōrātiōnēs Cicerōnis, <i>Cicero's orations</i>
iter exercitūs, <i>the army's march</i>	domus Caesaris, <i>Cæsar's house</i>

II. The Objective Genitive is used with certain kinds of nouns, adjectives, and verbs, and denotes the object toward which the action or feeling expressed by the modified word is directed.

amor patriae, *love of country*
 famēs aurī, *greed for gold*
 metus deōrum, *the fear of the gods*
 avidus laudis, *desirous of praise*
 dux memor vestrī, *a leader mindful of you*
 vivōrum meminī, *I remember the living*

NOTE. When a genitive modifies a noun denoting action or feeling, the context will generally show whether the genitive is *subjective* or *objective*. For example, if amor patris, *love of a father*, means that the father loves, the genitive is *subjective*; on the other hand, if the meaning intended is that the father is the object of some one's love, the genitive is *objective*.

I. THE SUBJECTIVE GENITIVE

327. The subjective genitive includes the following constructions :

1. Possessive genitive (§ 328).
2. Explanatory genitive (§ 335).
3. Genitive of the charge (§ 336).
4. Genitive of description (§ 338).
5. Genitive of measure (§ 340).
6. Genitive of indefinite value (§ 341).
7. Genitive of the whole, or partitive genitive (§ 342).
8. Genitive of material (§ 348).
9. Genitive with verbs and adjectives of plenty or want (§ 349).
10. Genitive with adjectives denoting similarity or connection and their opposites (§ 351).
11. Genitive with *rēfert* and *interest* (§ 352).

328. Possessive Genitive. The possessive genitive denotes the person or thing to which something belongs or is in some way related.

librī Cicerōnis, Cicero's books
' Ariovistī exercitus, the army of Ariovistus
Alexandrī equus, Alexander's horse
pericula proelī, the dangers of the battle

NOTE. Here belongs the genitive of the *person acting or feeling*.

itinerā Caesaris, Caesar's marches
timor cōsulis, the consul's fear

329. A possessive adjective is regularly used instead of the possessive genitive of a personal or reflexive pronoun and may be used for the possessive genitive of a noun.

- *liber meus, my book* ; not *liber meī*
- *filius suus, his son* ; not *filius suī*
- *mūniceps Amerīnus, a citizen of the free town Ameria*

330. The possessive genitive often stands in the predicate, especially after the verb *sum*.

In this construction the genitive may express ownership or various kindred ideas : as, *the part of, duty of, characteristic of*.

haec domus est patris meī, this house is my father's
summa laus Brūtī est, the highest praise belongs to Brutus
timidī est optāre necem, it is the coward's part to wish for death
sapientis est pauca loquī, it is characteristic of a wise man to say little

331. The genitive with *causā, grātiā,*¹ and *īnstar* is possessive in character.

patriae causā, for the sake of the fatherland
amicī grātiā, for the sake of my friend
equus īnstar montis, a horse as big as a mountain (lit. a horse the likeness of a mountain)

NOTE. With *causā* and *grātiā*, *for the sake of*, the genitive always precedes.

332. Here belong the genitives expressing the relation connected with.

difficultātēs bellī gerendī, the difficulties of (i.e. connected with) waging the war

333. The noun on which the genitive depends is sometimes omitted when it may be readily supplied.

Flaccus Claudī, Flaccus (the slave) of Claudius
Hectoris Andromachē, Andromache (the wife) of Hector
ventum est ad Vestae, we came to Vesta's (temple)

NOTE. Observe the similar English usage in such expressions as *St. John's* (church), *St. Paul's* (school), *Wanamaker's* (store).

334. The English use of *that* in such sentences as "the fleet of the Britons is larger than *that* of the Gauls" has no parallel in

¹ That the genitive preceding *causā* and *grātiā* is subjective and possessive is made clear by observing that *patriae causā* is equivalent in meaning to the English "in our country's cause," and *amicī grātiā* to "because of the favor which my friend inspires."

Latin. In Latin the noun is repeated, or else it is dropped, leaving the genitive without a governing word.

classis Britannōrum maior est quam classis Gallōrum or *classis Britannōrum maior est quam Gallōrum*, *the fleet of the Britons is larger than that of the Gauls*

335. Explanatory Genitive. The genitive is sometimes used instead of an appositive (§ 311), to explain or define the meaning of a noun.

oppidum Genāvae, *the town of Geneva* (for *oppidum Genāva*)
vōx voluptātis, *the word (of) pleasure* (for *vōx voluptās*)

336. Genitive of the Charge. Verbs of *accusing*, *condemning*, and *acquitting* take the genitive of the charge.¹

arguit mē furti, *he accuses me of theft*
pecūniæ publicæ damnātus est, *he was condemned for embezzlement*
improbittātis absolūtus est, *he was acquitted of dishonesty*

a. The ablative with *dē* is often used instead of the genitive.

dē ambitū condemnātus est, *he was condemned for bribery*

337. The *penalty* is regularly expressed by the ablative (§ 473), though the genitives *capitis*, *pecūniæ*, and a few others occur.

tertiā parte agrī damnāti sunt, *they were condemned (to pay) a third part of their land*
capitis damnātus, *condemned to death*
pecūniæ damnātus, *condemned (to pay) money*
longi labōris damnātus, *condemned to long labor*

338. Genitive of Description. The genitive of a noun with an adjective in agreement is often used to describe a person or thing.

vir magnæ sapientiæ, *a man of great wisdom*
eius modī nāvēs, *ships of that sort*
huius generis domus, *a house of this kind*
puer egregiæ indolis, *a boy of remarkable ability*

¹ This genitive is often explained as depending on *crimine* (*charge*), or a similar word, understood. Sometimes *crimine* is expressed, but not in early Latin, a fact which renders this explanation doubtful.

- a. The genitive of description frequently stands in the predicate.

tantae mōlis erat Rōmānam condere gentem, (of) such a task it was to found the Roman nation

NOTE. The ablative is used to describe a *quality* more frequently than the genitive (see § 466). In general the genitive is used rather of *permanent* and *essential*, the ablative of *incidental* and *external*, characteristics.

339. Included under the genitive of description are the genitive of measure and the genitive of indefinite value.

340. **Genitive of Measure.** The genitive with a numeral is used to define *measures of length, depth, etc.*

fossa trium pedum, a trench of three feet (in depth)

puer decem annōrum, a boy of ten years

iter unius diēi, a march of one day

341. **Genitive of Indefinite Value.** The genitive of a few nouns and adjectives denotes indefinite value.

nōn floccī faciō, I don't care a straw

istoc nihīlī pendō, I care nothing for it

tantī Gracchum fēcit, he valued Gracchus so highly

auctōritās eius in his regiōnibus magnī habēbātur, his influence in these districts was considered of great weight

NOTE. Among such genitives are the nouns *floccī, a straw* (lit. *a bit of wool*); *naucī, a nutshell*; *nihīlī, nothing*; and the adjectives *magnī, plūris, plūrimī, parvī, minōris, minimī, tantī, and quantī.*

a. The genitives *tantī, quantī, plūris, and minōris* are used with verbs of *buying* and *selling* to denote *indefinite price.*

quantī ēmptum est, at what price was it bought?

NOTE. Definite price is expressed by the ablative. See § 470.

342. **Genitive of the Whole (Partitive Genitive).** The genitive is used to denote the *whole* of which a *part* is taken.

This is often called the partitive genitive. The word denoting the *part* may be a noun, pronoun, adjective used substantively, or an adverb.

magna pars nāvium, a great part of the ships

nēmō eōrum, not one of them

decem mīlia passuum, ten thousand paces (lit. *ten thousands of paces*)
quis mortālium, who of mortals?

aliquid bonī, something good (of good)

quis vestrum, who of you?

quid novī, what news (of new)?

omnium orātōrum praestantissimus, the most distinguished of all orators

multī civium, many of the citizens

minor frātrum, the younger of the brothers

multum pecūniae, much money

eō miseriarum, to that (pitch) of misery

NOTE. The partitive genitive is not used with words modified by prepositions nor with cases other than the nominative and accusative.

ad tantum studium, to such zeal; not *ad tantum studī*

nimiā voluptāte, with excessive pleasure; not *nimiā voluptātis*

343. Certain adverbs are used with the genitive of the whole like substantives. These are especially *nimis*, *too much*; *parum*, *too little*; *satis*, *enough*; and adverbs of place.

nimis lūcis, too much light (of light)

parum sapientiae, too little wisdom (of wisdom)

satis pecūniae, enough money (of money)

ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world (where of nations) *are we?*

nusquam gentium, nowhere on earth (of nations)

NOTE. An extension of this usage, with complete loss of the partitive idea, is seen in the expressions *prīdiē eius diē, on the day before that day*; and *postrīdiē eius diē, on the day after that day*.

344. The ablative with *ē*, *ex*, or *dē* is often used instead of the genitive of the whole, *regularly* with cardinal numerals (except *mīlia*) and *usually* with *quīdam*.

ūnus ex tribūnīs, one of the tribunes

quīdam ex militibus, certain of the soldiers

345. Words including the *whole* are not used with the partitive genitive, but with a case in agreement.

tōta urbs, the whole of the city

nōs omnēs, all of us (we all); not omnēs nostrum

quot sunt hostēs, how many of the enemy are there?

NOTE. The explanation of this is obvious from § 342. If the *whole* is taken, no *partitive* idea is logical.

346. The English idiom uses *of* in certain common phrases (like *the middle of, the top of, the end of, etc.*) in which the Latin has an adjective in agreement.

media urbs, the middle of the city

summus mōns, the top of the mountain

extrēma aestās, the end of the summer

347. Adjectives of the third declension are rarely found in the partitive genitive, but agree directly with the nouns they modify.

nihil grave, nothing serious; not nihil gravis

quid ūtile, what advantage; not quid ūtilis

348. Genitive of Material. The genitive may denote the *material* of which a thing consists or is made.

talentum aurī, a talent of gold

flūmina lactis, rivers of milk

nāvis aeris, a ship of bronze

NOTE. The genitive of material is an extension of the genitive of the whole.

a. Material is often expressed by the ablative with *ex*. See § 452.

349. Genitive of Plenty or Want. Adjectives and verbs of plenty or want sometimes govern the genitive.

plēnus fidēi, full of loyalty

virtūtis expers, devoid of virtue

convīvium vicinōrum compleō, I fill up the banquet with my neighbors

implentur veteris Bacchī, they take their fill of old wine

auxiliū tuī indigeō, I have need of your aid

NOTE. This construction is an extension of the genitive of the whole.

350. Plenty or want is more usually denoted by the ablative (see § 469. *d*). Words preferring the genitive are the adjectives *expers*, *inops*, *egēnus*, and *plēnus*, and the verb *indigeō*.

351. Genitive with Adjectives of Similarity or Connection. Certain adjectives denoting similarity or connection and their opposites may take the genitive.

Among these are *similis*, *dissimilis*, *pār*, *dispār*, *contrārius*, *adfinis*, *proprius*, *commūnis*.

Crassus Cūrī et Alexandrī similis esse voluit, Crassus wished to be like Cyrus and Alexander

id vitium nōn proprium senectūtis est, that fault is not characteristic of old age

haec quaestiō commūnis est omnium philosophōrum, this question is common to all philosophers

NOTE. These adjectives are often found with other constructions, especially with the dative (cf. § 397); but the genitive is more usual with *proprius*. In early Latin *similis* was construed with the genitive only, but later the dative became more and more frequent and in post-Augustan Latin displaced the genitive almost entirely.

352. Genitive with *rēfert* and *interest*. With the impersonal verbs *rēfert* and *interest* the person or thing interested is denoted by the genitive.¹

But instead of the genitive of the personal pronouns (*meī*, *tuī*, *suī*, etc.), the ablative singular feminine of the corresponding possessive (*meā*, *tuā*, *suā*, etc.) is used.²

Caesaris interest, it is to Caesar's interest

interest rēgis tuērī subditōs, it is of interest to a king to protect his subjects

meā rēfert, it is to my interest, it matters to me

nostrā interest, it is to our interest, it matters to us

¹ In early Latin *rēfert* is more frequent than *interest*, but is rare at all periods with the genitive of the person.

² No wholly satisfactory solution of the origin of this construction has been found.

a. The *subject* of the interest is denoted by a neuter pronoun, an infinitive, or a substantive clause.

hoc Caesaris interest, this is to Cæsar's interest

vincere Gallōs Caesaris interest, to conquer the Gauls is to Cæsar's interest

rei pūblicae interest ut Cæsar salvus sit, Cæsar's safety is to the interest of the state

b. The *degree* of the interest is denoted by a genitive of indefinite value, by an adverb, or by the neuter accusative of an adjective used adverbially.

magnī } *Caesaris interest, it is* { *greatly*
maximē } { *exceedingly*
multum } { *much* } *to Cæsar's interest*

c. The *object* to be gained by securing the subject of the interest is expressed by the accusative with *ad*.

ad glōriam vincere Gallōs Caesaris interest, to conquer the Gauls is of interest to Cæsar for (the sake of his) fame

fortiter pugnare meā et omnium civium ad salutem patriae magnī rēfert, to fight bravely is of great importance to me and to all citizens for the safety of our country

NOTE. Very rarely the *person* interested is expressed by *ad* and the accusative, or (with *rēfert*) by the dative.

quid id ad mē rēfert, what difference does that make to me?

quid rēferat intrā nātūrae finis vīventī, what difference does it make to one living within the bounds of nature?

II. THE OBJECTIVE GENITIVE

353. The objective genitive includes the following constructions :

1. The genitive with nouns expressing action or feeling (§ 354).
2. The genitive of application (§. 356).
3. The genitive with adjectives expressing action or feeling (§ 357).
4. The genitive with certain verbs (§ 358).

354. Genitive with Nouns expressing Action or Feeling. The objective genitive is used to denote the *object of an action or feeling expressed by a noun*.

cāritās tuī, affection for you

memoria nostrī, recollection of me

contentiō honōrum, struggle for office

dēsiderium ōtī, longing for rest

amor patriae, love of country

metus hostium, fear of the enemy (i.e. fear of which the enemy is the object; cf. § 328. N.)

355. Instead of the objective genitive a possessive pronoun, a descriptive adjective, or a noun with a preposition, is sometimes used.

mea invidia, my unpopularity (i.e. the unpopularity of which I am the object), instead of *invidia mei*

neque neglegentiā tuā neque id odiō fecit tuō, he did this neither from neglect of you nor from hatred toward you

metus hostilis, fear of the enemy (hostile fear), instead of *metus hostium*

odium in Antōnium, hate of Antony, instead of *odium Antōnī*

amor ergā tē, love for you, instead of *amor tuī*

356. Genitive of Application. The objective genitive may be used to denote that to which the quality expressed by a noun or adjective applies.

praestantia virtūtis, preëminence in virtue

pauper aquae, poor in water

integer vitæ scelerisque pūrus, upright in life and free from guilt

fessī rērum, weary of hardships

NOTE. This construction is freely used by the poets and later writers, but is rare in Ciceronian prose.

357. Genitive with Adjectives expressing Action or Feeling. The objective genitive is used to denote the *object of an action or feeling expressed by an adjective* whose meaning would otherwise be incomplete.

Such adjectives are especially those denoting *desire, knowledge, skill, memory, power, participation*, and their opposites; also participial adjectives in **-ns** and certain verbals in **-āx**.

cupidus rērum novārum, desirous of a revolution
insuētus nāvīgandī, unacquainted with navigation
perītus bellī, skilled in war
immemor beneficī, forgetful of a favor
potēns tempestātum, powerful over the storms
coniūrātiōnis participēs, sharing in the conspiracy
patiēns frīgoris, enduring of cold
tenāx prōpositī, steadfast of purpose

NOTE 1. With verbals in **-āx** the genitive is found only in poetry and in late prose.

NOTE 2. The poets and later writers, especially Tacitus, use the genitive with almost any adjective to denote that *with reference to which* the quality exists. The construction demanded in classic prose would be the ablative of respect (§ 478), hence this genitive is sometimes called the genitive of respect.

callidus rei militāris (Tacitus), *skilled in the science of war*
nōtus animī paternī (Horace), *famed for a paternal spirit*

358. Genitive with Verbs. Verbs of remembering and forgetting — *meminī, reminīscor, oblivīscor* — may take the objective genitive.¹

a. When the object is a *person*, *meminī* takes either the genitive or the accusative, *oblivīscor* only the genitive in prose, but the accusative occurs occasionally in poetry.

ipse suī meminerat, he was mindful of himself
vīvōrum meminī nec Epicūrī licet oblivīscī, I remember the living and
I must not forget Epicurus
Cinnam meminī, I remember Cinna
oblivīscere Graiōs (Vergil), *forget the Greeks*

¹ The genitive with verbs of remembering and forgetting may be due to the close relationship between these verbs and the adjectives *memor, mindful of*, and *immemor, unmindful of*, which take the genitive. However, in the earliest Latin the genitive is much less frequent than the accusative. There is apparently no essential difference in meaning between the genitive and accusative with these verbs.

b. When the object is a *thing*, *meminī*, *reminīscor*, and *oblīviscor* take either the genitive or the accusative of a noun and generally only the accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective.

reminīscātur virtūtis Helvētiōrum, let him remember the valor of the Helvetians

tōtam causam oblītus est, he forgot the whole case

oblīviscere caedis atque incendiōrum; forget murder and conflagrations
multa meminērunt, they remember many things

359. The verb *recordor*, *recollect*, *recall*, regularly takes the accusative.

recordāmini omnis cīvīlis dissēsiōnēs, recall all the civil wars

360. The expression *mihi* (*tibi*, etc.) in *mentem venit*, when impersonal, takes the genitive.

venit mihi Platōnis in mentem, the thought of Plato comes to my mind

361. Verbs of reminding — *admoneō*, *commoneō*, *commonefaciō* — often take, along with the *accusative* of the *person* reminded, the *genitive* of the *thing* called to mind.

tē amicitiae commonefacit, he reminds you of friendship

NOTE. But a neuter pronoun or adjective is put in the accusative.

illud mē admonēs, you remind me of that

362. Verbs of reminding frequently take *dē* with the ablative.

dē proeliō vōs admonuī, I have reminded you of the battle

363. Impersonal verbs of feeling — *miseret*, *paenitet*, *piget*, *puget*, *taedet* — take, with the *accusative* of the *person* feeling, the *genitive* of *that toward which* the feeling is directed.

mē miseret tuī, I pity you (lit. it pities me of you)

mē nōn solum piget stultitiae meae sed etiam pudet, I am not only grieved at my folly but also ashamed of it

vītae mē taedet, I am weary of life

364. With verbs of feeling, an infinitive, a clause, or a neuter pronoun used as subject, often takes the place of the genitive.

nōn mē paenitet vīxisse, I do not regret that I have lived

mē quia tuās litterās nōn accēpī piget, I am sorry that I have not received your letter

nōn tē haec pudet, do not these things shame you?

NOTE 1. Observe that in the last example the verb is no longer impersonal. The personal construction is not uncommon with **pudet**, and is found occasionally with **paenitet** and **piget**.

NOTE 2. With **pudet** the genitive may be used of the person before whom one is ashamed.

pudet mē hōrum iūdicum, I am ashamed before these judges

365. **Misereor** and **miserescō**, *pity*, take the genitive.

eōrum miserēmur, we pity them

366. **Potior**, *have power over, get possession of*, usually takes the ablative (cf. § 469. a. N. 1), but occasionally the genitive; as always in the phrase **potiri rērum**, *to become master of affairs* (in a political or military sense).

THE DATIVE CASE

367. The dative case originally denoted the *direction of motion*. This relationship is generally expressed in English by the prepositions *to* and *for*.

NOTE. *Direction* of motion must be carefully distinguished from the *goal* or *limit* of motion, the original force of the accusative. See § 402.

368. The dative is used with verbs and adjectives, less frequently with nouns and adverbs, and sometimes modifies the sentence as a whole.

369. The constructions of the dative may be divided into two classes, according as the original meaning of the case has been retained or has been changed and obscured by later developments,

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| I. Original uses
of the dative | } | 1. Dative of the indirect object with transitive verbs (§ 371) |
| | | 2. Dative of the indirect object with intransitive verbs
(§ 376) |
| | | 3. Dative of the indirect object with verbs compounded
with prepositions (§ 382) |
| II. Derived and
special uses of
the dative | } | 1. Dative of reference { |
| | | a. Dative of the person judging
(§ 387) |
| | | b. Ethical dative (§ 388) |
| | | c. Dative of separation (§ 389) |
| | | 2. Dative of possession (§ 390) |
| 3. Dative of apparent agent (§ 392) | | |
| 4. Dative of purpose (§ 395) | | |
| 5. Dative with adjectives (§ 397) | | |

INDIRECT OBJECT DEFINED

370. The *object toward which* an action or feeling is directed is put in the dative. This is called the indirect object.¹

NOTE. This construction occurs in English ("he gave *me* a book"), but has been to some extent displaced by *to* with an object ("he gave the book to me").

INDIRECT OBJECT WITH TRANSITIVE VERBS

371. The dative of the indirect object, with the accusative of the direct object, may be used with any active transitive verb whose meaning allows.

Such verbs are especially those meaning *give, say, promise, reply, do*, and the like.

ē filiam suam in mātirimōnium dat, *he gives to him his daughter in marriage*

hoc tibi dicō, *I say this to you*

eīs auxilium suum pollicitus est, *he promised them his assistance*

haec memoriae mandāvī, *I committed this to memory*

¹ In this use the dative has retained unchanged its original idea of *direction of motion*, though in Latin the motion is generally to be understood in a figurative rather than in a literal sense.

372. Verbs which, in the active voice, take the accusative and dative retain the dative when used in the passive.

Thus, *puella patrī fābulam nārrat*, *the girl tells the story to her father*, becomes in the passive *fābula patrī ā puellā nārrātur*, *the story is told to the father by the girl*. Observe the same dative, *patrī*, in both sentences.

373. Verbs of motion, like *mittō* and *ferō*, which regularly take the accusative with a preposition, sometimes take the dative when *no real motion is involved* or when the idea of *giving* or *delivering something to somebody* is uppermost. Similarly the verb *scrībō*, *write*, varies in construction between the dative and the accusative with a preposition.

suppetiās mī audet ferre, *he dares to bring me aid*

iussit Eucliōnī haec mittere, *he gave orders to send these things to Euclio*

litterās quās ad Pompeium scrīpsī, *the letter which I wrote (and sent) to Pompey*

nōn quō habērem quod tibi scrīberem, *not that I had anything to write to you*

NOTE. This use of the dative is found in prose only with nouns denoting persons. With concrete objects the accusative with a preposition is almost invariable.

374. The verbs *dōnō*, *give*; *circumdō*, *surround*; *exuō*, *strip off*; and a few others, admit either of two constructions: (a) dative of the person, accusative of the thing; or (b) accusative of the person, ablative of the thing.

militibus corōnās dōnat, *he presents wreaths to the soldiers*

militēs corōnīs dōnat, *he presents his soldiers with wreaths*

375. In poetry the dative sometimes retains its original meaning of *direction of motion* in a literal sense.

it clāmor caelō (Vergil), *the shout rises heavenward*

INDIRECT OBJECT WITH INTRANSITIVE VERBS

376. The dative may be used with any intransitive¹ verb whose meaning allows an indirect object.

Among these are especially the following :

auxilior, opitulor, <i>help</i>	irāscor, suscēnsēō, <i>be angry</i>
crēdō, <i>believe</i>	minitor, <i>threaten</i>
diffidō, <i>distrust</i>	noceō, <i>injure</i>
displiceō, <i>displease</i>	parcō, temperō, <i>spare</i>
faveō, studeō, <i>favor</i>	pāreō, cēdō, obtemperō, <i>obey,</i>
fidō, cōfidō, <i>trust</i>	<i>yield to, submit to</i>
ignōscō, <i>pardon</i>	placeō, <i>please</i>
imperō, <i>command</i>	resistō, <i>resist</i>
indulgeō, <i>indulge</i>	serviō, <i>serve</i>
invidēō, <i>envy</i>	suādeō, persuādeō, <i>persuade</i>

cūr mihi invidēs, *why do you envy me ?*

mihi parcit atque ignōscit, *he spares and pardons me*

lēgibus pāreō, *I obey the laws*

nōn omnibus serviō, *I am not a servant to every man*

prīma aciēs victīs resistit, *the first line resists the vanquished*

Orgetorix persuādet Casticō, *Orgetorix persuades Casticus*

decimae legiōni Caesar indulserat praecipuē et cōfidēbat maximē, *Cæsar had especially indulged the tenth legion and trusted it most of all*

NOTE 1. In English most of these verbs are transitive and take a direct object, but in Latin the original meaning is intransitive and adapted to an indirect object.

Thus, invidēre, *to envy*, is literally *to look askance at*; servīre, *to serve*, is *to be a slave to*; persuādere, *to persuade*, is *to make a thing pleasant to*, etc.

NOTE 2. Fidō and cōfidō (*trust*) take also the ablative.

multum nātūrā loci cōfidēbant, *they had great confidence in the natural strength of the place*

a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings are transitive and take the accusative.

Such are iuvō, *help*; laedō, *injure*; iubeō, *order*; dēlectō, *please*; offendō, *offend*.

¹ A verb is called *intransitive* if it does not admit of a direct object

377. Phrases take the dative precisely like verbs of similar character. Such are *audiēns esse* or *dictō audiēns esse*, *to be obedient to*; and *fidem habēre*, *to have confidence in*.

Caesar eī fidem habēbat, *Cæsar had confidence in him*

378. The dative is used with the impersonals *libet* or *libet*, *it pleases*, and *licet*, *it is permitted*; and with the verbs *dīcō* and *faciō* compounded with *satis*, *bene*, and *male*.

petiērunt ut sibi lēgātōs mittere licēret, *they asked that it be permitted them to send ambassadors*

pulchrum est benefacere rei pūblicae, *it is a glorious thing to be of service to the state*

379. Intransitive verbs that govern the dative are used *impersonally* in the passive and retain the dative.

For example, the active *mīhi persuādeō*, *I persuade myself*, becomes in the passive *mīhi persuādētur*, *I am persuaded* (lit. *it is persuaded to me*).

380. Some verbs, ordinarily intransitive and used with the dative, become transitive in certain senses and add an accusative of the direct object to the dative.

These are especially the verbs *crēdō*, *trust*; *imperō*, *levy*; *minor*, *threaten*; *persuādeō*, *persuade*.

multī sē suaque omnia aliēnissimīs crēdidērunt, *many intrusted themselves and all their possessions to utter strangers*

Crētēnsibus obsidēs imperāvit, *he levied hostages on the Cretans*
id eis persuāsit, *he persuaded them (of) this*

Ascaniōne pater Rōmānās invidet arcēs (Vergil), *does the father begrudge Ascanius his Roman citadels?* [Poetic or late.]

381. In poetry the dative is sometimes used in expressions which would in prose require a different construction. So especially with verbs of *contending*, following the analogy of the Greek.

placitōne etiam pugnābis amōri (Vergil), *will you struggle even against a love that pleases you?* [In prose: *cum amōre*.]

tibi certat (Vergil), *he vies with you*. [In prose: *tēcum*.]

lateri abdidit ēnsem (Vergil), *he buried the sword in his side*. [In prose: *in latus* or *in latere*.]

INDIRECT OBJECT WITH VERBS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS

382. Many verbs compounded with the prepositions *ad*, *ante*, *circum*, *con-*, *dē*, *in*, *inter*, *ob*, *post*, *prae*, *sub*, and *super* admit, as the result of the composition, the dative of the indirect object. These verbs are of three classes :

1. Intransitive verbs which in their simple form cannot take an indirect object.

equitātūi Dumnorix praeerat, *Dumnorix was in command of the cavalry*
omnibus rēbus amōrem crēdō antevenire, *I believe that love comes*
before all things
dēfuit officiō, *he has failed in his duty*

2. Transitive verbs that through composition become intransitive and therefore take the dative instead of the accusative.

omnibus adridet, *he smiles upon all*. [*Rīdeō*, *laugh at*, *ridicule*, takes the accusative.]
tempestātī obsequi artis est, *it is a point of skill to yield to the weather*. [*Sequor*, *follow*, takes the accusative.]

3. Transitive verbs that through composition become capable of governing a dative of the indirect object in addition to an accusative of the direct object.

finitimis bellum inferēbant, *they made war upon their neighbors*
is sibi lēgatiōnem ad civitātis suscipit, *he took upon himself the*
embassy to the states
mūnitiōni Labiēnum praeficit, *he puts Labienus in command of the*
fortification

a. Many transitive and intransitive verbs compounded with these prepositions do not take the dative because the acquired meaning is not suited to an indirect object.

Thus the following compounds take the accusative :

<i>adeō</i> , <i>approach</i>	<i>convocō</i> , <i>call together</i>	<i>offendō</i> , <i>offend</i>
<i>adgredior</i> , <i>attack</i>	<i>ineō</i> , <i>enter</i>	<i>oppugnō</i> , <i>assault</i>
<i>circumstō</i> , <i>surround</i>	<i>interficiō</i> , <i>kill</i>	<i>praecēdō</i> , <i>excel</i>
<i>conveniō</i> , <i>meet</i>	<i>obeō</i> , <i>visit, attend to</i>	<i>subeō</i> , <i>undergo</i>

b. In expressions of *locality* or *motion* the usual construction after these compounds is a noun with a preposition.

*hostēs ad fossam accessērunt, the enemy drew near to the ditch (but
sententiae tuae accēdō, I yield to your opinion)
in segetem flamma incidit, the fire falls on the standing grain*

383. A few verbal nouns (as, *insidiae, ambush*; *obtemperātiō, obedience*) may take the dative like the corresponding verbs.

*insidiae cōsulī, the plot against the consul (cf. insidior)
obtemperātiō lēgibus, obedience to the laws (cf. obtemperō)*

384. The adjective *obvius* and the adverb *obviam* with a verb take the dative.

*cui māter sēsē tulit obviam, his mother met him
Vercingetorix obviam Caesari proficiscitur, Vercingetorix sets out to
meet Cæsar*

DATIVE OF REFERENCE

385. The dative of reference denotes the person for whose benefit or to whose injury the action is performed, or whom it remotely concerns.

In this use the dative does not depend upon a single word, but is loosely connected with the sentence as a whole and is not essential to its grammatical completeness. It is often used where we should expect a possessive genitive or a possessive pronoun, especially with substantives denoting parts of the body.

*Bellovacī tōtius bellī imperium sibi postulant, the Bellovaci demand
for themselves the supreme control of the entire war
sēsē Caesari ad pedēs prōiēcērunt, they threw themselves at Cæsar's feet
versātur mihi ante oculos aspectus Cethēgī, the sight of Cethegus comes
before my eyes
taurum Neptūnō mactāvit, he sacrificed a bull to Neptune
omnēs in fugā sibi praesidium pōnēbant, all sought safety for them-
selves in flight
homō nōn sibi solī vivit, man does not live for himself alone*

laudāvit mihi frātre^m, *he praised my brother* (out of regard for me;
 laudāvit frātre^m meum would not imply any such motive)
 quid tibi vīs, *what do you mean?* (lit. *what do you wish for yourself?*)
 Caesar suis quoque rēbus Germānōs timēre voluit, *Cæsar wished the
 Germans to fear for their own interests also*

386. The dative of reference is used idiomatically without any verb in certain colloquial questions and exclamations and after interjections.

quō mihi fortunam, *of what use to me is fortune?*
 unde mihi lapidem, *where can I get a stone?*
 ei mihi, *ah me!*
 vae victis, *woe to the conquered!*

387. The dative of reference is used to denote the person in whose judgment or opinion something is true.

This is often called the *dative of the person judging*.

erit ille mihi semper deus, *he will always be a god in my opinion*
 oppidum primum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ēpirō, *the first town of
 Thessaly as you come from Epirus* (lit. *to those coming from Epirus*)
 est urbe ēgressis tumulus, *there is, as you come out of the city, a
 mound* (lit. *to those having come out*)

Note that in *defining direction* the person is expressed indefinitely by a participle without a supporting pronoun (as in the second and third examples).

388. The dative of a personal pronoun is sometimes used to denote the person's interest in the fact stated or merely to call attention. This construction is called the *ethical dative*. It is a variety of the dative of reference.

Tongilium mihi ēdūxit, *he took Tongilius with him, I am happy to say*
 quid mihi Celsus agit, *what is Celsus doing, I should like to know?*
 hem tibi talentum argentī, *a talent of silver, mark you!*
 nōn Beroë vōbīs est, *this is not Beroë, I tell you*

NOTE. It is obvious from the examples that the connection of this dative is very loose and its exact force hard to render or define. Many examples of it occur in Shakespearean English: as, "He plucked *me* ope his doublet," "He thrusts *me* himself into the company."

389. Many verbs denoting *separation*, especially compounds of *ab*, *dē*, and *ex*, may take the dative of the *person from whom* instead of the ablative of separation.

hunc mihi terrōrem ēripe, take this terror from me

nihil tibi dētrāxit senātus, the senate has taken nothing from you

NOTE. This construction, sometimes called the dative of separation, is a variety of the dative of reference. It represents the action as *done to* or *for* the person. The poets extend the usage to many verbs not admitting this construction in prose.

a. With names of *things* the ablative with a preposition is the regular construction, but the dative occurs in poetry.

silicī scintillam excūdit Achātēs (Vergil), *Achates struck a spark from the flint*

ēripe tē morae (Horace), *shake off delay*

DATIVE OF POSSESSION

390. The dative is used with forms of *sum* to denote the *possessor*.

est mihi pater, I have a father

ēī filius est, he has a son

imperātōrī nōmen est Caesar, the general has the name Cæsar

a. With *nōmen est* the *name* as well as the *person* is often put in the dative.

nōmen Arctūrō est mihi, my name is Arcturus

391. Possession is also expressed by *habeō* with the accusative, with no essential difference in meaning; but the dative with *esse* is more common in expressions of naming.

DATIVE OF APPARENT AGENT

392. The dative is used regularly with the passive periphrastic, and often with the compound tenses of the regular passive, to express the *agent* or *doer*.¹

¹ The origin of the dative of apparent agent is not certain.

Caesarī omnia ūnō tempore erant agenda, everything had to be done at the same moment by Cæsar

haec vōbīs prōvincia est dēfendenda, this province must be defended by you

mihī rēs prōvīsa est, the matter has been seen to by me

- a. The dative of apparent agent is rare with other parts of the verb.
neque cernitur ūllī (Vergil), nor is he seen by any one

393. The regular construction denoting agency, the ablative with *ab* (§ 453), is usual with all passive forms except the gerundive, and must sometimes be used even with that to avoid ambiguity.

quibus est ā vōbīs cōsulendum, for whom you must consult. [Here two datives, *quibus* and *vōbīs*, would be ambiguous.]

394. The gerundive of intransitive verbs is impersonal, and the dative of agent becomes in English the subject nominative.

omnibus moriendum est, all must die (lit. it must be died by all)
Caesarī nōn exspectandum est, Cæsar must not wait

DATIVE OF PURPOSE

395. The dative is used, especially with forms of *sum*, to denote the *purpose for which*, often accompanied by the dative of reference denoting the *person or thing concerned*.¹

Caesar sibi eam rem cūrae futūram pollicitus est, Cæsar promised that he would see to that matter (lit. that that matter would be for a care to him)

hoc Gallīs magnō erat impedīmentō, this was (for) a great hindrance to the Gauls

hī novissimīs praesidiō erant, these were (for) a guard to the rear

hoc erit tibi dolōrī, this will cause you grief (lit. will be for a grief to you)

cui bonō, who will be the gainer? (lit. to whom will it be for an advantage?)

¹ The dative of purpose is a natural development of the notion of *direction of motion*, the fundamental meaning of the dative case (cf. § 367).

a. The following examples show the dative of purpose unaccompanied by a dative of reference.

locum *castris* dēligit, *he selects a site for a camp*
 diem *conciliō* cōstituērunt, *they appointed a day for a council*
receptū canit, *he gives the signal for retreat*

396. The dative of the gerund or gerundive sometimes denotes purpose. See § 877. a.

DATIVE WITH ADJECTIVES

397. The dative is used with adjectives to denote that *to which the given quality is directed*, or that *for which it exists or serves*.¹

a. The dative is used with adjectives of *fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination*, and others of similar or opposite meaning.

nihil est tam *nātūrae* aptum, *nothing is so fitted to nature*
Belgae proximī suut *Germānis*, *the Belgæ are nearest to the Germans*
impār Hannibalī erat, *he was no match for Hannibal*
similis deō erat, *he was like a god*
castris idōneum locum dēlēgit, *he chose a place suitable for a camp*
tribūni nōbis sunt amīcī, *the tribunes are friendly to us*
 erat benignus *cūctis*, *he was friendly to all*

NOTE. In Cæsar the adjectives most common with the dative are *finitimus*, *idōneus*, and *proximus*.

398. Other constructions are sometimes found where the dative might be expected.

a. Some adjectives take either the dative, or the accusative with a preposition.

ad amicitiam est idōneus, *he is fitted for friendship*
cōmis in uxōrem est, *he is kind to his wife*
grātior sum in *tē*, *I am more grateful to you*

¹ The first use corresponds to the dative of the indirect object; the second to the dative of purpose. Both are plainly developments of the fundamental dative notion of *direction of motion*.

b. With *similis* or *dissimilis* the genitive is more common than the dative in early writers. Classic writers use either the genitive or dative, but with personal pronouns the genitive is regular (cf. § 351. N.).

dominī similis es (Terence), *you are like your master*
pater est meī similis, *my father is like me*

c. With *aliēnus*, *foreign to*, the genitive or dative may be used, but the ablative, with or without *ā*, is the prevailing construction.

aliēnum ā vitā meā, *foreign to my life*
meā exīstimātiōne aliēnum, *foreign to my thought*

399. A few adverbs of likeness take the dative.

vivere convenienter nātūrae, *to live in conformity with nature*

400. Adjectives and adverbs of *likeness* or *unlikeness* are often followed by *atque* (*ac*), *et*, or *-que*, meaning *as*, *than*, or *from*. The pronoun *īdem*, *the same*, regularly takes either this construction or a relative clause.

alius nunc ego sum atque ōlim, *I am different now from* (what I was)
before
vita est eadem ac fuit, *life is the same as it was*
īdem abeunt quī vēnerant, *the same men go as had come*

401. In expressions of motion the adjectives *propior*, *proximus*, and the adverbs *propius*, *proximē*, usually take the accusative with or without *ad*.

castra mōvit propius Avaricum, *he moved the camp nearer to Avaricum*

For the genitive with adjectives see § 357.

THE ACCUSATIVE CASE

402. It is probable that the accusative case originally denoted the *goal* or *limit of motion*. To this use the accusative of the direct object, the accusative of extent, and the accusative of the place whither may be readily traced. But it is impossible to derive all the constructions of the accusative from any single function of that case.

403. The original and derived uses of the accusative are :

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|---|
| Accusative of
the direct object | } | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Accusative of the direct object (§ 404) 2. Accusative of kindred meaning (§ 408) 3. Two accusatives — direct object and secondary object (§ 412) 4. Two accusatives — direct object and adjunct accusative (§ 416) 5. Accusative as subject of an infinitive (§ 419) |
| Other uses of
the accusative | } | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Accusative of extent and duration (§ 420) 2. Accusative of respect (§ 427) 3. Accusative of the place whither (§ 428) 4. Accusative of exclamation (§ 436) 5. Idiomatic uses of the accusative (§ 438) 6. Accusative with prepositions (§ 276) |

ACCUSATIVE OF THE DIRECT OBJECT

404. The direct object of a transitive verb is put in the accusative.

Caesar Gallōs vīcit, Cæsar conquered the Gauls

Rōmānī Carthāginem dēlēvērunt, the Romans destroyed Carthage

Cicerō multās ōrātiōnēs scrīpsit, Cicero wrote many orations

NOTE. The direct object may express either the person or thing directly affected by the action of the verb (as in the first two examples) or the result or product of the action (as in the last example). *Transitive* verbs require a direct object to complete their sense. Verbs not admitting a direct object are called *intransitive*.

405. The object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes its subject in the passive, and is put in the nominative.

ACTIVE : **Caesar Gallōs vīcit, Cæsar conquered the Gauls**

PASSIVE : **Gallī ā Caesare victī sunt, the Gauls were conquered by Cæsar**

406. Certain classes of verbs taking a direct object require special notice.

a. Verbs of *feeling*, often intransitive, are sometimes transitive and may be used with an accusative or in the passive.

meum cāsum lūctumque doluērunt, *they grieved at my calamity and sorrow*

Ariovistī crūdēlītātem horrent, *they shudder at the cruelty of Ariovistus*
ab omnibus rīdētur, *he is laughed at by all*

NOTE. So, too, *dēspērō*, *despair of*; *gemō*, *bemoan*; *queror*, *complain of*; *maereō*, *bewail*; *sitiō*, *thirst for*; etc.

b. Verbs of *motion* (compounds of *ad*, *circum*, *in*, *praeter*, *sub*, *trāns*), and a few others, frequently become transitive and take the accusative.

oppidum adīre, *to approach the town*
senātum circumstāre, *to stand about the senate*
magistrātum inīre, *to enter upon an office*
omnia praeterīre, *to overlook everything*
perīcula subīre, *to undergo perils*
flūmen trānsīre, *to cross the river*

c. A few verbs, regularly intransitive in classic prose, are sometimes transitive in poetry and late Latin.

mē lupus fūgit (Horace), *a wolf fled from me*
aequor nāvīgāre (Vergil), *to sail the sea*
maria aspera iūrō (Vergil), *I swear by the rough sea*
nec latuēre dolī frātre m Iūnōnis (Vergil), *nor did the wiles of Juno escape her brother*

d. By a Greek idiom, the passive of many verbs, especially of those meaning to *put on*, is used by the poets as middle¹ and takes a direct object, sometimes styled the *medial* object.

ferrum cingitur (Vergil), *he girds on his sword*
induitur faciem Diānae (Ovid), *he assumes the appearance of Diana*
nōdō sinūs collēcta (Vergil), *having gathered her dress in a knot*

407. Impersonal verbs, if transitive, take the accusative like other transitive verbs.

vōs decet, *it becomes you*
mē iuvat, *it pleases me*
mē pudet, *I am ashamed* (lit. *it shames me*)
mē fallit, *I am mistaken* (lit. *it deceives me*)

¹ The middle voice, well preserved and much used in Greek, represents the subject as acting on itself (that is, *reflexively*): as, *ferrum cingitur*, *he girds his sword on himself*. The Latin passive had originally a middle meaning.

ACCUSATIVE OF KINDRED MEANING (COGNATE ACCUSATIVE)

408. Many verbs, ordinarily intransitive, may take the accusative of a noun of kindred meaning.

quis tūtiōrem vītam vīvit, who lives a safer life?

tertiam iam aetātem hominum vīvēbat, he was now living the third generation of men

servitūtem serviunt, they are in slavery (lit. are serving a service)

Olympia vīcit, he won the Olympian victory

longam viam itūrus es, you are about to go on a long journey

NOTE. The noun used as the accusative of kindred meaning is frequently derived from the same root as the verb, as in the first and third examples. Often, however, there is no etymological connection, but only likeness in meaning.

409. Verbs of *taste, smell*, and the like may take an accusative of kindred meaning to define or limit the action of the verb.

vīnum redolet, it smells of wine

herbam mella sapiunt, the honey tastes of grass

410. A neuter pronoun or neuter adjective is very common as an accusative of kindred meaning. The English equivalent is often best expressed by supplying a noun.

id laetor, I rejoice at this

hoc glōrior, I make this boast

id eīs persuāsit, he persuaded them of this

hoc tē moneō,¹ I give you this advice

multa alia peccat, he commits many other errors

acerba tuēns, looking fiercely (cf. Eng. "to look daggers")

Bacchānālia vīvere, to live in revelings (i.e. to live a Bacchanalian life)

dulce ridēns, smiling sweetly (i.e. smiling a sweet smile)

aeternum serviet, he will be a slave forever (i.e. he will serve an everlasting service)

¹ In this case the verb is transitive, and the accusative of kindred meaning is used along with the direct object.

a. Some verbs that take the neuter of a pronoun or adjective as an accusative of kindred meaning would take a different construction of a noun.

id laetor, I rejoice at this

victōriā meā laetor, I rejoice at my victory

411. The accusative of kindred meaning (cognate accusative) is frequent in poetry. Writers of classic prose use it sparingly, especially of nouns. Neuter pronouns and neuter adjectives thus used are often scarcely distinguishable from adverbs.

TWO ACCUSATIVES — DIRECT OBJECT AND SECONDARY OBJECT

412. Transitive verbs compounded with *trāns*, rarely with other prepositions, may take (along with the direct object) a secondary object governed by the preposition.

Caesar flūmen exercitum trādūcit, Cæsar leads his army across the river
Agēsilāus cōpiās Hellēspontum trāiēcit, Agesilā'us took his troops across the Hellespont

Pompeius eōs omnia sua praesidia circumdūxit, Pompey led them round all his garrisons

a. *Trāns* is sometimes, and other prepositions are usually, repeated.

Caesar trāns flūmen exercitum trādūcit, Cæsar leads his army across the river

animum in spem veniae indūcere, to move the mind to the hope of pardon

b. The secondary object may be retained with a passive verb.

Belgae Rhēnum trāducti sunt, the Belgæ were led across the Rhine

413. Some verbs meaning to *ask, demand, teach, and cēlō, conceal*, may take two accusatives, one of the person (*direct object*) and the other of the thing (*secondary object*).

mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion

Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitat, Cæsar demands grain of the Hædui

magister puerōs elementa docet, the teacher teaches the children their ABC's

nōn tē cēlāvī sermōnem, I did not conceal the conversation from you

NOTE. This construction is found in classical authors with *cēlō*, *doceō*, *flāgitō*, *ōrō*, *poscō*, *repscō*, *rogō*, and *interrogō*.

414. Some verbs of *asking* and *demanding* take the ablative of the person with a preposition instead of the accusative of the person.

pācem ab Rōmānīs petiērunt, they sought peace from the Romans

NOTE. So always *petō* and *quaerō*; and usually *flāgitō*, *poscō*, *postulō*.

415. With the passive of *rogō*, *doceō*, and a few other verbs, the accusative of the *person* becomes the subject and the accusative of the *thing* is retained.

sententiam rogātus sum, I was asked my opinion

puerī elementa doctī sunt, the children were taught their ABC's

NOTE. This accusative is sometimes called the retained object.

TWO ACCUSATIVES — DIRECT OBJECT AND ADJUNCT ACCUSATIVE

416. An accusative in the predicate referring to the same person or thing as the direct object, but not in apposition with it, is called an adjunct or predicate accusative.

417. Many verbs of *making*, *choosing*, *calling*, *regarding*, *showing*, and the like, may take two accusatives, one the direct object and the other an adjunct accusative.

eum cōnulem fēcērunt, they made him consul. [Here *eum* is the direct object and *cōnulem* the adjunct accusative.]

Caesarem imperātōrem appellāvērunt, they called Cæsar general

Serviūm rēgem creāvērunt, they elected Servius king

hominem prae sē nāminem putāvit, he regarded no one as a man in comparison with himself

NOTE. With verbs of *regarding* other constructions are common instead of the adjunct accusative: as, *eum in numerō hostiūm* (or *prō hoste*) *habeō*, *I regard him as an enemy.*

a. The adjunct accusative may be an adjective.

mē lenissimum praeuī, I showed myself most merciful
mē eius rei certiorē fecit, he informed me of that matter

418. In the passive the direct object becomes the subject nominative and the adjunct accusative becomes the predicate nominative (§ 309. b).

Servius rēx creātus est, Servius was chosen king

ACCUSATIVE AS SUBJECT OF AN INFINITIVE

419. The subject of an infinitive is put in the accusative.

intellegō tē sapere, I perceive that you are wise
dīcit montem ab hostibus tenēri, he says that the mountain is held by
the enemy
nostrōs nōn esse inferiorēs intelligit, he found that our men were not
inferior

NOTE 1. The accusative as subject of an infinitive was originally felt as the object of the verb on which the infinitive depends. This construction is especially common after verbs of *saying, knowing, thinking, perceiving, and the like* (§ 839. a) in principal clauses of indirect discourse. See § 887. 1.

NOTE 2. The subject of the so-called historical infinitive is in the nominative (§ 844).

ACCUSATIVE OF EXTENT AND DURATION

420. *Extent of space and duration of time* are expressed by the accusative.

421. The accusative of extent of space answers the question *how far? how long? or how wide?*

mīlia passuum duodecim prōgressus est, he advanced twelve miles
umbilicus septem pedēs longus, a projection seven feet long
fossam quīndecim pedēs lātam perduxit, he made a ditch fifteen feet wide
porta aberat vīgintī passūs, the gate was twenty paces away

NOTE. For the genitive of measure see § 340.

422. The accusative of duration of time answers the question *how long?*

rēgnum multōs annōs obtinuerat, he had held the sovereignty for many years

diēs quīndecim iter fēcērunt, they marched for fifteen days

haec magnam partem aestātis faciēbant, they continued to do this during a great part of the summer

a. Age is expressed by the past participle *nātus* (*born*) used with the accusative, sometimes with the ablative.

puer decem annōs (annīs) nātus mortuus est, the boy died at the age of ten years.

423. Duration of time is sometimes expressed by the accusative with *per* or by the ablative without a preposition.

lūdī per decem diēs factī sunt, games were held for ten days

eā tōtā nocte continenter iērunt, they marched without a halt during that entire night

continenter hōrīs quīnque pugnātum est, the battle raged continuously for five hours

NOTE. The ablative in this use really designates the period rather as *time within which* (§ 492. 2) than as *time how long*.

424. Duration of time may be expressed by the accusative singular of a noun with an ordinal numeral.

rēgnat iam sextum annum, he has reigned going on six years (lit. *he is reigning now the sixth year*)

425. With *abhinc*, *ago*, either the accusative of duration of time or the ablative of the measure of difference (§ 475) may be used.

abhinc annōs trēs or *abhinc tribus annīs, three years ago*

426. The accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective of quantity may denote the *degree* of an action or quality.

plūrimum potest, he is most powerful

multum sunt in vēnātiōnibus, they are much occupied in hunting
quid in bellō possunt, how strong are they in war?

NOTE 1. Other accusatives so used are *aliquid*, *quicquam*, *plūs*, *tantum*, *quantum*. Some regard these as accusatives of kindred meaning (§ 411) or as adverbial.

NOTE 2. For measure of difference expressed by the ablative see § 475.

ACCUSATIVE OF RESPECT

427. The accusative is sometimes used with a verb or adjective to denote *that in respect to which* a statement is made.

This construction, borrowed from Greek, is used chiefly in poetry, and is confined mainly to (a) nouns denoting *birth*, *mind*, or *parts of the body*, and (b) neuter plural adjectives, such as *alia*, *cētera*, *cūncta*, *omnia*, etc.

The following are examples from Vergil:

Crēssa genus, Pholoē, a Cretan by (in respect to) *birth*, *Pholoe*
animum arrēctī, aroused in (in respect to) *mind* or *spirit*
oculōs suffectī, with eyes suffused (suffused as to eyes)
nūda genū, with her knee bare (bare as to her knee)
ōs umerōsque deō similis, in face and shoulders like a god
cētera Graius, in other respects a Greek

NOTE. This construction is sometimes called the synecdochical or Greek accusative.

ACCUSATIVE OF THE PLACE WHITHER

428. The place whither is regularly expressed by the accusative with the preposition *ad*, *in*, or *sub*.

Hæduī lēgātōs ad Caesarem mittunt, the Hædui send ambassadors to
Cæsar
in Allobrogum finēs exercitum dūcit, he leads the army into the terri-
tory of the Allobroges
exercitum sub iugum mittunt, they send the army under the yoke

429. With the name of a *country* *ad* denotes *to the borders*; *in* with the accusative, *into* the country itself.

ad Italiam iter fēcit, he marched to Italy
in Italiam iter fēcit, he marched into Italy

430. The preposition with the *place whither* is regularly omitted with names of *towns* and *small islands*; *domus*, *home*; and *rūs*, *country*.

ibō Athēnās, I shall go to Athens
ille sē Massiliam cōnferet, he will betake himself to Marseilles
Rōmam ad senātum vēnī, I came to Rome to the senate
Dēlum vēnit, he came to Delos
domum rediērunt, they returned home
suās domōs abiērunt, they went away to their homes
rūs ibō, I shall go into the country

NOTE. The expression of the *place whither* by the accusative without a preposition was the original construction and follows from the fundamental notion of that case (§ 402). The prepositions, originally adverbs, were afterwards added to define more exactly the direction of motion, and, by long association, became indispensable except as indicated above. The English *home* in "I am going home" is, like *domum*, an old accusative of the *goal* or *limit of motion*.

431. The preposition *ad* is used with names of towns and small islands to denote *towards*, *to the vicinity of*, *in the vicinity of*.

ad Alesiam proficiscuntur, they set out for Alesia
ad Genāvam pervēnit, he came to the vicinity of Geneva

432. The accusatives *urbem* and *oppidum* expressing the *place whither* require the preposition even when the name of the town accompanies them.

ad urbem Rōmam vēnit, he came to the city of Rome

433. When *dōmus* means a *house* or *building*, the preposition is used.

in Laecae domum vēnistī, you came to Læca's house

434. The poets and later writers often omit the preposition when it would be required in classic prose.

Italiam Lāvīniaque vēnit litōra (Vergil), he came to Italy and the Lavinian shores
dēvēnēre locōs laetōs (Vergil), they reached the happy spots
Aegyptum proficiscitur (Tacitus), he sets out for Egypt

435. The preposition is not used with the supine in **-um** (§ 882. I), which is in reality an accusative of the place whither, nor in the following old phrases :

infitiās ire, to resort to denial

vēnum dare, to sell

pessum dare, to ruin

vēnum ire, to be sold

suppetiās ire (venire, mittere, etc.), to go (come, send, etc.) to (any one's) aid

ACCUSATIVE OF EXCLAMATION

436. The accusative is used, especially with interjections, in exclamations.

o fortunātam rem pūblicam, O fortunate republic!

ēn quattuor ārās, lo, four altars!

prō deum fidem, good heavens!

mē miserum, ah, wretched me!

437. The interjections **ecce** and **em** (*lo! behold! see!*) often combine with the accusative of **is** or **ille**, giving rise to such forms as **eccum** (*ecce eum*), **eccam** (*ecce eam*), **eccōs** (*ecce eōs*), **eccillum** (*ecce illum*), **ellum** (*em illum*), etc.

IDIOMATIC USES OF THE ACCUSATIVE

438. The following uses of the accusative, adverbial in character, are of doubtful origin.

bonam partem, *in a great measure*

meam (*tuam, suam, etc.*) **partem**, *for my (your, his, etc.) part*

maiōrem (**maximam**) **partem**, *for the greater (most) part*

nihil, *not at all*

id (**hoc**) **aetātis**, *at that (this) age*

id (**hoc**) **temporis**, *at that (this) time*

id (**quod**) **genus**, *of that (what) sort*

meam (*tuam, suam, etc.*) **vicem**, *on my (your, his, etc.) part*

virile (**muliebre**) **secus**, *of the male (female) sex*

dextrum, *on the right*

laevum, *on the left*

quod sī, *but if*

quid, *why*

For the accusative with prepositions see § 276.

THE ABLATIVE CASE

439. The Latin ablative includes the functions and in part the forms of three original cases: the true ablative, or *from* case, denoting separation; the instrumental, or *with* (or *by*) case, denoting association, means, or instrument; and the locative, or *in* case, denoting the place in time or space. On this basis the uses of the Latin ablative are divided into three classes as follows:¹

- | | | | | |
|--|--|--|---|--|
| I. True ablative — <i>from</i> case | } | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ablative of separation (§ 440) 2. Ablative of the place whence (§ 441) 3. Ablative of comparison (§ 446) 4. Ablative of origin (§ 451) 5. Ablative of material (§ 452) 6. Ablative of agent (§ 453) | | |
| II. Instrumental
ablative — <i>with</i>
(or <i>by</i>) case | } | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ablative of accompaniment (§ 456) 2. Ablative of attendant circumstance (§ 457) 3. Ablative of accordance (§ 458) 4. Ablative of manner (§ 459) 5. Ablative of cause or reason (§ 462) 6. Ablative of description or quality (§ 466) 7. Ablative of means (§ 468) <table border="0" style="display: inline-table; vertical-align: middle;"> <tr> <td style="font-size: 2em; vertical-align: middle;">}</td> <td> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Ablative of price or value (§ 470) b. Ablative of the way by which (§ 474) c. Ablative of the measure of difference (§ 475) </td> </tr> </table> 8. Ablative of respect (§ 478) 9. Ablative absolute (§ 480) | } | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Ablative of price or value (§ 470) b. Ablative of the way by which (§ 474) c. Ablative of the measure of difference (§ 475) |
| } | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Ablative of price or value (§ 470) b. Ablative of the way by which (§ 474) c. Ablative of the measure of difference (§ 475) | | | |
| III. Locative ablative — <i>in</i> case | } | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ablative of place where (§ 485) 2. Ablative of time (§ 492) | | |

I. TRUE ABLATIVE USES

440. Ablative of Separation. The ablative of separation — sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition — is used in connection with verbs or adjectives denoting *separation*, *deprivation*, *freedom from*, and the like.

¹ The three original cases, despite their radical difference in meaning, had many points of contact, and it is often difficult to distinguish among them. Too great a degree of certainty should, therefore, not be attached to this classification.

a. A preposition (*ā*, *ab*, *dē*, *ē*, *ex*) is used (1) regularly before nouns denoting *persons*, (2) generally when the separation is *actual* and *literal*.

Gallōs ab Aquitānīs Garumna flūmen dīvidit, the Garonne river separates the Gauls from the Aquitani

oppidum vacuum ab dēfēnsōribus, a town stripped of defenders

hostem ā pugnā prohibēbant, they kept the enemy from battle

ā cultū prōvinciae longissimē absunt, they are farthest away from the civilization of the province

ānulum dē digītō dētrāxit, he drew the ring from his finger

Messāna ab his rēbus vacua atque nūda est, Messana is empty and bare of these things

b. The preposition is generally not present when the separation is figurative, especially if the verb or adjective itself contains a separative preposition.

Helvētīi eā spē dēiectī, the Helvetii, deprived of that hope

Ariovistus pertināciā dēsistit, Ariovistus desists from his obstinacy

levāmur superstitiōne, liberāmur mortis metū, we are relieved from superstition, we are freed from fear of death

senectūs voluptātibus caret, old age lacks enjoyments

cōnātū dēsistunt, they desist from the attempt

auxiliō eget, he needs help

immūnis militiā, free of military service

NOTE. There are numerous exceptions to these rules, especially in poetry, and many verbs take or omit the preposition with no apparent distinction. Compare the following examples:

ex civitate excesserunt, they departed from the state

finibus suis excesserant, they had left their own territory

hostis ab oppidis prohibent, they keep the enemy from the towns

suis finibus eos prohibent, they keep them from their own territory

441. Ablative of the Place Whence. The ablative with *ab*, *dē*, or *ex* is used to denote the place *whence*.

ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city

dē finibus suis exeunt, they go forth from their territory

legiōnēs ex hibernis ēdūcit, he leads the legions out from their winter quarters

ex Britannia obsidēs misērunt, they sent hostages from Britain

negōtiātor ex Africa venit, a merchant is coming from Africa

442. With names of *towns* and *small islands* and with *domus*, *home*, and *rūs*, *country*, the place whence, after verbs of motion, is denoted by the ablative without a preposition.

Rōmā ex urbe nōbili profectus est, he set out from Rome, a famous city
Dēlō nāvīgāvit, he sailed from Delos (a small island)
domō abit, he leaves (goes from) home
rūre revertit, he returned from the country

NOTE. When *domus* means a *building*, the preposition is used.

a. With names of towns and small islands **ab** is used to denote *from the vicinity of*.

ā Mutinā discessit, he withdrew from the vicinity of Modena

443. The words *urbs*, *oppidum*, and *insula*, either standing alone or in apposition with a geographical name, require a preposition to express the *place whence*.

ab (ex) urbe, from the city
ab (ex) urbe Rōmā, from the city of Rome

444. In expressing the *place whence* poets and later writers often omit the preposition when it would be required in classical prose.

Trōas arcēbat longē Latīō (Vergil), she kept the Trojans far from Latium
Scythiā profectī (Q. Curtius), setting out from Scythia

445. By a difference of idiom the *place where* is sometimes regarded in Latin as the *direction from which*, and is expressed by the ablative with **ab** (rarely **ex**).

Orgetorix ex vinculis causam dicit, Orgetorix pleads his cause in chains

a. So in the following expressions :

<i>ā fronte</i> , in front	<i>ā sinistrā</i> , on the left
<i>ā tergō</i> , in the rear	<i>ab hāc parte</i> , on this side
<i>ā dextrā</i> , on the right	<i>ā latere</i> , on the side
ab novissimō agmine , on the rear	

*446. **Ablative of Comparison.** *Than* after the comparative degree may be expressed by the ablative of comparison or by the particle **quam**. With **quam** the two things compared are in the same case.

Catō est Cicerōne ēloquentior, Cato is more eloquent than Cicero
Ubiī sunt cēteris hūmāniōrēs, the Ubiī are more civilized than the rest
Caesar militum vitam suā salūte cāriōrem habet, Cæsar holds the lives
of his soldiers dearer than his own safety
Caesar minor est quam Cicerō, Cæsar is younger than Cicero

NOTE. The ablative of comparison is a form of the ablative of separation, the first example above meaning literally, *reckoning from Cicero as a standard, Cato is more eloquent.*

a. The construction with **quam** is required where the first of the things compared is not in the nominative or accusative.

est misericordiā dignior quam contumeliā, he is more worthy of pity than of disgrace. [Here the ablative is due to **dignus** (§ 479).]

b. The comparative adverbs **citius** and **celerius** are followed by the ablative of comparison.

dictō citius, sooner than you could tell it (lit. said)
opiniōne celerius, sooner than was expected (lit. expectation)

447. The poets sometimes use the ablative of comparison where the prose construction requires **quam** (§ 446. a).

pāne egeō iam mellitīs potiōre placentīs (Horace), I now want bread rather than honey cakes. [Here the ablative **pāne** depends on **egeō** (§ 469. d).]

448. The ablative of comparison is regular in negative sentences.

nihil est foedius servitūte, nothing is viler than slavery

449. *Than* followed by a relative pronoun with a definite antecedent is never expressed by **quam**, but by the ablative of the relative.

rēx erat Aenēās nōbis, quō iūstior alter nōn fuit, Æneas was our king,
**than whom no other was more righteous*

450. After the comparatives **plūs**, **minus**, **amplius**, and **longius**, when used without **quam**, the noun usually takes the case required by the context, without reference to the comparative.

hostēs nōn amplius octingentōs equitēs habēbant, the enemy had no more than eight hundred horsemen
plūs septingentī captī sunt, more than seven hundred were captured

451. Ablative of Origin. The ablative, generally without a preposition, is used with **nāscor**, *be born*, and with the participles **nātus**, **ortus**, and a few others of similar meaning, to denote *parentage* or *origin*.

amplissimō genere nātus, born of a very noble family
summō in Arvernīs ortus locō, sprung from the highest station among the Arverni
Maecēnās ēdite rēgibus, O Maecenas, descendant of kings
quō sanguine crētus, born of what blood?

a. A preposition (generally **ex**) is regularly used with pronouns and sometimes with nouns.

ex mē hic nātus nōn est sed ex frātre meō, this is not my son, but my brother's (not born from me, etc.)
cum ex utrāque uxōre filius nātus esset, when a son had been born of each wife

452. Ablative of Material. The ablative, usually with **ex** (in poetry often with **dē**), is used to denote the material of which anything consists or is made.

nāvēs factae sunt ex rōbore, the ships were made of oak
scūta ex cortice facta, shields made of bark
valvae ex aurō atque ebore, doors of gold and ivory
templum dē marmore pōnam, I'll build a temple of marble

a. In poetry the preposition is often omitted.

scopulis pendentibus antrum (Vergil), a cave of overhanging rocks
aere cavō clipeus (Vergil), a shield of hollow bronze

b. The ablative of material without a preposition is used with *facere, fieri*, and similar words, in the sense of *do with, become of*.

quid hōc homine faciātis, what are you going to do with this fellow?
quid Tulliolā meā fiet, what will become of my dear Tullia?

NOTE. The ablative of material is a development of the ablative of origin. For the genitive of material see § 348.

453. Ablative of Agent. The ablative with *ā* or *ab* is used with a passive verb to denote the personal agent.

ā senātū amīcus appellātus erat, he had been called friend by the senate
exercitus ab Helvētiīs pulsus est, the army was defeated by the Helvetii
laudātur ab hīs, culpātur ab illīs, he is praised by these, blamed by those
ab nōn nullīs Gallīs sollicitābantur, they were incited by some (of the) Gauls

NOTE 1. The ablative of agent is a development of the ablative of origin. The preposition *ā* meant *from* to the Roman mind, not *by*, as it is translated in English.

NOTE 2. The ablative of agent (which requires *ā* or *ab*) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of means, which has no preposition (§ 468). Thus, *occīsus gladiō, slain by a sword*; but *occīsus ab hoste, slain by an enemy*.

454. Things personified and sometimes names of animals are found in the construction of the agent.

vitia ā virtūtibus superantur, vices are overcome by virtues

455. If the person acting is regarded as the *means* rather than as the agent, the accusative with *per* is generally used.

per explōrātōrēs Caesar certior factus est, Caesar was informed by (means of) scouts

NOTE. When the action is stressed rather than the persons acting, the ablative is used without *ā* or *ab*.

cēna ministrātur tribus puerīs, dinner is served by three slaves

II. INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE USES

456. Ablative of Accompaniment. The ablative with *cum* is used to denote accompaniment.

Caesar cum legiōnibus tribus profectus est, Caesar set out with three legions

Helvētīi cum Germānīs contendunt, the Helvetii fight with the Germans

NOTE. The ablative of accompaniment may be used with words of contention and the like. See the second example above.

a. In some military expressions *cum* may be omitted, especially when the ablative is modified by any adjective not a numeral.

omnibus cōpiīs subseqūebātur, he followed close with all his forces

457. Ablative of Attendant Circumstance. The ablative, sometimes with *cum* but more usually without, is used to denote an attendant circumstance or situation.

exercitum duārum cohortium damnō dēdūcit, he leads back his army with the loss of two cohorts

ex oppidō silentiō ēgressi sunt, they went forth from the town in silence
his ōminibus proficiscere ad impium bellum, attended by these omens go forth to your impious war

nēmō funera flētū faxit, let no one perform my funeral rites with tears
Liscus intellegit quantō cum periculō id fecerit, Liscus understands with how much danger he has done this

458. Ablative of Accordance. That in accordance with which something is done is expressed by the ablative, usually without a preposition, sometimes with *ex* or *dē*.

mōribus suis Orgetorigem ex vinculis causam dicere coēgērunt, in accordance with their customs they compelled Orgetorix to plead his cause in chains

cōnsuetūdine suā Caesar sex legiōnēs expeditās dūcēbat, according to his custom Caesar was leading six legions in fighting trim

tuō cōnsiliō faciam, I will act in accordance with your plan
haec ex senātūs cōsultō ācta sunt, this was done in accordance with the decree of the senate

459. Ablative of Manner. The manner of an action is denoted by the ablative with *cum*.

*magnō cum strepitū ac tumultū castris ēgressi sunt, with great uproar
and confusion they went forth from the camp*
*pars nūntiōrum cum cruciātū necābātur, part of the messengers were
killed with torture*

NOTE. The ablative of manner, the ablative of attendant circumstance, and the ablative of accordance are so closely related that they cannot be sharply distinguished.

460. With the ablative of manner the preposition *cum* may be omitted when the noun is modified by an adjective.

flūmen incredibīlī lēnitāte fluit, the river flows with incredible slowness
nūdō corpore pugnant, they fight with body exposed

461. The preposition *cum* is not used with such words of manner as *modō*, *factō*, *ratione*, *rītū*, *vī*, *viā*, nor with certain nouns that have become virtually adverbs, as, *iūre*, *iniūriā*, *iussū*, *iniussū*, *meritō*, *sponte*, *pāce tuā*, etc.

pecudum rītū, in the manner of beasts
iūre an iniūriā, rightly or wrongly
pāce tuā dixerim, I should like to say, with your permission

NOTE. This usage has been much extended in poetry.

*Insequitur cumulō aquae mōns (Vergil), a mountain of water follows in
a mass*

462. Ablative of Cause or Reason. Cause or reason is denoted by the ablative, sometimes without a preposition, sometimes with *ab*, *dē*, or *ex*.

magnō dolōre adficiēbantur, they were affected with great sorrow
nēmō maeret suō incommodō, no one mourns over his own misfortune
*Dumnorix grātiā plūrimum poterat, Dumnorix had great power be-
cause of his influence*
*rēgnī cupiditāte adductus coniūratiōnem fecit, moved by his desire for
royal power, he made a conspiracy*
*suā victōriā insolenter glōriābantur, they boasted insolently of their
* victory*

mare ā sōle lūcet, the sea gleams in the sun (from the sun)

quā dē causā, for this reason

ex vulnere aeger, disabled by a wound (from a wound)

NOTE. The causal uses of the ablative, especially those without a preposition, originate largely in its instrumental use; but where **ab**, **dē**, or **ex** is employed, the construction seems to go back to the true ablative (§ 439).

463. The ablatives **causā** and **grātiā** (*because, for the sake*) are used with a genitive preceding (§ 331. N.) or with a pronominal adjective in agreement.

amicitiæ causā, for the sake of friendship

eā causā, on account of this

meā grātiā, for my sake

464. Cause is often expressed by **ob** or **propter** with the accusative.

ob eam rem, for that reason

quam ob rem, on which account

pecora propter bellum remōverant, they had removed their cattle because of the war

465. A *preventing* cause is expressed by **prae** with the ablative.

sōlem prae iaculōrum multitudine nōn vidēbitis, you will not see the sun for the number of darts

466. Ablative of Description or Quality. The ablative with a modifying adjective is used to *describe* a substantive.

mulier eximiā pulchritūdine, a woman of rare beauty

vir summō ingenio, a man of the greatest genius

mōns magnā altitudīne, a mountain of great height

litteræ hōc exemplō, a letter of this tenor

NOTE. It is impossible to differentiate sharply between the genitive and the ablative of description. For a broad distinction see § 338. N.

467. The ablative of description is frequently in the predicate.

animō meliōre sunt gladiātōrēs, the gladiators are of a better mind

Germānī ingentī magnitudīne corporum sunt, the Germans are of great size of body

capillō sunt prōmissō, they have long hair

magnō timōre sum, I am greatly terrified

468. Ablative of Means. The ablative is used without a preposition to denote the *means* by which something is done.

ūna pars flūmine continētur, one part is bounded by the river
his rēbus adductī, induced by these things
eum manū suā occīdit, he killed him with his own hand

NOTE. *Means, cause, manner, and accompaniment* are all outgrowths of the same fundamental notion, and are so closely related that they are often difficult to discriminate. Indēed, the Romans themselves can hardly have thought of any sharp distinction.

469. The ablative of means includes the following special uses.

a. The deponents *ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vēscor*, and several of their compounds govern the ablative.

ūtar vestrā benignitāte, I will avail myself of your kindness (lit. *I will serve myself by your kindness*)

Caesar isdem ducibus ūsus est, Cæsar employed the same guides
lūx quā fruimur, the light which we enjoy (lit. *the light by which we enjoy ourselves*)

mūneribus corporis fungī, to perform the functions of the body (lit. *to busy ourselves with the functions of the body*)

impedimentis castrisque nostrī potītī sunt, our soldiers took possession of the baggage and camp (lit. *our soldiers made themselves masters by means of the baggage and camp*)

lacte et carne vēscēbantur, they fed on milk and meat (lit. *they fed themselves by means of milk and meat*)

NOTE 1. *Potior* sometimes takes the genitive.

tōtius Galliae potiuntur, they take possession of the whole of Gaul

NOTE 2. In early Latin these verbs are sometimes transitive and take the accusative; and in classic Latin they retain the personal use of the gerundive.

fūnctus est officium (Terence), *he performed the part*
modus sit fruendae voluptātis, let there be a limit to the enjoyment of
pleasure

b. *Opus est*, and less commonly *ūsus est*, *there is need*, take the ablative.¹

magistrātibus opus est, *there is need of magistrates*

opus factō est, *there is need of action*

nunc vīribus ūsus est, *now there is need of strength*

NOTE 1. *Opus* is often in the predicate, with the *thing needed* in the nominative as subject. This is the regular construction when the *thing needed* is a neuter pronoun or adjective.

dux nōbīs et auctor opus est, *we need a chief and adviser* (lit. *a chief and adviser is necessary for us*)

sī quid mihi opus est, *if I need anything* (lit. *if anything is needful to me*)

multa nōbīs opus sunt, *we need many things* (lit. *many things are needful to us*)

NOTE 2. *Opus est* is sometimes used with the ablative of a past participle.

properātō opus erat, *there was need of haste*

c. *Contentus*, *satisfied*, *frētus*, *relying on* (lit. *supported*), and *innixus*, *leaning on*, take the ablative.

contentus sorte, *satisfied with his lot*

virtūte frētus, *relying on his valor*

d. Verbs and adjectives denoting fullness or abundance may be used with the ablative of means.

aggere fossās explent, *they fill the ditches with earth*

Forum Appī differtum nautīs, *Forum Appii, crowded with boatmen*

vīta plēna voluptātibus, *a life full of delights*

NOTE 1. For the genitive with similar expressions see § 350.

NOTE 2. For means denoted by *per* with the accusative of personal nouns see § 455.

470. Ablative of Price or Value. With expressions of *buying* and *selling* definite price or value is expressed by the ablative.

¹ The noun *ūsus* follows the analogy of the verb *ūtor*; and *opus*, originally a genitive (cf. *hoc opus est*, *this is of service*), takes the ablative by an extension of the construction with *ūsus*.

agrum vēdidit sēstertium sex mīlibus, *he sold the land for six thousand sesterces*

istuc verbum vile est xx minīs, *that word is cheap at twenty minae*
trīgintā minīs emī, *I bought it for thirty minae*

NOTE. The ablative of price is a development of the ablative of means.

471. Indefinite price or value, when expressed by an adjective, is regularly denoted by the genitive (§ 341); but when expressed by a noun, is usually denoted by the ablative.

quantū eam emī? Vtī (pretiō), *how much did he buy her for? Cheap*
(lit. at a low price)

vēnībunt praesentī pecūniā, *they will be sold for cash*

quibus hīc pretiīs porci vēneunt, *at what price are pigs sold here?*

Dumnorix vectīgālia parvō pretiō redēpta habēbat, *Dumnorix had bought the taxes at a small price*

472. With the verb mūtō, *exchange*, and some of its compounds, either the *thing taken* or the *thing given* in exchange may be in the ablative of price.

religiōnem pecūniā commutat, *he barter his conscience for money*
exsilium patriā sēde mūtavit, *he took exile in exchange for his native land*

473. With verbs of *condemning*, the penalty (when it is a fine of definite amount) is denoted by the ablative of price.

Frusinātēs tertiā parte agrī damnātī sunt, *the Frusinates were fined a third part of their land*

For the genitive of the charge see § 336.

474. Ablative of the Way by Which. The *way by which*, after verbs of motion, is expressed by the ablative without a preposition.

Aurēliā viā profectus est, *he set out by the Aurelian road*

viā breviorē equitēs praemisī, *I sent forward the cavalry by a shorter road*
frūmentum quod flūmine nāvibus subvexerat, *the grain which he had brought up the river by ships*

prōvehimur pelagō, *we sail forth over the sea*

NOTE. The ablative of the way by which is a development of the ablative of means.

475. Ablative of the Measure of Difference. With words expressing or implying comparison the ablative is used to denote the measure of difference.

alterum iter est multō facilius et expeditius, the other route is much easier and quicker

quīnque milibus passuum distat, it is five miles distant (lit. distant by five miles)

nec longō distant cursū, nor are they far away (lit. distant by a long course)

NOTE. The ablative of the measure of difference is a development of the ablative of means.

476. Measure of difference is expressed by the correlative ablatives *quō . . . eō (hōc)* and *quantō . . . tantō* with comparatives, as in English by *the . . . the*.

quō minus cupiditātis, eō plūs auctōritātis, the less avarice the more authority (lit. by what the less of avarice, by that the more of authority)

quantō erat gravior oppugnātiō, tantō crēbriōrēs litterae mittēbantur, the worse the siege was, the more frequent letters were sent "

477. The ablative of the measure of difference is often used with the adverbs *ante (before)*, *post (after)*, and *abhinc (ago)*, to denote time before or after.

tribus ante annīs, three years before (lit. before by three years)

tribus post annīs, three years after (lit. after by three years)

abhinc tribus annīs, three years ago (lit. ago by three years)

NOTE. As prepositions, *ante* and *post* take the accusative (§ 276). *Abhinc* is generally followed by the accusative of duration (§ 425).

478. Ablative of Respect. The ablative is used to denote *in what respect* something is true.

virtūte praecedunt, they excel in valor

infirmiōrēs animō sunt, they are weaker in courage

hī omnēs linguā, institūtīs, lēgibus inter sē differunt, all these differ from each other in language, customs, and laws

claudus alterō pede, lame in one foot
maior nātū, older (lit. greater in respect to birth)
minor nātū, younger (lit. less in respect to birth)

NOTE. For the supine in -ū in this construction see § 88z. II.

479. The adjectives **dignus** and **indignus** usually take the ablative of respect. The genitive occurs, especially in early Latin.

hoc dignum memoriā vidētur, this seems worth mention
vir patre, avō, maiōribus suīs dignissimus, a man most worthy of his
father, grandfather, and ancestors
dignus salūtis, deserving of safety

NOTE. So the verb **dignor** in poetry.

haud equidem tāli mē dignor honōre (Vergil), I do not deem myself
worthy of such an honor

480. Ablative Absolute. The ablative of a noun or pronoun with a participle in agreement may be used *absolutely*, that is, as grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. The ablative absolute defines the time or circumstances of the action.

nōndum hieme cōfectā in finīs Nerviōrum contendit, the winter not
yet being over, he hastened into the territory of the Nervii

NOTE. The ablative absolute is of instrumental origin; but the locative and true ablative may have contributed to its development.

481. As the verb **sum** has no present participle, we often find two nouns, or a noun and an adjective, in the ablative absolute with no participle expressed.

M. Messālā M. Pisōne cōsulibus, Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso
being consuls
exiguā parte aestātis reliquā, a small part of the summer remaining

482. A noun or pronoun in the ablative absolute regularly denotes a person or thing not elsewhere mentioned in the same clause.

Compare the sentences :

The Gauls having been conquered by Cæsar, the army returned home, Gallis ā Caesare victis exercitus domum rediit

The Gauls, having been conquered by Cæsar, returned home, Gallī ā Caesare victi domum rediērunt

The ablative absolute is used in the first example, but is not admissible in the second.

483. A participle or an adjective is sometimes used in the ablative absolute without a substantive.

libātō summō tenus attigit ōre (Vergil), *after pouring the libation she touched* (the goblet) *with her lips*

missis quī iter mōnstrārent, (men) *having been sent to show the way*

484. While grammatically independent, the ablative absolute has a logical connection with the rest of the sentence and may express a great variety of relations. This connection is often best expressed in translation by a subordinate clause, and should not always be rendered by the English nominative absolute. Thus, the ablative absolute may replace—

a. A temporal clause.

Caesar acceptis litteris nūntium mittit, *after Cæsar receives the letter he sends a messenger*

b. A causal clause.

maiōres nostrī saepe mercātōribus nostris iniūriōsius trāctātis bella gessērunt, *our ancestors often waged wars because our traders had been somewhat unjustly treated*

c. A concessive clause.

oppidum paucis dēfendentibus expugnāre nōn potuit, *though only a few defended the town, he could not take it*

d. A conditional clause.

dēditionis nulla est condiciō nisi armīs trādītis, *there are no terms of surrender if the arms are not handed over*

e. A clause denoting attendant circumstance.

ea omnia inscientibus Hæduis fēcit, *he did all these things while the Hædui were in ignorance*

III. LOCATIVE ABLATIVE USES

485. Ablative of the Place Where. The *place where* is regularly denoted by the ablative with the preposition *in*.

in hāc urbe vitam dēgit, he passed his life in this city

in Galliā remānsērunt, they remained in Gaul

in Germānōrum fīnibus bellum gerunt, they wage war in the territory of the Germans

a. But the preposition *in* is omitted before names of towns and small islands and before *locō, locīs, parte, partibus, dextrā, sinistrā, laevā, terrā, marī*, and nouns modified by *tōtus*.

Carthāgine, at Carthage

Athēnis (§ 80. c), at Athens

Delphīs (§ 88. a), at Delphi

Curibus (§ 110), at Cures

terrā marīque, on land and sea

tōtā Siciliā, in all Sicily

NOTE. Many idiomatic expressions omit *in*: *as, periculīs, in dangers; mentibus, in minds*; and it is freely omitted in poetry: *as, litore curvō* (Vergil), *on the winding shore*.

486. The locative case, denoting the *place where*, not distinguished in the plural from the ablative, has a form like the genitive with names of towns and small islands in the singular of the first or second declension.

Rōmae, at Rome

Avaricī, at Avaricum

Corinthī, at Corinth

Cyprī, at Cyprus

487. Names of towns of the third declension are usually* in the ablative to denote the *place where*, but a few locative forms in *-ī* are found.

Carthāgini, at Carthage

Tiburī, at Tibur

488. The following special nouns have locative forms like names of towns:

animī, in mind

bellī, in war

domī, at home

herī, yesterday

humī, on the ground

militiae, in military service

rūrī (also abl. *rūre*), *in the country*

vesperī, in the evening

489. The locative **domī** may be modified only by a possessive adjective or by a noun in the genitive; when it would be otherwise modified, the ablative with **in** is used instead.

domī meae, at my house

Caesaris domī, at Caesar's house

in Mārci splendidā domō, at the fine home of Marcus

490. Verbs of *placing*, though implying motion, take the ablative of place where. Such are **pōnō, locō, conlocō, statuō, cōstituō**, etc.

Platō ratiōnem in capite posuit, iram in pectore locāvit, Plato placed reason in the head (and) located anger in the heart

491. Summary of Constructions of Place. 1. Names of places *not towns* are generally put —

a. In the accusative with **ad** or **in** to denote the place to which.

exercitum in Italiam dūxit, he led an army into Italy

b. In the ablative with **ab, dē, or ex** to denote the place from which.

ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city

c. In the locative ablative with **in** to denote the place at or in which.

Hannibal in Italiā fuit, Hannibal was in Italy

2. Names of *towns* and words which follow their analogy are put —

a. In the accusative to denote the place to which.

lēgātī Athēnās missī sunt, ambassadors were sent to Athens

b. In the ablative to denote the place from which.

Dēmarātus fūgit Corinthō, Demaratus fled from Corinth

c. In the locative or ablative to denote the place at or in which.

Rōmae et domī tuae vīvere, to live at Rome and in your home

Athēnīs eram, I was at Athens

492. Ablative of Time. Time *when* or *within which* is expressed by the ablative, regularly without a preposition.

1. Time *when* :

secundā vigiliā castris ēgressi sunt, *in the second watch they went forth from the camp*

Diviciācus eō tempore principātum obtinēbat, *Diviciacus at that time held the highest place*

Caesar septimō diē pervēnit, *Cæsar arrived on the seventh day*

2. Time *within which* :

diēbus vīginti quinque aggerem exstruxērunt, *within twenty-five days they finished building a mound*

hōc tōtō proeliō āversum hostem vidēre nēmō potuit, *throughout this whole battle no one could see an enemy in retreat*

paucis annis omnēs ex Galliae finibus pellentur, *within a few years all will be driven from the territory of Gaul*

NOTE. *Time within which* often approaches closely to the idea of *duration of time* (cf. § 423. N.), as in the second example.

493. The preposition *in* is often used with the ablative of time, especially when the ablative has no modifier.

in pueritiā, in boyhood

in adulescentiā, in youth

in bellō, in war

bis in annō, twice a year

494. Many expressions have in Latin the construction of *time when*, where in English the idea is rather that of *place where*.

secundō Pūnicō bellō, *in the second Punic war*

lūdis Rōmānis, *at the Roman games*

pugnā Cannēnsī, *in the battle of Cannæ*

495. In many idiomatic expressions of time prepositions are used with the accusative or ablative.

cum primā lūce, at dawn

dē tertiā vigiliā, about the third watch

sub occāsum sōlis, toward sunset

sub vesperum, toward evening

convēnērunt ad diem, they assembled on the (appointed) day

sub idem tempus, about the same time

sub noctem, at nightfall

in tertium annum, for the third year

For the expression of dates see § 1010.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES

CLASSIFICATION

496. Adjectives are classified as (a) *attributive*, (b) *appositive*, and (c) *predicate*.

a. An Attributive Adjective¹ is closely attached to its noun and is translated immediately before it.

vir fortis, a brave man *stellae lūcidae, bright stars*

b. An Appositive Adjective *explains* its noun like an appositive substantive, and is translated immediately after it.

Laelius sapiēns et bonus, Laelius, the wise and good

Orgetorix nōbilissimus et dītissimus Helvētiōrum, Orgetorix, the noblest and richest of the Helvetii

c. A Predicate Adjective completes the meaning of the predicate, but describes or limits the subject.

vir erat fortis, the man was brave

sit Scipiō clārus, let Scipio be illustrious

NOTE. The verb that connects a noun with its predicate adjective is sometimes not expressed.

locum idōneum putāvit, he thought the place (to be) suitable. [Here the verb *esse, to be*, is understood.]

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES

497. General Rule. Adjectives, pronominal adjectives, and participles agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case.

AGREEMENT WITH A SINGLE NOUN

498. An adjective limiting a single noun agrees with it in gender, number, and case.

fortissimī sunt Belgae, the Belgae are the bravest

ūna pars, one part

iter angustum et difficīle, a way narrow and difficult

¹ The attributive adjective is sometimes called the adherent adjective.

499. Two or more similar adjectives in the singular may limit a plural noun.

prīma et vīcēsima legiōnēs, the first and twentieth legions

500. An adjective limiting a clause or an infinitive is neuter singular.

certum est liberōs amārī, it is certain that children are loved

501. Construction according to Sense. Sometimes, especially in poetry, an adjective modifying a collective noun agrees, not with its *grammatical* gender and number, but with the gender and number conveyed by its sense.

pars certāre parātī, a part (some) prepared to contend
multitūdō convictī sunt, a multitude were convicted

AGREEMENT WITH TWO OR MORE NOUNS

502. One adjective limiting two or more nouns agrees with them in case. Its number and gender are determined by the following rules :

1. Agreement in number.

a. A predicate adjective with two or more nouns is regularly plural.

Caesar et Cicerō erant clārī, Cæsar and Cicero were famous
Sicilia Sardiniaque sunt amissae, Sicily and Sardinia are lost

b. An attributive adjective with two or more nouns usually agrees in number with the nearest.

Caesaris omnī grātiā et opibus fruor, I enjoy all Cæsar's favor and resources

2. Agreement in gender.

a. An attributive adjective with two or more nouns of different genders agrees with the nearest.

cūnctae terrae mariaque or terrae mariaque cūncta, all lands and seas
aptus ad frīgora et aestūs talarandōs, capable of enduring cold and heat

b. A predicate adjective with two or more nouns of different genders will be regularly masculine plural if the nouns denote *persons*, usually neuter plural if the nouns denote *things*.

pater et māter mortuū sunt, *father and mother are dead*
mūrus et portae alta erant, *the wall and the gates were high*

NOTE 1. If nouns of different genders include both persons and things, the predicate adjective is usually neuter plural; but it may follow the persons in gender and be masculine or feminine, or may agree with the nearest noun if that is plural.

nātūrā inimīca sunt libera cīvitās et rēx, *by nature a free state and a king are hostile*
rēx rēgiaque classis profectī sunt, *the king and the royal fleet set out*
lēgātī sortēsque ōrāculī expectandae sunt, *the ambassadors and the replies of the oracle should be awaited*

NOTE 2. Two or more masculine or feminine abstract nouns denoting *things* may have a predicate adjective in the neuter plural.

stultitia et temeritās et iniūstitia sunt fugienda, *folly, rashness, and injustice are to be shunned*

ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS

503. Plural adjectives are often used as nouns (*substantively*), the masculine to denote *men* or *people in general*; the feminine, *women*; and the neuter, *things*.

omnēs , <i>all men</i> (everybody)	omnia , <i>all things</i>
maiōrēs , <i>ancestors</i>	minōrēs , <i>descendants</i>
Rōmānī , <i>Romans</i>	barbarī , <i>barbarians</i>
nostrī , <i>our</i> (men)	sua , <i>their</i> (possessions)
omnēs fortia laudant , <i>all men praise brave deeds</i>	

504. Singular adjectives, especially in the neuter, are sometimes used as nouns (*substantively*).

lupus est trīste stabulīs, *the wolf is a grievous thing for the folds*
sapiēs est rēx, *the wise man is king*
māter eius erat līberta, *his mother was a freedwoman*
nāvēs erant in āridō, *the ships were on dry land*

505. When ambiguity would arise from the substantive use of an adjective, a noun must be added.

deī potentiam omnium rērum habent, the gods have power over everything. [If *rērum* were not expressed, the gender of *omnium* would be uncertain.]

506. Some adjectives have become nouns.

aequālis, a contemporary

amicus, friend

familiāris, intimate friend

propinquī, relatives

socius, ally

vicīnus, neighbor

a. Many adjectives have become practically substantives by the omission of some noun, which is understood from constant association.

Āfricus (ventus), southwest wind

September (mēnsis), September

patria (terra), fatherland

hīberna (castra), winter quarters

trirēmīs (nāvis), trireme

rēgia (domus), royal palace

b. Conversely, a few nouns are used as adjectives, especially those ending in *-tor* or *-trix*: as, *victor exercitus, a victorious army*; *populus lātē rēx, a people ruling far and wide*. See also § 584.

ADJECTIVES USED AS ADVERBS

507. Adjectives are sometimes used in Latin where adverbs would be used in English.

Sōcratēs venēnum laetus hausit, Socrates drank the poison cheerfully

erat ille Rōmae frequēns, he was frequently at Rome

nāvēs tōtae ex rōbore factae, ships made entirely of oak

a. The adjectives *prior*, *primus*, *prīnceps*, *postrēmus*, and *ultimus* are used instead of adverbs to denote the first or last in order of time.

Hannibal prīnceps in proelium ibat, ultimus excēdēbat, Hannibal was the first to go into battle and the last to withdraw (lit. *went first, withdrew last*)

prīmus vēnit, he was the first to come

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

508. When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives are in the comparative. When **magis** is used, both adjectives are in the positive.

longior quam lātior aciēs erat, the line was longer than it was broad
is erat disertus magis quam sapiēns, he was more eloquent than wise

a. *Disproportion* is expressed by the comparative with **quam prō** (*than for*) and the ablative, or with **quam ut** (*than that*) or **quam quī** (*than who*) and the subjunctive.

maior sum quam cui possit fortūna nocēre, I am too great for fortune
to harm me

509. The superlative may be strengthened by the following words: **longē**, *by far*; **quam**, *as possible*, often with the addition of a form of **possum**; **ūnus**, *the one*; **vel**, *the very, even*.

longē nōbillissimus fuit Orgetorix, Orgetorix was by far the noblest
carrōrum quam maximum numerum coēmere, to buy up the greatest
possible number of wagons

quam maximis potest itineribus in Galliam contendit, he hastens into
Gaul by marches the greatest possible (he is able)

Ripheus, iustissimus ūnus in Teucris, Ripheus, the one most righteous
man among the Teucris

eō tempore vel maxima apud rēgem auctoritās erat, at that time his
influence with the king was the very greatest

510. The following adjectives, mostly superlatives, denote a *part* of the object modified: **extrēmus**, **īmus** (*īnfīmus*), **īntimus**, **medius**, **postrēmus**, **prīmus**, **reliquus**, **summus**, **ūltimus**.

summus mōns, the top of the mountain

media urbs, the midst of the city

Pompeius bellum extrēmā hieme apparāvit, prīmō vĕre suscepit, mediā
aestāte cōnfecit, Pompey prepared for war at the end of winter,
began it at the beginning of spring, and finished it in midsummer

NOTE. For other special meanings of the comparative and superlative see § 154. N.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

511. Personal pronouns have the same constructions as nouns, but are never used in the nominative except for emphasis or contrast.

tē vocō, I am calling you

quis mē vocat? Ego tē vocō, who is calling me? I (emphatic) am calling you

ego certē meum officium praestiterō, I at least shall have done my duty

a. In poetry *nōs* is sometimes used for *ego*, and *noster* for *meus*; but *vōs* and *vester* are never used for *tū* and *tuus*.

512. The Latin has no personal pronoun of the third person.¹ This want is supplied by a demonstrative or by a relative (§§ 531, 564).

is coniūrātiōnem fēcit, he made a conspiracy

quī cum eum convēnissent, when they had met him

513. To express possession the possessive pronominal adjectives *meus*, *tuus*, *noster*, *vester* are used, and not the genitive of the personal pronouns.

liber meus, my book; not liber meī

a. But *nostrum* and *vestrum* may be used with *omnium*.

vīta nostra, our lives

vīta omnium nostrum, the lives of us all

514. The genitives *meī*, *tui*, *nostrī*, *vestrī* are generally objective; *nostrum* and *vestrum*, partitive.

memoria meī tua est iūcunda, your remembrance of me is delightful

habētis ducem memorem vestrī, you have a leader mindful of you

minus habeō vīrium quam vestrum utervīs, I have less strength than either of you

pars nostrum mānsit, a part of us remained

¹ For the reflexive *sui* see §§ 517 ff.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

515. Reflexive pronouns in their regular use stand in the predicate and refer to the subject.

516. For reflexives of the first and second persons the oblique cases of the personal pronouns *ego* and *tū* are used. The corresponding possessive adjectives are *meus* and *tuus*.

mortī mē obtulī, I exposed myself to death

hinc tē rēgīnae ad limina perfer, betake yourself hence to the queen's threshold

vōbīs novēnōs vestrī similēs ēligite, pick out (for yourselves) nine like yourselves

nostram patriam amāmus, we love our own country

517. The reflexive pronoun of the third person is *suī* (*sibi, sē*). The corresponding possessive adjective is *suus* (*-a, -um*).

Dumnorīgem ad sē vocat, he calls Dumnorix to him

Germānī ē suis finibus trānsībant, the Germans were crossing over from their own territories

518. The reflexive pronoun *suī* and the reflexive possessive adjective *suus* have two principal uses, known as 'the *direct* and the *indirect*.

I. DIRECT REFLEXIVES

519. *Suī* and *suus* as *direct reflexives* stand in the predicate and refer to the subject of the clause (whether principal or subordinate) in which they occur.

miles sē interfēcit, the soldier killed himself

miles suō gladiō interfectus est, the soldier was killed with his own sword

520. *sē suaque dēdidērūt, they surrendered themselves and their possessions*
iussī Helvētiōs in suōs finēs revertī, I ordered the Helvetii to return into their own territory

521. *Cæsar imperāvit hostibus ut sē dēderent, Cæsar ordered the enemy to surrender (themselves)*

II. INDIRECT REFLEXIVES

520. *Suī* and *suus* as *indirect reflexives* stand in a subordinate clause, either in the subject or predicate, and refer to the subject of the principal clause.

sentit quid suī civēs cōgitent, he perceives what his own fellow citizens think

petiērunt ut sibi licēret, they begged that it might be allowed them

dat negōtium Gallis uti sē certiōrem faciant, he directs the Gauls to inform him

his Caesar mandat ut ad sē revertantur, to these Cæsar gives orders that they return to him

521. The use of *suī* and *suus* as indirect reflexives is regular when the subordinate clause expresses the words or thought of the subject of the principal clause. Hence it is very common in indirect discourse (§§ 883 ff.).

Caesar dixit si obsidēs ab eis sibi dentur, sē cum eis pācem esse factūrum, Cæsar said that if hostages should be given by them to him, he would make peace with them

NOTE. When the subordinate clause does not express the words or thought of the subject of the principal clause, *is* is used, not *sē*, and *eius*, *eōrum*, etc., not *suus*, to refer to that subject.

522. When the use of *suī* or *suus* as an indirect reflexive would cause ambiguity, *ipse* is used instead.

rogāvit cūr dē suā virtūte aut dē ipsius diligentīā dēspērarent, he asked why they despaired of their own valor or his vigilance

NOTE. Occasionally *is* is used as an indirect reflexive.

persuādēt Rauracīs uti ūnā cum eis proficiscantur, they persuade the Rauraci to set out with them

523. Sometimes *suus* is used with the subject and refers to an emphatic word (especially *quisque*) in the predicate.

Sōcratem civēs suī interfēcērunt, his own fellow citizens killed Socrates sua quemque virtūs dēfendit, his own valor defends each one

NOTE 1. *Suus* should not be used with the second of two subjects or of two objects to refer to the first. For example, in *Cæsar and his legions are brave*, or *I see Cæsar and his legions*, the word *his*, if expressed at all, would be *eius*, not *suæ* or *suās*.

NOTE 2. Occasionally the clause to which the reflexive really belongs is absorbed.

studeō sãnāre sibi ipsōs, I am anxious to cure these men for their own benefit (i. e. *ut sãnī sibi sint, that they may be cured for themselves*)

524. Reciprocal action or relation ("each other") is expressed by the reflexive phrases *inter nōs*, *inter vōs*, *inter sē*.

obsidēs inter $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} nōs damus, we \\ vōs datis, you \\ sē dant, they \end{array} \right\}$ *give hostages to each other*

POSSESSIVE PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

525. The possessive pronouns are pronominal adjectives agreeing with the noun to which they belong.

haec ōrnāmenta sunt mea, these jewels are mine

526. Possessive adjectives, when attributive, are generally omitted if they are unemphatic and plainly implied in the context.

ipse cum omnibus cōpiīs eōs sequī coepit, he himself began to follow them with all (his) forces

527. Possessive attributive adjectives may be necessary for clearness, for emphasis, or for contrast. When used merely for clearness, the possessive adjective follows its noun; when expressed for emphasis or contrast, it regularly precedes its noun.

ipse cum omnibus cōpiīs meīs eōs sequī coepit, he himself began to follow them with all my forces (*meīs* expressed for clearness)
ego dē meō sēnsū iūdicō, I judge by my own feeling (*meō* expressed for emphasis)

Helvētīī suīs finibus eōs prohibent aut ipsī in eōrum finibus bellum gerunt, the Helvetii keep them from their own territory or themselves carry on war in THEIR territory (*suīs* expressed for contrast)

528. Possessive adjectives are often used substantively, especially in the masculine and neuter plural.

Ariovistus in nostrōs impetum fēcit, Ariovistus made an attack upon our men (lit. ours)

dēdite vōs vestraque omnia, surrender yourselves and all your possessions (lit. yours)

flamma extrēma meōrum, last flames of my countrymen (lit. mine)

529. The genitive of a pronoun or adjective may be used to agree with the genitive implied in a possessive adjective. Especially common are the genitives *ipsīus*, *ipsōrum*, *sōlius*, *ūnius*, and *omnium*.

mea ipsīus patria, my own country (equivalent to the country of me myself)

tuā sōlius (or ūnius) causā, for your sake alone (equivalent to for the sake of you alone)

nostra omnium patria, the country of us all. [This might be written also nostrum omnium patria; cf. §§ 345, 513. a.]

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

530. The demonstratives are *hic*, *iste*, *ille*, *is*, and *īdem*. They are used either as pronouns or as pronominal adjectives.

531. The demonstrative pronouns, besides their own special uses, supply the lack of a personal pronoun of the third person (§ 512). This use is regular in the oblique cases, especially of *is*.

eī filiam dat, he gives him his daughter

Caesar et exercitus eius, Caesar and his army (lit. the army of him)

obsidēs ab eis dantur, hostages are given by them

hī sunt fortissimī, they are the bravest

ille minimum poterat, he had very little power

532. As pronominal adjectives the demonstratives follow the rules for the agreement of adjectives (§§ 497 ff.).

a. A demonstrative usually agrees with an appositive or predicate noun, if there be one, rather than with the word to which it refers.

*rērum caput hoc erat, hic fōns, this was the head of things, this the source
ea v̄era est pietās, that is true piety*

hic, iste, ille, is

533. **Hic**, *this*, is used of what is *near the speaker* in time, place, or thought. Hence it is called the demonstrative of the first person.

**Iuppiter est custōs huius urbis, Jupiter is the guardian of this city
hīs sex diēbus, in the last six days**

534. **Hic** sometimes refers to the speaker himself.

nōlī trādere hunc hominem, do not betray me (lit. this man)

535. **Iste**, *that (of yours)*, is used of what is *near the person addressed* in time, place, or thought. Hence it is called the demonstrative of the second person.

mūtā istam mentem, change that purpose of yours

536. From its frequent application to the views of an opponent, **iste** often implies contempt.

**ūnīus ūsūram hōrae gladiātōrī istī nōn dedissem, I would not have
given that (contemptible) gladiator the enjoyment of a single hour**

537. **Ille**, *that (yonder)*, is used of what is more or less *remote* in time, place, or thought, both from the speaker and from the person addressed. Hence it is called the demonstrative of the third person.

**in illis ulteriōribus mūnitiōnibus, in those more distant fortifications
illa pars quam commemorāvī, that part which I have mentioned**

538. **Ille**, usually following its noun, is sometimes used in the sense of *that famous, that well-known*.

**Mēdēa illa quondam ex Pontō profūgit, that well-known Medea once
fled from Pontus**

Magnus ille Alexander, that famous Alexander the Great

a. In this sense **ille** may be combined with **hic**.

hoc illud est, this is that well-known (saying)

hic ille est, this is that famous (man)

539. *Ille* sometimes means *the former*, and *hic* *the latter*, of two objects previously mentioned.

ignāvia corpus hebetat, labor firmat; *illa* mātūram senectūtem, *hic* longam adūlēscentiam reddit, *sloth weakens the body, toil strengthens it; the former brings on premature old age, the latter renders youth long*

NOTE. Less frequently *hic* means *the former* and *ille* *the latter*.

540. *Is*, referring to what is either near or more remote, is a weaker demonstrative than the others, and is especially common as a personal pronoun of the third person (§ 531) or as the antecedent of a relative.

rēx aufūgit; *is* est in prōvinciā tuā, *the king has fled; he is in your province*
id quod nātūra cōgit, *that which nature compels*

541. *Is* in the sense of *such, of such a kind*, is followed by a subjunctive clause of description introduced by *quī* (§ 727).

nōn *is* sum quī mortis periculō terrear, *I am not such as to be terrified by the danger of death*

542. *Is* combined with *et* or *atque* is translated *and that too*.

vincula et ea sempiterna, *chains and that too for life*

543. *Hic, ille*, and *is* may point either back to something just mentioned or forward to something about to be mentioned.

haec dixit, *these things he said, or he spoke as follows*

544. The English word *that* in the phrase *that of* is regularly omitted in Latin. Either the genitive construction is continued without the pronoun or the noun is repeated.

classis Britannōrum maior est quam *Gallōrum* or quam *classis Gallōrum*
(but not *quam ea Gallōrum*), *the fleet of the Britons is larger than that of the Gauls*

NOTE. In expressions like *him fleeing, those pursuing*, etc., the pronoun is left out in Latin: thus, *fugientem* (not *eum fugientem*), *sequentēs* (not *eōs sequentēs*).

idem

545. *Īdem*, *the same*, identifies¹ the person or thing in question with one just mentioned or about to be mentioned.

eōdem diē, *on the same day* (as that before mentioned)

546. *Īdem quī* or *īdem atque* (*ac*) is translated *the same as*.

facis idem quod semper, *you are doing the same as always*

547. *Īdem* is sometimes best rendered *also, too, yet, at the same time*.

dixī ego īdem in senātū, *I also said in the senate*

orātiō splendida et eadem facēta, *an oration brilliant and at the same time witty*

THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN *IPSE*

548. *Ipsē*, *self*, standing either alone or in agreement with another word, expresses emphasis or contrast.

549. *Ipsē* is used alone, substantively, as follows :

a. In the nominative to emphasize an omitted pronoun subject.

ipsī recordāminī, *you yourselves remember*

ipse eum vidī, *I myself saw him*

NOTE 1. This use must be distinguished from that of the reflexive, especially as the word *self* is used in translating both. Thus, *ipse se laudat*, *he himself praises himself*, contains both an intensive and a reflexive.

NOTE 2. *Ipsē* usually agrees with the subject, even when the emphasis in English is on a reflexive in the predicate : as, *mē ipse cōsōlor*, *I console myself*.

b. In the oblique² cases as an emphatic pronoun of the third person.

id erat ipsīs glōriōsum, *this was glorious for them themselves*

c. As an indirect reflexive pronoun (see § 522).

¹ *Īdem* is sometimes called the identifying pronoun.

² The *oblique* cases include all except the nominative and vocative.

550. *Ipse* in agreement with a noun or pronoun is often best translated by *very, even, exactly, just, in person, of his own accord*.

hōc ipsō tempore, at this very time

ipsō diē aderant, they were present on the very day

turpe mihi ipsī vidēbātur, even to me it seemed disgraceful

Crassus trienniō ipsō minor erat quam Antōnius, Crassus was just (or exactly) three years younger than Antony

RELATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

551. Relative pronouns refer to a substantive called the antecedent and connect it with the clause which they introduce. The relation of the relative clause to its antecedent is an adjective relation, and the clause is regularly subordinate.

Thus, in the sentence *hī sunt Gallī quī victī sunt, these are the Gauls who were conquered*, the relative *quī* refers to *Gallī*, its antecedent, and the relative clause *quī victī sunt* is subordinate and adjective. The adjective relation is shown by the fact that an adjective may be substituted for the relative clause: as, *hī sunt victī Gallī, these are the conquered Gauls*.

AGREEMENT OF THE RELATIVE

552. A relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender and number, but its case is determined by its construction in its own clause.

legiō quam sēcum habēbat, the legion which he had with him

pōns quī ad Genāvam erat, the bridge which was near Geneva

lēgēs quibus pārēmus, the laws which we obey

a. A relative with two or more antecedents follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (§ 502).

filii et filia quōs dilēxit, the son and daughter whom he loved

ōtium atque dīvitiae, quae p̄rīma mortālēs putant, idleness and wealth, which mortals count first (in importance)

553. A relative regularly agrees with a predicate noun rather than with its antecedent.

Thēbae, quod est caput, Thebes, which is the capital. [Here **quod** agrees with **caput** and not with **Thēbae**.]

554. The relative is sometimes attracted into the case of its antecedent.

sub iūdice quō nōstī, under a judge whom you know (quō for quem)

NOTE. In poetry the antecedent may be attracted into the case of the relative.

urbem quam statuō vestra est (Vergil), the city which I am building is yours

555. The relative sometimes agrees with the *real meaning* of its antecedent without regard to its grammatical form.

equitātus quī vīdērunt, the cavalry who saw

556. When a relative refers to a clause or a whole sentence as its antecedent, **quod, id quod, or quae rēs** is used.

quod exspectāvī, iam sum adsecūtus, ut vōs omnēs factam esse coniūratiōnem vidērētis, what I waited for I have now attained, (namely) that you might all see that a conspiracy has been made. [Instead of **quod, id quod** or **quam rem** might have been used.]

ANTECEDENT OF THE RELATIVE

557. The antecedent is often omitted when it is general, indefinite, or implied in a possessive pronoun.

terra reddit quod accēpit, the earth returns what it has received.
[Antecedent is general.]

sunt quī dīcant, there are some who say. [Antecedent indefinite.]

nostrā quī remānsimus caede, by the slaughter of us who remained.
[Antecedent implied in **nostrā**.]

558. The antecedent is sometimes repeated in the relative clause.

erant itinera duo quibus itineribus domō exīre possent, there were two routes by which (routes) they could leave home

559. The antecedent may stand in the relative clause, agreeing with the relative in case.

This arrangement is regular (1) when the relative clause is emphatic and stands first, or (2) when the antecedent is an appositive.

(1) *quam fēcerat classem, iubet convenire, he orders the fleet which he had built to assemble*

quās rēs gessī, hic versibus attigit, the deeds I performed he touched up in verse

(2) *Rōma, quam urbem amō, Rome, the city that I love*

NOTE. In the first case a demonstrative usually stands in the antecedent clause.

quae pars civitātis calamitātem intulerat, ea princeps poenās persolvit, that part of the state which had caused the disaster was the first to pay the penalty (lit. what part . . . that)

560. The superlative of an adjective belonging to the antecedent may stand in the relative clause.

vāsa ea quae pulcherrima apud eum viderat, those most beautiful vessels which he had seen at his house

SPECIAL USES OF THE RELATIVE

561. The relative with an abstract noun may be used in a parenthetical clause to characterize a person, like the English *such*.

quae est vestra prūdētia or quā prūdentiā es, such is your prudence (lit. which is your prudence or of which prudence you are)

562. The relatives *quī, quālis, quantus*, etc. are often rendered simply by *as*.

eadem fortūna quae, the same fortune as
tālis dux quālis, such a leader as

563. The relative is never omitted in Latin, as it often is in English.

liber quem mihi dedistī, the book you gave me

564. A relative, referring to an antecedent in the preceding sentence, often stands at the beginning of a new sentence to connect it with the sentence that precedes. It is then translated by a demonstrative or personal pronoun, with or without *and*.

nostrī nōn eādem alacritāte ūtēbantur. Quod ubi Caesar animadvertit etc., our men did not manifest the same eagerness. When Caesar discovered this etc.

quae cum ita sint, (and) since this is so

quae quī audiēbant, (and) those who heard this

NOTE. This is sometimes called the connecting relative. A similar use of the relative is occasionally found within a sentence.

rēs loquitur ipsa, quae semper valet plūrimum, the fact itself speaks, and this always has the greatest weight

565. The rules given for the relative *quī* apply in general also to *quālis*, of which kind, as; *quālisumque*, of whatever kind; *quicumque*, whoever; and to relative adverbs, as, *ubi, quō, unde, quā rē*.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

566. *Quis, who?* interrogative pronoun, and *quī, of what sort?* interrogative adjective, are used to refer to one or more of an indefinite number of objects.

quis mē vocat, who is calling me?

quī homō mē vocat, what sort of man is calling me?

quae amīcītia est, what kind of friendship is it?

NOTE. But *quis* may be used as an adjective instead of *quī*, and *quī* is sometimes used as a substantive for *quis*.

quis gladiātor invenīri potest, what gladiator can be found?

567. *Uter, which?* is used as an interrogative pronoun or adjective referring to one of *two* persons or things.

in utrō haec virtūs fuit, in Milōne an in Clōdiō, in which of the two was this excellence, in Milo or in Clodius?

568. Other interrogatives are:

ecquis, any at all? any one? any?

quālis, of what kind?

quantus, how great?

quot (indecl.), how many?

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

569. Indefinite pronouns and adjectives indicate that *some* person, thing, or quality is meant, without closer definition.

570. **Quis**, substantive, *some one, any one*, and **quī**, adjective, *some, any*, are the weakest and vaguest of the indefinites. They never stand first in a clause, and usually follow **sī**, **nisi**, **nē**, or **num**.

sī quid accidat, if anything should happen

nē quam facultātem dīmīttat, that he may not lose any opportunity
dīxerit quis, some one may say

NOTE. The distinction between **quis** and **quī** is not always maintained (cf. § 566. N.).

571. **Aliquis**, substantive, *some one*, (at least) *one* (as opposed to *no one*), and **aliquī**, adjective, *some* (as opposed to *no*), are rather more definite than **quis**, **quī**.

aliquī ex nāvī, some from the ship

quī in aliquō numerō sunt, who are of some account

NOTE. The distinction between **aliquis** and **aliquī** is not always maintained (cf. § 566. N.).

572. **Quīdam**, substantive or adjective, *a certain one, a certain*, implies definite knowledge.

For example, **aliquī philosophī**, *some philosophers*, is wholly indefinite; but **quīdam philosophī**, *certain philosophers*, means that the philosophers are known to the speaker and could be named by him or otherwise defined.

quīdam ex militibus dixit, a certain one of the soldiers said

a. The adjective **quīdam** in the sense of *a sort of, a kind of*, is often used to soften the meaning of a noun or adjective.

dīcendī singulāris quaedam facultās, a kind of unique ability in
• speaking

NOTE. Sometimes, on the other hand, *quīdam* intensifies the force of the adjective.

aliō quōdam modō, in an entirely different way

573. *Quisquam*, substantive, *any one* (at all), and the corresponding adjective, *ūllus*, *any* (at all), are used chiefly in negative sentences, in questions expecting a negative answer, in conditions, and in clauses which follow a comparative.

*neque quisquam ēgredi audet, nor does any one dare to go forth
cūr quisquam iūdicāret, why should any one judge?*

*sī quisquam est timidus, is ego sum, if any one is timid, I am he
neque ūllā necessitatē continēbantur, nor were they' restrained by any
necessity*

*num cēnsēs ūllum periculum, you don't think there is any danger,
do you?*

*saepius cum hoste cōflīxit quam quisquam cum inimicō concertāvit,
he fought more often with the enemy than any one has contended
with a personal foe*

NOTE. After *sī*, *nisi*, *nē*, or *num*, *quisquam* is sometimes used instead of *quis*, and is rather more emphatic.

sī quisquam, if any one (ever)

574. *Nēmō*, *no one*, is the negative of *quisquam*, *any one*, and *nūllus*, *no*, is the negative of *ūllus*, *any*.

a. *Nēmō* is sometimes used for *nūllus*; so regularly with adjectives used substantively.

*nēmō Latīnus, no Latin (man); not nūllus Latīnus
nēmō dīves, no rich man; not nūllus dīves*

b. *Nūllus* is sometimes used for *nēmō*, regularly so in the genitive and ablative singular (*nūllius*, *nūllō*); and in the plural it is often a substantive.

*nūllius aurēs violāvit, he has shocked the ears of no one
in nūllō flagrantius studium vīdī, in no one have I seen more ardent zeal
nūllis est iūcundior, to none is he more pleasing*

NOTE. In negative commands (§ 674), *let no one* is translated by *nē quis*.

575. Nesciō quis, *some one or other* (lit. *I know not who*), often expresses contempt.

nesciō quis loquitur, *some one or other is speaking*

nesciō quō pactō, *somehow or other* (lit. *I know not in what way*)

NOTE. Observe that *nesciō*, when thus used, does not change its form and has no effect on the construction of the words that follow it (§ 820).

576. Quisque, substantive or adjective, *each one, each*, is often used with pronouns, superlatives, ordinals, and with *ūnus*, usually immediately after them :

a. With pronouns.

quod cuique obtigit, id quisque teneat, *what has fallen to each, that let each one keep*

sē quisque diligit, *each one loves himself*

suum cuique, *to each one his own*

militēs ad suum quisque oppidum rediērunt, *the soldiers returned, each to his own town*

b. With superlatives.

optimus quisque eī favet, *all the best men* (lit. *each best man*) *favor him*
antiquissimum quodque tempus, *the most ancient times*

c. With ordinal numerals and *ūnus*.

decimus quisque miles, *one soldier in ten* (lit. *each tenth soldier*)

primō quōque tempore, *at the earliest possible time*

primum quidque, *each thing in order*

ūnus quisque rēgum, *each one of the kings*

577. Uterque, substantive or adjective, as distinguished from *quisque*, means *each of two*.

uterque utrīque erat exercitus in cōspectū, *each army was in sight of the other* (lit. *each to each*)

pugnātum est ab utrīque ācriter, *the contest was carried on vigorously by each side*

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

alius AND alter

578. *Alius*, *other*, *another*, and *alter*, *the other* (or *one of two*), are used both substantively and adjectively.

aliud iter nūllum habēbant, *they had no other way*
itinera duo, ūnum per Sēquanōs, alterum per prōvinciam, *two routes,*
one through the Sequani, the other through the province
fuit claudus alterō pede, *he was lame in one foot*

a. *Alter* is generally used instead of *secundus*; cf. § 171.

b. *Aliēnus* is used instead of the genitive of *alius* to express possession.

aliēna domus, *another's house*

579. *Alius* and *alter* are often used in pairs as correlatives:

alter . . . alter, *the one . . . the other*

alterī . . . alterī, *the one party . . . the other party*

alius . . . alius, *one . . . another*

aliī . . . aliī, *some . . . others*

alterī dimicant, alterī victōrem timent, *one party fights, the other fears*
the victor

aliud est maledicere, aliud accūsāre, *it is one thing to slander, another*
to accuse

aliī vāllum scindunt, aliī fossam complent, *some tear down the ram-*
part, others fill the ditch

580. *Alius* followed by *alius* in another case in the same sentence is used to express reciprocity of action or to express the idea that *one does one thing and another does another*.

alius ex aliō causam quaerit, *they ask one another the reason*

alius aliud petit, *one seeks one thing, another another* (lit. *another seeks another thing*)

aliī aliam in partem fūgerunt, *some fled in one direction, others in*
another (lit. *others fled in another direction*)

NOTE. The adverbs *aliās*, *alibī*, *aliō*, and *aliter* may be used in a similar way.

aliās aliōs deōs precāmur, *we pray sometimes to one god, sometimes to another*

cēteri AND reliqui

581. Cēteri means *all the rest, all the others*.

Rēmi frūmentō cēterisque rēbus iuvant, *the Remi assist with grain and everything else*

582. Reliqui, *the remaining*, differs from cēteri in not emphasizing the fact that none is excepted.

reliqua prīvāta aedificia incendunt, *they set fire to the remaining private buildings*

SYNTAX OF ADVERBS.

583. An adverb is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

facilius eīs persuāsit, *he persuaded them more easily*
longē dītissimus fuit, *he was far the richest*
minus lātē vagantur, *they wander less widely*

584. Adverbs sometimes appear as modifiers of nouns, the word really modified being omitted for brevity.

ignārī ante malōrum, *ignorant of past misfortunes* (lit. *ignorant of misfortunes previously*, a word meaning *endured* being omitted)
cōnsul iterum, *consul for the second time*

585. Adverbs are sometimes used like adjectives.

haec sunt palam, *these facts are well known*
fit obviam Clōdiō, *he falls in with Clodius*
duo talenta sunt satis, *two talents are sufficient*
forte quādam dīvīnitus, *by some providential chance*

586. Adverbs of quantity and place — satis, *enough*; nimis, *too much*; parum, *too little*; ubi, *where*; nusquam, *nowhere*; etc. — are sometimes used as nouns and modified by a partitive genitive (§ 343).

satis ēloquentiae, *sufficient (of) eloquence*
nimis insidiārum, *too much (of) trickery*
ubi terrārum, *where in the world?*

587. An adverb is often equivalent to a pronoun with a preposition.

eō (= in iis) *impōnit vāsa*, upon them he puts the camp utensils
apud eōs quō (= ad quōs) *sē contulit*, among those to whom he went
locus quō (= ad quem) *aditus nōn erat*, a place to which there was
 no access

For the formation and comparison of adverbs see §§ 269 ff.

SPECIAL ADVERBS AND THEIR USES

588. *Etiam* (et iam), also, even, still, and *quoque*, also, are strengthening adverbs, though *quoque* sometimes expresses merely addition. *Etiam* usually precedes the emphatic word; *quoque* regularly follows it.

etiam inermēs armātis occurrerunt, even the unarmed ran to meet the
 armed

Caesar quoque castra pōnit, Cæsar also pitches camp

589. *Ita* and *sic*, so, in this way, thus, are generally used with verbs; *tam*, so, expresses degree, and as a rule is used only with adjectives and adverbs.

quae cum ita sint, since this is so

sic sē rēs habet, thus the matter stands

tam necessariō tempore, at so critical a time

NOTE. *Tam* may be used with verbs also when correlative with *quam*.

590. *Nunc*, now, at the present moment, refers to present time or to past time conceived as present.

Iam, now, already, contrasts an existing condition in present, past, or future time with a preceding different condition. With the future, *iam* means presently; with negatives, longer.

Caesar nunc vincit, Cæsar is conquering now

Caesar iam vincit, Cæsar is already conquering (he was not before)

Caesar iam vincēbat, Cæsar was already conquering (he had not been before)

Caesar iam vincet, Cæsar will conquer presently (he is not conquering now)

nōn est iam lēnitāti locus, there is no longer room for mercy (there may have been before)

591. **Primum** means *first, in the first place*, in a series of events or acts. **Prīmō** means *at first*, as opposed to *afterwards*.

hoc **primum** sentiō, *in the first place I think this*

aedīs **prīmō** ruere rēbāmur, *at first we thought the house was falling down*

NOTE. **Primum** or **prīmō** often means *for the first time*; similarly **tertium** or **tertiō**, *for the third time*; **quārtum** or **quārtō**, *for the fourth time*; etc. *For the second time* is expressed by **iterum**.

a. Enumerations are introduced by **primum** or **prīmō** and may be closed by **postrēmō** or **dēnique**, *finally, at last*. The intervening steps are introduced by **deinde**, **inde**, or **postea**, *secondly, next, later*, followed by **tum**, *then*, repeated as often as necessary.

primum mihi vidētur dē genere bellī, *deinde dē magnitudine, tum dē imperātōre dēligendō esse dicendum*, *first it seems to me that I should speak of the character of the war, next of its magnitude, then of the choice of a commander*

NOTE. Instead of repeating **tum**, *then*, the ordinals in **-um** may be used: as, **quārtum**, *fourth*; **quīntum**, *fifth*; etc.

592. **Quidem**, *indeed, to be sure*, follows the word it emphasizes. Often the clause with **quidem** makes a statement, which, while granted to be true, is shown by a succeeding statement, introduced by *but* (**sed**, **autem**, etc.), to have little value.

amicum tuum nōn quidem odimus, **sed certē nōn probāmus**, *we do not to be sure hate your friend, but we certainly do not approve of him*

a. **Nē . . . quidem** means *not even*. The emphatic word or words must stand between **nē** and **quidem**.

nē dī quidem immortalēs parēs eis sunt, *not even the immortal gods are a match for them*

NOTE. **Equidem** is used like **quidem**, but is rare except with the first person.

593. **Nē**, *surely* (to be distinguished from the conjunction **nē**, *lest, that not, not*), is regularly followed by a personal or a demonstrative pronoun.

nē illī vehementer errant, *surely they are greatly mistaken*

NEGATIVE ADVERBS

594. The common negative adverbs are *nōn*, *nē*, and *haud*.

Nōn is the usual negative, *nē* is used with certain subjunctives and the imperative, and *haud* with adjectives and adverbs and in the phrase *haud sciō an*, *I don't know but*.

NOTE. *Nūllus* is sometimes used colloquially for *nōn*.

595. Two negatives cancel each other and are equivalent to an affirmative.

nōn nūllī, *some* (lit. *not none*)

nōn nihil, *something* (lit. *not nothing*)

nōn nēmō, *some one* (lit. *not no one*)

a. But when words of general negation, like *nōn*, *nihil*, *numquam*, etc., are followed by *nec . . . nec*, *neque . . . neque*, *nōn modo*, *nē . . . quidem*, the negation is not destroyed but is distributed among the separate subordinate members.

numquam Scīpiōnem nē minimā quidem rē offendī, *never did I give offense to Scipio even in the smallest matter*

nēmō umquam neque poēta neque orātor fuit, *there was never any one, either poet or orator*

NOTE. The proper translation of *nōn modo . . . sed nē . . . quidem* with a common verb in the second member is *not only NOT . . . but not even*, *nōn modo* being used instead of *nōn modo nōn*.

adsentatiō nōn modo amīcō sed nē liberō quidem digna est, *flattery is not only not becoming to a friend but not even to a gentleman*

596. In the second of two connected ideas, *and not* is regularly expressed by *neque* (*nec*), not by *et nōn*. So also *negō*, *I deny*, is preferred to *dīcō nōn*.

hostēs terga vertērunt neque fugere dēstitērunt, *the enemy turned and fled and did not stop fleeing*

negant quicquam esse bonum, *they say that nothing is good* (lit. *they deny that anything is good*)

SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS

597. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences. They are divided into two classes, coördinating and subordinating (§ 279).

USE OF COÖRDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

598. Coördinating conjunctions are of five varieties :

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| I. Copulative. | III. Adversative. |
| II. Disjunctive. | IV. Causal. |
| V. Inferential. | |

I. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

599. Copulative conjunctions, meaning *and*, *also*, and *not*, unite similar constructions. The principal copulative conjunctions are *et*, *-que*, *atque* (*ac*), *neque* (*nec*).

600. *Et*, *and*, simply *connects* words or clauses.

Castor et Pollūx, Castor and Pollux
cum coniugibus et liberis, with wives and children

601. The enclitic *-que*, *and*, is attached to the word that it connects, and combines more closely than *et*.

senātus populusque Rōmānus, the senate and the Roman people (combining to form the governing power)
ferrō ignique, with fire and sword (the combined means of devastation)

a. When *-que* connects a phrase or clause, it is usually attached to the first word of that phrase or clause; but if the first word is a preposition, *-que* is usually attached to the second word.

ob eāsque rēs supplicātiō dēcrēta est, and for these reasons a thanksgiving was decreed

NOTE. The enclitic *-que* should not be attached to a word ending in *c* or *e*.

602. *Atque* or *ac*, *and*, *and so*, *and what is more*, generally throws some emphasis on what is added. *Atque* is used before either vowels or consonants; *ac*, as a rule, only before consonants.

omnia honesta atque inhonesta, *all things honorable and, what is more, dishonorable*
ac Bibacte ire contendit, *and so he hastened to go to Bibacte*

a. *Atque* or *ac* is used after words of *likeness*, *unlikeness*, or *comparison*, in the sense of *as*, *than*.

īdem ac, *the same as*
nōn secus (nōn aliter) ac sī, *not otherwise than if*
haud minus ac, *no less than, just as*
alius ac, *other than*

603. *Neque* or *nec*, *and not*, *neither*, *nor*, is generally used for *et nōn* (§ 596); and *nēve* or *neu* for *et nē*.

nē abs tē hanc sēgregēs neu dēserās, *do not put her away from you nor desert her*

604. *Correlatives*. Copulative conjunctions are often used in pairs, or are repeated in successive *coördinate* clauses.

et . . . et
-que . . . -que } *both . . . and*
neque (nec) . . . neque (nec), *neither . . . nor*
cum . . . tum, *while . . . at the same time, not only . . . but also*

605. *Enumerations*. In naming the members of a series, (1) all connectives may be omitted (see § 619); (2) *et* may precede each member, or each but the first; (3) *-que* may be attached to the last of the series.

(1) *pater, māter, frāter, soror*
 (2) (*et*) *pater et māter et frāter et soror*
 (3) *pater, māter, frāter, sororque* } *father, mother, brother, and sister*

II. DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS

606. Disjunctive conjunctions, meaning *or*, and, as correlatives (§ 610), *either . . . or*, offer a choice between objects. The principal disjunctive conjunctions are **aut**, **vel**, **sive** (**seu**).

607. **Aut**, *or*, has the power of excluding, and indicates that only one of the objects or ideas presented can be true, or, at least, that they are strongly contrasted or essentially different.

animus aut est aut nō est, the soul either exists, or it does not
omne enūntiātum aut vĕrum aut falsum est, every proposition is either
true or false

608. **Vel**, *or*, is the old imperative of **volō**, *wish*, and means literally *wish, take your choice*. It is used to connect objects or ideas that are not mutually exclusive, and indicates that any one or all of them may be chosen.

Catilinam ex urbe vel ēicimus vel ēmisimus, Catiline we have either
cast out of the city or (if you choose) we have let him out
imbēcilliorēs vel animō vel fortunā, inferior either in spirit or in
fortune (meaning in either respect or in both)

NOTE. **Vel** is sometimes an intensive particle meaning *even*, for instance: as, **vel minimus**, *even the least*.

a. The enclitic **-ve**, *or*, is a weakened form of **vel**, and is used to express a distinction so unimportant as to be a matter of indifference.

tĕlum tormentumve, a weapon or an engine of war (it is unimportant
which you call it)

609. **Sive** or **seu**, *or*, has about the force of **vel**, and is often used to connect alternative names for the same thing.

hoc Platō sive quis alius dixit, Plato or some one else said this
hic discessus sive potius turpissima fuga, this departure or rather this
most disgraceful flight

For **sive**, *or if*, connecting conditions, see § 777.

610. Correlatives. Disjunctive conjunctions are often used in pairs, or are repeated in successive coördinate clauses.

aut . . . aut	}	<i>either . . . or</i>
vel . . . vel		
sive (seu) . . . sive (seu), <i>whether . . . or</i>		

III. ADVERSATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

611. Adversative conjunctions, meaning *but, yet, however*, etc., denote opposition or contrast. The principal adversative conjunctions are *sed, vērum, vērō, autem, tamen, at*.

612. *Sed*, the usual word for *but*, and *vērum, but in truth, but*, are used to modify or oppose what precedes, especially after negatives (*not this . . . but something else*).

nihil Sēquanī respondērunt, sed tacitī permānsērunt, the Sequani made no reply, but remained silent

nōn modo iniussū suō sed etiam inscientibus ipsīs, not only against his orders but also without their knowledge

pācem habēbimus, vērum cruentam, we shall have peace, but in truth a bloody one

a. Both *sed* and *vērum* may be used to mark a return to the main thought after a digression.

sed (or *vērum*) *redeō ad rem, but I return to the subject*

613. *Vērō* (postpositive¹), *but, in fact*, is generally stronger than *sed* or *vērum*.

haec sunt leviōra, illa vērō gravia, these things are somewhat trivial, but those weighty

NOTE. *Tum vērō, then in truth, then verily*, is used in narrative to introduce the climax or crisis of a series of events. *Iam vērō* marks a transition.

tum vērō clāmōre auditō nostrī ācrius impugnāre coepērunt, then verily, when they heard the shouting, our men began to fight more fiercely

iam vērō aegritudinēs obliuione lēniuntur, but again, sorrows are healed by forgetfulness

¹ A postpositive word is one that never begins a sentence, but stands after one or more words.

614. Autem (postpositive), *however, moreover, now*, is the weakest of the adversatives. It neither contradicts what precedes nor marks a sharp contrast, but indicates merely a transition to a new thought.

prō multitūdine autem hominum etc., in proportion to the number of inhabitants, moreover, etc.

615. Tamen, *nevertheless*, declares something as true in spite of what precedes. It may stand first or follow an emphatic word.

locum reperit mūnītum ; tamen hunc oppugnāre contendit, he finds the place fortified ; nevertheless he strives to storm it

616. At (old form *ast*) may be used like *sed*, *vērūm*, or *vērō*, but is used especially to introduce (a) a new phase of a situation or a new point in the argument, (b) the supposed objection of an adversary, being then usually strengthened by *enim*, or (c) a change of scene or speaker.

at dicēs etc., but you will say etc.

ad nāvis tendēbat Achātēs. At Cytherēa etc., Achates hastened to the ships. But Cytherea etc.

NOTE. For *quamquam* in the sense of *and yet, however*, see § 807.

IV. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS

617. The causal conjunctions, meaning *for*, explain or give the reason for a preceding statement. The principal causal conjunctions are *nam*, *namque*, *enim*, *etenim*.

is pāgus appellābātur Tigurīnus ; nam cīvītās in quattuor pāgōs dīvisa est, that canton was called Tigurinus ; for the state was divided into four cantons

a. Enim is postpositive except in early Latin, where it means *indeed, verily*.

V. INFERENTIAL CONJUNCTIONS

618. Inferential conjunctions, meaning *therefore*, and *so*, introduce the natural result or logical inference of what precedes. The principal inferential conjunctions are *ergō*, *igitur*, *itaque*.

Dumnorix novis rebus studēbat. Itaque rem suscipit, Dumnorix was eager for a revolution. And so he undertook the business

a. *Igitur* is usually postpositive. It is sometimes used to resume an interrupted narrative and may then be translated as *I was saying*.

Subordinating conjunctions are discussed in connection with the various subordinate clauses introduced by them.

ASYNDETON

619. Asyndeton is the omission of conjunctions between two or more coordinate words, phrases, or sentences where they would be naturally expected. The effect, except in a few common expressions like the names of the consuls in dates (as, *L. Pisonē A. Gabiniō cōsulibus, in the consulship of Lucius Piso and Aulus Gabinius*), is to produce rhetorical emphasis.

iūra, lēgēs, agrōs, libertātem nōbis reliquērunt, they have left us our rights, our laws, our fields, our liberty
abiit, excessit, ēvāsit, ērūpit, he has gone, withdrawn, escaped, burst forth

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

620. Questions are either real or rhetorical.

a. A real question is one that seeks for information, and the verb is in the indicative.

quid facis, what are you doing?

b. A rhetorical question is interrogative in form, but does not seek information nor expect an answer. It answers itself and is, in fact,

an emphatic assertion of something. The verb is either indicative or subjunctive (§§ 678, 679).

num etiam recentium iniuriarum memoriam dēpōnere possum, I can't forget the recent wrongs too, can I? [Equivalent to the assertion *I can't forget them.*]

quid facerem, what was I to do? [Equivalent to *I couldn't do anything.*]

621. Questions are either direct or indirect.

a. A direct question retains the form used in asking it.

quid est, what is it?

ubi sum, where am I?

b. An indirect question reports the substance of a question in the form of a dependent clause. The verb is in the subjunctive (§ 812).

rogō quid sit, I ask what it is

nescit ubi sit, he does not know where he is

NOTE. For exclamatory questions with the infinitive cf. § 843.

622. Questions either inquire as to the truth or falsity of something, and expect the answer *yes* or *no*; or they inquire as to some detail or circumstance.

"YES" OR "NO" QUESTIONS

623. "Yes" or "No" questions are introduced by *-ne*, *nōnne*, or *num* as follows:

a. By *-ne* (attached to the emphatic word), asking for information.

mortemne timet, does he fear death? or is it death that he fears?

b. By *nōnne*, implying the answer *yes*.

nōnne mortem timet, does n't he fear death?

c. By *num*, implying the answer *no*.

num mortem timet, he does n't fear death, does he?

NOTE. The particle *-ne* sometimes has the force of *nōnne*, especially when added to the verb.

meministīne mē in senātū dicere, don't you remember my saying in the senate?

624. "Yes" or "No" questions sometimes have no introductory word, especially if the first word of the question is **nōn**.

mortem timet, does he fear death?

patēre tua cōnsilia nōn sentis, do you not see that your schemes are manifest?

nōn fugis hinc, do you not flee hence?

QUESTIONS OF DETAIL OR CIRCUMSTANCE

625. Questions inquiring into some detail or circumstance are introduced, as in English, by interrogative pronouns or adverbs.

quid expectās, what are you looking forward to?

quem socium dēfendistis, what ally have you defended?

quandō et quō is, when and whither are you going?

626. The enclitic **-nam** may be added to interrogative pronouns or adverbs for the sake of emphasis.

quisnam est, who, pray, is it?

ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we?

ALTERNATIVE QUESTIONS

627. An alternative question is an inquiry as to which of two or more cases is true. It is introduced as follows:

<i>utrum . . . an</i>	} (<i>whether</i>) . . . or
<i>-ne . . . an</i>	
<i>— . . . an</i>	

<i>utrum haec vĕra an falsa sunt</i>	} <i>are these things true or false?</i>
<i>vĕrane haec an falsa sunt</i>	
<i>haec vĕra an falsa sunt</i>	

NOTE. Observe that introductory **utrum** or **-ne** in a direct alternative question has no English equivalent.

a. *Or not* is expressed by **annōn** when the alternative question is direct, usually by **necne** when it is indirect (§ 817).

utrum haec sunt vĕra annōn, are these things true or not?

rogat utrum haec sint vĕra necne, he asks whether these things are true or not

b. Sometimes the first member of an alternative question is omitted, and *an* alone asks the question, usually with indignation or surprise.

an invidiam posteritātis timēs, (or) do you fear the hatred of future years?

an Pamphilus vēnit, has Pamphilus really come?

628. Alternative questions asking *which of two* things is true must be distinguished from single questions asking whether *either* is true. In the latter case *or* is expressed by *aut* or *vel*.

utrum nescīs, an prō nihilō id putās, don't you know, or do you think nothing of it? [Alternative question.]

estne urbs magna aut pulchra, is the city large or beautiful? [Single question.]

num vel Caucasum trāscendere potuit vel Gangem trānsnatāre, could it either climb over the Caucasus or swim across the Ganges? [Single question.]

ANSWERS

629. There is no one Latin word meaning simply *yes* or *no*.

a. The answer *yes* may be expressed by repeating the verb of the question, or by an affirmative adverb — *vērō, ita, etiam, sãnē*, etc.

valetne, is he well? valet, he is, or vērō, truly

b. The answer *no* is expressed by repeating the verb of the question with a negative, or by a negative adverb — *nōn, minimē*, etc.

valetne, is he well? nōn valet, he is not well, or nōn, not so

630. The answer to an alternative question is expressed by repeating all or part of one member of it.

utrum vīdistī an audīvistī, did you see it or hear it? egomet vīdī, I saw it myself

SYNTAX OF VERBS

AGREEMENT OF VERB AND SUBJECT

AGREEMENT WITH ONE SUBJECT

631. A verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

Rōmulus urbem condidit, Romulus founded the city
hī omnēs inter sē differunt, all these differ from one another
nōs dēsumus, we are wanting

a. In verb forms containing a participle, the participle agrees with the subject in gender as well as in number.

Gallia est dīvīsa in partīs trēs, Gaul is divided into three parts

632. A verb sometimes agrees, not with its subject, but with a predicate noun or an appositive.

amantium irae amōris integratiō est, the quarrels of lovers are the renewal of love
Corinthus lūmen Graeciae exstinctum est, Corinth, the light of Greece, has been put out

633. The verb sometimes agrees with the real meaning of the subject without regard to its grammatical form.

multitudō abeunt, the multitude depart. [Number.]
decem mīlia occīsī sunt, ten thousand were slain. [Gender.]

AGREEMENT WITH TWO OR MORE SUBJECTS

634. Number. With two or more singular subjects the verb is regularly plural.

pater et avus mortuī sunt, his father and grandfather are dead

a. The verb sometimes agrees with the nearest subject and is understood with the others.

filia atque ūnus ē filiīs captus est, his daughter and one of his sons were captured

b. When subjects unite to make a single whole, the verb is singular.

senātus populusque Rōmānus intellegit, the senate and the Roman people understand

635. With singular subjects connected by disjunctives (§ 606) the verb is usually singular.

neque fidēs neque iūs iūrandum eum repressit, neither fidelity nor his oath restrained him

636. **Person.** When the subjects are of different persons, the verb is in the first person rather than the second and in the second rather than the third.

sī tū et Tullia valētis, ego et Cicerō valēmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well

NOTE. Contrary to English usage, courtesy in Latin requires that the first person be mentioned *first*. So in the example above, *Cicero and I* is rendered *ego et Cicerō*.

637. When the subject is a relative pronoun, the verb takes the person of the antecedent.

adsum quī fecī, here am I who did it

638. **Gender.** With subjects of different genders the participle in a verb form follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives. See § 502. 2.

OMISSION OF SUBJECT OR VERB

639. The subject is omitted when it is an unemphatic personal pronoun (§ 511).

putāmus, we think

dīcunt, they say

640. The present indicative and infinitive of *sum*, and indicative tenses of other common verbs, are often omitted.

tū coniūnx, you (are) his wife

quid multa, why (say) much?

Æolus haec contrā, Æolus (spoke) thus in reply

MOODS AND TENSES IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

641. The Moods express by the form of the verb the *way* in which the subject regards the action—as true, desired, doubtful, etc.; and the Tenses express the *time* of the action.

THE INDICATIVE MOOD

642. The indicative mood is used to state something as a fact or to inquire as to facts. This inherent function of the indicative is the same both in principal and in subordinate clauses.

643. **Special Uses.** The indicative is sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest the subjunctive (cf. § 797):

a. In expressions of duty, propriety, ability, and the like, especially when using the passive periphrastic conjugation.

haec conditiō nōn accipiēda fuit, this condition should not have been accepted

eum colere dēbuitī, you ought to have revered him

multa dīcere possum, I might say much

b. In such expressions as **longum est**, *it would be tedious*; **difficile est**, *it would be difficult*; **melius fuit**, *it would have been better*; etc.

longum est omnēs nōmināre, it would be tedious to name them all

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE

644. The tenses of the indicative are six in number: the present, past descriptive,¹ future, perfect (divided into present perfect² and past absolute³), past perfect,⁴ future perfect.

645. The Latin tenses express:

a. The period of time—present, past, or future.

b. The kind of action—going on, completed, or indefinite as to continuation or completion.

¹ Also called the imperfect.

³ Also called the perfect indefinite.

² Also called the perfect definite.

⁴ Also called the pluperfect.

646. The Latin has no special forms for action indefinite as to continuation or completion; hence, in some cases, the same form has a double use.

TABLE OF TENSES

TIME	KIND OF ACTION		
	GOING ON	COMPLETED	INDEFINITE
PRESENT	Pres. <i>dūcō</i> , <i>I am leading</i>	Pres. Perf. <i>dūxī</i> , <i>I have led</i>	Pres. <i>dūcō</i> , <i>I lead</i>
PAST	Past Descrip. <i>dūcēbam</i> , <i>I was leading</i>	Past Perf. <i>dūxeram</i> , <i>I had led</i>	Past Absolute <i>dūxī</i> , <i>I led</i>
FUTURE	Fut. <i>dūcam</i> , <i>I shall be leading</i>	Fut. Perf. <i>dūxerō</i> , <i>I shall have led</i>	Fut. <i>dūcam</i> , <i>I shall lead</i>

Present Indicative

647. The present indicative represents the action or state (a) as now existing or going on; (b) as a general truth.

- (a) *Germānī trāns Rhēnum incolunt, the Germans live across the Rhine*
 (b) *obsequium amicos parit, flattery gains friends*

NOTE. The present of a general truth is called the *gnomic* present.

Special Uses of the Present

648. **The Historical Present.** In lively narration a past action is often expressed by the present.

- ad eum accurrunt atque docent, they ran up to him and pointed out etc.*
Caesar castra movet, Caesar moved his camp

NOTE. The historical present may be translated by either a present or a past tense.

a. With *dum* meaning *while*, in the sense of DURING *the time that*, the historical present is regular (§ 763).

- dum haec geruntur, while this was going on*

NOTE. A past tense with *dum* meaning *while*, *ALL the time that*, or *as long as* makes the time emphatic by contrast.

dum eram vobiscum, animum meum non vidēbātis, *while I was with you, you did not see my soul.* [Here the time when he was alive is contrasted with that after death.]

649. The Conative Present. The present sometimes denotes an action *attempted* or *merely begun*.

iam manū tenet, *already he tries to seize him*
dēnsōs fertur in hostīs, *he starts to rush into the thickest of the foe*

650. The Present with *iam diū* etc. With *iam*, *iam diū*, *iam dūdum*, etc. (*already, now for a long time*), the present is used in the sense of the English perfect to denote an action begun in the past and continuing in the present.

iam diū ignōrō quid agās, *now for a long time I have not known what you were doing*
tē iam dūdum hortor, *I have been urging you now for a long time*

651. The Annalistic Present. The present may be used for the perfect in a summary enumeration of past events.

Rōma interim crēscit Albae ruīnīs : duplicātur civium numerus ; Caelius additur urbī mōns, *Rome meanwhile grows as a result of the fall of Alba : the number of citizens is doubled ; the Caelian hill is added to the town*

Past Descriptive¹ Indicative

652. The past descriptive indicative has two uses : (a) to denote an action going on or repeated in past time ; (b) to describe a situation in past time or a past occurrence.

(a) *Gallī inter sē obsidēs dabant*, *the Gauls were giving hostages to each other*
sē in proxima oppida recipiēbant, *they used to retreat to the nearest towns*
 (b) *erant omnīnō duo itinera*, *there were in all two ways*
palūs erat nōn magna, *there was a small marsh*

¹ Also called the imperfect.

NOTE. In its descriptive use the past descriptive is usually translated by the English past, since the English fails to distinguish between the past descriptive and the past absolute (§ 658. II). For example, *Haeduī graviter ferēbant* and *Haeduī graviter tulērunt* are both rendered *the Haeduī were annoyed*; but the first sentence describes a situation, and the second merely states a fact.

Special Uses of the Past Descriptive

653. The Conative Past Descriptive. The past descriptive, like the present, sometimes denotes an action *attempted* or *merely begun*.

eum in exsilium eiciēbam, I was trying to send him into exile
nostrōs prohibēbant, they tried to keep back our men

654. The Past Descriptive with *iam diū* etc. With *iam, iam diū, iam dūdum*, etc. (*already, now for a long time*), the past descriptive is used in the sense of the English past perfect to denote an action or state continuing in the past but begun at some previous time (cf. § 650).

domicilium Rōmae iam diū habēbat, he had now for a long time had his residence at Rome

Future Indicative

655. The future indicative denotes an action or state that will take place or be going on in future time.

meam libertātem recuperābō, I shall regain my freedom
mea erit culpa, it will be my own fault

NOTE. The distinction felt in English between *shall* and *will* in the first person is usually disregarded in Latin, both ideas being expressed by the same future form. Thus *moriar* may mean, according to context, *I shall die* (futurity) or *I will die* (determination).

656. The future may have the force of an imperative.

tū hodiē apud mē cēnābis, you will dine with me to-day

657. The English present is often used for the future. We say, for example, *if he comes*, meaning *if he shall come*. This use of the present is rare in Latin, the more regular future being preferred.

Perfect Indicative

658. The perfect indicative has two distinct uses :

I. As the present perfect¹ it represents the action as completed in present time, and is rendered by the English perfect with *have*.

nunc opus *exēgī*, now I have finished my work
ut *suprā dēmōnstrāvīmus*, as we have shown above

II. As the past absolute² it represents the action as having taken place at some undefined point of past time, and is rendered by the English past.

is *coniūrātiōnem nōbilitātis fēcit*, he made a conspiracy of the nobility
eō *exercitum dūxit*, he led his army thither
vēnī, vīdī, vīcī, I came, I saw, I conquered

a. In narrative the perfect (or historical present) tells the leading events, while the past descriptive describes the circumstances that attended these events (cf. § 652. b).

plānitīēs erat magna et in eā tumulus satis grandis. Hic locus aequō ferē spatiō ab castrīs Ariovistī et Caesaris aberat. Eō ad conloquium vēnērunt, there was a large plain and on it a hill of considerable size. This place was about equally distant from the camp of Ariovistus and that of Caesar. Thither they came for a conference. [Note the two sentences describing a place followed by the sentence stating what happened there.]

Special Uses of the Perfect

659. The perfect is sometimes used to contrast a past condition of things with a present condition.

filium habeō, immō habuī, I have a son ; no, I had one
fuius Trōēs, fuit Īlium, we have ceased to be Trojans, Ilium is no more (lit. we were Trojans, Ilium was)

¹ Sometimes called the perfect definite.

² Sometimes called the historical perfect or perfect indefinite.

660. The present perfect sometimes denotes a present state resulting from a completed act. Such a perfect is rendered by the present. Among these perfects are :

meminī, *I remember (I have called to mind)*

nōvī or *cognōvī*, *I know (I have learned)*

ōdī, *I hate*

cōnsuēvī, *I am accustomed (I have grown accustomed)*

NOTE. The past perfect and future perfect of such verbs are rendered by the past descriptive or the perfect and by the future respectively.

nōveram, *I knew, I have known*

nōverō, *I shall know*

Past Perfect¹ Indicative

661. The past perfect indicative denotes an action or state completed in past time.

omnēs civitātēs dēfēcerant, *all the states had revolted*

Future Perfect Indicative

662. The future perfect indicative denotes an action or state that will be completed in future time.

ego certē meum officium praestiterō, *I at least shall have done my duty*

663. Latin is far more exact than English in the use of tenses. Hence the future perfect is much commoner in Latin than in English. It may be used to translate an English future or even an English present, when exactness of expression demands a future perfect: thus, *when you come, you will find out* is translated *cum vēneris, cognōscēs*.

Epistolary Tenses

664. In letters the writer, instead of using tenses suited to the time of writing, sometimes uses tenses that will be suitable when his letter is received. Tenses so used are called *epistolary*.

• Also called the pluperfect.

Thus he may use the past descriptive or the perfect for actions and events that are present, and the past perfect for those that are past.

nihil habēbam quod ad tē scriberem; ad tuās omnīs epistulās iam *rescripseram*, *I have nothing to write to you; I have already answered all your letters* (lit. *I had nothing to write to you; I had already* etc.)

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

665. The Latin subjunctive¹ is used to express something as *willed*, as *desired*, or as *possible*. It is found both in independent and in subordinate clauses.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

666. The tenses of the subjunctive are four in number: the present, past,² perfect, and past perfect.³

667. The four tenses of the subjunctive have in general the same temporal force as the corresponding tenses of the indicative.

videō quid faciās, *I see what you are doing*
vidēbam quid facerēs, *I saw what you were doing*
videō quid fēceris, *I see what you have done*
vidēbam quid fēcissēs, *I saw what you had done*

¹ The Latin subjunctive is the result of the fusion of two distinct moods of the Indo-European parent speech, the subjunctive and the optative, and has kept the characteristic meanings of each. The Indo-European subjunctive expressed (a) the *will* of the speaker, (b) *futurity*; the Indo-European optative expressed (a) the *wish* of the speaker, (b) *possibility*. The Latin subjunctive inherited all these powers, but its use as a pure future (like the future indicative) disappeared at an early period, except in certain kinds of subordinate clauses, and even here the future force of the mood may perhaps be traced to a different origin.

² Also called the imperfect.

³ Also called the pluperfect.

668. The subjunctive lacks the future and the future perfect, but any subjunctive tense may in some constructions express futurity. (See also § 698. *a, b.*)

peream, may I perish!

quid faciam, what shall I do?

rogāvī quid facerem, I asked what I should do

dīxerit aliquis, some one may say

dēmōnstrāvit, sī vēnissent, multōs interitūrōs, he showed that if they should come (should have come), many would perish

a. The place of the future is supplied by the subjunctive present or past of the active periphrastic conjugation (§ 249. *a*) whenever the use of the ordinary subjunctive forms would be ambiguous.

videō quid factūrus sīs, I see what you will (are going to) do

vidēbam quid factūrus essēs, I saw what you would (were going to) do

669. In wishes (§ 681. II. 1) and in conditions contrary to fact (§ 786) the past subjunctive refers to the present.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

670. The subjunctive in independent sentences represents an act or state as —

Willed — the VOLITIVE subjunctive.

Desired — the OPTATIVE subjunctive.

Possible — the POTENTIAL subjunctive.¹

The Volitive Subjunctive

671. The volitive subjunctive represents an act or state as *willed*, implying authority. This subjunctive comprises :

I. The Hortatory.

III. The Concessive.

II. The Jussive.

IV. The Deliberative.

¹ The potential subjunctive is often called the subjunctive of contingent futurity.

I. *The Hortatory Subjunctive*

672. The hortatory subjunctive expresses an *exhortation*, regularly in the first person plural of the present. The negative is *nē*.

proficiscāmur, let us set out

optēmus potius quam querāmur, let us pray rather than complain

nē hōs latrōnēs interficiāmus, let us not kill these robbers

nē dictō pāreāmus, let us not obey the order

II. *The Jussive Subjunctive*

673. The jussive subjunctive expresses a *command* or a *prohibition*. The negative is *nē*.

674. In commands the jussive subjunctive is regularly confined to the present, third person singular or plural.

obsidēs reddat, let him return the hostages

Aeolus rēgnet, let Æolus reign

sēcēdānt improbī, sēcernant sē ā bonīs, let the wicked depart, let them separate themselves from the good

dēsinant insidiārī cōnsulī, let them cease lying in wait for the consul

a. The second person of the jussive subjunctive is used only of an indefinite subject and in poetry.

istō bonō ūtāre dum adsit, use that blessing while it is present

doceās iter (Vergil), show us the way

remittās quaerere (Horace), cease to question

675. In prohibitions the jussive subjunctive with *nē* is in the second person, singular or plural. The tense may be either present or perfect, with no apparent difference in meaning.

nē metuās, don't fear

nē mentiāris, don't lie

hoc nē fēcēris, don't do this

nē dēsperēris, do not despise

But neither of these forms of expression is common in classic prose.

676. Prohibition is regularly expressed in two ways :

a. By *nōlī* (singular) or *nōlīte* (plural) with the present infinitive.

nōlī putāre, *don't think* (lit. *be unwilling to think*)

nōlī mē tangere, *don't touch me*

b. Less commonly by *cavē* (*take care*), *cavē nē*, or *fac nē* (*see to it lest*), with the present subjunctive (§ 720).

cavē (nē), or *fac nē, putēs*, *take care not to think* (lit. *take care, or see to it, lest you think*)

For the imperative in prohibitions see § 690. *a. N.*

III. *The Concessive Subjunctive*

677. The subjunctive may be used to *concede* or *grant* something for the sake of argument. The present is used for present time, the perfect for past. The negative is *nē*.

sit fūr ; *at est bonus imperātor*, *grant that he is a thief, yet he is a good general*

sit Scipiō ille clārus, *grant that Scipio is famous*

nē fuerit tālis aliīs, *suppose that he was not such to others*

sit hoc malum, nōn summum certē est malum, *grant that this is an evil, certainly it is not the greatest evil*

IV. *The Deliberative Subjunctive*

678. The subjunctive is used in rhetorical questions (§ 620. *b*) of *surprise*, *perplexity*, or *indignation*, expecting no reply.¹

¹ This use of the volitive subjunctive, beginning with questions asked by the speaker in regard to the *will* or *desire* of the person addressed, developed into questions no longer *volitive* but *deliberative*, in which the speaker is in doubt and deliberates on the proper course to pursue. A further step leads to the usual meaning covered by the rule above, where the questions are purely rhetorical or exclamatory. The name *deliberative* is generally given to all these idioms, though applicable to only one of them.

quid faciam, *what do you desire me to do?* [Volitive.]

quid faciam, *what am I to do?* [Deliberative.]

quid faciam, *what shall I do?* [Rhetorical or Exclamatory.]

The present is used of present time, the past of past time.
The negative is *nōn*.¹

quid agam? quō mē vertam, what shall I do? whither shall I turn?
quam ratiōnem pugnae insistam, what plan of battle shall I adopt?
quid dicerem, what was I to say?
cūr ego nōn laeter, why should I not rejoice?

679. The indicative is sometimes used in deliberative questions.

quid agō, what am I to do?
dēdēmus ergō Hannibalem, shall we then surrender Hannibal?

The Optative Subjunctive

680. The optative subjunctive is used to express a wish.
The negative is *nē*.

681. I. The present subjunctive (with or without *utinam*) denotes a wish as *possible*.

sīs fēlix, may you be happy
falsus utinam vātēs sim, may I be a false prophet
dī ōmen āvertant, may the gods avert the omen
nē vivam, sī sciō, may I not live, if I know

NOTE. *Utinam*, *utī*, or *ut* (§ 682), introducing a wish, do not appear in the translation.

II. I. The past subjunctive with *utinam* denotes a wish *unattained* in *present* time.

utinam Clōdīus vīveret, would that Clodius were now alive (but he is n't)

2. The past perfect subjunctive with *utinam* denotes a wish *unattained* in *past* time.

utinam omnīs ēdūxisset, would that he had led them all out (but he did n't)
utinam nē mortuus esset, would that he had not died

¹ The use of *nōn* instead of *nē*, the regular negative with the volitive, may be due to the fact that most of these questions have lost their volitive character.

682. *Utī* or *ut* is sometimes used instead of *utinam* in poetry and in early Latin.

ut pereat rōbigine tēlum (Horace), *may the weapon perish with rust*

683. In poetry *sī* or *ō sī* with the subjunctive sometimes expresses a wish.

ō sī angulus ille accēdat (Horace), *O if that corner might only be added*

The Potential Subjunctive

684. The potential subjunctive¹ represents an act or state as *possible* or *conceivable*. The negative is *nōn*.

NOTE. There is no single English equivalent for this subjunctive; it must be rendered, according to circumstances, by the auxiliaries *would*, *should*, *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*.

685. The present and perfect of the potential subjunctive denote an existing possibility, the past² denotes a past possibility no longer existing.

nēmō dīcat or *dīxerit*, *no one would say*
dīcerēs, *you would have said*

NOTE. Rarely the past perfect is used, instead of the past, to refer to what *might have* been but is not.

686. The potential subjunctive has three uses :

a. The potential subjunctive is used in the first person singular, present or perfect, of verbs of *saying*, *wishing*, or *thinking* to make a softened or cautious assertion.

pāce tuā dīxerim, *I would say by your leave*
velim ita putāre, *I should like to think so*
nōlim eum laudāre, *I should be unwilling to praise him*
ego cēnseam, *I should think*

¹ Also called the subjunctive of contingent futurity.

² Compare the use of the past subjunctive in conditions contrary to fact (§ 786).

b. The potential subjunctive is used in the indefinite second person singular, present or more frequently past, of verbs of *saying*, *believing*, *seeing*, and the like.

reōs dīcerēs, you would have said they were culprits
crēderēs victōs, you would have believed them conquered
vidērēs susurrōs, you might have seen them whispering (lit. whispers)

c. The potential subjunctive is used in any tense, person, or number to express something as possible or conceivable. The subject is often an indefinite pronoun.

aliquis dīcat, some one may say
nīl ego contulerim amicō, I should compare nothing to a friend
quid dīxisset, what would he have said?
quis temperet ā lacrimīs, who could refrain from tears?

687. The potential subjunctive may be regarded as the conclusion of a conditional sentence with the condition understood. See § 774.

688. The indicative is used in certain expressions when the potential subjunctive might have been expected. See § 643.

THE IMPERATIVE MOOD

689. The imperative is the mood of *command* or *request*. The negative is *nē*.

690. The tenses of the imperative are two in number, the present and the future.

a. The present imperative demands immediate action.

dēsīlīte, commīlītōnēs, leap down, comrades
mūtā istam mentem, change that purpose of yours
ēgrederē ex urbe, depart from the city

NOTE. The present with *nē* to express prohibitions is found only in early Latin and in poetry. For the regular expression of prohibitions see § 676.

b. The future imperative is used in commands demanding future action and in laws and precepts.

crās petitō, ask to-morrow

Phyllida mitte, postea ipse venitō, send Phyllis, afterwards come yourself

praetor custōs estō, the praetor shall be the guardian

boreā flante, nē arātō, when the north wind blows, don't plow

691. The verbs *sciō*, *meminī*, and *habeō* (in the sense of *consider*) are used in the future imperative instead of in the present.

mementō Horāti Flaccī, be mindful of Horatius Flaccus

sic habētō, mī Tīrō, so consider it, my good Tiro

For the future indicative used as imperative see § 656.

MOODS AND TENSES IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

692. Tenses are divided into two classes, — primary and secondary. Primary tenses denote present or future time. Secondary tenses denote past time.

1. Primary tenses	{	Present Future Present Perfect Future Perfect
II. Secondary tenses	{	Past Descriptive (Imperfect) Past Absolute (Historical Perfect) Past Perfect (Pluperfect)

693. In the subjunctive the present and perfect tenses are primary, the past and past perfect are secondary.

694. The tense class of a subjunctive in a dependent clause is determined by the tense class of the verb in the principal clause. This relationship is called *sequence of tenses*.

695. The following is the general rule for the *sequence of tenses* :

When the principal verb is primary, a dependent subjunctive will be present or perfect; when the principal verb is secondary, a dependent subjunctive will be past or past perfect.

REGULAR SEQUENCE OF TENSES

696. In dependent clauses the tenses of the subjunctive represent the action as *taking place*, as *going to take place*, or as *having taken place* at the time denoted by the principal verb.

The kind of action denoted by the tenses of the verb in the dependent clause, and the sequence of tenses, are shown in the following table :

	PRINCIPAL VERB	DEPENDENT SUBJUNCTIVE		
		Action going on	Future Action	Past Action
PRIMARY	Present Future Present Perfect Future Perfect	Present (After any primary tense)	Present or Perfect (After any primary tense)	Perfect (After any primary tense)
SECONDARY	Past Descriptive Past Absolute Past Perfect	Past (After any secondary tense)	Past or Past Perfect (After any secondary tense)	Past Perfect (After any secondary tense)

697. Sequence of tenses is illustrated in the table on the next page.

698. In applying the rules for the use and sequence of the tenses of the subjunctive, observe especially the following points :

a. The future is supplied by the present subjunctive after primary tenses and by the past subjunctive after secondary tenses.

exspectant quid Caesar faciat, they wait to see what Caesar will do
exspectabant quid Caesar faceret, they waited to see what Caesar would do

EXAMPLES OF SEQUENCE OF TENSES

	PRINCIPAL VERB	DEPENDENT SUBJUNCTIVE		
		Action going on	Future Action	Past Action
PRIMARY	rogō, I ask rogābō, I shall ask rogāvī, I have asked rogāverō, I shall have asked	quid faciās, what you are doing	quid faciās or quid facturus sis, what you will do quid fēcerīs, what you will have done	quid fēcerīs, what you have done, did, or were doing
SECONDARY	rogābam, I asked or was asking rogāvī, I asked rogāveram, I had asked	quid facerēs, what you were doing	quid facerēs or quid facturus essēs, what you would do quid fēcissēs, what you would have done	quid fēcissēs, what you had done

b. The future perfect is supplied by the perfect subjunctive after primary tenses and by the past perfect subjunctive after secondary tenses.

dēmōnstrat, sī vēnerint, multōs interitūrōs, he shows that if they come (shall have come), many will perish

dēmōnstrāvit, sī vēnissent, multōs interitūrōs, he showed that if they should come (should have come), many would perish

c. When a clearer reference to future time is necessary, the active periphrastic forms in *-ūrus sim* and *-ūrus essem* are employed.

expectant quid Caesar factūrus sit, they wait to see what Caesar will do

expectābant quid Caesar factūrus esset, they waited to see what Caesar would do

NOTE. This is the usual form of expression in future indirect questions (§ 815).

d. After a primary tense the perfect subjunctive is used to denote any past action.

nōn dubitō quī omnēs scripsērint, I do not doubt that all

}	<i>have written</i>
	<i>wrote</i>
	<i>were writing</i>

PECULIARITIES IN THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES

699. The present perfect is ordinarily treated as a secondary tense and is followed by a secondary tense of the subjunctive.

ut satis esset praesidī prōvisum est, provision has been made that there should be ample guard

a. When present time is clearly in mind, the present perfect is followed by a primary tense.

ita didicimus ut magis virtūte quam insidiis contendāmus, we have been so trained that we fight more by valor than by stratagems

700. The historical present (§ 648) takes either the primary or the secondary sequence.

rogat ut haec

}	<i>cūret</i>
	<i>cūrāret</i>

he

}	<i>asks</i>
	<i>asked</i>

him to attend to these matters

701. A *general truth* after a secondary tense follows the rule for sequence of tenses.

quanta cōnscientiae vīs esset ostendit, he showed how great the strength of conscience is

702. In clauses of result the perfect subjunctive is very often (the present rarely) used after a secondary tense.

ita nōn timidus fuit ut fortiter pugnāverit, he was so fearless that he fought bravely

Hortēsius ardēbat tantā cupiditāte dicendī ut in nullō umquam flagrantius studium viderim, Hortensius burned with so great a desire for speaking that I have never seen a more burning ardor in any man

a. Occasionally the same irregular use of the perfect subjunctive appears in other clauses.

cum multās hōrās pugnātum sit, āversum hostem vidēre nēmō potuit, though the conflict raged for many hours, no one could see an enemy in retreat

703. A dependent perfect infinitive is usually followed by a secondary tense, even when the principal verb on which the infinitive depends is in a primary tense.

satis mihi multa verba fēcisse videor quā rē hoc bellum esset necessārium, I seem to have made it sufficiently clear why this war is necessary

704. The past and past perfect subjunctive in conditions contrary to fact (§§ 786, 793) are not affected by the sequence of tenses.

nōn dubitō quin ad mē venirēs, si possēs, I do not doubt that you would come to me if you could

705. When a subjunctive depends on a subjunctive, the sequence is as follows :

- a.** The present subjunctive is regularly followed by primary tenses.
- b.** The past, perfect, and past perfect subjunctive are followed by secondary tenses.

nesciō quid causae sit cūr nullās ad mē litterās dēs (*dederīs, datūrus sīs*),
I do not know what the reason is why you send (have sent, will send) me no letter

nesciō quid causae fuerit cūr nullās ad mē litterās darēs (*dedissēs, datūrus essēs*), *I do not know what the reason was why you sent (had sent, would send) me no letter*

nesciēbam quid causae { *esset*
fuisset } cūr nullās ad mē litterās darēs (*dedissēs, datūrus essēs*), *I did not know what the reason { was had been } why you sent (had sent, would send) me no letter*

706. When a subjunctive clause depends on a present or future infinitive, a supine, gerund, or participle, its tense class is regulated by the tense class of the verb in the principal clause.

cōfidō mē quod *velim* facile ā tē impetrātūrum esse, *I trust I shall easily obtain from you what I wish*

cōstitueram venire ut tē vidērem, *I had made up my mind to come to see you*

mīsērunt Delphōs cōsultum (supine) quidnam facerent, *they sent to Delphi to ask what they should do*

NOTE. For the sequence of tenses after the perfect infinitive see § 703.

707. Though the laws of tense sequence are in general closely observed, they are not inflexible, and many irregularities occur. These are often due to a desire for rhetorical effect and sometimes to careless writing.

DEVELOPMENT OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

708. In the early stages of language there were no subordinate clauses, but only coördinate independent sentences. From these subordinate clauses were a gradual development.

For example, *timeō nē veniant* consisted originally of two independent sentences, *I fear. May they not come.* Later, *nē veniant* was felt as a subordinate clause, and thus was developed the complex sentence *I fear that they will come* (lit. *lest they may come*).

KINDS OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

709. From independent sentences with the indicative or subjunctive were developed three kinds of subordinate clauses :

I. Adverbial clauses, expressing various adverbial relationships and introduced by conjunctive adverbs.

veniō ut Caesarem laudem, I come to praise Caesar

II. Adjective clauses, used to qualify some noun or pronoun and introduced by the relative *quī* or by a relative adverb.

lĕgātum mittit quī haec cūret, he sends his lieutenant to see to these matters

NOTE. These are usually called relative clauses.

III. Substantive, or noun, clauses, used as subject, object, predicate noun, or appositive.

accidit ut Gallī cōnsilium mūtārent, it happened that the Gauls changed their plan. [Substantive clause used as subject.]

THE INDICATIVE OR SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

710. Both the indicative and the subjunctive are used in subordinate clauses. The uses of the subjunctive are all developed from the three meanings (volitive, optative, and potential) that this mood has in principal clauses (§ 670).

711. The indicative or subjunctive is used in subordinate clauses to express —

1. Purpose (subjunctive ; § 712).
2. Description or characteristic (subjunctive ; § 726).
3. Consequence or result (subjunctive ; § 731).
4. Time (indicative or subjunctive ; § 743).
5. Cause (indicative or subjunctive ; § 767).
6. Condition (indicative or subjunctive ; § 772).
7. *Comparison (subjunctive ; § 803).

8. Concession (indicative or subjunctive; § 805).
9. Proviso (subjunctive; § 811).
10. Indirect questions (subjunctive; § 812).
11. Facts introduced by **quod** (indicative; § 821).
12. Indirect discourse (subjunctive; § 886).

SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES OF PURPOSE

712. The subjunctive is used in adverbial, relative, and substantive clauses to express purpose.

I. *Adverbial Clauses of Purpose*

713. An adverbial clause denoting purpose takes the subjunctive, and is introduced by **ut** or **utī**, *that, in order that*, or **nē**, *that not, in order that not, lest*.

Caesar equōs remōvit ut spem fugae tolleret, *Cæsar removed the horses that he might take away the hope of flight*

ibi tormenta conlocāvit nē hostēs suōs circumvenīre possent, *there he placed his engines of war that the enemy might not be able to surround his men*

nē graviōrī bellō occurreret, ad exercitum proficiscitur, *he set out for the army that he might not meet with too serious a war*

nōn nūllī, ut timōris suspiciōnem vitārent, remanēbant, *some remained (in order) to avoid the suspicion of fear*

NOTE. Purpose clauses are often called final clauses. The subjunctive of purpose is volitive (§ 671) in origin.

a. Ut nōn may be used for **nē** when the negative applies to a single word or phrase and not to the whole clause.

ut nōn ēiectus sed invitātus īsse videāris, *that you may seem to have gone not expelled but invited*

b. Ut nē is stronger than **nē** alone.

exstiti ut nē omnīnō dēsertus esset, *I appeared that he might not be entirely deserted*

c. *And that not, and lest, or that not* are regularly expressed by *nēve* or *neu*.

id fēcit nē poenās daret nēve quid dētrīmentī acciperet, he did this that he might not receive punishment and that he might not suffer any harm

nūntiōs mīsit nē Helvētiōs frūmentō nēve aliā rē iuvārent, he sent messengers that they might not assist the Helvetii with grain or anything else

aliae publicae suprā pontem agēbantur ut eārum rērum vīs minuerētur neu ponti nocērent, other piles were driven above the bridge that the violence of those things might be diminished or that they might not injure the bridge

714. Subjunctive clauses with *ut* or *nē* are sometimes inserted parenthetically.

ac nē longum sit, tabellās prōferri iussimus, and, not to be tedious, we ordered the tablets to be produced

optima vitae, ut ita dicam, supellex, the best furniture, so to speak, of life

NOTE. The subjunctive may be regarded as depending on some unexpressed verb: as, (I speak thus) *in order not to be tedious*.

II. Relative Clauses of Purpose

715. A relative clause denoting purpose takes the subjunctive.

Helvētīi lēgātōs mittunt quī dicerent, the Helvetii sent ambassadors to say (lit. who should say)

sarmenta colligunt quibus fossās expleant, they gather fagots with which to fill the ditches

scribēbat orātiōnēs quās aliī dicerent, he wrote speeches for others to deliver

diēs dicta est quā omnēs convenirent, a day was appointed on which all should assemble

NOTE. In this construction *quī* is equivalent to *ut is, ut ego, etc.*; and the subjunctive, as in *ut* clauses of purpose, is volitive (§ 671) in origin.

716. A relative clause of purpose is often introduced by the relative adverbs *ubi* (= *ut ibi*), *whence*; *unde* (= *ut inde*), *whence*; *quō* (= *ut eō*), *whither*; etc.

domum ubi habitāret lēgit, *he chose a house where he might dwell*
(equivalent to *in order that he might dwell there*)

habēbam quō cōfugerem, *I had a place to flee to* (lit. *whither I might flee*; equivalent to *in order that I might flee thither*)

717. The adjectives **dignus**, **indignus**, and **idōneus** are followed by a relative clause of purpose.

hunc Caesar idōneum iūdicāvit quem mitteret, *Cæsar judged him a suitable person to send* (lit. *whom he might send*)

hī librī sunt dignī quī legantur, *these books are worth reading* (lit. *worthy which should be read*)

718. The ablative **quō** is used as a conjunction in purpose clauses which contain a comparative.

manipulōs laxāre iussit quō facilius gladiīs ūtī possent, *he gave orders to open the ranks that they might be able to use their swords more easily*

castella commūnit quō faciliūs hostīs prohibēre posset, *he fortified the redoubts that he might the more easily be able to ward off the enemy*

NOTE 1. In this construction **quō** is really an ablative of the measure of difference (§ 475).

NOTE 2. **Quō** rarely introduces a purpose clause containing no comparative.

Sulla exercitum, quō sibi fidum faceret, lūxuriōsē habuerat, *Sulla had treated the army luxuriously, in order to make it devoted to him*

NOTE 3. For **quō minus** (= **ut eō minus**) after verbs of hindering see § 720. III.

III. *Substantive Clauses of Purpose*

719. Substantive clauses developed from the volitive or optative subjunctive are generally designated as substantive clauses of purpose, and are conveniently classified together under this name. But in many cases no idea of purpose is perceptible and the mood is due to some original volitive or optative use which may never have denoted purpose at all.

NOTE. Compare substantive clauses of result (§ 736).

720. Object Clauses of Purpose. Object clauses with the subjunctive are used after verbs denoting an action *directed toward the future*. Thus:

I. Object clauses with the subjunctive, introduced by **ut** or **nē**, are used after verbs meaning to *advise, ask, command, decide, permit, persuade, strive, urge, wish*, and the like.

monet ut omnēs suspīciōnēs vitet, he advises him to avoid all suspicion
tē rogō atque orō ut eum iuvēs, I ask and beseech you to help him
suīs imperāvit nē quod tēlum reicerent, he commanded his men not to
throw back any weapon
persuādet Casticō ut rēgnum occupāret, he persuaded Casticus to seize
the royal power
hortātur eōs nē dēficiant, he urges them not to fail

a. Iubeō, order, and vetō, forbid, regularly take the infinitive with subject accusative.

liberōs ad sē addūcī iussit, he ordered the children to be brought to him
legātōs discēdere vetuerat, he had forbidden the lieutenants to go away

b. Volō (nōlō, mālō) and cupiō generally take the infinitive; so also other verbs of wishing when the subject remains the same.

rēx fierī voluī, I wished to become king
cupiō mē esse clēmētem or cupiō esse clēmēs, I desire to be merciful
cupiō ut impetret, I wish he may get it. [The subject changes.]

c. Cōnor, try, and patior, permit, regularly take the infinitive.

flūmen trānsire cōnantur, they try to cross the river
per suōs finis eōs ire patiuntur, they allow them to pass through their
territory

d. Many of these verbs take either the subjunctive or the infinitive; and some, retaining an earlier form of expression, may take the subjunctive without **ut**.

Caesar statuit proficiscī, Cæsar decided to set out. [Note the infinitive.]
statuunt ut decem mīlia hominum mittant, they decide to send ten
thousand men. [Note the subjunctive.]
rogat finem faciat, he asks him to cease

II. Object clauses with the subjunctive are used after verbs of *fearing* — *metuō*, *timeō*, *vereor*, etc. The object clause is introduced by *nē*, translated by *that*, and *nē nōn* or *ut*, translated by *that not*.¹

timeō nē Verrēs hoc fecerit, *I fear that Verres has done this*
vereor nē nōn veniat, *I fear that he is not coming*
vereor ut possim, *I fear that I cannot*

NOTE. When the verb of fearing is negated, *nē nōn* is preferred to *ut*.

nōn vereor nē tua virtūs opiniōnī hominum nōn respondeat, *I do not fear that your worth will not equal popular expectation*

a. Verbs of *fearing* are often followed by the complementary infinitive, as in English.

vereor tē laudāre, *I fear to praise you*

III. Object clauses with the subjunctive are used after verbs of *hindering*, *opposing*, *refusing* — *dēterreō*, *prohibeō*, *impediō*, *retineō*, *recūsō*, etc. The object clause is introduced by *nē*, *quīn*, or *quōminus* (*quō minus*). *Nē* or *quōminus* is used when the main clause is affirmative, *quīn* or *quōminus* when it is negative or implies a negative.

prohibent nē fiat, *they prevent it from being done*
dēterret nē maior multitudō trādūcātur, *he prevents a larger number from being brought over*
nihil impedit quōminus id faciāmus, *nothing hinders us from doing that*
Germānī retinēri nōn poterant quīn tela conicerent, *the Germans could not be restrained from hurling their weapons*
neque recūsant quīn armis contendant, *nor do they refuse to fight*

a. Some of these verbs may take the infinitive.

nostrōs ingredi prohibēbant, *they prevented our men from entering*

¹ Originally *timeō*; *nē accidat* meant *I fear; may it not happen* (§ 680). When the sentence becomes complex (§ 300), the English equivalent is *I fear that it will happen*. The origin of the *ut* clause after verbs of fearing is similar, *vereor*; *ut accidat* meaning originally *I fear; may it happen* (*ut* introducing a wish and not appearing in the translation, cf. § 682); then, *I fear that it will not happen*. The translation of *ut* by *that not* and of *nē* by *that* is therefore due only to the demands of the English idiom and not to any real change in the value of the Latin words themselves.

IV. Object clauses with the subjunctive are used after verbs of *doubt* or *ignorance* that are negated or imply a negative — *nōn dubitō, quis dubitat, quis ignōrat*, etc. The object clause is introduced by *quīn*.

nōn dubitat quīn Trōia peritūra sit, he does not doubt that Troy will fall

nōn dubitō quīn supplicium sūmat, I do not doubt that he will inflict punishment

quis ignōrat quīn tria genera sint, who is ignorant that there are three kinds?

a. Similarly negated *expressions* of doubt — *nōn est dubium, there is no doubt*; *nōn abest suspiciō, suspicion is not wanting*; etc. — are followed by *quīn* and the subjunctive.

nōn erat dubium quīn Helvētīi plūrimum possent, there was no doubt that the Helvetii were the most powerful

neque abest suspiciō quīn ipse sibi mortem cōsciverit, nor is the suspicion wanting that he committed suicide

NOTE. *Dubitō, doubt*, without a negative, is generally followed by an indirect question (§ 813); and in the sense of *hesitate*, regularly by the infinitive (§ 837), but sometimes by *quīn* and the subjunctive.

721. Subject Clauses of Purpose. Subject clauses of purpose with the subjunctive are used after the passive of verbs that in the active take object clauses (see § 720).

persuādētur Casticō ut rēgnum occupāret, Casticus is persuaded to seize the royal power (lit. it is persuaded to Casticus that he seize etc.)

erat eī praeceptum nē proelium committeret, it had been enjoined upon him that he should not engage in battle

722. Subject clauses of purpose with the subjunctive are used with *licet, oportet, and necesse est*, usually without *ut*.

licet querāmur, it is allowed us to complain
sint enim oportet, for they must exist

723. Subject clauses of purpose with the subjunctive are used with impersonal expressions like *reliquum est*, *sequitur*, *opus est*, *lĕx est*, *mōs est*, etc., when the dependent clause does not state *a fact already existing*, but looks forward to *something yet to come*.

reliquum est ut dīcam, it remains for me to say

est lĕx amīcitiāe ut idem amīcī velint, it is a law of friendship that friends should have the same wish

NOTE. Compare subject clauses of result, which state a fact (§§ 738, 739).

724. Clauses of Purpose as Appositives. Subjunctive clauses, introduced by *ut* or *nē*, may be used as appositives to nouns or pronouns.

in hoc ūnum vīvō, ut patriāe prōsim, I am living for this one thing, that I may be of service to my country

id agunt, ut omnēs videant, they strive for this, that all may see

haec erat lĕx, ut omnēs interficerentur, this was the law, that all should be killed

725. Developed from the volitive subjunctive in its deliberative use are substantive clauses following such expressions as *nūlla causa est cūr* (*quā rē, quīn*), *nōn est cūr*, etc.

nūlla causa est cūr eam, there is no reason why I should go (originally *why should I go? There is no reason*)

For other ways of expressing purpose, and for a summary of them all, see § 882. I, footnote.

SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES OF DESCRIPTION OR CHARACTERISTIC

726. A relative clause that describes an antecedent by telling *what kind* of person or thing it is, is called a clause of *description* or *characteristic* and takes the subjunctive.¹

¹ This construction has its origin in the *potential* subjunctive (§ 684), the idea of *possibility* easily passing over into that of *quality* or *characteristic* (compare *there is no one who would be able* with *there is no one who is able*). It is especially common when the antecedent is otherwise undefined or general,

nihil videō quod timeam, *I see nothing to fear (lit. which I fear)*
 multa dicunt quae vix intellegam, *they say many things which (such as)*
I hardly understand
 erat nullum oppidum quod se defenderet, *there was no town which*
defended itself (stated not as a fact but as a characteristic)
 erant omnino itinera duo quibus itineribus domo exire possent, *there*
were in all two ways by which they could go forth from home
 nihil habebam quod scriberem, *I had nothing to write*

727. Relative clauses of description or characteristic are used especially after general expressions of existence or non-existence :

sunt qui, *there are some who*
 nemō or nullus est qui, *there is no one who*
 nihil est quod, *there is nothing which*
 quis est qui, *who is there who*
 is qui, *the one who*
 unus or solus qui, *the only one who*

sunt qui putent, *there are some who think*
 domi nihil erat quō famem tolerarent, *there was nothing at home by*
which to sustain hunger
 quis est qui eum nōn laudet, *who is there that does not praise him?*
 nōn is sum quī hoc faciat, *I am not the man to do this*

NOTE. After expressions like *multi (nōn nulli, quidam) sunt qui*, where the antecedent is partially defined, the choice of mood depends on the shade of meaning.

728. After *nemō*, *nullus*, *nihil*, or *quis* the clause of description or characteristic may be introduced by *quīn* instead of *qui* (*quae, quod*) *nōn*.

nemō est quīn sciat, *there is no one who does not know*
 quis est quīn intellegat, *who is there who does not understand?*

and is to be distinguished from the relative clause with the indicative, which states a fact about the antecedent and does not describe it: thus, *nulla est natiō quam pertimēscimus* (indicative) means *there is no nation which (as a fact) we fear*; whereas *nulla est natiō quam pertimēscāmus* (subjunctive) means *there is no nation which is of such a character that we fear it*.

729. Included under relative clauses of description or characteristic are restrictive clauses like **quod sciam**, *so far as I know*; **quod invēnerim**, *so far as I have discovered*; etc.

nōn ego tē, quod sciam, umquam ante hunc diem vidī, *so far as I know, I have never seen you before this day*

730. The relative clause of description or characteristic may express *cause* or *concession*.

I. The relative clause of description or characteristic may express *cause*, the relative — equivalent to **cum is**, *since he* — being often accompanied by **ut**, **utpote**, or **quippe**.

incūsant Belgās quī sē dēdiderint, *they blame the Belgæ who have (= because they have) surrendered*

Caesar iniūriam facit quī vectigālia dēteriōra faciat, *Cæsar is doing an injustice since he is making the revenues less*

cōsul, ut quī id ipsum quaesisset, moram nōn fēcit, *the consul, since he had sought that very thing, did not delay*

II. The relative clause of description or characteristic may express *concession*, the relative being equivalent to **cum is**, *though he*, and the clause expressing something in spite of which the main statement is true.

Cicerō, quī omnēs superiōrēs diēs militēs in castrīs continisset, septimō diē quīnque cohortēs frūmentātum mittit, *Cicero, though he had kept his soldiers in camp on all the preceding days, on the seventh day sent five cohorts to gather grain*

NOTE. The relative clause sometimes amounts to a proviso (§ 811).

nihil est molestum quod nōn dēsiderēs, *nothing is troublesome which you do not miss (= provided you do not miss it)*

SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES OF CONSEQUENCE OR RESULT

731. The subjunctive is used in adverbial, relative, and substantive clauses to express consequence or result.¹

¹ The use of the subjunctive to express result is a development of its use in clauses of description (§ 726), the quality which *would* lead to some action readily passing over into a real action resulting from a quality. This step leads to clauses of pure result with no idea of description.

I. *Adverbial Clauses of Result*

732. An adverbial clause denoting consequence or result takes the subjunctive, introduced by *ut* or *utī*, *so that*. The negative is *nōn*.

The main clause often contains *tālis*, *tantus*, *tot*, *is* (= *tālis*), *ita*, *adeō*, *tam*, or some other word of quality or degree.

mōns impendēbat ut facile perpaucī prohibēre possent, a mountain towered above, so that a very few could easily keep (them) back
eius modī sunt tempestātēs cōsecūtae utī opus intermitteretur, storms of such a character followed that the work was interrupted
flūmen incredibīlī lēnitāte fluit ita ut oculīs, in utram partem fluat, iūdicārī nōn possit, the river flows with incredible slowness, so that it cannot be determined by the eyes in which direction it flows
tanta vīs probitātis est ut eam in hoste diligāmus, so great is the power of goodness that we love it even in an enemy

NOTE. It is to be observed that the constructions of purpose and result in Latin are precisely alike in the *affirmative*, but that *negative* purpose has *nē*, *negative* result *ut nōn*.

a. Instead of *nē quis*, *nē quid*, *nē ūllus*, etc., used to introduce negative purpose clauses, negative result clauses have *ut nēmō*, *ut nihil*, *ut nūllus*, etc.

sē occultābant nē quis eōs cernere posset, they concealed themselves that no one might be able to see them (purpose)

sē occultābant ut nēmō eōs cernere posset, they concealed themselves so that no one could see them (result)

733. A clause of result or characteristic with *quam ut*, *quam quī*, rarely with *quam* alone, may be used after a comparative.

haec signa rigidiōra sunt quam { ut } imitentur vērītātem, these statues are too stiff to (stiffer than that they should) represent nature
senior erat quam ut pugnāret, he was too old to fight

734. A clause of result is sometimes used in a *restrictive* sense and so amounts to a proviso (§ 811).

vōbīs ita concēdunt ut vōbiscum certent, they yield to you only to the extent that they vie with you

II. *Relative Clauses of Result*

735. Relative clauses of result, introduced by **quī**, **quīn** (equivalent to **quī nōn**), or a relative adverb (**ubi**, **unde**, **quō**, etc.), are developed from the relative clause of description or characteristic (§ 726), and, as a rule, cannot be distinguished from it.

nūlla est celeritās quae possit cum animī celeritāte contendere, there is no swiftness that can compare with the swiftness of the mind
nēmō erat adeō tardus quīn putāret, no one was so slothful as not to
 (= who did not) *think*
nōn habet unde tē solvat, he has no resources from which (lit. has not whence) to pay you

NOTE. Here belong such expressions as **facere nōn possum quīn**, **fieri nōn potest quīn**, with the subjunctive.

facere nōn possum } **quīn dīcam**, *I cannot but speak* (lit. *I am not able*
fieri nōn potest } *to act so that I do not, or it cannot happen that I do not)*

III. *Substantive Clauses of Result*

736. Substantive clauses developed from the potential subjunctive are generally called substantive clauses of result; but the idea of result is often weak or lacking altogether, and the subjunctive is translated like an indicative stating a fact. They are introduced by **ut** or **ut nōn**.

NOTE. Compare substantive clauses of purpose (§ 719).

737. Object Clauses of Result. Substantive clauses of result are used as the object of verbs of *bringing about* and *accomplishing* (**faciō**, **efficiō**, **perficiō**, etc.) when the dependent clause states a fact.

efficiam ut intellegātis, I will make you understand (lit. *that you understand*)
efficiēbat ut commeātūs portārī possent, he made it possible for supplies to be brought
obsidēs utī inter sē dent perficit, he brings it about that they give hostages to each other

738. Subject Clauses of Result. Substantive clauses of result stating a fact are used as the subject of passive verbs denoting *bringing about* and *accomplishing*.

factum est ut Germānī mercēde arcesserentur, *it was brought about that the Germans were invited for pay*

739. Substantive clauses of result stating a fact are used as subject with impersonals like *fit*, *accidit*, *evenit*, *it happens*; *relinquitur*, *restat*, *reliquum est*, *it remains*; *accēdit*, *it is added*; *est*, *it is a fact*; *sequitur*, *efficitur*, *it follows*.

accidit ut esset lūna plēna, *it happened that there was a full moon*
reliquum est ut mihi ipsī cōsulam, *the fact remains that I consult for myself*

ad senectūtem accēdēbat ut caecus esset, *to his old age was added the fact that he was blind*

740. Fore (or *futūrum esse*) *ut* with a clause of result as subject is regularly used for the future passive infinitive, and for the future active infinitive when this is lacking.

videō fore ut hostēs vincantur, *I see that the enemy will be conquered*
spērō fore ut contingat, *I hope that it will happen*

741. Clauses of Result as Appositives or Predicate Nouns. A substantive clause of result stating a fact may be in apposition with a noun or neuter pronoun, or may serve as a predicate noun after *mōs est*, *iūs est*, and similar expressions.

hanc grātiā refert, ut gravētur, *he makes this return, that he objects*
id est proprium civitātis, ut sit libera, *this is characteristic of a state, that it is free*

ea est vīs probitātis, ut eam vel in hoste dīligāmus, *such is the power of integrity that we love it even in an enemy*

est mōs hominum ut nōlint eundem plūribus rēbus excellere, *it is the way of men that they do not wish the same person to excel in several respects*

TEMPORAL CLAUSES

742. Temporal clauses are adverbial and express time.

743. Temporal clauses may be classified as follows :

I. Clauses with *postquam*, *ubi*, *ut*, etc., with the indicative (§§ 745 ff.).

II. Clauses with *cum*, with the indicative or subjunctive (§§ 749 ff.).

III. Clauses with *antequam* and *priusquam*, with the indicative or subjunctive (§§ 757 ff.).

IV. Clauses with *dum*, *dōnec*, *quoad*, and *quam diū*, with the indicative or subjunctive (§§ 762 ff.).

Observe that only with the first of these varieties is the indicative always used.

744. In general, expressions of *pure time* are in the indicative. The subjunctive is used when the time relation is modified by some other notion, as *description*, *cause*, *concession*, *doubt*, *purpose*, and the like.

I. Temporal Clauses with *postquam*, *ubi*, *ut*, etc.

745. Clauses introduced by *postquam* (*posteaquam*), *after*; *ubi*, *ut*, *when*; *cum* *primum*, *simul* *atque* (*simul* *ac*, or *simul* *alone*), *as soon as*, take the indicative, — usually in the perfect or the historical present.

postquam id animum advertit, cōpiās suās Caesar subducit, *after* Caesar noticed this, he withdrew his forces

Caesar, ubi suōs urgēri vidit, prōcessit, *when* Caesar saw that his men were hard pressed, he advanced

Catilinā, ubi eōs convēnisse videt, sēcēdit, *when* Catiline sees that they have come together, he retires

simul atque intrōductus est, rem cōnfēcit, *as soon as* he was brought in, he finished the matter

746. *Ut* and *ubi* (sometimes compounded with *-cumque*) in the sense of *whenever* take the perfect indicative after a primary tense and the past perfect after a secondary tense (cf. § 800. a).

ut quisque vēnit, accēdō, whenever any one comes (has come), I go to him

etiam senex, ubi occāsio data erat, discēbat, even in old age he learned whenever opportunity was given

747. To denote a definite interval of time after, **postquam** regularly takes the past perfect indicative. When thus used, **post** is usually separated from **quam** and placed in the main clause as a preposition or adverb, or is sometimes omitted altogether.

pugnātum est post paucōs diēs (or paucis post diēbus) quam pervēnerat, the battle was fought a few days after he arrived
tertio annō quam Aristidēs mortuus erat, three years after Aristides died

748. **Postquam, ubi, ut,** etc. are used with the past descriptive indicative to denote a continued state in past time.

ubi nēmō obvius ībat, ad castra hostium tendunt, when no one came to meet them, they hastened to the camp of the enemy

II. Temporal Clauses with *cum*

749. Cum Clauses with the Indicative. A **cum** clause referring to present or future time takes the indicative.

animus nec cum adest nec cum discēdit appāret, the soul is not visible either when it is present or when it departs

tē vidēre volō, cum id satis commodē facere poterō, I wish to see you, when I can do so conveniently

cum vēneris, cognōscēs, when you (shall have) come, you will find out

NOTE. Observe that the English present is represented by the Latin future in the second example and by the future perfect in the third. This precision in expressing time is characteristic of Latin. Cf. §§ 657, 663.

a. A **cum** clause with the indicative is used to explain one act as identical with another (*explicative cum*).

cum quiescunt, probant, when they are silent, they approve

750. A **cum** clause referring to past time takes the indicative when it dates or defines the time of the main action (*definitive cum*).

When thus used, *cum* is often found in the combinations *eō tempore cum*, *eō diē cum*, *nunc cum*, *ōlim cum*, *nūper cum*, *tum cum*, and the like.

pāruīt eo tempore cum pārēre necesse erat, he obeyed at the time when it was necessary to obey

tum cum in Asiā rēs magnās permultī amiserant, at that time when many had lost great fortunes in Asia, etc.

cūm Caesar in Galliam vēnit, factiōnēs erant duae, when Cæsar came into Gaul, there were two factions

quem ego cum ex urbe pellēbam, hoc prōvidēbam, when I was trying to drive him out of the city, I was anticipating this

Conōn praetor fuit cum Athēniēsēs dēvicti sunt, Conon was commander at the time when the Athenians were defeated

751. Sometimes an independent sentence introduced by *vix* (*hardly*), *iam* (*already*), *nōndum* (*not yet*), or an adverb of similar value, is followed by a *cum* clause, subordinate in form, but expressing the principal action. In this use (called *cum inversum*) *cum* takes the perfect indicative or the historical present.

vix vēneram cum profectus est, hardly had I come when he set out

vix loquī incēperam cum subitō ingressus est, hardly had I begun to speak when suddenly he entered

vix exercitus prōcesserat cum Gallī proelium committunt, hardly had the army advanced when the Gauls joined battle

752. *Cum* meaning *whenever* (*iterative cum*) takes the same construction as *ubi* in this sense. See §§ 746, 800. *a.*

753. Cum Clauses with the Subjunctive. *Cum* is used with the past or past perfect subjunctive to *describe the circumstances* that accompanied or preceded the action of the main verb (*descriptive cum*).¹

¹ *Cum* (early form *quom*) is by origin a relative, and has constructions similar to *quī*. In early Latin it took the indicative in all tenses. In classic Latin a distinction is made in the past tenses between *cum* *defining a time* and *cum* *describing a time*. *Cum* *defining a time* takes the indicative (§ 750), like an indicative *quī* clause of *fact*. *Cum* *describing a time* takes the subjunctive, like a *quī* clause of *description* or *characteristic* (§ 726). *The cum clause*

Caesari cum id nūntiātum esset, mātūrat proficīscī, *when this had been announced to Cæsar, he hastened to set out*
 fuit antea tempus cum Germānōs Gallī virtūte superārent, *there was formerly a time when the Gauls surpassed the Germans in valor*
 cum essem ōtiōsus domī, accēpi tuās litterās, *when I was at home taking my ease, I received your letter*
 cum esset Cæsar in citeriōre Galliā, crēbrī ad eum rŭmōrēs adferēbantur, *when Cæsar was in hither Gaul, frequent reports were brought to him*
 cum ab his quaereret, sic reperiēbat, *when he made inquiries from these men, he gained the following information*
 cum dē imprōvisō vēnisset, Rēmī lēgātōs misērunt, *when he had come unexpectedly, the Remi sent envoys*

754. Cum Causal. A *cum* clause of description with the subjunctive sometimes denotes *cause*. *Cum* is then usually translated by *since*, and the subjunctive may be in any tense.

id difficile nōn est, cum tantum valeāmus, *this is not difficult since we are so strong*

Haeduī cum se dēfendere nōn possent, lēgātōs mittunt, *since the Hædui could not defend themselves, they sent ambassadors*

quae cum ita sint, eāmus, *since this is so, let us go*

with the past or past perfect subjunctive is the regular construction in narrative, and has largely displaced the use of cum with a past tense of the indicative, even where no idea of characteristic is perceptible.

The difference between these two uses of *cum* is further illustrated by the following examples in English :

1. *Catiline made a conspiracy when Cicero was consul.* Here the *when* clause merely defines and fixes the time when Catiline made his conspiracy (63 B. C.), and the main statement is true independently of Cicero's being consul. Catiline would have made his conspiracy just the same if Cicero had not been consul.

2. *Columbus discovered America when he was seeking a new route to India.* Here the *when* clause does not define or date the time of the discovery of America ; it describes the circumstances under which America was discovered, and suggests that but for these circumstances Columbus would not have made the discovery.

The Latin would use the indicative in the first sentence and the subjunctive in the second.

NOTE 1. With this may be compared the *quī* clause of characteristic denoting cause (§ 730. I).

NOTE 2. Following the usage of early Latin, *cum* causal is sometimes found with the indicative in the classical period.

grātulor tibi cum tantum valēs (Cicero), *I congratulate you since you are so influential*, or, freely, *I congratulate you on your influence*

755. *Cum* Concessive. A *cum* clause of description with the subjunctive may denote *concession*. *Cum* is then translated by *though* or *while*, and the subjunctive may be in any tense.

cum primī concidissent, tamen reliquī resistēbant, *though the foremost had fallen, yet the others kept on resisting*

Sabinus castrīs sēsē tenēbat, cum Viridovix cotidiē pugnandī potestātem faceret, *Sabinus remained in camp, though Viridovix daily gave him a chance to fight*

a. When *cum . . . tum* means *both . . . and*, the *cum* clause is in the indicative; but with the meaning *though . . . yet*, the *cum* clause is generally in the subjunctive.

cōnsilium tuum cum semper probāvissem, tum multō magis probāvī lēctīs tuis proximīs litterīs, *though I had always esteemed your wisdom, yet I esteemed it much more after reading your last letter*

756. Synopsis of *cum* constructions :

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|---|
| I. Indicative uses of <i>cum</i> | } | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In clauses referring to present or future time (§ 749) 2. In clauses referring to past time that define the time of the main action (<i>definitive cum</i>; § 750) 3. <i>Cum inversum</i> (§ 751) 4. <i>Cum</i> meaning <i>whenever</i> (<i>iterative cum</i>; § 752) |
| II. Subjunctive uses of <i>cum</i> | } | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. With the past or past perfect subjunctive in clauses of description or characteristic (<i>descriptive cum</i>; § 753) 2. <i>Cum</i> causal (<i>since</i>; § 754) 3. <i>Cum</i> concessive (<i>though</i> or <i>while</i>; § 755) |

III. Temporal Clauses with *antequam* and *priusquam*

757. Clauses introduced by *antequam* or *priusquam*, *before*, are relative in character, and, like other relative clauses, take the indicative in expressions of real or assumed fact and the subjunctive to express other relations.

NOTE. *Antequam* and *priusquam* consist of the adverbs *ante* (*before*) and *prius* (*sooner*) combined with the relative conjunction *quam* (*than*). The adverbs often stand in the main clause, being separated from *quam* by other words. *Priusquam* is much oftener used than *antequam*.

758. *Antequam* and *priusquam* with the Indicative. The indicative is used with *antequam* or *priusquam* to express a real or assumed fact.

a. The present or perfect is used in clauses referring to present time.

priusquam lūcet, adsunt, before it is dawn, they are present

b. The present or future perfect is used in clauses referring to future time.

priusquam dē cēterīs rēbus respondeō, dē amīcitiā dīcam, before I reply in regard to the other matters, I will speak about friendship

nōn dēfatigābor antequam haec percēperō, I shall not weary before I (shall) have traced out these things

NOTE. The present subjunctive is sometimes found in uses a and b.

c. The perfect is used in clauses referring to past time.

rēs ita sē habēbant antequam venī, things were in that condition before I came

neque prius fugere dēstitērunt quam ad flūmen pervēnērunt, nor did they stop running before they reached the river

NOTE. This construction is especially common when the main clause is negative, as in the last example above.

759. *Antequam* and *priusquam* with the Subjunctive. The past subjunctive is used with *antequam* or *priusquam* in clauses referring to past time: (a) to denote an act that was expected and prepared for by a preceding action expressed in the main

clause; (*b*) to denote an act that was expected but prevented by a preceding action expressed in the main clause.

Caesar suōs hortābātur priusquam proelium committerent, *Cæsar used to address his men before they joined (should join) battle.* [That is, in expectation of a battle, Cæsar prepared his men by addressing them.]

Caesar Britanniae litora explorāvit priusquam trānseundi periculum faceret, *Cæsar explored the shores of Britain before he made the attempt to cross.* [That is, in expectation of crossing to Britain, Cæsar explored its shores.]

priusquam tēlum abicī posset, omnis aciēs terga vertit, *before a weapon could be thrown, the whole line fled.* [That is, the expected hurling of weapons was prevented by the flight of the enemy.]

priusquam effugere posset, interfectus est, *before he could escape, he was put to death*

NOTE 1. Rarely the past perfect subjunctive is used instead of the past.

NOTE 2. After the historical present (§ 648) the present (rarely the perfect) subjunctive may be used instead of the past.

ab eō prius militēs nōn discēdunt quam in cōnspectum Caesaris dēdūcātur, *the soldiers did not leave him before he was conducted into Cæsar's presence*

NOTE 3. The subjunctive with *antequam* or *priusquam* is often called the *subjunctive of expectation* or *anticipation*.

760. The later writers freely use the past subjunctive with *antequam* and *priusquam* even when no idea of expectation is present.

priusquam peteret cōsulātum, insānit, *he was insane before he sought the consulship*

761. Synopsis of constructions with *antequam* and *priusquam* :

<i>antequam</i> and <i>priusquam</i>	{	I. Present time — indicative, present or perfect (§ 758. <i>a</i>)	{	
		II. Future time — indicative, present or future perfect (§ 758. <i>b</i>)		
		III. Past time		
		Indicative (perfect) to state an <i>actual fact</i> (§ 758. <i>c</i>)		
		Subjunctive (past)		<i>a.</i> To denote action expected and prepared for (§ 759. <i>a</i>) <i>b.</i> To denote action expected but prevented (§ 759. <i>b</i>)

IV. Temporal Clauses with *dum*, *dōnec*, *quoad*, and *quam diū*

762. *Dum*, *dōnec*, *quoad*, and *quam diū*, meaning *as long as*, take the indicative.

dum anima est, est spēs, as long as there is life, there is hope
dōnec grātus eram tibi, rēge beātor fui, as long as I enjoyed thy
favor, I was happier than a king
quoad potuit, restitit, he resisted as long as he could
quam diū mihi insidiātus es, mē dēfendi, as long as you plotted against
me, I defended myself

763. *Dum*, meaning *while*, takes the indicative in the historical present.

The historical present (§ 648) in this construction is generally translated by the English past progressive.

dum haec geruntur, Caesari nūntiātum est, while this was going on,
word was brought to Cæsar
dum Rōmānī cōsultant, iam Saguntum oppugnābātur, while the
Romans were deliberating, Saguntum was already being besieged

NOTE. As shown by the examples, *dum* with the present denotes *in* the time, but *not throughout* the time. In the latter sense *dum*, though it may be translated by *while*, is equivalent to *as long as*, and the tenses present no peculiarity (§ 762).

764. *Dum*, *dōnec*, and *quoad*, meaning *until*, take the perfect indicative to denote an *actual fact* in past time.

neque finem sequendī fēcērunt quoad praecipitēs hostēs ēgērunt, nor
did they cease pursuing until they routed the enemy
dōnec rediit, silentium fuit, until he returned, there was silence
Rōmae fuērunt quoad Metellus profectus est, they remained at Rome
until Metellus set out

765. *Dum*, *dōnec*, and *quoad*, meaning *until*, take the present or past subjunctive to denote *purpose* or *expectation*.

exspectās fortasse dum dīcat, you are waiting perhaps for him to say
 * (*until he says*)

expectāvit dum reliquae nāvēs convenirent, *he waited for the rest of the ships to join him (until they should join him)*

Horātius impetum sustinuit quoad ceteri pontem interrumperent, *Horatius sustained the attack until the rest should cut down the bridge*

NOTE. The present and future perfect indicative are occasionally found.

766. Synopsis of constructions with **dum**, **dōnec**, **quoad**, and **quam diū** :

dum, dōnec, quoad, and quam diū	{	I. Dum, dōnec, quoad, quam diū , <i>as long as</i> , indicative (§ 762)	{	
		II. Dum , <i>while</i> , indicative (historical present ; § 763)		
		III. Dum, dōnec, quoad, <i>until</i>		

CAUSAL CLAUSES

767. Cause is expressed in Latin by three kinds of clauses :

- I. **Cum** clauses of description (§ 754).
- II. **Quī** clauses of description or characteristic (§ 730. I).
- III. Clauses introduced by **quod**, **quia**, **quoniam**, and **quandō**.

768. **Quod** and **quia**, *because*, take (a) the indicative when the writer or speaker is giving *his own reason* ; (b) the subjunctive when he is giving the *reason of another*.

a. Indicative.

fortissimī sunt Belgae proptereā quod longissimē absunt, *the Belgae are the bravest because they are the farthest away*

Helvētīi reliquōs Gallōs virtūte praecedunt quod ferē cotidiānis proeliis **cum** Germānis contendunt, *the Helvetii excel the remaining Gauls in valor because they fight nearly every day with the Germans*

leve erat vulnus quia sē retrahēbat ab ictū, *the wound was slight because he drew (himself) back from the blow*

b. Subjunctive.

mihi grātiaē aguntur *quod* virtūte meā rēs pūblica sit līberāta, *thanks are given to me because (as they say) the state has been set free by my courage*

Haedui querēbantur *quod* Harūdēs finēs populārentur, *the Haedui complained because (as they said) the Harudes were laying the country waste*

mea māter irāta est *quia* nōn redierim, *my mother is angry because I did n't return (as she says)*

NOTE 1. The subjunctive is used on the principle of implied indirect discourse (§ 906).

NOTE 2. *Quia* regularly introduces a statement of fact, and rarely takes the subjunctive.

769. *Quoniam* and *quandō*, *since*, introduce a reason of the writer or speaker, and take the indicative.

quoniam supplicātiō decrēta est, celebrātōte illōs diēs, *since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days*

quandō ita vīs, dī bene vortant, *since you so wish, may the gods bless the undertaking*

NOTE. *Quandō*, originally temporal (*when*), is rarely used in the causal sense in classic Latin prose.

770. *Nōn quod*, *nōn quia*, and *nōn quō* (for *nōn eō quod*) introduce a possible but rejected reason, and hence take the subjunctive.

haec servanda cēseō, *nōn quod* probem, sed *quia* etc., *I think these should be preserved, not because I approve of them, but because etc.*

a. *Nōn quā*, *not that not*, with the subjunctive, is sometimes used for *nōn quod nōn*.

volūi ad tē scribere, *nōn quā* cōfīderem dīligentiae tuae, sed etc., *I wished to write to you, not that I did not trust your diligence, but etc.*

b. The indicative is sometimes used in clauses of this sort when the statement is a fact, though not accepted as the true reason.

haec dixit orātor, *nōn quod* timēbat, sed *quod* etc., *the orator said this, not because he was afraid (as he really was), but because etc.*

771. Synopsis of causal constructions :

Causal clauses are expressed by	{	I. Quod and quia	{	<i>a.</i> With the indicative when the writer or speaker gives his own reason (§ 768. <i>a</i>)
				<i>b.</i> With the subjunctive when the writer or speaker gives, not his own reason, but the reason alleged by another (§ 768. <i>b</i>)
		II. Quoniam and quandō with the indicative (§ 769)		
		III. Cum (<i>since</i>) with the subjunctive (§ 754)		
		IV. Quī with the subjunctive (§ 730. I)		

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

772. A clause expressing a condition, introduced by *if* or by some equivalent word, is called a conditional clause.

773. A sentence that contains a conditional clause is called a conditional sentence.

774. A conditional sentence is complex and consists of two parts :¹

a. A subordinate (adverbial) clause, commonly introduced by **sī**, *if*, and expressing the condition.

b. A principal clause, expressing the conclusion, that is, the statement which is true in case the condition expressed in the **sī** clause is true.

sī **obsidēs** **ab** **eīs** **dentur** (condition), **cum** **eīs** **pācem** **faciat** (conclusion),
if hostages should be given by them, he would make peace with them

NOTE. The term "condition" is often applied to the whole sentence, including the condition and conclusion.

¹ The conditional complex sentence has arisen, like other complex sentences (§ 708), from two sentences originally independent but closely related in thought. Thus, *laugh, and the world laughs with you* is an earlier and simpler form of expression than *if you laugh, the world laughs with you*. The conditional particle **sī** was originally an adverb meaning *so*, and its conjunctive use and meaning developed later. Conditional sentences without **sī** occur in all periods of Latin and are a survival of the earlier linguistic form.

775. Use of *sī* and its Compounds. The conditional clause, when *affirmative*, is introduced by *sī*, *if*; when *negative*, by *nisi*, *unless*. But if the negative applies to only one word, *sī nōn* is used instead of *nisi*.

actum dē tē est nisi prōvidēs, it's all over with you unless you look out
sī nōn eāsdem opēs habēmus, eandem tamen patriam habēmus, if we have
not the same resources, we have nevertheless the same native land

a. *Nisi sī*, *except if, unless*, occurs for *nisi*. *Nī* for *nisi* is mostly poetic or late.

776. *Sin*, but *if*, introduces a supposition contrary to one that precedes; *nisi vērō* or *nisi forte* an *ironical* objection.

accūsātor illum dēfendet sī poterit; sīn minus poterit, negābit, the
accuser will defend him if he can; but if he cannot, he will refuse

777. *Sive* (or *seu*), or *if*, is generally used as a correlative (*sive* (or *seu*) . . . *sive* (or *seu*), *if* . . . or *if, whether* . . . or) to introduce alternative conditional clauses.

facilis est rēs, sive manent sive proficiscuntur, the matter is easy,
whether they stay or go

CLASSIFICATION OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

778. Particular and General Conditions. Any kind of conditional sentence may be either (*a*) particular or (*b*) general.

a. A particular condition refers to a definite act, or series of acts, occurring at some definite time.

b. A general condition refers to any one of a series of acts which may occur, or may have occurred, at any time.

For example, *if the enemy should cross the river, they would be driven back* is a particular condition; but *if at any time the enemy crosses the river, they are always driven back* is a general condition.

c. Particular and general conditions usually have the same form. For special forms of general conditions see § 800.

779. Conditional sentences, according to the *time* of the supposed case, are divided into three classes:

I. Present conditions II. Future conditions III. Past conditions

780. Present and past conditions are of two kinds: *non-committal* and *contrary to fact*.

781. A present or past condition is *non-committal* when nothing is said or implied as to the truth or falsity of the case supposed.

If this is gold (perhaps it is, perhaps it is n't), *it is valuable*

782. A present or past condition is *contrary to fact* when the supposition has been realized and found to be false.

If this were gold (but it is n't), *it would be valuable*

783. Future conditions are of two kinds: *more definite* and *less definite*.

a. A *more definite* future condition states a future possibility distinctly, expressing a doubt as to whether it *will* or *will not* be the case.

If this proves to be gold (that remains to be seen and is a future possibility), *it will be valuable*

b. A *less definite* future condition states a future possibility less distinctly, expressing a doubt as to whether it *would* or *would not* be the case.

If this should prove to be gold, it would be valuable

I. Present Conditions

784. Present conditions are either non-committal or contrary to fact.

785. Present non-committal conditions regularly take the present indicative in both clauses.

sī hoc facit, laudātur, if he is doing this, he is being praised

a. The verb in the conclusion of a present non-committal condition is not always an indicative, but may be a hortatory or an optative subjunctive, an imperative, or any other form demanded by the sense.

sī libertātem servāre nōn possumus, moriāmur, if we cannot preserve our liberty, let us die (hortatory subjunctive in the conclusion)

sī vērum nōn dīcō, deī supplicium sūmant, if I am not speaking the truth, may the gods punish me (optative subjunctive in the conclusion)

sī nōndum satis cernitis, recordāmini, if you do not yet see clearly, recollect (imperative in the conclusion)

786. Present conditions contrary to fact regularly take the past subjunctive in both clauses.

sī hoc faceret, laudārētur, if he were doing this (but he is not), he would be praised (at the present time)

sī dīves essem, nōn avārus essem, if I were rich, I should not be avaricious

sī vīveret, verba eius audīrētis, if he were living, you would hear his words

II. Future Conditions

787. Future conditions are either *more definite* or *less definite*, and express future possibility (cf. § 783).

788. More definite future conditions regularly take the future indicative in both clauses, the conclusion stating what *will* be the result if the condition is (*shall be*) realized.

sī hoc faciet, laudābitur, if he does (shall do) this, he will be praised

sī dīves erō, nōn avārus erō, if I shall be rich, I shall not be avaricious

nātūram sī sequēmur ducem, numquam aberrābimus, if we (shall) follow nature as guide, we shall never go astray

sī Gallī obsidēs mittent, Cæsar cum eis pācem faciet, if the Gauls (shall) send hostages, Cæsar will make peace with them

NOTE. In English the conditional clause is usually expressed by the present indicative, rarely by the future with *shall*.

789. Less definite future conditions regularly take the present subjunctive¹ in both clauses, the conclusion stating what *would* be the result if the condition *should be* realized.

sī hoc faciat, laudētur, if he should do this, he would be praised

sī dīves sim, nōn avārus sim, if I should be rich, I should not be avaricious

haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nōnne impetrāre dēbeat, if your native land should thus speak with you, would she not deserve to prevail?

quod sī quis deus mihi largiātur, valdē recūsem, if some god should grant me this, I should stoutly refuse

¹ The subjunctive in the conditional clause of a less definite future conditional sentence is hortatory by origin, and the subjunctive in the conclusion is potential (§ 687).

790. The future perfect is used in the conditional clause instead of the future, and the perfect subjunctive instead of the present, when the conditional act is regarded as *completed* before that of the conclusion begins.

*id sī fēceris, magnam habēbō grātiām, if you do (shall have done)
this, I shall be very grateful*

*sī relictus sim, nōn possim dicere, if I should be (should have been)
deserted, I should be unable to speak*

NOTE. Not infrequently the future perfect is found in both clauses.

*mihi grātum fēceris sī hunc comprehenderis, you will do (will have done)
me a favor if you receive (shall have received) him*

III. Past Conditions

791. Past conditions are either non-committal or contrary to fact.

792. Past non-committal conditions regularly take the past descriptive or perfect indicative in both clauses.

*sī hoc faciēbat (or fēcīt), laudābātur (or laudātus est), if he did this, he
was praised*

sī dīves eram, nōn avārus eram, if I was rich, I was not avaricious

*sī ita existimāvistī, vehementer errāvistī, if you thought so, you were
greatly mistaken*

*sī probus es, poenam nōn meruistī, if you are good, you did not deserve
punishment. [Non-committal condition, with a present conditional
clause and a past conclusion.]*

NOTE. The conclusion of a past non-committal condition may assume a great variety of forms. Cf. § 785. a.

793. Past conditions contrary to fact regularly take the past perfect subjunctive in both clauses.

*sī hoc fēcisset, laudātus esset, if he had done this (but he did not), he
would have been praised*

*sī dīves fuisset, nōn avārus fuisset, if I had been rich, I should not
have been avaricious*

*nisi tū amīssēs, numquam recēpisset, unless you had lost it, I should
never have recovered it*

SYNOPSIS OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

794. The use of moods and tenses in regular conditional sentences is shown in the synopsis on the opposite page.

SPECIAL PECULIARITIES OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Peculiar Future Conditions

795. The conclusion of a future condition may be in any form that expresses or implies future time : as, the imperative, the present indicative of the periphrastic conjugations and of verbs of *necessity*, *possibility*, and the like.

quid, si hostēs veniant, *factūrī estis*, *what are you going to do if the enemy should come?*

possum istum accūsāre, si cupiam, *I can accuse him if I desire*

796. A future condition is sometimes regarded from a past point of view. In such cases the past or past perfect subjunctive is used without implying that the condition is contrary to fact.

Caesar si peteret, nōn quicquam prōficeret, *if even Caesar were to ask, he would gain nothing.* [This is simply si petat, nōn prōficiat, viewed from the past.]

Peculiar Conditions Contrary to Fact

797. Past tenses of the indicative may be used in the conclusion of conditions contrary to fact, as follows :

a. With verbs like oportet, decet, dēbeō, possum, necesse est, opus est.

b. With verbs in the active or passive periphrastic conjugation.

c. With longum, aequum, difficile, melius, etc. in such expressions as longum erat, *it would be tedious* ; difficile erat, *it would be difficult* ; melius fuerat, *it would have been better.*

nōn potuit fieri sapiēns, nisi nātus esset, *he could not have become a sage if he had not been born*

si privātus esset, tamen is erat dēligendus, *if he were a private citizen, yet he ought to be chosen*

NOTE. In this construction the past descriptive indicative usually refers to present time, and the perfect or past perfect to past time.

		Present indicative in both clauses :	
		sī adest, bene est, <i>if he is (now) here, it is well</i>	
I. Present	a. Non-committal	Past subjunctive in both clauses :	
	b. Contrary to fact	sī adesset, bene esset, <i>if he were (now) here, it would be well</i> (but he is NOT here)	
II. Future	a. More definite	1. Future indicative in both clauses :	
		sī aderit, bene erit, <i>if he is (shall be) here, it will be well</i>	
	b. Less definite	the conclusion :	
		sī adfuert, bene erit, <i>if he is (shall have been) here, it will be well</i>	
	b. Less definite	1. Present subjunctive in both clauses :	
		sī adsit, bene sit, <i>if he should be here, it would be well</i>	
	b. Less definite	2. Perfect subjunctive in the condition, present subjunctive in the conclusion :	
		sī adfuert, bene sit, <i>if he should be (should have been) here, it would be well</i>	
III. Past	a. Non-committal	Past descriptive or perfect indicative in both clauses :	
		sī aderat, bene erat, <i>if he was (then) here, it was well</i>	
	b. Contrary to fact	Past perfect subjunctive in both clauses :	
		sī adfuisset, bene fuisset, <i>if he had (then) been here, it would have been well</i> (but he was NOT here)	

SYNOPSIS
OF
CONDITIONS

798. The past subjunctive may be used in either the condition or the conclusion of a condition contrary to fact, to denote continued action in past time or a past state of affairs that still exists.

Carthāgō nōn concidisset, nisi ea urbs classibus nostrīs patēret, Carthage would not have fallen, had not that city been (constantly) open to our fleets

799. In poetry the present subjunctive is sometimes used, instead of the past, in conditions contrary to fact.

. *nec, sī sciat, imperet illīs (Ovid), nor, if he knew, could he control them*

Special Forms of General Conditions

800. Special forms of general conditions (§ 778. *b, c*), denoting repeated or customary action, are shown in the following table :

TIME	CONDITION	CONCLUSION
PRESENT	Present subjunctive, second person singular, of an indefinite subject, or perfect indicative	Present indicative
PAST	Past or past perfect subjunctive (rare in classic Latin), or past perfect indicative	Past indicative

memoria minuitur sī eam nōn exerceās, the memory grows weak if you don't exercise it

sī quōs inūtilēs notāvērunt, necārī iubent, if they (ever) mark any as infirm, they (always) order them to be put to death

sī quis prehenderētur, ēripiēbātur, if any one was (ever) arrested, he was (always) rescued

sī quis equō dēciderat, circumstībant, if any one (ever) fell from his horse, they (always) surrounded him

a. General conditions are often introduced by *cum* or *ubi*, meaning *whenever* (§§ 746, 752).

cum rosam viderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābātur, whenever he saw a rose, then he thought spring was beginning

NOTE. In this construction the perfect indicative is usually translated by the English present, and the past perfect by the English past. See examples above.

CONDITIONAL RELATIVE CLAUSES

801. Relative clauses often express condition, and may take the place of any of the forms of condition found in conditional sentences.

quī mentīrī solet, peierāre cōsuēvit, whoever is in the habit of lying is accustomed to swear falsely. [= *sī quis solet*, present non-committal.]

quisquis hūc vēnerit, vāpulābit, whoever comes here shall get a thrashing. [= *sī quis vēnerit*, future more definite.]

quaecumque vōs causa hūc attulisset, laetārer, whatever cause had brought you here, I should be glad. [= *sī qua . . . attulisset*, past contrary to fact.]

SUBSTITUTES FOR REGULAR CONDITIONS

802. Condition may be expressed by a word or a phrase, instead of appearing in the regular form with *sī*; or it may be merely implied (§ 687).

facīle mē paterer, illō ipsō iudice quaerante, prō Rōsciō dīcere, I should readily allow myself to speak for Roscius, if that very judge were conducting the case. [Present contrary to fact, *sī quaereret, paterer.*]

quid hunc paucōrum annōrum accessiō iuvāre potuisset, what good could the addition of a few years have done him? [Past contrary to fact, *sī accessissent, quid . . . potuisset?*]

commovē: sentiēs, stir him up: you will find etc. [Future more definite, *sī commovēbis, sentiēs.*]

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES OF COMPARISON

803. Conditional clauses of comparison are introduced by comparative particles meaning *as if*, and take the subjunctive, present or perfect, unless the sequence of tenses requires the past or the past perfect.

a. The commoner particles meaning *as if* are *ac sī, ut sī, quasi, tamquam, tamquam sī, velut, and velut sī.*

absentis Ariovistī crūdēlitātem horrent, velut sī cōram adsit, they shudder at the cruelty of Ariovistus in his absence, as if he were present
absentis Ariovistī crūdēlitātem horrēbant, velut sī cōram adesset, they shuddered at the cruelty of Ariovistus in his absence, as if he were present

NOTE. The English idiom would lead us to expect the past or past perfect subjunctive (contrary to fact) in these clauses; but from the Latin point of view they are really less definite future conditions, with the conclusion omitted. Thus the first example above really means, *they shudder at the cruelty of Ariovistus in his absence, as (they would shudder) if (at some future time) he should be present.* In other words, the real conclusion is suppressed.

CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

804. Concessive clauses *concede* something or state that something is true *in spite of* something else. In the latter sense they are sometimes called *adversative* clauses.

805. Concession is often expressed by the volitive subjunctive in an independent sentence (§§ 671, 677), but it more frequently takes a dependent form and shows the following varieties:

1. **Quī** clause of description, with the subjunctive (§ 730. II).
2. **Cum** clause of description, with the subjunctive (§ 755).
3. **Quamquam, etsī, and tametsī** with the indicative.
4. **Quamvis or ut** with the subjunctive.
5. **Licet** with the subjunctive.

NOTE. The principal clause is often introduced by **tamen, yet, nevertheless.**

806. *Quamquam, etsī, and tametsī, although, introduce an admitted fact, and take the indicative.*¹

quamquam sunt eiusdem generis, sunt hūmāniōrēs, although they are of the same race, they are more civilized

quamquam omnis virtūs nōs ad sē adlicit, tamen liberālitās id maximē efficit, although every virtue attracts us, yet generosity does so most of all

etsī sine ūllō periculō proelium fore vidēbat, tamen committendum nōn putābat, although he saw that the battle would be without any danger, yet he did not think that it should be begun

807. *Quamquam* more commonly means *and yet*, and introduces a new proposition in the indicative.

quamquam quid loquor, and yet, why do I speak?

808. *Etsī, tametsī, etiam sī*, meaning *even if*, are really conditional particles, and take the indicative or subjunctive according to the rules for conditional sentences (§§ 785-793).

optimi faciunt quod honestum est, etsī nūllum ēmolumentum cōsecūtūrum vident, the best men do what is honorable, even if they see that no reward will follow. [Present non-committal.]

nōne patria impetrāre dēbeat, etiam sī vim adhibere nōn possit, should not our country gain its request, even if it should be unable to use force? [Future less definite.]

809. *Quamvis, to whatever degree, however, and ut, although, take the subjunctive.*¹

avari indigent, quamvis divites sint, the avaricious are poor, however rich they may be

ut omnia contrā opiniōnem accidant, tamen plūrimum nāvibus possunt, though everything should happen contrary to expectation, yet they are greatly superior in ships

a. Quamvis (*quam vis*, literally *as* (much as) *you wish*) is generally used in expressions involving comparison or degree. It is therefore often found with adjectives and adverbs.

quamvis malī, however wicked *quamvis multum, however much*

¹ In poetry *quamquam* occurs with the subjv. and *quamvis* with the indic.

810. *Licet*, *although*, takes the present or perfect subjunctive.

licet omnēs mihi terrōrēs impendeant, dicam, though all terrors should menace me, I will speak

NOTE. *Licet* is properly a verb in the present tense, meaning *it is granted*. Hence the subjunctive following it is limited by sequence of tenses to the present or perfect. It was not used as a mere conjunction until after Cicero.

CLAUSES OF PROVISIO

811. *Dum*, *modo*, and *dummodo* (*dum modo*), *provided, if only*, introduce a proviso, and take the present or past subjunctive. The negative is *nē*.

magnō mē metū liberābis, dum modo inter mē atque tē mūrus intersit, you will release me from great fear, if only a wall is between you and me

dum nē tibi videar, nōn labōrō, provided I do not seem so to you, I do not care

omnia postposuī, dummodo praeceptis patris pārērem, I considered everything else of secondary importance, if only I might obey my father's precepts

NOTE. This is a development of the volitive subjunctive (§ 671).

INDIRECT QUESTIONS

812. An indirect question is a dependent substantive clause, introduced by an interrogative word (§ 621). The verb is in the subjunctive.¹

813. Indirect questions depend on verbs or other expressions of *asking, doubting, fearing, thinking, perceiving, telling*, and the like, and are usually object clauses.

814. Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, by *-ne* or *num*, or by *sī*.

¹ In early Latin the indicative is used in indirect questions. The origin of the subjunctive construction is uncertain.

a. By interrogative pronouns and adverbs.

ostendit *quae fieri vellet*, he showed what he wished to be done

expōnam *quid sentiam*, I will explain what I think

intellegō *quantō cum periculō id fēcerim*, I understand with how great danger I have done that

nescit *ubi sit*, he does not know where he is

b. By *-ne* or *num*, used without distinction, in the sense of *whether*.

cōsultuit *possetne id fieri*, he took counsel whether it could be done

quaerō *num id permittās*, I ask whether you allow it

c. By *sī*, in the sense of *whether*, sometimes with omission of the governing verb.

sī nostrī trānsīrent, *hostēs expectābant*, the enemy were waiting (to see) whether our men would cross

815. Indirect questions referring to future time usually take the subjunctive of the active periphrastic conjugation (§ 668. a).

dīcam tibi quid factūrus sim, I'll tell you what I am going to do

NOTE. The sentence above could also be written *dīcam tibi quid faciam*, but this might be translated *I'll tell you what I am doing*. The periphrastic forms remove all ambiguity.

816. The indirect question sometimes represents, not a direct question in the indicative, but a direct rhetorical question in the deliberative subjunctive (§ 678).

quo mē vertam nesciō, I do not know which way to turn. [Direct form: *quō mē vertam*, whither shall I turn ?]

neque satis cōstābat quid agerent, and it was not very clear what they had better do. [Direct form: *quid agāmus*, what shall we do ?]

817. Indirect alternative questions have the same introductory particles as direct alternative questions (§ 627), but *or not* in the second member is expressed by *necne* rather than by *annōn*.

cōsultūrunt *utrum statim necārētur an in aliud tempus reservārētur*,
*they deliberated whether he should be killed at once or kept for
 some other time*

dēliberātūr dē Avaricō, incendi placeat an dēfendī, *a discussion is held
 concerning Avaricum, whether it seems desirable that it be burned
 or defended*

quaesīvi ā Catilinā, in conventū fuisset necne, *I asked Catiline whether
 he had been at the meeting or not*

818. *Haud sciō an* or *nesciō an*, *I am inclined to think, probably*
 (literally *I do not know whether*), takes the subjunctive in an alternative
 indirect question, the first member of which is omitted.

haud sciō an hoc melius sit, *I am inclined to think that this is better*
*ēloquentiā nesciō an habuisset parem nēminem in oratory he would
 probably have had no peer*

819. *Forsitan*, *perhaps*, is followed by the subjunctive in an indirect
 question, the adverb standing for an original *fors sit an*, *it would be
 a chance whether*.

forsitan requirās quae fāta Priamī fuerint, *perhaps you inquire what
 the fate of Priam was*

820. *Nesciō quis*, as an indefinite pronoun meaning *some one*, and
 the adverbial phrases *nesciō quō modō*, *nesciō quō pactō*, *somehow*;
nesciō quandō, *at some time*; and the like, are not followed by the
 subjunctive.

nūper nesciō quis ex mē quaesivit, *recently some one asked me*
sed nesciō quō pactō omnium scelerum mātūritās nunc erūpit, *but some-
 how the ripeness of all crimes has now burst forth*

QUOD CLAUSES OF FACT

821. Dependent substantive clauses introduced by *quod*, *that*,
the fact that, take the indicative.

Like other substantive clauses, the clause of fact with *quod* may
 be used as subject, object, appositive, etc.

822. The *quod* clause of fact is used as subject, especially after verbs of *happening* (*fit, accidit, ēvenit, etc.*) modified by adverbs like *bene* or *male*.

quod rediit, nōbīs mirābile vidētur, that he returned seems wonderful to us

bene mihi ēvenit, quod ad mortem mittor, it happens well for me that I am sent to death

opportūnē acciderat, quod lēgātī vēnerant, it had happened opportunely that ambassadors had come

823. The *quod* clause of fact is used as appositive with a preceding noun or demonstrative (*hoc, illud, id, inde, ex eō, propterea, etc.*).

opportūnissima rēs accidit, quod Germānī vēnerunt, a very fortunate thing happened, (namely) that the Germans came

in hōc sumus sapientēs, quod nātūram sequimur, we are wise in this, that we follow nature

hoc ūnum in Alexandrō vituperō, quod irācundus fuit, this one thing I censure in Alexander, that he was quick-tempered

hōc est miserior fortūna, quod nē in occultō quidem queri audent, their lot is more pitiful in this, that they do not dare to complain even in secret

824. A *quod* clause of fact is sometimes used as an accusative of respect (§ 427), *quod* having the meaning *as to, as for the fact that*. Such a *quod* clause regularly precedes the main clause.

quod mē Agamemnonem aemulārī putās, falleris, as to your thinking that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken

quod mihi grātulāris, minimē mirāmur, as to your congratulating me, we are not at all surprised

825. Substantive clauses with *quod*, substantive clauses with *ut* or *nē* (§§ 724, 739), and infinitive clauses with subject accusative (§ 839) are constructions so nearly equivalent that sometimes any one of the three may be used with relatively little difference in meaning.

VERBAL NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

826. The verbal nouns and adjectives are the infinitives, the participles, the gerund, and the supine.

THE INFINITIVE

827. The infinitive is a verbal noun, that is, a verb form which partakes of the nature of a noun. Like a noun, it has certain case constructions; like a verb, it has tense and voice, may be modified by adverbs, and often takes an object.

NOTE. The forms of the Latin infinitive are by origin partly dative and partly locative.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE

828. The tenses of the infinitive are the present, perfect, and future. These do not denote time independently, but their time depends on that denoted by the leading verb.

a. The present infinitive denotes the *same time* as that of the leading verb.

sciō tē scribere, I know that you are writing

sciēbam tē scribere, I knew that you were writing

b. The perfect infinitive denotes *time before* that of the leading verb.

sciō tē scripsisse, I know that you have written

sciēbam tē scripsisse, I knew that you had written

NOTE. In indirect discourse (§ 887. I. *b*) the perfect infinitive may represent any past tense of the indicative.

c. The future infinitive denotes *time after* that of the leading verb.

sciō tē scriptūrum esse, I know that you will write

sciēbam tē scriptūrum esse, I knew that you would write

NOTE. The future infinitive is used only in indirect discourse (§ 887. I. *b*).

829. With past tenses of verbs of *necessity*, *propriety*, and *possibility* (as *dēbuī*, *oportuit*, *potuī*), the present infinitive is

generally used in Latin where the English idiom prefers the perfect infinitive.

dēbuit scribere
oportuit eum scribere } *he ought to have written*

potuit scribere, he could have written

illī contrā patriam arma ferre nōn dēbuērunt, they ought not to have borne arms against their country

NOTE. The perfect infinitive when used emphasizes the idea of completed action.

830. The present infinitive is sometimes used in indirect discourse to express continued or repeated action in past time, standing for the past descriptive indicative of the direct discourse.

tē meminī dicere, I remember that you used to say. [Direct: *dicēbās.*]

831. Verbs that have no participial stem (§ 209), and hence lack the future infinitive, use as its equivalent the periphrastic form *futūrum esse* (or *fore*) with *ut* and the subjunctive.

spērābat fore ut pertināciā dēsisteret, he hoped that he would cease from his obstinacy

a. The same periphrastic construction is often used, especially for the future passive infinitive, even when the verb has a participial stem.

dīcit fore ut urbs dēleātur, he says that the city will be destroyed.
 [Instead of *dīcit urbem dēlētum iri.*]

• COMMON USES OF THE INFINITIVE

832. In general the infinitive has the uses of a neuter noun.

The Infinitive as Subject

833. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative (§ 419), may be used as subject with *est* and a predicate noun or adjective.

bellum gerere scelus est, to wage war is a crime

dolere malum est, to suffer pain is an evil

perfacile est cōnāta perficere, to accomplish their undertakings is very easy

mīrum est tē nihil scribere, it is strange that you write nothing

a. The noun or adjective in the predicate is sometimes a possessive genitive.

iūdicis est vērūm sequī, to follow truth is (the duty) of a judge

834. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative (§ 419), may be used as subject with impersonal verbs and expressions like *libet, licet, oportet, decet, placet, vīsum est, pudet, paenitet, necesse est, opus est, cōstat, fāma est, interest, rēfert*, etc.

necesse est morī, it is necessary to die

vīsum est iter facere, it seemed best to march

trādītum est Homērum caecum fuisse, the report has been handed down that Homer was blind

a. As shown in the last example above, a predicate noun or adjective is usually in the accusative; but if the impersonal verb or expression is followed by the dative, the predicate word is also in the dative. Thus regularly with *licet*.

mihī neglegentī esse nōn licet, it is not permitted me to be negligent

The Infinitive as Appositive or Predicate Noun

835. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative (§ 419), may be used as an appositive or as a predicate noun.

miserārī, invidēre, gestīre, laetārī, haec omnia morbōs Graecī appellant, to feel pity, envy, desire, joy, all these things the Greeks call diseases
vidēre est crēdere, seeing is believing

id est convenienter nātūrae vīvere, that is to live in conformity with nature

hoc tantum petō, tē nōn proficīscī, I ask only this, that you do not set out

The Infinitive as Object

836. The infinitive, without subject accusative, is used after many verbs to denote another action of the same subject.

This is called the *complementary infinitive*, because it completes the thought introduced by the finite verb.

NOTE. With transitive verbs the complementary infinitive may be regarded as the direct object. With intransitive verbs it may be regarded as an adverbial modifier.

837. Verbs followed by the complementary infinitive are especially :

volō (nōlō, mālō), cupiō, optō, studeō, *desire*
 statuō, cōstituō, cōgitō, in animō habeō, *decide, plan*
 coepī, incipiō, pergō, *begin*
 omittō, dēsistō, cessō, *cease*
 cōnor, nitor, mōlior, temptō, *try*
 contendō, mātūrō, properō, *hasten*
 metuō, timeō, vereor, *fear*
 cōnsuēscō, soleō, *be wont*
 possum, *be able*
 dēbeō, *ought*
 sciō, *know how*
 audeō, *dare*
 dubitō, *hesitate*
 discō, *learn*

cōstituērunt ea comparāre, *they decided to prepare those things*
 cōpiās parāre cessērunt, *they ceased to prepare forces*
 iūdicārī nōn dēbet, *it ought not to be judged*
 iam sē sustinēre nōn poterat, *he could not hold up longer*

a. Some verbs take either a subjunctive clause or a complementary infinitive without difference in meaning.

contendit oppidum capere or contendit ut oppidum caperet, *he strove to take the town*

838. A predicate noun or adjective after a complementary infinitive is in the nominative.

fieri doctior studēbam, *I was eager to become wiser*
 brevis esse labōrō, *I struggle to be brief*

a. The infinitive may have a reflexive pronoun as subject accusative. In that case the predicate noun or adjective is also in the accusative.

cupiō mē esse clementem, *I desire to be merciful*

839. The infinitive, with subject aceusative, is used as object with the following classes of verbs :

a. Very commonly with verbs of *saying* (*dīcō, nūntiō, etc.*), *thinking* (*putō, existimō, etc.*), *knowing* (*sciō, cognōscō, etc.*), and *perceiving* (*videō, audiō, sentiō, etc.*).

This is the regular construction of principal clauses in indirect discourse (§ 887. I).

lēgātī haec sē relātūrōs esse dīxērunt, the ambassadors said that they would report these matters

nōn existimāmus Rōmānōs sine ope dīvinā bellum gerere, we do not think that the Romans wage war without divine aid

Caesar cognōvit montem ā suis tenēri, Cæsar learned that the mountain was held by his men

sentiō in hāc urbe esse cōsulēs vigilantēs, I perceive that in this city there are vigilant consuls

b. With *volō, nōlō, mālō, cupiō, and studeō*, when the subject of the infinitive is not the same as that of the governing verb.

nōlō tē suspectum esse, I do not wish you to be suspected
rem ad arma dēdūcī studētis, you are desirous that the matter be brought to (a decision of) arms

c. With *iubeō* and *vetō*.

liberōs obsidēs ad sē addūcī iubet, he bids the children to be brought to him as hostages

dux captīvōs vincīri vetuit, the leader forbade the captives to be bound

d. With *sinō* and *patior*.

Nervii vinum ad sē inferrī nōn patiēbantur, the Nervii did not permit wine to be brought to them

e. With verbs of feeling or emotion : as,

gaudeō, laetor, rejoice

doleō, maereō, grieve

graviter (molestē, etc.) ferō, be annoyed

mīror, admīror, wonder, be surprised

queror, complain

indignor, be indignant

mīror tē nescīre, I am surprised that you do not know
exercitum hiemāre in Galliā molestē ferēbant, they were annoyed that
the army was wintering in Gaul

NOTE. As most of these verbs imply *thinking* or *saying*, the dependent construction may be regarded as indirect discourse (§ 885). Verbs of this type are often followed by a causal clause with **quod** (§ 768).

840. The infinitive may be used with the passive of many verbs which in the active take the infinitive with subject accusative; so especially with **dīcor**, **exīstimor**, **iūdicor**, **putor**, **videor**, and (in the third person) **trāditur**, **trāduntur**, **fertur**, **feruntur**.

centum pāgōs habēre dīcuntur, they are said to have a hundred cantons
Lycūrgī temporibus Homērus fuisse trāditur, Homer is said to have
lived in the time of Lycurgus

a. Passive verbs with the infinitive are generally personal in the present system and impersonal in the perfect system.

So the first example above, with the passive verb changed to the perfect, would become —

eōs centum pāgōs habēre dictum est, it was said that they had a
hundred cantons

NOTE. **Nārrō**, **nūntiō**, and **trādō** are always impersonal in the perfect passive system.

SPECIAL USES OF THE INFINITIVE

The Infinitive with Adjectives

841. **Parātus**, **suētus**, and their compounds take the infinitive like the verbs from which they are derived.

omnia perpetī parātī, ready to endure everything
adsuēfactī superārī, used to being conquered

a. This construction was extended in poetry and late prose writers to many other adjectives.

dūrus compōnere versūs, harsh in composing verse

The Infinitive of Purpose

842. Poets and early prose writers often use the infinitive to express purpose, contrary to the usage of classic prose.

nōn ferrō Libycōs populāre Penātēs vēnimus, we have not come to lay waste with the sword the Libyan homes
lōricam dōnat habēre virō, he gives the hero a breastplate to wear

The Infinitive in Exclamation

843. The infinitive, with or without the interrogative particle *-ne* attached to the emphatic word of the clause, may be used in an exclamation or exclamatory question to express *surprise, anger, or regret.*

tē in tantās aerumnās propter mē incidisse, to think that you should have fallen into such grief for me!
mēne inceptō dēsistere victam, what! I beaten desist from my purpose?

a. Exclamatory questions are sometimes expressed by the subjunctive with or without *ut.* •

tē ut ūlla rēs frangat, what! anything crush you?

The Historical Infinitive

844. In descriptive narration the present infinitive may be used instead of the past descriptive indicative, and has its subject in the nominative.

cotidiē Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, every day Caesar was asking the Haedui for the grain
pars cēdere, aliī īsequī, a part gave way, others pressed on

NOTE. This construction is very rare in subordinate clauses and is never used to state a mere historical fact. It is always descriptive, and is especially common where several important actions occur in rapid succession, leading to a climax or crisis.

The Infinitive as a Pure Noun

845. The infinitive is sometimes a pure noun, and as such may be limited by an adjective or may be the object of a preposition.

hic verēri perdidit, *he has lost his sense of shame*

hoc nōn dolēre, *this freedom from pain*

scīre tuum, *your knowledge*

nīl praeter plōrāre, *nothing except tears*

PARTICIPLES

846. The participle is a verbal adjective, and combines all the functions of an adjective with some of the functions of a verb. Like an adjective, it agrees with a noun in gender, number, and case (§ 497); like a verb, it has tense and voice, may be modified by adverbs, and often takes an object.

TENSES OF THE PARTICIPLE

847. The tenses of the participle are the present, past, and future. The participle, like the infinitive, does not denote time independently, but its time depends on that denoted by the leading verb.

a. The present participle denotes the *same time* as that of the leading verb.

videō militem sequentem, *I see the soldier following*

vidī militem sequentem, *I saw the soldier following*

b. The past participle denotes *time before* that of the leading verb.

miles secūtus adest, *the soldier followed and is present* (lit. *having followed is present*)

miles secūtus aderat, *the soldier had followed and was present*

c. The future participle denotes *time after* that of the leading verb.

miles secūtūrus adest, *the soldier (who is) about to follow is present*

Tense Peculiarities

848. The past participles *ratus*, *solitus*, *veritus*, regularly, and others occasionally, are used as present.

rem incredibilem ratī, thinking the thing incredible
insidiās veritus, fearing an ambush

849. The present participle sometimes denotes *attempted* action.

Flāminiō restitit agrum Pīcentem dīvidentī, he resisted Flaminius
(who was) attempting to divide the Picene territory

LACKING FORMS OF THE PARTICIPLE

850. As compared with English, the Latin participle is defective. It lacks (a) the present passive (cf. English *being seen*) and (b) the past active (cf. English *having seen*).

NOTE. Deponent verbs, being passive in form but active in meaning, are, therefore, the only verbs capable of giving a literal rendering of an English perfect active participle: as, *secūtus*, *having followed*.

851. The place of the missing present passive participle is supplied usually by a clause with *dum* or *cum*.

obiēre dum calciantur duo Caesarēs, two Cæsars died while their shoes
were being put on
mē ista dēlectant cum Latīnē dīcuntur, those things please me, being
spoken in Latin

852. The place of the missing past active participle is generally supplied by the past passive participle in the ablative absolute, or by a clause with *cum* or *postquam*.

convocātīs centuriōnibus milītēs certiōrēs facit, having called the cen-
turions together (lit. the centurions having been called together),
he informs the soldiers
cum vēnisset, animadvertit collem, having come (lit. when he had
come), he noticed a hill
postquam id animum advertit, cōpiās suās in proximum collem subdūcit,
having observed this (lit. after he had observed this), he led his
troops to the nearest hill

COMMON USES OF THE PARTICIPLE

853. Like a verb, the participle may take an object when its meaning allows. Like an adjective or a verb, the participle may take an adverbial modifier.

vidēns montem, seeing the mountain
hortātus militēs, having encouraged the soldiers
magnā vōce loquēns, speaking in a loud voice

854. The participle, when used as an adjective, may be either attributive or predicate.

Attributive Use of the Participle

855. The present and past participles are sometimes used as attributive adjectives.

aeger et flagrāns animus, his sick and passionate mind
māter amāta, a beloved mother

856. The only future active participles used as attributive adjectives in Ciceronian Latin are *futūrus* and *ventūrus*. The future passive participle is occasionally so used at all periods.

rēs futūrae, future events
nōn ferenda iniūria, an intolerable wrong

Predicate Use of the Participle

857. A participle in the predicate may be joined to the subject by *esse*.

Gallia est dīvisa, Gaul is divided

858. The past participle is used with the incomplete tenses of *esse* to form the compound tenses of the passive.

amātus sum, I have been loved
amātus eram, I had been loved
amātus erō, I shall have been loved

859. The future active participle in *-ūrus* is used with the forms of *sum* to make the *active periphrastic conjugation* (§ 249. a).

amātūrus sum, I am about to love

praeter quod sēcum portātūrī erant, except what they intended to carry with them

860. The future passive participle in *-ndus* is used with the forms of *sum* to make the *passive periphrastic conjugation* (§ 249. b).

amandus sum, I must be loved

Caesarī omnia ūnō tempore erant agenda, Cæsar had to do everything at the same time (lit. *everything had to be done at the same time by Cæsar*)

omnēs cruciātūs sunt perferendī, all (kinds of) cruelty have to be endured

a. Intransitive verbs are always *impersonal* in the passive periphrastic, and take their usual cases (genitive, dative, or ablative).

concedendum esse nōn putābat, he did not think that he ought to comply (lit. *that it ought to be complied*)

temporī serviendum est, one must obey the (demands of the) time

ūtendum est exercitiōnibus modicīs, we must use moderate exercise

b. Transitive verbs are occasionally impersonal in the passive periphrastic, but may have an accusative object.

agitandum est vigiliās, I have got to stand guard

861. The present and past participles are often used as predicate, where in English a phrase or a subordinate clause would be more natural. In this use participles express especially *time, cause, means, manner, condition, and concession*.

a. Time.

Platō scrībēns mortuus est, Plato died while writing (or *in the act of writing*)

b. Cause.

quibus rēbus Cæsar vehementer commōtus mātūrandum sibi existimāvit, because he was greatly disturbed by these facts, Cæsar

● *thought that he ought to hasten*

c. Means.

sōl oriēns diem cōnficit, the sun, by its rising, causes the day

d. Manner.

flentēs implōrābant, they begged with tears

e. Condition.

damnātum poenam sequi oportēbat, if he was condemned, punishment was to overtake him

f. Concession.

beneficiō adfectus hanc grātiam refert, though he has been treated with kindness, he makes this return

862. A coordinate clause is often compressed into a past participle.

instructōs ordinēs in locum aequum dēdūcit, he draws up the lines, and leads them to level ground

SPECIAL USES OF THE PARTICIPLE

863. Participles, like adjectives, may be used as nouns.

*rēctē facta paria esse dēbent, right deeds ought to be like in value
opiniōnem pugnantium praebent, they give the impression of men fighting*

864. Videō, audiō, faciō, and a few other verbs may take a present participle in the predicate instead of an infinitive.

*vīdī urbem concidentem, I saw the city falling
Xenophōn facit Sōcratem disputantem, Xenophon represents Socrates as discussing*

865. The past participle is used with habeō with almost the same meaning as the perfect or past perfect indicative active.

*vectīgālia redēpta habet, he has bought up the revenues
perfidiam Haeduōrum perspectam habēbat, he had observed the treachery of the Hædui*

866. A noun and a participle are often so combined that the participle and not the noun contains the main idea.

*ante urbem conditam, before the founding of the city
post nātōs hominēs, since the creation of man
Sicilia Sardiniaque āmissae, the loss of Sicily and Sardinia*

867. The past participle with a noun in agreement, or in the neuter as an abstract noun, is used in the ablative with *opus*, *need* (§ 469. *b*).

opus factō est viaticō, there is need of providing traveling expenses
mātūrātō opus est, there is need of haste

868. The future active participle (rarely the present) is sometimes used by poets and late writers to express *purpose*.

ēgreditur vāllum invāsūrus, he comes forth to attack the rampart

869. After the verbs *cūrō*, *see to*; *dō*, *trādō*, *mandō*, *give over*; *concedō*, *surrender*; *relinquō*, *leave*; *suscipiō*, *undertake*; *locō*, *contract for*; and a few others, the future passive participle is used in agreement with the object to denote *purpose*.

pontem faciendum cūrāvit, he saw to the building of a bridge
agrōs vāstandōs trādīdit, he gave over the fields to be laid waste
signum conlocandum locāvērunt, they contracted to have the statue erected

THE GERUND AND GERUNDIVE

870. The Gerundive is the name given to the future passive participle when used as a verbal adjective in agreement with a noun. The gerundive, unlike the participle, does not express necessity or obligation.

bellum gerendum est, the war must be waged. [Participle.]
cupidus bellī gerendī, desirous of waging war. [Gerundive.]

871. The Gerund is the neuter singular of the gerundive used as an active verbal noun in the genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative.

NOTE. The nominative singular of the gerund is supplied by the present active infinitive: as, *overcoming* (or *to overcome*) *danger demands courage*.

NOM.	<i>superāre</i>	{ <i>overcoming</i> <i>to overcome</i> }	Infinitive
GEN.	<i>superandī</i>	<i>of overcoming</i>	} Gerund
DAT.	<i>superandō</i>	<i>for overcoming</i>	
ACC.	<i>superandum</i>	<i>overcoming</i>	
ABL.	<i>superandō</i>	<i>by overcoming</i>	

872. A comparison of the gerund and gerundive shows the following points of difference :

- a. The gerund is a verbal noun. The gerundive is a verbal adjective.
- b. The gerund is active. The gerundive is passive.
- c. The gerund may stand alone or with an object. The gerundive always accompanies and agrees with a noun.

NOTE 1. The gerund and gerundive are translated in the same way although of different construction. Thus, *spēs urbem capiendī* (gerund) and *spēs urbis capiendae* (gerundive) are both translated *hope of taking the city*; but the latter, rendered literally, would be *hope of the city to be taken*.

NOTE 2. To change from the gerund to the gerundive construction, put the object of the gerund into the case of the gerund, and change the gerund to a gerundive agreeing with it. See the example in Note 1.

CASE CONSTRUCTIONS OF THE GERUND AND GERUNDIVE

873. The gerund and gerundive have in general the same case constructions as nouns.

874. The genitive of the gerund and gerundive is used with nouns or adjectives.

GERUND	GERUNDIVE
<i>cōnsilium habendī spatium, time for forming a plan</i>	<i>cōnsili habendī spatium, time for forming a plan</i>
<i>cupidus bellum gerendī, desirous of carrying on war</i>	<i>cupidus belli gerendī, desirous of carrying on war</i>

875. The genitive of the gerund and gerundive is used with *causā* or *grātiā* to express *purpose*.

frumentandī causā prōgressī sunt, they advanced for the purpose of gathering grain

876. With *meī, tuī, suī, nostrī, and vestrī*, even when the pronoun refers to the feminine or the plural, the gerundive ends in *ī*.

Tarpeia ornāmenta cupīvit suī ornandī causā, Tarpeia desired jewels to adorn herself

Haedui lēgātōs ad Caesarem suī pūrgandī grātiā mittunt, the Haedui send ambassadors to Cæsar to excuse themselves

hoc vestrī adhortandī causā nōn dicō, I do not say this to encourage you

877. The dative of the gerund and gerundive is used with adjectives denoting fitness.

libri ūtilēs *legendō*, *books useful for reading*
 tempora frūctibus *percipiendīs accommodāta*, *seasons suitable for*
gathering the harvest
 aetās bellō *gerendō mātūra*, *a time of life ripe for carrying on war*

a. The dative of the gerund and gerundive may be used with verbs and with nouns. The latter are usually names of officials, and the dative denotes the purpose for which they serve.

hī *scribendō aderant*, *these were present at the writing*
 duumvirī agrīs *adsignandīs*, *duumviri for the assignment of lands*
 diem praestitit operī *faciendō*, *he appointed a day for doing the work*

NOTE. The dative of the *gerund* with a direct object should not be used, but the *gerundive* as above.

878. The accusative of the gerund and gerundive is used with *ad* to denote purpose.

diem *ad dēliberandum sūmam*, *I will take time for deliberating*
 vivis nōn *ad dēpōnendam* sed *ad cōnfirmandam audāciam*, *you live not*
to put off but to confirm your daring

NOTE 1. The accusative of the *gerund* with a preposition should never be used with a direct object; the *gerundive* is used instead (see above).

NOTE 2. Rarely other prepositions appear in this construction.

879. The ablative of the gerund and gerundive is used to express *cause, means, etc.*, and after the prepositions *ab, dē, ex, or in.*

coniūrātiōnem nōn *crēdendō* *corrōborāvērunt*, *they have strengthened the*
conspiracy by not believing
 oculi turgidulī *flendō*, *eyes swollen with weeping*
 conciendō *ad sē multitudinem*, *by calling to them a multitude*
 reperiēbat *in quaerendō*, *he found on investigating*
 in equīs *parandīs cūra*, *care in providing horses*
 dē *expugnandō oppidō*, *concerning the storming of the town*

NOTE. When the ablative of the gerund has no preposition, it may be used with a direct object, as in the third example; but after a preposition only the gerundive construction is possible, as in the last two examples.

RELATIVE FREQUENCY AND LIMITATIONS OF THE GERUND AND GERUNDIVE

880. When the participial phrase contains a substantive, either the gerund or the gerundive construction is, as a rule, permissible, though the latter is more common in classical Latin. However, the following limitations are to be observed:

a. The gerund with a direct object is permissible only in the genitive and in the ablative without a preposition.

b. Only the gerund is permissible with a neuter adjective used substantively.

ars vēra ac falsa dīiudicandī, the art of distinguishing true from false

NOTE. This is to avoid ambiguity. The equivalent gerundive phrase, *ars vērōrum ac falsōrum dīiudicandōrum*, would mean *the art of distinguishing true men from false men*.

c. Only the gerund is used when the verb is intransitive.

eīs persuādendī causā, for the sake of persuading them

NOTE. *Ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vēscor*, originally transitive, may be used in either the gerund or the gerundive construction.

THE SUPINE

881. The supine is a verbal noun of the fourth declension, and has but two forms, the accusative in **-um** and the ablative in **-ū**.

882. The supine has only two uses:

I. The supine in **-um** is used after verbs of motion to express purpose.¹

¹ A conspectus of the commonest constructions employed to express purpose is shown in the following table:

Purpose may be expressed by	The subjunctive	1. Adverbial clauses, introduced by <i>ut</i> or <i>nē</i> (§ 713)
		2. Relative clauses (§ 715)
		3. Substantive clauses, used as subject (§ 721), object (§ 720), or appositive (§ 724)
	The gerund or gerundive (§§ 875, 878)	
	The supine in -um (§ 882. I)	

lĕgātōs ad Caesarem mittunt rogātum auxilium, they send envoys to Caesar to ask aid
filiam nūptum dat, he gives his daughter in marriage (lit. to marry)

a. The supine in **-um** may take an object, as in the first example.

NOTE. The supine in **-um** with *īrī*, the passive infinitive of *eō*, forms the future passive infinitive.

sciēbat sē trucidātum īrī, he knew that he was going to be murdered

But the future passive infinitive is rare; **fore ut** with the subjunctive is regularly employed instead (§ 831. a).

II. The supine in **-ū** is used with a few adjectives, and with the nouns *fās*, *nefās*, and *opus*, as an ablative of respect (§ 478).

perfacile factū est, it is very easy to do

difficile dictū est, it is hard to say

nefās est dictū, it is a sin to say

a. The supine in **-ū** never takes an object.

b. The only supines in **-ū** in common use are *cognitū*, *dictū*, *factū*, *nātū*, and *vīsū*. Adjectives frequently followed by the supine are *facilis*, *difficilis*, *horribilis*, *incrēdibilis*, and *mīrābilis*.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE

883. The original words of a speaker or writer quoted without change, in the form of an independent sentence, are said to be in *direct* discourse.

Caesar dicit: *Belgae sunt fortēs, Caesar says, "The Belgæ are brave"*

884. The words of a speaker or writer quoted in dependent form after a verb of *saying*, *thinking*, *knowing*, or *perceiving* are said to be in *indirect* discourse.

Caesar dicit *Belgās esse fortēs, Caesar says that the Belgæ are brave*

885. Verbs and other expressions of *saying*, *thinking*, *knowing*, *perceiving*, and the like are commonly followed by indirect discourse.

Verbs of *saying*: *dīcō, nūntiō, referō, polliceor, prōmittō*, etc.

Verbs of *thinking*: *putō, arbitror, exīstimō*, etc.

Verbs of *knowing*: *sciō, cognōscō*, etc.

Verbs of *perceiving*: *videō, audiō, sentiō, intellegō, comperiō*, etc.

a. The verb of *saying*, etc., is sometimes implied by the context.

886. General Rule. In indirect discourse the verbs in the principal clauses of declarative sentences are in the infinitive, and the verbs in the subordinate clauses are in the subjunctive.

PRINCIPAL CLAUSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

887. Principal clauses of direct discourse, on becoming indirect, show the following changes:

I. Principal clauses, when *declarative*, change the indicative to the infinitive with subject accusative.

DIRECT DISCOURSE	INDIRECT DISCOURSE
<i>dīēs īnstat, the day is at hand</i>	<i>intellēxit diem īnstāre, he perceived that the day was at hand</i>
<i>Helvētīi castra mōvērunt, the Helvetii moved their camp</i>	<i>cognōvit Helvētīōs castra mōvisse, he learned that the Helvetii had moved their camp</i>
<i>Allobrogibus persuādēbimus, we shall persuade the Allobroges</i>	<i>exīstimābant sē Allobrogibus persuāsūrōs (esse), they thought that they should persuade the Allobroges</i>

a. The subject accusative of the infinitive is regularly expressed in indirect discourse, even when the subject of the verb is unexpressed as a pronoun in the direct.

DIRECT: *ōrātor sum, I am an orator*

INDIRECT: *dicit sē esse ōrātōrem, he says that he is an orator*

b. The tenses of the infinitive in indirect discourse denote time *contemporaneous with, prior to, or subsequent to* that of the verb by which the indirect discourse is introduced (§ 885).

DIRECT DISCOURSE		INDIRECT DISCOURSE	
Present indicative	becomes	Present infinitive	
Past descriptive	} indicative	becomes	Perfect infinitive
Perfect			
Past perfect			
Future active indicative	becomes	Future active infinitive	
Future passive indicative	becomes	fore (<i>futūrum esse</i>) ut with the present or past subjunctive ¹	
Future perfect indicative	becomes	fore (<i>futūrum esse</i>) ut with the perfect or past perfect subjunctive	

NOTE 1. The present infinitive *posse* often has a future force.

tōtius Galliae sēsē potirī posse spērant, they hope that they shall be able to get possession of the whole of Gaul

NOTE 2. The infinitive construction is regularly continued after a comparative with *quam*.

addit sē prius occisum irī quam mē violātum irī, he adds that he himself will be killed sooner than I shall be injured

II. Principal clauses, when *interrogative*, change the indicative of the direct discourse to the subjunctive if the question is real; to the infinitive if the question is rhetorical.²

DIRECT DISCOURSE	INDIRECT DISCOURSE
<i>quid vīs? cūr venīs, what do you want? why do you come? [Real questions.]</i>	<i>dixit quid vellet? cūr veniret, he said what did he want? why did he come?</i>
<i>num memoriam dēpōnere possum, can I lay aside the memory? [Rhetorical question.]</i>	<i>dixit num memoriam sē dēpōnere posse, he said could he lay aside the memory?</i>

NOTE 1. Real questions are generally in the second person, rhetorical questions in the first or third; but no sharp line can be drawn between them.

NOTE 2. Questions, either real or rhetorical, directly following a verb of *asking*, are treated as indirect questions and take the subjunctive (§ 812).

¹ Or (rarely) future passive infinitive.

² Rhetorical questions (§ 620. *b*) do not ask for information, but are equivalent to statements; hence they are treated like declarative sentences (§ 887. I).

a. The deliberative subjunctive (§ 678) remains subjunctive in indirect discourse.

DIRECT: *quid facerem, what was I to do?*

INDIRECT: *dixit quid faceret, he said what was he to do?*

III. Principal clauses, when *imperative* (that is, when expressing *commands, prayers, wishes, and prohibitions*), have the verb in indirect discourse in the subjunctive. The negative is *nē*.

DIRECT DISCOURSE		INDIRECT DISCOURSE	
Imperative	becomes	{	Present subjunctive after a primary tense
			Past subjunctive after a secondary tense
Subjunctive (volitive or optative)	remains	{	Subjunctive, though the tense may be changed by the law of tense sequence

DIRECT DISCOURSE		INDIRECT DISCOURSE	
<i>remīniscere veteris incommodī, remember the ancient disaster</i>		<i>dixit remīniscerētur veteris incommodī, he told him to remember the ancient disaster</i>	
<i>amēmus patriam, let us love our country</i>		<i>dixit amārent patriam, he told them to love their country</i>	
<i>istō bonō ūtāre, use that blessing</i>		<i>dīcit istō bonō ūtātur, he says that he should use that blessing</i>	
<i>nōlī dubitāre, don't hesitate</i>		<i>dīcit nē dubitet, he tells him not to hesitate</i>	

a. A prohibition with *nōlī* and the infinitive (§ 676. a) becomes the subjunctive with *nē*, as shown in the last example.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

888. Subordinate clauses, on becoming indirect, take the subjunctive.

889. The tenses of the subjunctive in indirect discourse follow the rule for sequence of tenses (§ 695), and depend on the verb by which the indirect discourse is introduced.

330 SUBORDINATE CLAUSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

DIRECT DISCOURSE		INDIRECT DISCOURSE	
Present } Future }	} indicative	becomes	{ Present subjunctive after a primary tense Past subjunctive after a secondary tense
Perfect } Future perfect }			
Past descriptive indicative		becomes	{ Perfect subjunctive after a primary tense Past subjunctive after a secondary tense
Past perfect indicative		becomes	{ Perfect subjunctive after a primary tense Past perfect subjunctive after a secondary tense

890. A subjunctive in a subordinate clause of the direct discourse remains subjunctive when the clause becomes indirect; but the tense may be changed to conform to the law of tense sequence.

891. A past or past perfect subjunctive in the subordinate clause of a condition contrary to fact always remains unchanged in indirect discourse (see § 900).

892. The following examples include both principal and subordinate clauses:

DIRECT DISCOURSE	INDIRECT DISCOURSE
sunt nōn nullī quōrum auctōritās plūrimum valeat, <i>there are some whose influence is very strong</i>	dicit esse nōn nullōs quōrum auctōritās plūrimum valeat, <i>he says that there are some whose influence is very strong</i>
id quod in Nerviiis fēcī faciam, <i>I will do that which I did in the case of the Nervii</i>	respondit sē id quod in Nerviiis fēcisset factūrum esse, <i>he replied that he would do that which he had done in the case of the Nervii</i>

DIRECT DISCOURSE

ad Caesarem ibō ut pācem petam, I
will go to Cæsar that I may
beg for peace

ob eam causam quam diū potuī tacuī,
for this reason I have kept si-
lence as long as I could

INDIRECT DISCOURSE

dixit sē ad Caesarem itūrum ut
pācem peteret, he said that he
would go to Cæsar that he might
beg for peace

dicit ob eam causam sē quam diū
potuerit tacuisse, he says that
for this reason he has kept si-
lence as long as he could

893. The subjunctive depending on a perfect infinitive is usually in the past or past perfect in indirect discourse, even if the verb of saying etc. is in a primary tense (cf. § 703).

satis mihi multa verba fēcisse videor quā rē esset hoc bellum necessā-
rium, I think I have said enough to show why this war is necessary

894. The present or perfect subjunctive is often used after a secondary tense to make the narrative more vivid (cf. § 707).

dīcēbant totidem Nervios pollicērī, quī longissimē absint, they said
that the Nervii, who live farthest off, promised as many

895. Subordinate clauses inserted by the narrator himself, and not part of the indirect discourse, are in the indicative.

referunt silvam esse, quae appellātur Bācenis, they say that there is a
forest, which is called Bacenis

896. Clauses introduced by a relative which is equivalent to a demonstrative with a conjunction (§ 564) are subordinate only in form, and hence take the accusative and infinitive in indirect discourse like declarative principal clauses (§ 887. I).

quibus proeliis frāctōs Hæduōs coāctōs esse Sēquanis obsidēs dare, and
that weakened by these battles the Hædui had been compelled to
give hostages to the Sequani

897. If the verb of a relative clause is the same as that of the principal clause, it may be omitted and its subject attracted into the accusative.

tē suspicor iisdem rēbus quibus mē ipsum (instead of ego ipse) commo-
vērī, I suspect that you are moved by the same things as I

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

898. The condition in a conditional sentence is a subordinate clause, and the conclusion is a principal clause. Hence in indirect discourse —

I. The condition is always in the subjunctive.

II. The conclusion, if declarative, is always in some form of the infinitive.

899. Conclusions that are interrogative or imperative in form are treated like other principal clauses of that sort. See § 887. II, III.

900. Conditional sentences show the following changes in mood and tense on passing from direct to indirect discourse :

FORM OF CONDITION	CONDITION (SUBORDINATE CLAUSE)	CONCLUSION (PRINCIPAL CLAUSE)
I. Non-committal (present and past)	Indicative becomes subjunctive	Indicative becomes infinitive Imperative becomes subjunctive Subjunctive remains subjunctive
II. More and less definite (future)	Indicative becomes subjunctive Subjunctive remains subjunctive	Future active indicative or present active subjunctive becomes future active infinitive Future passive indicative or present passive subjunctive becomes <i>fore (futūrum esse) ut</i> with the present or past subjunctive Future perfect indicative or perfect subjunctive becomes <i>fore (futūrum esse) ut</i> with the perfect or past perfect subjunctive
III. Contrary to fact (present and past)	Past or past perfect subjunctive remains unchanged	Past or past perfect active subjunctive becomes the future participle with <i>fuisse</i> Past or past perfect passive subjunctive becomes <i>futūrum fuisse ut</i> with the past subjunctive

901. The changes required in conditional sentences when they pass from direct to indirect discourse are illustrated by the following examples :

DIRECT DISCOURSE	INDIRECT DISCOURSE
I. Non-committal (present and past)	
1. <i>sī pugnās, vincis, if you fight, you conquer</i> 2. <i>sī pugnās, vince, if you fight, conquer</i> 3. <i>sī pugnās, vincās, if you fight, may you conquer</i>	1. { <i>dīcō sī pugnēs, tē vincere</i> <i>dīxī sī pugnārēs, tē vincere</i> 2, 3. { <i>dīcō sī pugnēs, vincās</i> <i>dīxī sī pugnārēs, vincerēs</i>
II. More and less definite (future)	
1. <i>sī pugnābis, vincēs, if you (shall) fight, you will conquer. [More definite.]</i> 2. <i>sī pugnēs, vincās, if you should fight, you would conquer. [Less definite.]</i> 3. <i>sī pugnābis, vincēris, if you (shall) fight, you will be conquered. [More definite.]</i> 4. <i>sī pugnēs, vincāris, if you should fight, you would be conquered. [Less definite.]</i>	1, 2. { <i>dīcō sī pugnēs, tē victūrum esse. [More and less definite.]</i> <i>dīxī sī pugnārēs, tē victūrum esse. [More and less definite.]</i> 3, 4. { <i>dīcō sī pugnēs, fore ut vincāris. [More and less definite.]</i> <i>dīxī sī pugnārēs, fore ut vincerēris. [More and less definite.]</i>
III. Contrary to fact (present and past)	
1. <i>sī pugnārēs, vincerēs, if you were fighting, you would be conquering. [Present.]</i> 2. <i>sī pugnāvissēs, vicissēs, if you had fought, you would have conquered. [Past.]</i> 3. <i>sī pugnārēs, vincerēris, if you were fighting, you would be conquered. [Present.]</i> 4. <i>sī pugnāvissēs, victus essēs, if you had fought, you would have been conquered. [Past.]</i>	1. <i>dīcō, or dīxī, sī pugnārēs, tē victūrum fuisse. [Present.]</i> 2. <i>dīcō, or dīxī, sī pugnāvissēs, tē victūrum fuisse. [Past.]</i> 3. <i>dīcō, or dīxī, sī pugnārēs, futūrum fuisse ut vincerēris. [Present.]</i> 4. <i>dīcō, or dīxī, sī pugnāvissēs, futūrum fuisse ut vincerēris. [Past.]</i>

902. Observe that more and less definite future conditions assume the same form in indirect discourse and cannot be distinguished.

903. Observe that in indirect discourse present and past conditions contrary to fact have the same form in the conclusion, but that they retain the regular distinction of tense in the condition.

904. Observe that the tenses of the subjunctive follow the rules of tense sequence except in conditions contrary to fact.

IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE

905. The presence of the subjunctive in a subordinate clause may show that it is an indirect quotation, even though there is no verb of *saying* or the like in the principal clause.

Paetus omnis librōs quōs frāter suus reliquisset mihi dōnāvit, Paetus presented to me all the books which (he said) his brother had left
Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum quod essent polliciti flāgitāre, Caesar kept asking the Haedui for the grain which (he asserted) they had promised

906. The principle of implied indirect discourse explains the use of the subjunctive in causal clauses when the reason given is that of another than the speaker or writer (§ 768; *b*).

queritur quod dēsertus sit, he complains because (as he says) he has been deserted

THE SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION

907. A subordinate clause depending on a subjunctive or an infinitive clause, and *essential to its thought*, is attracted into the subjunctive.

hortātus sum ut ea quae sciret sine timōre indicāret, I urged him to disclose without fear the things which he knew
quis tam dissolutō animō est, qui haec cum videat, tacēre possit, who is of so reckless a spirit that, when he sees these things, he can keep silent?

mōs est Athēnīs laudārī in cōntiōne eōs quī sint in proeliis interfectī, it is the custom at Athens for those to be eulogized in the assembly who have been killed in battle

908. The dependent clause must be a necessary and logical part of the subjunctive or infinitive clause, or no attraction takes place,

mīlitēs mīsīt ut eōs quī fūgerant persequerentur, he sent soldiers to pursue those who had fled

nē hostēs, quod tantum multitudīne poterant, suōs circumvenīre possent, lest the enemy, because they were so strong in numbers, should be able to surround his men

909. The subjunctive in implied indirect discourse and the subjunctive by attraction are so closely related that it is often difficult to distinguish between them.

THE ORDER OF WORDS

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

910. The words of an English sentence stand in a more or less fixed order, which shows their grammatical relation to each other. In Latin this relation is shown by *inflection*, and the *order* of the words depends mainly upon the connection of thought, the emphasis, and the principles of euphony.

911. The two most important places in the Latin sentence are the beginning and the end, and the words standing there have a corresponding value.

NOTE. The clear indication of the beginning and end of the sentence by the order of words was the more important to the Romans because they had no marks of punctuation.

912. The normal¹ order of the simple, independent, disconnected sentence is as follows :

1. Subject.
2. Modifiers of the subject.

¹ By *normal* is meant the order in which no attempt is made to give any part of the sentence unusual emphasis or to secure rhythmic or euphonic effects.

3. Object. If there are both a direct and an indirect object, the indirect sometimes precedes the direct and sometimes follows it.

4. Adverb.

5. Verb.

The position of other elements, such as ablatives, prepositional phrases, etc., cannot be exactly formulated, but is determined largely by emphasis and euphony.

913. In connected narrative the first sentence normally begins with the subject, and each succeeding sentence with whatever word links the thought of the sentence with that of the sentence preceding.

palūs erat nōn magna inter nostrum atque hostium exercitum. Hanc si nostri trānsirent hostēs expectābant, there was a swamp of no great size between our army and that of the enemy. The enemy were waiting to see whether our men would cross this

Note that the first sentence is introduced by *palūs*, the subject, but the second by *hanc*, the linking word. Observe also the next two examples :

subitum bellum in Galliā coörtum est. Eius belli haec fuit causa, a sudden war arose in Gaul. Of that war the cause was as follows

ipse in Illyricum proficiscitur. Eō cum vēnisset, militēs certum in locum convenire iubet. Quā rē nūntiātā Pirustae lēgātōs ad eum mittunt. Perceptā ōrātiōne eōrum Caesar obsidēs imperat, he himself set out for Illyricum. Upon his arrival there, he ordered soldiers to assemble in a particular place. When this was reported, the Pirustae sent envoys to him. Having heard their plea, Caesar demanded hostages

a. The relative pronoun is thus frequently used as a connecting link (§ 564).

quod ubi Caesar animadvertit, lēgātī ita respondērunt, when Caesar noticed this, the legates replied as follows

SPECIAL RULES

ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES AND GENITIVES

914. Attributive adjectives in general both precede and follow their nouns.

a. Numeral adjectives, adjectives of quantity and size, as *omnis*, *tōtus*, *magnus*, etc., and the adjectives *alius*, *alter*, *ūllus*, *nūllus*, normally precede.

decima legiō, the tenth legion
tōtum oppidum, the entire town
ingēns multitudō, a huge number
aliud iter, another way

b. The position of many adjectives has been fixed by custom.

populus Rōmānus, the Roman people
rēs pūblica, the commonwealth
dī immortalēs, the immortal gods
rēs frūmentāria, the grain supply
Sacra Via, the Sacred Way (a street in Rome)

c. Proper adjectives usually follow their nouns.

Sōcratēs Athēniēnsis, Socrates the Athenian

915. Genitives in general both precede and follow their nouns.

a. *Causā* and *grātiā* are always preceded by their genitive.

honōris causā, for the sake of honor
exemplī grātiā, for example

b. The genitives of interrogative and relative pronouns always precede their nouns, and the genitives of other pronouns generally do so.

cuius magnae cōpiae, whose great forces
eōrum obsidēs, their hostages

c. In stereotyped phrases consisting of a noun modified by a genitive, the genitive generally follows.

pater familiās, father of a family
tribūnus plēbis, tribune of the people
mīlia passuum, thousands of paces
 But *senātūs cōsultum, a decree of the senate*

916. When a noun is modified by both an adjective and a genitive, the usual order is *adjective, noun, genitive*; less frequently adjective, genitive, noun. The order genitive, noun, adjective is rare.

inferior pars insulae, the lower part of the island
magna hominum multitudō, a great number of men

917. Prepositions usually precede an adjective with its noun, but monosyllabic prepositions (especially *cum*, *dē*, *ex*, and *in*) often stand between the adjective and its noun.

ad latus apertum, on the exposed side
ex proximīs nāvibus, from the nearest ships
summā cum laude, with the highest praise

a. Relative and interrogative adjectives usually precede the preposition.

quā dē causā, for this reason
quam ob rem, wherefore
quem ad modum, how

PRONOUNS

918. *Hic*, *iste*, *ille*, *is*, and *idem*, used as pronominal adjectives, and indefinite pronominal adjectives normally precede their nouns.

haec spēs, this hope
ista vīta, that life
ille exercitus, that army
aliqua causa, some case

a. *Ille* in the sense of *that* (or *the*) famous, *that* (or *the*) well-known, normally follows its noun (see § 538).

919. Possessive pronominal adjectives normally follow their nouns.

domus mea, my house
pater noster, our father
cōpiae suae, his forces

920. *Quisque* regularly follows *sē* or *suus*, superlatives, and ordinals.

ad suam quisque domum, each to his own house

optimus quisque cīvis, all the best citizens

quārtō quōque annō, every fourth year

921. The pronoun of the first person precedes the second, and the second the third.

ego et tū, you and I

tū et ille, you and he

922. Relatives and interrogatives normally stand first in their clauses.

NOTE. For the antecedent standing in the relative clause see § 559.

ADVERBS

923. Adverbs normally precede the words they modify; but *quidem*, *quoque*, *dēnique*, and *dēmum* regularly, and *ferē* and *saepe* usually, follow.

CONJUNCTIONS

924. Conjunctions normally introduce their clauses; but *autem*, *enim*, *vērō*, and generally *igitur*¹ stand *second*, sometimes *third*.

NOTE. Such words are said to be *postpositive*.

PREPOSITIONS

925. Prepositions normally precede their cases, but *tenu*, *versus*, and enclitic *cum* (§ 277. *d*) follow.

a. A preposition may follow its case. This is rare in prose, but occurs in poetry, especially with prepositions of two syllables.

vēstibulum ante (Vergil), *before the entrance*

NOTE. Observe the idiomatic order in *per tē deōs orō*, *I beseech you by the gods*.

¹ *Igitur* sometimes stands *first*.

VERBS

926. The finite verb normally tends to stand last.

Ariovistus lēgātōs ad eum mittit, Ariovistus sends envoys to him

a. The verb often stands first in explanatory clauses when the connecting word is **autem** or **enim**.

loquor autem dē commūnibus amicitīis, I am speaking now; however, about ordinary friendships

licet enim mihi apud tē glōriārī, for it is allowed me to boast in your presence

927. **Sum** has no fixed position; but when it means *exist*, it regularly stands first or, at any rate, before its subject.

sunt fortēs virī, there are brave men

928. **Inquam**, *I say*, stands after one or more words of a direct quotation and is usually followed by its subject.

"refer," inquis, "ad senātum," "lay the matter before the senate," you say

"est vērō," inquit Cicerō, "nōtum quidem signum," "it is truly," said Cicero, "a very well-known seal"

NEGATIVES

929. The negative generally precedes the verb (§ 923); if it is emphatic, it begins the sentence; if it negatives only one word, it precedes that word.

THE VOCATIVE

930. The vocative normally stands after one or more words in the sentence.

parce metū, Cytherēa, cease your fear, Cytherea

a. When emphatic, the vocative stands first.

M. Tullī, quid agis, MARCUS TULLIUS, what are you doing?

ARRANGEMENT OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

931. Subordinate clauses normally begin with the connective and end with the verb. The intervening words are arranged in general as in principal clauses.

The distinct indication of the beginning and end of the subordinate clause was the more necessary because the Romans had no punctuation marks.

932. Subordinate clauses generally precede the principal clause; but the principal clause normally precedes clauses of purpose or result, substantive clauses in indirect discourse, and indirect questions.

cum esset Cæsar in citeriõre Galliã, crëbrì ad eum rùmõrës adferëbantur,
when Cæsar was in hither Gaul, frequent reports were brought
to him

mittunt lëgätõs quì pãcem petant, they send envoys to beg for peace
verëbantur në ad eõs exercitus noster addücerëtur, they feared that our
army would be led against them

certior fiëbat omnìs Belgàs obsidës inter së dare, he was informed that
all the Belgæ were giving hostages to each other
rogat më quid sentiam, he asks me what I think

THE RHETORICAL ORDER

933. Deviations from the normal order (§ 912) are very frequent and are known as the *rhetorical* order. These deviations arise from the desire to indicate emphasis or to secure pleasing euphonic effects (see also § 938).

934. Emphasis is secured by putting words in unusual positions, as follows :

a. By inverting the normal order of the subject and verb. This transposition makes them both emphatic.

mõvit më õrätìõ tua, your speech moved me
fuiinus Trões, fuit Ìlium, we have ceased to be Trojans, Ilium is no
more (cf. § 659)

b. By placing first a word that would not normally stand there.

lūce sunt clāriōra tua cōsilia, your plans are clearer than DAYLIGHT

c. By taking an emphatic word or phrase out of a subordinate clause and placing it before the connective.

servī meī sī mē istō pactō metuerent, etc., if even my SLAVES feared me in that fashion, etc.

d. By inverting the normal order of a noun and its modifier. This transposition makes the modifier emphatic.

*ōrātōrēs hī sunt clārissimī, THESE orators are the most famous
nōn est mea culpa, it is not MY fault*

e. By separating words that would normally stand together. Thus especially an emphatic adjective is separated from its noun.

*haec rēs ūnīus est propria Caesaris, this exploit belongs to Cæsar ALONE
magna dīs immortālibus habenda est grātia, GREAT gratitude is due to
the immortal gods*

*Gallia est omnis dīvisa in partēs trēs, Gaul, viewed as a WHOLE, is
divided into three parts*

f. By reversing the order of words in the second of two contrasted expressions. This is called *chiasmus* and is very common.

*fragile corpus, animus sempiternus, a frail body, an immortal soul
quam diū vixit, vixit in lūctū, as long as he lived, he lived in sorrow*

NOTE. Chiasmus is named from the Greek letter *chi* (X), in which the lines are crossed.

CLAUSE AND SENTENCE BUILDING

935. The connection of clause with clause and sentence with sentence is much closer in Latin than in English. There is evident a constant effort to combine into a harmonious whole the different parts of discourse and to make clear their logical relationship.

936. Structure of the Period. English narrative consists largely of short sentences, each distinct from the rest and saying one thing by itself. Latin writers, on the contrary,

viewed a number of related actions or thoughts as *a whole*, and this resulted in the formation of what is known as the Period.

To form a period, the chief action or thought among a number of related ones is selected and made the principal clause, and all the other clauses are incorporated in it as subordinate elements. Generally the period begins with the subject of the principal clause, then follow the subordinate clauses, and the period closes with the predicate of the principal clause, the main verb usually standing last. In this way the thought is kept in suspense from clause to clause and is not complete until the final word. Roman writers were very fond of the periodic style, and it is imitated sometimes in English, especially in poetry, as in the following :

High on a throne of royal state, which far
 Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,
 Or where the gorgeous East with richest hand
 Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold,
 Satan exalted sat. — "Paradise Lost," ii, 1-5

A Latin period is usually best translated into English by breaking it up into two or more short sentences.

Examples of the Latin period :

Caesar primum suō deinde omnium ex cōspectū remōtis equīs, ut
 aequātō omnium periculō spem fugae tolleret, cohortātus suōs
 proelium commisit

Caesar, ūnā aestāte duōbus maximis bellis cōfectis, mātūrius paulō
 quam tempus annī postulābat, in hiberna in Sēquanōs exercitum
 dēdūxit

937. Euphony and Rhythm. Good writers of Latin had regard for *sound* as well as for *sense*, and this had an important effect on the order of words. They avoided a succession of monosyllabic or of polysyllabic words, as also the heaping up of a number of verbs at the end of the sentence. The orators in particular took pains to have a sentence close with a pleasing combination of short and long syllables. These

closing syllables were known as the *cadence*. Certain cadences were sought after and others avoided. For example :

Favorite cadences	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \cup \cup \cup \mid - \cup, \text{rēpēnētūr (tribrach and trochee)} \\ - \cup \mid - \cup, \text{quāerētūr (two trochees)} \\ - \cup - , \text{mūnūt (cretic; cf. § 967)} \end{array} \right.$	
		$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} - \cup - \mid - - , \text{crīmīnis cāūsā (cretic and spondee)} \\ - \cup \cup \mid - - , \text{omnē tēnēbant (dactyl and spondee)} \end{array} \right.$
		Avoided cadence,

Preferably a word of two or more syllables of sonorous sound was placed last.

RHETORICAL EFFECTS

938. As has been already pointed out (§ 933), emphasis is produced by deviations from the normal order of words. In addition rhetoricians employed many devices to secure unusual effects. Among those most employed are the following :

939. *Anaph'ora* : the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses.

nihil agis, nihil mōliris, nihil cōgitās, you do nothing, you plan nothing, you think nothing

NOTE. The repetition of a word at the *end* of successive clauses is called *epiph'ora*.

940. *Antith'esis* : opposition or contrast. This is often secured by placing words opposed in meaning next to each other.

nec audet appellāre virum virgō, nor does the maid dare to address the hero

alius aliam in partem fūgit, one fled in one direction, another in another

NOTE. Antithetical phrases or pairs of words are usually contrasted by *chiasmus* (see § 934. f).

941. *Aposiophe'sis* : an abrupt pause in the midst of a sentence, leaving the imagination to supply the remainder.

quōs ego — sed mōtōs praestat compōnere fluctūs, whom I —
 • *but it is better to calm the angry billows*

942. *Asyn'deton*: omission of conjunctions.

iūra, lēgēs, agrōs, libertātem nōbīs reliquērunt, they have left us our rights, our laws, our fields, our liberty

NOTE. The opposite of asyndeton, when more conjunctions are expressed than is necessary, is called *polysyndeton*.

943. *Epizeux'is*: the emphatic repetition of a word.

fuit, fuit quondam in hāc rē publicā virtūs, there was, there was formerly virtue in this republic

944. *Hendi'adys*: the use of two nouns with a conjunction instead of a single modified noun, or of two verbs for an adverb and verb.

ardor et impetus, heat and attack, for heated attack
tē semper amāvī et dilēxī, I have always loved you dearly

945. *Hys'teron prot'eron* (the last first): a reversing of the natural order of ideas.

moriāmur et in media arma ruāmus, let us die and rush into the midst of the conflict

946. *Interlocked order*: the placing of the attribute of one pair of words between the parts of another.

tantō subitae terrōre ruinae, with such fear of sudden disaster

NOTE. This is a favorite Vergilian device.

947. *Li'totes*: the affirming of a thing by denying its contrary, or by understating it.

nōn sordidus auctor, no mean authority, meaning a distinguished authority

948. *Onomatopæ'ia*: the use of words whose sound suggests the sense.

exoritur clāmorque virum clangorque tubārum, the shouts of men and the blare of trumpets rise

949. *Oxymo'ron*: the placing together of two apparently contradictory ideas.

ārīda nūtrix, the parched nurse
splendīdē mendāx, gloriously false

GRAMMATICAL TERMS

950. a. *Anacoluthon* : a change of construction in the same sentence, leaving the first part without grammatical construction.

b. *Ellipsis* : the omission of one or more words necessary to the sense.

c. *Enallage* : substitution of one form or word for another.

d. *Hypallage* : interchange of constructions.

e. *Pleonasm* : the use of needless words.

f. *Synesis* : agreement of words according to the sense and not the grammatical form.

g. *Tmesis* (cutting) : the separation of the two parts of a compound word by other words.

h. *Zeugma* : the connection of a word with two others, to only one of which it strictly applies.

pācem an bellum gerēns, (making) *peace or waging war* (lit. *waging peace or war*)

PART IV. VERSIFICATION

QUANTITY

951. Quantity is the *time* required for the utterance of a vowel, a consonant, or a syllable. Some sounds require much more time than others. We speak therefore of long quantity and short quantity. The marks — and ∪ are used to indicate long and short quantity respectively. A long quantity is generally reckoned as equal in length to two short ones.

952. English poetry is based on accent, and the rhythm of English poetry depends on a regular succession of accented and unaccented syllables.

This is the | fórest pri|méval. The | múrmuring | pínes and the | hémlocks

Latin poetry, too, has a metrical accent (§ 978), but is based primarily on *quantity*, and the rhythm of Latin poetry depends, like music, on a regular succession of equal intervals of time.

accípi|ēns sōn|tum sax|i dē | verticē | pastōr (cf. § 967) ●

As the line of English depends for its rhythm upon the regular succession of the six accented syllables, so the Latin is made rhythmical by the succession of the six equal intervals or measures of time, each consisting of two long syllables or their equivalent.

QUANTITY¹ OF VOWELS

953. Long Vowels. A vowel is regularly long —

a. Before *ns*, *nf*, *nx*, and *nct*: as, *regēns*, *inferō*, *sānxī*, *sānctum*.

b. When formed by contraction: as, *nīl* (for *nihil*), *cōgō* (for *co-agō*), *prēndō* (for *prehendō*).

¹ A few of the leading rules for quantity are given in §§ 25-34.

954. Diphthongs. A diphthong is regularly long and is left unmarked.

NOTE. When *qu-*, *su-*, or *gu-* combines with a following vowel to form a single syllable, *u* has the sound of *w* and does not form a diphthong with the following vowel: as, *aquām*, *suāvis*, *sanguis*.

955. Short Vowels. A vowel is regularly short —

a. Before *-nt* or *-nd*: as, *amānt*, *monēndus*.

b. Before another vowel or *h*: as, *vīa*, *trāhō*.

To this rule there are the following exceptions:

1. *E* in the genitive and dative singular of the fifth declension is long between two vowels: as, *diēi*; otherwise usually short: as, *fidēi*, *rēi*.

2. *I* in the genitive singular ending *-ius* is regularly long: as, *illius*, *tōtius*.

But in poetry it is regularly short in *alterius*, usually in *utrius*, and sometimes in other words.

3. *I* is long in the forms of *fiō*, except in *fit* and when followed by *er*. Thus, *fiēbam*, *fiam*, but *fieri*, *fierem*.

4. In a few other Latin words and in many Greek words a vowel before another vowel is long: as, *dīus*, *Aenēas*, *āēr*, *hērōas*.

QUANTITY OF VOWELS IN FINAL SYLLABLES

956. Most nouns and adjectives of one syllable have a long vowel: as, *bōs*, *ōs* (*ōris*), *pār*, *sōl*, *vīs*.

But the vowel is short in *cōr*, *ōs* (*ōssis*), *quōt*, *tōt*, and *vīr*.

957. Most monosyllabic particles have a short vowel: as, *ān*, *cīs*, *nēc*, and the attached (enclitic) particles *-cē*, *-nē*, *-quē*, *-vē*.

But the vowel is long in *cūr*, *nōn*, and *quīn*.

958. Most adverbs in *c* have a long vowel in the final syllable: as, *hīc*, *hūc*, *illīc*, *illūc*, *sīc*.

959. Final *a* is long in the ablative singular of the first declension, in imperatives (except *putā*), and in indeclinable

words except **itā** and **quiā**. Elsewhere it is generally short. Thus, **tubā** (abl.), **amā**, **frūstrā**, **trīgintā**, but **tubā** (nom.), **animāliā**.

960. Final **e** is long —

a. In all monosyllables except enclitics (§ 957): as, **mē**, **tē**.

b. In nouns of the fifth declension: as, **rē**, **fidē**.

c. In the active imperative singular of the second conjugation: as, **monē**.

d. In adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, except **bene** and **male**: as, **longē**, **facillimē**.

e. In some Greek words: as, **Phoebē**, **Circē**.

Elsewhere it is short.

961. Final **i** is long: as, **sitī**, **suī**, **audī**.

But it is regularly short in **nīsī** and **quasī**, and usually in **mihī**, **tibī**, **sibī**, **ipī**, **ubī**, and in some Greek vocatives: as, **Chlōrī**.

962. Final **o** is regularly long.

But it is short in **egō**, **duō**, and **modō**, sometimes in **immō** and **profectō**, and rarely in the first person singular of verbs.

963. Final **u** is long.

964. In final **as**, **es**, and **os** the vowel is long.

But it is short in the following:

a. Greek plurals in **-as** or **-es**: as, **lampadās**, **Trōēs**.

b. Nominative singular in **-es** of most consonant stems: as, **mīlēs**, **obsēs**.

965. In final **is** and **us** the vowel is short.

But it is long in the following:

a. Plural case forms in **-is**: as, **bonīs**, **nōbīs**, **partīs**.

b. The second person singular in **-is** in the present indicative active of the fourth conjugation: as, **audīs**. Also **fīs**, **vīs**.

c. The second person singular in **-is** in the present subjunctive active of some irregular verbs: as, **mālīs**, **nōlīs**, **sīs**, **velīs**.

d. All the forms in **-us** of the fourth declension except the nominative singular: as, **frūctūs** (gen.).

e. Nominative singular in **-us** of nouns of the third declension having long **u** in the other cases: as, **virtūs**, **virtūtis**, but **pecūs**, **pecūdis**.

QUANTITY OF SYLLABLES

966. A syllable is long if it contains a long vowel or a diphthong: as, **ū-nus**, **mēn-sa**, **aes-tās**, **aus-pex**.

967. A syllable is long if it ends in a consonant which is followed by another consonant. Such a syllable is said to be long by position. Thus,¹ **ād-vēn-tūs**, **pōs-cō**, **ār-mā**.

NOTE. The syllables underlined in the words above are long by position, but the vowel in each is short and should be so pronounced. Vowel length must be carefully distinguished from syllable length. Sometimes a syllable long by position contains a long vowel or a diphthong. It is then long for both reasons.

a. The second of the two consonants making a syllable long by position may be the initial letter of the word following. Thus, in **nūllām spērārē** the syllable **-lām** is long by position.

968. A syllable is regularly long if its vowel is followed by consonant **i**: as, **maior**, **aiō**, **peius**, **Gaius**, **Pompeius**.

NOTE. So also in compounds of **iaciō**, where the consonant **i** is pronounced though not written: as, **obiciō** (for **ob-iiciō**), **iniciō** (for **in-iiciō**), **reiciō** (for **re-iiciō**). So, too, in the genitives **Gaii** (for **Gaii**), **Pompei** (for **Pompei**).

969. When a short vowel is followed by a mute with **l** or **r**, the syllable may be either long or short, and is said to be common in quantity: as, **pātris** or **pātris**.

NOTE. The quantity of such syllables depends on the way in which the word is divided. Thus in **pāt-ris** the first syllable is long because **t** is pronounced with a and the syllable ends in a consonant (see § 27). On the other hand, in **pā-tris** the **t** goes with the last syllable, and the first syllable ends in a short vowel and is therefore short (§ 28).

¹ The syllables long by position are underlined.

METERS AND VERSE FORMS

970. A single line of poetry is called a *verse*.

971. A verse, like a bar of music, consists of a succession of measures. These are called *feet*.

972. A foot is a succession of syllables arranged in a recognized group.

973. The unit of measure in versification is *one short syllable*. This is called a *mora*. It is represented by the sign \cup , or in musical notation by the quarter note (♩). A long syllable is regularly equal to two *mora*, and is represented by the sign $-$, or by the half note (♪).

974. A foot contains as many *mora* or beats as it has short syllables, a long syllable being always counted equal to two short ones.

975. The kinds of feet most frequently used, together with their musical notation, are the following :

Trochee,	$- \cup$	or	$\text{♩} \text{♩}$,	containing three beats or <i>mora</i>
Iambus,	$\cup -$	or	$\text{♩} \text{♩}$,	containing three beats or <i>mora</i>
Dactyl,	$- \cup \cup$	or	$\text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$,	containing four beats or <i>mora</i>
Anapæst,	$\cup \cup -$	or	$\text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$,	containing four beats or <i>mora</i>
Spondee,	$- -$	or	$\text{♪} \text{♪}$,	containing four beats or <i>mora</i>

a. A verse is named from its fundamental, or characteristic, foot : as, Trochaic, Iambic, Dactylic, Anapæstic ; and from the number of measures which it contains : as, Hexameter (six measures), Pentameter (five measures), Tetrameter (four measures), Trimeter (three measures).

976. Trochaic and iambic verses are measured, not by single feet, but by pairs ; so that, for example, six iambic feet make a trimeter, or three measures.

977. Substitution. A long syllable may take the place of two short ones, or two short syllables the place of a long one.

Thus, a spondee (— —) may take the place of a dactyl (— ∪ ∪) or of an anapæst (∪ ∪ —).

978. Ictus. One syllable in each foot is pronounced with greater stress than the others. This verse beat, or musical accent, is called the *ictus* and is marked thus: — ∪ ∪. The ictus does not destroy the word accent, but is subordinate to it.

NOTE. Many hold, on the contrary, that the ictus is superior to the word accent and destroys it when in conflict with it (see § 993. *b*).

979. Thesis and Arsis. That part of the foot which receives the ictus is called the *thesis*; the unaccented part is called the *arsis*.

NOTE. Thesis means properly the *putting down*, and arsis the *raising*, of the foot in the march or dance. The regular alternation of thesis and arsis constitutes the rhythm of poetry.

980. Scansion. To divide a verse into its measures according to the rules of quantity and versification is called *scanning* or *scansion*.

981. Elision. In scanning, a final vowel or diphthong, or *m* with a preceding vowel, is regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or *h*; that is, the final and initial syllables are blended and pronounced as one syllable.

The following line shows three elisions:

mônstr^{um} hor|rénd^{um}, in|fórm^e, in|géns, cui|lúmen a|démptum

The nature of elision as practiced by the Romans is not certain. It is customary to omit the elided syllables entirely.

982. The *e* of *est* is lost after a word ending in *m*, a vowel, or a diphthong, and *st* is added to the final syllable of the preceding word. Thus, *victa est* is read *victast*, *āctum est* is read *āctumst*, etc.

983. Hia'tus. Sometimes elision is omitted, especially when the first word is an interjection or is followed by a pause in the sense. This omission is called *hiatus*.

ó ūtí|nám pos|sém pöpü|lós rěpǎ|rárě pǎ|térnīs
pósthǎbl|tǎ cblū|íssě Sǎ|mó; hīc | íllūs | ármǎ

In the first line there is hiatus between the interjection *ó* and *utinam*, and in the second between *Samō* (followed by a pause) and *hīc*.

984. Syl'laba An'ceps. The last syllable of any verse may be either long or short, and is hence called the *syllaba anceps*, or the *doubtful syllable*.

985. Cat'alectic and A'catalectic Verses. A *catalectic verse* is one in which the last foot is incomplete. An *acatalectic verse* is one in which the last foot is complete.

986. Cæsu'ra. The ending of a word within a foot is called *cæsura*. This may occur in any foot of the verse, but when it coincides with a pause in the sense, we have what is called a *cæsural pause*. Most verses have only one cæsural pause, but there may be two, and it is not necessary that there be even one. The position of each cæsura is marked by the sign ||.

Note the cæsural pauses in the following verses:

núnc ěǎ|dém for|túnǎ vī|rós || tot | cásībūs | áctōs
ínsēqui|túr. || Quem | dás fi|ném, || rěx | mágně, lǎ|bóřüm ?

NOTE. The pause in the sense marking the position of the cæsural pause may be too slight to be marked by a punctuation point (cf. the first line above).

987. Diær'esis. The ending of a word with the end of a foot is called *diæresis*. There may be a pause in the sense at a diæresis. This is not, strictly speaking, a cæsural pause, but it may be marked in the same way.

Note the diæresis with pause in the following verse:

cónstitit, || ét Lib|yǎě dē|fixit | lúmnǎ | régnīs

SPECIAL IRREGULARITIES

988. Synize'sis or Synær'esis. Two vowels of different syllables may be pronounced, together as one long syllable: as, **dēinde** for **de-inde**, **mēos** for **me-ōs**, **dēesse** for **de-esse**, **dēhinc** for **de-hinc**.

989. Sys'tole. A syllable regularly long is sometimes used as short: as, **stetērunt** for **stetērunt**.

990. Dias'tole. A final syllable regularly short is sometimes used as long. Such a syllable is nearly always one receiving the ictus and followed by the cæsural pause.

lūctus, u|bíque pa|vōr,* || et | plūrima | mōrtis i|māgō
 ósten|tāns ar|témque pa|tēr* || ar|cúmque so|nántem

NOTE. Both systole and diastole are sometimes merely a return to an earlier pronunciation.

991. The vowels **i** and **u** are sometimes used as consonants, **i** having the sound of *y*, and **u** of *w*. The preceding syllable then becomes long by position: as, **ab-ie-te** (*abyete*) for **a-bi-e-te**, **gen-ua** (*genwa*) for **ge-nu-a**.

a. Conversely, consonant **i** and **v** are sometimes used as vowels: as, **si-lu-a** for **sil-va**.

992. Tme'sis. The component parts of a compound word are sometimes separated: as, **quod erit cumque** for **quodcumque erit**. This is called *tmesis* (cutting).

RULES FOR ORAL READING OF VERSE

993. Ancient poetry was written for rhythmical recitation, chanting, or singing. It is, therefore, especially through much oral reading that metrical composition can be best understood, appreciated, and enjoyed. The following directions should be observed:

a. Pronounce the words as in prose.

This includes the proper sounding of each letter, the correct placing of the accent, and a careful observance of the quantity of each syllable. A long syllable should have twice as much time as a short one.

b. Stress slightly the syllables upon which the ictus falls.

Sometimes the word accent and the ictus coincide; but when they fall on different syllables of the same word, the word accent should be given the greater stress and the ictus be made subordinate to it.¹ In this way the word accent will be preserved and at the same time the rhythm of the verse distinctly maintained as an undertone.

c. Give attention to the thought as well as to the words, and do not come to a complete stop at the end of every verse, regardless of punctuation.

994. Apprehension of rhythm and quantity is greatly assisted by beating time to the measure as in music, the long syllables receiving two beats and the short syllables one.

DACTYLIC VERSE

DACTYLIC HEXAMETER

995. Dactylic hexameter is the meter used by Greek and Roman epic poets, and is often called Heroic Verse. It consists theoretically of six dactyls (— ∪ ∪); but a spondee (— —) may take the place of a dactyl in any foot except the fifth, and the sixth foot may be either a spondee (— —) or a trochee (— ∪), the last syllable of a line being either long or short (§ 984). The verse may be represented thus :

— ∞ | — ∞ | — ∞ | — ∞ | — ∪ | — ∪

Example :

ét sī | fáťá dē|úm, sī | méns nōn | laévǎ fū|issět


a. Rarely a spondee is found in the fifth foot; the verse is then called *spondaic* and usually ends with a word of four syllables.

próximūs | hūíc, lon|gó sed | próximūs | ínter|vállō


¹ Many dissent from this view and give the greater stress to the ictus, even to the complete neglect of the word accent.

996. The Cæsu'ral Pause. The dactylic hexameter has regularly one cæsural pause, sometimes two, accompanied by a pause in the sense (§ 986).

997. The cæsural pause is usually after the thesis of the *third* foot.

ét sī | fāta de|úm, || sī | mēns nōn | lāēva fu|isset

998. Less frequently the cæsural pause is after the thesis of the *fourth* foot, usually with a second cæsura in the second foot.

nōn gale|aē, || nōn | énsis e|rát : || sine | mīlitis | úsū

a. A pause in the sense in the fourth foot, with no such pause in the third, is a sure indication that the cæsura is in the fourth foot and not in the third.

999. Occasionally the cæsural pause is between the two short syllables of the third foot, its presence there being indicated by a pause in the sense.

mémbra so|lō posu|ére ; || si|múl sup|réma ia|cētēs

a. Such a cæsura is called *feminine*, while one occurring after the first syllable of a foot is called *masculine*. A masculine cæsura is far more common than a feminine.

1000. Sometimes it is impossible to determine the cæsural pause with certainty, and a diæresis (§ 987) may take the place of the cæsural pause.

séntiat. || Át quoni|ám con|currere | cómminus | hósti

1001. The dactylic hexameter rarely ends in a monosyllable.

1002. The first seven verses of Vergil's *Æneid* afford a good example of dactylic hexameter, and are scanned as follows :

Ármă vī|rúmquē că|nō || Trō|iaē quī | prímūs ab | óris

Ítālī|ám fā|tó prōfū|gús || Lā|vīniăquē | vēnīt

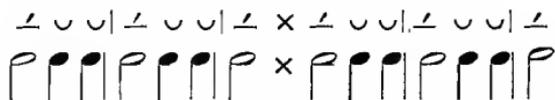
lītōrā, | mūlt^{am} il|l^o ét ter|rís || iac|tātūs ét | áltō
 ví sūpē|rúm s̄ae|v̄aē mémō|rém Iū|nōnīs ōb | írām ;
múltā quō|qu^o ét bel|lō pas|sūs || dum | cóndērēt | úrbēm,
 ínfer|rétquē dē|ōs Lăt|īō, || gēnūs | úndē Lăt|ínūm
Álbā|niquē pā|trēs || at|qu^o áltāe | mōēnĭā | Rómāe.

a. Dactylic hexameter in English verse is illustrated by the following lines from Longfellow's "Evangeline":

This is the forest primeval. The murmuring pines and the hemlocks,
 Bearded with moss, and in garments green, indistinct in the twilight,
 Stand like Druids of old, with voices sad and prophetic,
 Stand like harpers hoar, with beards that rest on their bosoms.

DACTYLIC PENTAMETER

1003. The dactylic pentameter is the same as the hexameter except that it omits the unaccented part (arsis) of the third foot and of the sixth foot. It consists therefore of two parts, each of which contains two dactyls and a long syllable. The first half of the verse always ends with a word and is followed by a pause. The scheme of the verse is as follows:



Spondees may take the place of the dactyls in the first half, but not in the second, and the last syllable of the line may be either long or short (§ 984).

1004. *Elegiac Distich.* The dactylic pentameter is rarely used alone, but regularly combines with a preceding hexameter to form a couplet (distich), as illustrated in English by —

In the hex|ameter | rises || the | fountain's | silvery | column,
 In the pen|tameter | aye × falling in | melody | back.

This form of verse became the favorite of writers of Latin elegy, such as Catullus, Tibullus, Propertius, and Ovid, and hence it is known as the elegiac distich, or elegiac stanza. The distich is generally a unit in thought as well as in form, the sense rarely being left uncompleted at its close.

1005. The following verses from Ovid well illustrate the elegiac distich :

Cúm súbít | íllí|ús trís|tíssímă | nóctis ĩ|mágō
 quá mĭhĭ | súprē|múm × témpūs ĩn | úrbē fŭ|ĭt,
cúm řěpě|tó noc|tém || quā | tót mĭhĭ | cára řě|líquĭ,
lábĭtŭr | éx ocŭ|lĭs × núnc quōquē | gúttă mē|ĭs.

APPENDIX

THE ROMAN CALENDAR

1006. In earlier times the Romans designated the year of an event by the names of the consuls, in the ablative absolute: as, *M. Messalā M. Pisōne cōsulibus*, in the consulship of Marcus Messalā and Marcus Piso. Later the year was reckoned from the founding of the city (*ab urbe conditā* or *annō urbis conditae*, abbreviated to A.U.C.), the date of which is assigned to the year 753 B.C. In order, therefore, to find the year of the Christian era corresponding to a given Roman date A.U.C., the number of the Roman year must be subtracted from 754, 1 being added to 753 to allow for the Roman custom of including both extremes when reckoning the difference between two numbers. For example, Cæsar was killed in 710 A.U.C., or 44 (754-710) B.C.

1007. Before Julius Cæsar's reform of the calendar (46 B.C.) the Roman year consisted of 355 days. All the months had 29 days except March, May, July, and October, which had 31 days, and February, which had 28. As this calendar year was too short for the solar year, a month of varying length (*mēnsis intercalāris*) was inserted every other year after February 23, the rest of February being omitted.

1008. The Julian calendar, as reformed by Julius and Augustus Cæsar, had 365 days, divided into months as at present, February having 29 days every fourth year. The Julian calendar remained unchanged till the adoption of the Gregorian calendar, A.D. 1582, which omits leap year three times in every four hundred years.

1009. The names of the months, used as masculine or feminine adjectives, were as follows :

Iānuārius, -a, (-um)	Maius, -a, (-um)	September, -bris, (-bre)
Februārius, -a, (-um)	Iūnius, -a, (-um)	Octōber, -bris, (-bre)
Mārtius, -a, (-um)	Quīntilis, (-e)	November, -bris, (-bre)
Aprīlis, (-e)	Sextilis, (-e)	December, -bris, (-bre)

The year was formerly regarded as beginning with March, which made July the *fifth* (quīntilis) month, August the *sixth* (sextilis), etc. The month Quīntilis was later called Iūlius in honor of Julius Cæsar, and Sextilis was called Augustus in honor of the emperor Augustus.

1010. Dates were reckoned from three points in the month, namely, the *Calends* (Kalendæ, -ārum, F.), the first day of the month ; the *Nones* (Nōnæ, -ārum, F.), the fifth day ; and the *Ides* (Īdūs, Īduum, F.), the thirteenth.

However, in March, May, July, and October the Nones fell on the seventh day, and the Ides on the fifteenth.

Kalendæ	Nōnæ	Īdūs	Kalendæ
1	2 3 4	5 6 7	8 9 10 11 12
		13 14 15	16 . . . 27 28 29 30 31

An event occurring at any one of these points was said to occur *on the Calends*, *on the Nones*, or *on the Ides*, and the date was expressed by the simple ablative of time. The noun denoting the date was modified by the adjective representing the month in question.

Kalendīs Februāriīs, *on the first of February*
Nōnīs Aprīlibus, *on the fifth of April*
Nōnīs Octōbribus, *on the seventh of October*
Īdibus Iānuāriīs, *on the thirteenth of January*
Īdibus Mārtiīs, *on the fifteenth of March*

a. From the Calends, Nones, and Ides the dates in the month were reckoned *backwards*. The date immediately preceding any one of them

was expressed by the word **prīdiē**, used as a preposition followed by the accusatives **Kalendās**, **Nōnās**, **Īdūs**, modified by the adjective form of the word denoting the month.

prīdiē Kalendās Februāriās, *the thirty-first of January*

prīdiē Nōnās Iānuāriās, *the fourth of January*

prīdiē Īdūs Mārtiās, *the fourteenth of March*

prīdiē Īdūs Septembrēs, *the twelfth of September*

b. The dates intervening between any two points were counted as so many days *before* the second point. The Romans, however, in reckoning a series, counted both extremes; for example, the eleventh day of April was counted as the *third* day before the Ides (that is, the thirteenth), the tenth of April as the *fourth* day before the Ides. And in counting back from the Calends to a date in the preceding month the Calends were included; thus a Roman would say that there are four days from August 29 to September 1 (cf. § 1012. *d*).

In expressing dates the phrase **ante diem** (translated *the day before*) was used with the accusatives **Kalendās**, **Nōnās**, **Īdūs**, the word **diem** being modified by the proper ordinal numeral.

ante diem quārtum Kalendās Septembrēs, *the fourth day before the Calends of September (August 29)*

ante diem quārtum Kalendās Octōbrēs, *the fourth day before the Calends of October (September 28)*

ante diem sextum Īdūs Mārtiās, *the sixth day before the Ides of March (March 10)*

ante diem quīntum Nōnās Maiās, *the fifth day before the Nones of May (May 3)*

NOTE 1. These expressions were generally abbreviated as follows :

a. d. IV. Kal. Sept. or IV. Kal. Sept.

a. d. VI. Īd. Mārt. or VI. Īd. Mārt.

a. d. V. Nōn. Maiās or V. Nōn. Maiās

NOTE 2. The phrase **ante diem** probably originated thus: the ablative form denoting *time when* (followed by **ante**), as, **diē tertiō ante** etc., came to be written *after ante* instead of *before* it; subsequently **ante diē tertiō** became **ante diem tertium**, as if the noun were governed by **ante**.

c. The whole expression denoting a date was sometimes treated as a single substantive governed by a preposition.

in a. d. V. Kal. Nov., *to the fifth day before the Calends of November (October 28)*

opus contulit in ante-diem III. Īd. Oct., *he postponed the work to the third day before the Ides of October (October 13)*

1011. To find the equivalent in English for a date given in Latin, observe the following rule :

If the given Latin date is counted from the Calends, add *two* to the number of days in the preceding month, and from the number thus ascertained subtract the given date ; if from the Nones or the Ides, add *one* to the day on which they fall, and from the number thus ascertained subtract the given date.

a. d. VI. Kal. Īān. ($31 + 2 - 6$), *December 27*

a. d. V. Nōn. Oct. ($7 + 1 - 5$), *October 3*

a. d. III. Īd. Apr. ($13 + 1 - 3$), *April 11*

1012. To express an English date in Latin observe the following rules :

a. If the date is that on which the Calends, Nones, or Ides respectively fall, use the simple ablative of time (**Kalendās**, **Nōnīs**, or **Īdibus**) modified by the adjective representing the month in question (cf. § 1010).

b. If the date immediately precedes the Calends, Nones, or Ides, use **prīdiē** followed by the accusative **Kalendās**, **Nōnās**, or **Īdīs**, as the case may be, and the adjective form of the word denoting the month (cf. § 1010. a).

c. If the date falls between the first and the fourth (or the sixth of March, May, July, or October), subtract one from the English date, and subtract this remainder from the date on which the Nones fall. The number thus obtained (usually preceded by **ante diem** or **a. d.**) followed by **Nōnās** or **Nōn.** and the name of the month will be the expression desired.

If the date falls between the fifth and twelfth (or the seventh and fourteenth of March, May, July, or October), follow the rule above, substituting the Ides for the Nones (cf. § 1010. b).

d. If the date is later than the thirteenth (or fifteenth of March, May, July, or October), subtract two from the English date, and subtract this remainder from the number of days in the month. The number thus obtained (usually preceded by *ante diem* or *a. d.*) followed by **Kalendās** or **Kal.** and the name of the *next* month will be the expression desired (cf. § 1010. *b*).

ABBREVIATIONS

abl. = ablative
abs. = absolute
acc. = accusative
act. = active
adj. = adjective
adv. = adverb
app. = appositive
attrib. = attributive
cf. (cōnfer) = compare
cl. = clause
comp. = composition
compar. = comparison
comps. = compounds
conj. = conjugation
cons. = consonant
constr. = construction
dat. = dative
decl. = declension
defect. = defective
descript. = descriptive
dir. = direct
fem. = feminine
ff. = and following

ftn. = footnote
fut. = future
gen. = genitive
id. (idem) = the same
impers. = impersonal
inv. = imperative
ind. disc. = indirect dis-
course
ind. quest. = indirect
question
indecl. = indeclinable
indic. = indicative
inf. = infinitive
interrog. = interrogative
intrans. = intransitive
loc. = locative
masc. = masculine
N. = Note
neg. = negative
neut. = neuter
nom. = nominative
obj. = object
part. = participle

pass. = passive
perf. = perfect
pers. = personal
plur. = plural
poss. = possessive
pred. = predicate
prep. = preposition
pres. = present
prin. = principal
pron. = pronoun
quest. = question
rel. = relative
sing. = singular
subj. = subject
subjv. = subjunctive
subord. = subordinate
subst. = substantive
superl. = superlative
trans. = transitive
vb. = verb
voc. = vocative
w. = with

Other abbreviations need no explanation. When only the last article in a reference group needs to be consulted, the parts of the group are separated by periods; otherwise commas are used.

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