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Latin GRammar

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1934

TORONTO


GEORGE N. MORANG \& CO. LIMITED

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By CHARLES E. BENNETT.

## PREFACE.

The object of this book is to present the essential facts of Latin grammar in a direct and simple manner, and within the smallest compass consistent with scholarly standards. While intended primarily for the secondary school, it has not neglected the needs of the college student, and aims to furnish such grammatical information as is ordinarily required in undergraduate courses.

The experience of German educators in recent years has tended to restrict the size of school-grammars of Latin, and has demanded an incorporation of the main principles of the language in compact manuals of 250 pages. ${ }^{1}$ Within the past decade, several grammars of this scope have appeared which have amply met the exacting demands of the full Gymnasial Latin course, - a period of study representing quite as much reading as that covered by the average American undergraduate.

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

In the chapter on Prosody, I have designedly onitted all special treatment of the lyric metres of Horace and Catullus, as

[^0]
## Preface.

well as of the measures of the comic poets. Our standard editions of these authors all give such thorough consideration to versification that repetition in a separate place seems superfluous.
In the matter of 'hidden quantities,' I have conformed to Lewis's Latin Dictionary jor Schools, and the same editor's later Elementary Latin Dictionary. In several cases this procedure has involved a sacrifice oi convictions as to the actual quantity of vowels; but the advantages of uniformity in our educational practice seemed, for the present at least, to warrant this concession of personal views.
The discussion of inflectional forms and of the development of case and mood constructions has been reserved for the Appendix for Teachers, where these and some other matters receive full and systematic consideration.

To several of my polleagues, who have generously assisted me with their advice and criticism during the preparation and printing of this book, I desire to offer my sincerest thanks, especially to Professors H. C. Elmer and B. I. Wheeler, of Cornell University, Professor Alfred Gudeman, of the University of Pennsylvania, Professor George L. Hendrickson, of the University of Wisconsin, and Professors Francis W. Kelsey and Jchn C. Rolfe, of the University of Michigan.

Ithaca, N. Y., Dec. I5, 1894.<br>C. E. B.

## PREFACE TO FOURTH EDITION.

In this edition I have marked all long vowels in conformity with the lists contained in my Appendix for Teachers (p. 52 ff.). Lewis, vhose Latin Dictionaries I had originally followed, has meanwhile, in the last edition of the Elementary Dictionary, accepted my markings in a majority of the cases wherein I had expressed dissent from him.
C. E. B.

Ithaca, Feb. io, $\mathrm{I8g6}$.

## editions

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## Part 1.

## SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY.

## THE ALPHABET.

1. The Latin Alphabet is the same as the English, except that the Latin has no $\mathbf{w}$.
2. K occurs only in Kalendae and a few other words; $\mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbf{z}$ were introduced from the Greek about 50 B.C., and occur only in foreign words - chiefly Greek.
3. With the Romans, who regularly employed only capitals, $\mathbf{I}$ served both as vewel and consonant ; so also $\mathbf{V}$. For us, however, it is more convenient to distinguish the vowel and consonant sounds, and to write $i$ and $\mathbf{u}$ for the former, $\mathbf{j}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ for the latter. Yet some scholars prefer to employ $i$ and $u$ in the function of consonants as well as vowels.

## CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS.

2. i. The Vowels are $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{e}, \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{o}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}$. The other letters are Consonants. The Diphthongs are ae, oe, ei, au, eu, ui.
3. Consonants are further subdivided into Mutes, Liquids, Nasals, and Spirants.
4. The Mutes are $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{k}, \mathbf{q} ; \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{d}, \mathbf{g} ; \mathbf{p h}, \mathrm{th}, \mathrm{ch}$. Of these, -
a) $\mathbf{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{k}, \mathrm{q}$ are voiceless, ${ }^{1}$ i.e. sounded without voice or vibration of the vocal chords.
b) $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{g}$ are voiced, ${ }^{2}$ i.e. sounded with vibration of the vocal chords.

[^1]c) $\mathbf{p h}$, th, $\mathbf{c h}$ are aspirates. These are connined almost exclusively to words derived from the Greek, and were equivalent to $\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{t}+\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{c}+\mathbf{h}$, i.e. to the corresponding voiceless mutes with a following breath, as in Eng. loop-hole, hot-house, blockhouse.
4. The Mutes admit of classification also as
\[

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Labials, } & \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{p h} \\
\text { Dentals (or Linguals), } & \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{d}, \mathbf{t h} . \\
\text { Gutturals (or Palatais), } & \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{k}, \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{c h} .
\end{array}
$$
\]

5. The Liquids are $1, \mathrm{r}$. These sounds were voiced.
6. The Nasals are $m, n$. These were voiced. Besides its ordinary sound, n , when followed by a palatal mute, also had another sound, - that of ng in sing, - the so-called n adultcrinum; as, -
anceps, double, pronounced angceps.
7. The Spirants (sometimes called Fricatives) are f, s, $\mathbf{h}$. These were voiceless.
8. The Semivowels are $\mathbf{j}$ and $\nabla$. These were voiced.
9. Double Consonants are $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{z}$. Of these, $\mathbf{x}$ was equivalent to cs , while the equivalence of $\mathbf{z}$ is uncertain. See § 3.3 .
10. The following table will indicate the relations of the consonant sounds:-

a. The Double Consonants, $x$ and $z$, being compound sounds, do not admit of classification in the above tabie.

## SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

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

## I. Vowels.

$\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ as in father;
${ }^{2}$ as in they;
I as in machine;
o as in note;
$\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ as in rude;
y like French $u$, German ii.

## 2. Diphthongs.

ae like ai in aisle;
oe like oi in oil;
ei as in rein;
au like $o w$ in how;

## 3. Consonants.

$\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{d}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{h}, \mathbf{k}, \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q u}$ are pronounced as in English, except that bs, bt are pronounced $p s, p t$.
c is always pronounced as $k$.
$\mathbf{t}$ is always a plain $t$, never with the sound of $s h$ as in Eng. oration.
g always as in get; when ngu precedes a vowel, gu has the sound of $g_{z v}$, as in anguis, languidus.
$j$ has the sound of $y$ as in $y e t$.
$\mathbf{r}$ was probably slightly trilled with the tip of the tongue.
s always voiceless as in $\sin$; in suādeō, suāvis, suẽscō, and in compounds and derivatives of these words, su has the sound of $s w$.
$\checkmark$ like $w$.
$\mathbf{x}$ always like $k s$; never like Eng. $g z$ or $z$.
$\mathbf{z}$ uncertain in sound; possibly like Eng. $z d$, possibly like $z$. The latter sound is recommended.
The aspirates ph , ch , th were pronounced very nearly like our stressed Eng. $p, c, t$-so nearly so, that, for practical purposes, the latter sounds suffice.
Doubled letters, like $11, \mathrm{~mm}, \mathrm{tt}$, etc., should be so pronounced that both members of the combination are distinctlv articulated.

## SYLL,ABLES.

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

In the division of words into syllables, -

1. A single consonant is joined to the following vowel; as, vo-lat, ge-rit.
2. Doubled consonants, like tt, ss, eic., are always separated; as, vit-ta, mis-sus.
3. In case of other combinations of consonants, such as can stand at the beginning of a word are joined to the following vowel; as, ma-gistrī, dī-gnus, tè-xī.
4. But compounds are separated into their component parts; as, per-it, ab-radit.

## QUANTITY.

## 5. A. Quantity of Vowels.

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

1. A vowel is long, ${ }^{1}$ -
a) before nf, ns, and before gn in nouns and adjectives in -gnus, -gna, -gnum ; as, īnfāns, dīgnus, sīgnum.
b) when the result of contraction; as, nīlum for ninilum.
c) before $j$; as, hūjus.
2. A vowel is short, -
a) before nt, nd; as, amant, amandus. A few rare exceptions occur in cases of compounds whose first member has a long vowel ; as, nōndum (nōn dum).
b) before another vowel, or $\mathbf{h}$; as, meus, trahō. Some exceptions occur, chiefly in proper names derived from the Greek; as, Aenēās.

Note.-Occasionally we meet with vowels that are sometimes long, sometimes short. Such vowels are called common. The variation appears only in poetry. Examples are the first vowel in Dīāna, öhē.

[^2]
## B. Quantity of Syllables.

as there
as, vo-lat, rated; as, n stand at as, ma-gi-
parts ; as, quired for ining the in large
$\qquad$
ctives in

1 m.
ceptions s a long
e excep-
Greek ;

Syllables are distinguished as long or short according to the length of time required for their pronunciation. Their quantity is governed by the following principles : -

1. A syllable is long, ${ }^{1}$ -
a) if it contains a long vowel; as, māter, māgnus, dīus.
b) if it contains a diphthong; as, causae, foedus.
c) if it contains a short vowel followed by $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}$, or any two consonants (except a mute with 1 or $r$ ); as, axis, gaza, restō.
2. A syllable is short, if it contains a short vowel followed by a vowel or by a single consonant ; as, mea, amat.
3. Sometimes a syllable varies in quantity, viz. when its vowel is short and is followed by a mute with 1 or r , i.e. by $\mathrm{pl}, \mathrm{cl}, \mathrm{tl}$; pr, cr, tr, etc.; as, ăgri, volŭcris. ${ }^{2}$ Such syllables are called common. In prose they were regularly short, but in verse they might be treated as long at the option of the poet.

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

## ACCENT.

6. I. Words of two syllables are accented upon the first; as, tégit, mốrem.
7. Words of more than two syllables are accented upon the penult (next to the last) if that is a long syllable, otherwise upon the antepenult (second from the last); as, amā́vī, amántis, miserum.
8. The enclitics -que, -ne, -ve, -ce, -met, -dum always throw an accent back upon the preceding syllable, when the simple word is accented on the antepenult ; as, miseráque, homiń́que.
9. Sometimes the final -e of -ne and -ce disappears, but without affecting the accent ; as, tantốu, istî́c, illúc, vidén (for vidésne).
[^3]
## Sounds, Accent, Quantity.

5. In utrăque, each, and plërắque, most, -que is not properly an enclitic; yet these words accent the penult, owing to the influence of their other cases, - utǿrque, utrumque, plërumque.
6. But in other words, -que does not throw back an accent unless it is a true enclitic, meaning and. Thus, regularly, dénique, undique, utique, ítaque; but if itaque means and . . . so (-que being enclitic), it is accented itaque.

## VOWEL CHANGES. ${ }^{1}$

## 7. I. In Compounds, -

a) モbefore a single consonant becomes $\mathbf{1}$; as, -
colligo for con-legō
b) $\mathfrak{a}$ before a single consonant becomes I : as, -
adigō for ad-agō.

expers for ex-pars.
d) ae becomes I; as, -
conquīrō for con-quaerō
c) au becomes $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$, sometimes $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$; as, -
conclūdō for con-clausio ;
explōdō for ex-plaudō.
2. Contraction. Concurrent vowels were frequently contracted into
trës for tre-es;
mā̃o for ma(v)elö; amãstī for amā(v)istī; débeō for dē(h)abeō; for nihil;
cōpia for co-opia; cōgō for co-agō; cōmō for co-emō; jūnior for $\mathrm{ju}(\mathrm{v})$ enior.
3. Parasitic Vowels. In the environment of liquids and nasals a parasitic vowel sometimes develops; as, vinculum for earlier vinclum. So periculum, saeculum.
4. Syncope. Sometimes a vowel drops out by syncope; as, ārdor for āridor (cf. āriutis); valde for valide (cf. valiaus).

[^4]
## Peculiarities of Orthography.

is not properly an $g$ to the influence que.
$k$ an accent unless énique, undique, ue being enclitic),

## CONSONANT CHANGES. ${ }^{1}$

8. I. Rhotacism. An original s between vowels became $\mathbf{r}$; as, arbōs, Gen. arboris (for arbosis.); genus, Gen. generis (for genesis); dirimō (for dis-emō).
9. $d t, t t, t s$ each give $s$ or $s s$; as, -
pēnsum for pend-tum;
versum
for
miles
for minlet-s; $;$
sessus
for sedtus;
passus for pattus.
10. Final consonants were often omitted; as, -
cor for cord;
lāc for lāct.
11. Assimilation of Consonants. Consonants are often assimilated to a following sound. Thus : accurrō (adc-); aggerō (adg-); asserō (ads-); allātus (adl-); apportō (adp-); attulī (adt-); arrīdeō (adr-); affesō (adf-); occurrō (obc-); suppōnō (subp-); offerō (obf-); corruō (comr-); collătus (coml-); etc.
12. Partial Assimilation. Sometimes the assimilation is only partial. Thus:-
a) $\mathbf{b}$ before s or t becomes p ; as, -
scrīpsī (scrīb-sī), scrīptum (scrīb-tum).
b) $\boldsymbol{g}$ before s or t becomes c ; as, āctus (āg-tus).
c) $\mathbf{m}$ before a dental or guttural becomes $\mathbf{n}$; as, eundem (eum-dem); prīnceps (prīm-ceps).

## PECULIARITIES OF ORTHOGRAPHY

9. Many words have variable orthography.
I. Sometimes the different forms belong to diferent periods of the language. Thus, quom, voltus, voluus, volt, etc., were the prevailing

[^5]forms almost down to the Augustan Age; after that, cum, vultus, vulnus, vult, etc. So optumus, māxumus, lubet, lubīdō, etc., down to about the same era; later, optimus, māximus, libet, libīdō, etc.
2. In some words the orthography varies at one and the same period of the language. Examples are exspectō, expectō ; exsistō, existō ; epistula, epistola ; adulēscēns, adolēscēns ; paulus, paullus; cottīdie, cotídiè ; and, particularly, prepositional compounds, which, even in those cases where actual assimilation took place in the spoken language ( $\$ 8.4$ ), often made a concession to the etymology in the spelling; as, -

```
ad-gerठ or aggerō; ad-serō or asserō;
ad-lició or allicio;
ad-rogãns or arrogãns;
    in-lātus or illătus;
    sub-moveō or summoveō;
    and many others.
```

3. Compounds of jaciō were usually written ēiciō, dēiciō, adiciō, obiciō, stc., but were probably pronounced as though written adjiciō, objiciō, etc.
4. Adjectives and nouns in -quus, -quum; -vus, -vum; -uus, -uum preserved the earlier forms in -quos, -quom; -vos, -vom; -uos, -uom, down through the Ciceronian age; as, antiquos, antiquom; saevos; perpetuos; equos; servos. Similarly verbs in the 3 d plural present indicative exhibit the terminations -quont, -quontur; -vont, -vontur; -uont, -uontur, for the same period; as, relinquont, loquontur ; vivont, metuont.

The older spelling, while generally followed in editions of Plautus and Terence, has not yet been adopted in our prose texts.
cum, vultus, dō, etc., down libīaō, etc.
nd the same tō ; exsistō, paulus, paulcompounds, place in the etymology in
rō;
us;
moveō ;
iciō, adiciō, ten adjiciō,
vum ; -uus, vos, -vom; quos, antirly verbs in ons -quont, period ; as, s of Plautus

## Part II.

## INFLECTIONS.

10. The Parts of Speech in Latin are the same as in English, viz. Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections; but the Latin has no article.
11. Of these eight parts of speech the first four are capable of Inflection, i.e. of undergoing cuange of form to express modifications of meaning. In case of Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns, this process is called Declension; in case of Verbs, Conjugation.

## Chapter I. - Declension.

## A. nouns.

12. A Noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or quality; as, Caesar, Caesar; Rōma, Rome; penna, feather; virtūs, courage.
13. Nouns are either Proper or Common. Proper nouns are permsnent names of persons or places ; as, Caesar, Rōma. Other nouns are Common; as, penna, virtūs.
14. Nouns are also distinguished as Concrete or Abstract.
a) Concrete nouns are those which designate individual objects; as, mōns, mountain; pēs, foot; diēs, day; mēns, mind.

Under concrete nouns are included, also, collective nouns ; as, legiō, legion; comitātus, retinue.
b) Abstract nouns designate qualities; as, cōnstantia, steadfastness; paupertās, poverty.

## GENIDER OF NOUNS.

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

## Natural Gender.

14. The gender of nouns is natural when it is based upon sex. Natural gender is confined entirely to names of persons ; and these are -
I. Masculine, if they denote males; as, nauta, sailor; agricola, former.
15. Feminine, if they denote females; as, -
măter, mother; rêgīna, queen.

## Grammatical Gender.

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

## A. Gender determined by Signification.

I. Names of Rivers, Winds, and Montlis are Masculine; as, -

Sēquana, Seine; Eurus, east zind; Aprillis, April.
2. Names of Trees, and such names of Countrics, Tozens, and Islands as end in -us, are Feminine ; as, quercus, oak; Pontus, Pontus; Coriuthus, Corinth: Rhodus, Phodes.
ctive nouns ;
antia, stead-

Feminine, or gram-
is based to names
sex, but ending of er, nouns or Femie ending e general

Mascu-
ountries, ; as, is, Rhodes.

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

Delphi, m. ; Leuctra, n.; Latium, n.; Tibur, in. ; Carthago, f.
3. Indeclinable nouns are Neuter ; as, nihil, nothing; nefals, worong.
Nore. - Excc; tions to the above principles sometimes ocan fortit the river), f .
B. Gender determined by Ending of Nomi att Singular.

The gender of other nouns is determi of the Nominative Singular. ${ }^{1}$

Note 1. - Common Gender. Certain nouns ara line, sometimes Feminine. Thus, sacerdōs may mea priestess, and is Masculine or Feminine accordingly. citizen; parens, parent; etc. The gender of suclidous is oivis, common.

No:e 2. - Names of animals usually have grammatical gender, according to the ending of the Nominative Singular, but the one form may designate either the male or female; as, anser, m., goose or gander. So vulpēs, f., fox; aquila, f., eagle.

## NUMBER.

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

## CASES

17. There are six Cases in Latin:-

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

[^6]1. Locative. Vestiges of another case, the Locative (denoting place where), occur in names of towns and in a few other words.
2. Oblique Cases. The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called Oblique Cases.
3. Stem and Case-Endings. The different cases are formed by appending certain case-endings to a fundamental part called the Stem. ${ }^{1}$ Thus, portam (Accusative Singular) is formed by adding the casc-ending -m to the stem porta-. But in most cases the final vowel of the stem has coalesced so closely with the actual case-ending that the latter has become more or less obscured. The apparent caseending thus resulting is called a termination.

## THE FIVE DECLENSIONS.

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

| Declension. <br> First | Final Letter of Stem. a | Gen. Termination. -ae |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Second | ¢ | -I |
| Third | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { Some consonant } \end{array}\right.$ | -is |
| Fourth | й | -us |
| Fifth | E | -皆 |

## Cases alike in Form.

19. I. The Vocative is regularly like the Nominative, except in the Singular of nouns in us of the Second Declension.
20. The Datise and Ablative Plural are always alike.
21. In Nevters the Accusative and Nominative are always alike, and in the Plural end in -ă.
22. In the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Declensions, the Accusative Plural is regularly like the Nominative.

[^7](denoting vords.
, and Abla-

## formed by

 called the by adding es the final case-ending parent case-inguished and also llows : -

Ation.
except in
alike, and
ccusative
the Root. are mono1x. Thus

## FIRST DECLENSION.

## ā-Stems.

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

Porta, gate; stem, porter.

## SINGULAR.

Cases.
Nom. porta
Gell. portae
Dat. portae
Acc. portam Voc. porta Abl. portā

Nom. portae
Gen. portãrum
Dat. portis
Acc. portās
Voc. portae
Abl. portīs

Meanings.
a gate (as subject)
of a gate
to or for a gate
a gate (as object)
O gate!
with, by, from, in a gate

## plural.

gates (as subject)
of gates
to or for gates
gates (as object)
$O$ gates!
with, by, from, in gates -Is
Terminations.
$-\mathbf{a}$
-ae
-ae
-am
$-$
-

-ae
-Is
-ans
-ae
m
-árum

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

## $\times$ Peculiarities of Nouns of the First Declension.

2i. I. Exceptions in Gender. Nouns denoting males are Masculine; as, nauta, sailor; agricola, farmer; also Hadria, Adriatic Sea.
2. Rare Case-Endings, -
a) An old form of the Genitive Singular in -äs is preserved in the combination pater familiās, father of a fumily; also in māter familiās, filius familiās, fīlia familiās. But the regular form of the Genitive in ae is also admissible in these expressions; as, pater familiae.
b) In poetry a Genitive in -aI also occurs; as, aulai.
c) The Locative Singular ends in -ae; as, Römae, at Rome.
d) A Genitive Plural in -um instead of -ārum sometimes occurs; as, Dardanidum instead of Dardanidärum. This termination -um is not a contraction of Frum, but represents an entirely different case-ending.
c) Besides the regular ending -iss, we find also -abbus in the Dative and Ablative Plural of dea, goddess, and filia, daughter, especially when it is important to distinguish these nouns from the corresponding forms of deus, god, and fillius, son. A few other words sometimes have the same peculiarity; as. lībertābus (from līberta, freedwoman), equābus (mares), to avoid confusion with lībertis (from lībertus, freedman) and equils (from equus, horse).

## Greek Nouns.

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

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Archiās, Archias. } & \text { Epitomé, epitome. } & \text { Comētēs, comet. } \\
\text { Vom. Archiās } & \text { epitomē } & \text { comētēs } \\
\text { ren. Archiae } & \text { epitomēs } & \text { comētae } \\
\text { Jat. Archiae } & \text { epitomae } & \text { comētae } \\
\text { Acc. Archiam (or -ān) } & \text { epitomēn } & \text { comētēn } \\
\text { oc. Archiā } & \text { epitomē } & \text { comētē (or -̆) } \\
1 b l . & \text { Archiā } & \text { epitomē } \\
\text { ut most Greek nounc in } & \text { comētē (or -ă) }
\end{array}
$$

1. But most Greek nouns in -e become regular Latin nouns in -a, and are declined like porta; as, grammatica, grammar; mūsica, music; rhētorica, rhetoric.
2. Some other peculiarities occur, especially in poetry.

## SECOND DECLENSION.

ö-Stems.
23. Pure Latin nouns of the Second Declension end in -us, -er, -ir, Masculine; -um, Neuter. Originally us in the Nominative of the Masculines was -os, and -um of the Neuters -om. So also in the Accusative.
, at Rome.
times occurs; his terminaepresents an
abus in the fillia, daughthese nouns fillius, son. uliarity ; as. us (mares), freedman)
asculine). tin nouns declined
, comet.
(or -ă)
(or -a)
uns in -a, mūsica,
ion end $y$-us in of the

Second Declension.
Nouns in -us and -um are declined as follows:-

## Hortus, garden ;

 stem, horto-.singular.

| Nom. | hortus | Termination. | bellum | Termination |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | horti | -1 | belli | -lm |
| Dat. | hortō | -ō | bellō | -0̄ |
| Acc. | hortum | -um | bellum | -um |
| - Voc. | horte | - | bellum | -um |
| Abl. | hortō | -0̄ | bellō | -ō |
| Plural. |  |  |  |  |
| Nom. | horti | -1 | bella | -a |
| Gen. | hortōrum | -ōrum | bellōrum | -ōrum |
| Dat. | hortis | -is | bellis | -is |
| Acc. | hortōs | -ōs | bella | -a |
| Voc. | hortī | -1 | bella | -a |
| Abl. | hortīs | -is | bellis | -is |

plural.

| Nom. | hortus | -us | bellum | Termination |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | hortī | -1 | belli | -1 |
| Dat. | hortō | -0̄ | bellō | -0̄ |
| Acc. | hortum | -um | bellum | -um |
| - Voc. | horte | - | bellum | -um |
| Abl. | hortō | -ō | bellō | -ō |
| plural. |  |  |  |  |
| Nom. | hortī | -1 | bella | -a |
| Gen. | hortōrum | -ōrum | bellōrum | -ōrum |
| Dat. | hortis | -is | bellis | -is |
| Acc. | hortōs | -ōs | bella | -a |
| Voc. | horti | -ī | bella | -a |
| Abl. | hortīs | -is | bellìs | -is |

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

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text { Puer, boy; } & \begin{array}{c}
\text { Ager, field; } \\
\text { stem, pueř-. }
\end{array} & \text { Vir, man; } \\
\text { stem, agro-. } & \text { stem, virठ-. }
\end{array}
$$

SINGULAR.

| Nom. | puer |
| :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | puerī |
| Dat. | puerō |
| Acc. | puerum |
| $V o c$. | puer |
| $A b l$. | puerō |

Nom. puerì
Gen. puerōrum
Dat. puerīs
Acc. puerōs
Voc. puerı̄
Abl. puerīs
ager
agrī
agrō
agrum
ager
agrō
plural.

| agrī | virī | -1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| agrōrum | virōrum | -ōrum |
| agris | viris | -is |
| agrös | virōs | -ōs |
| agrī | virī | -I |
| agtio | viris | -is |

I. Note that in words of the type of puer and vir the final vowel of the stem has disappeared in the Nominative and Vocative Singular.

In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of ager, the stem is further modified by the development of e before $r$.
2. The following nouns in eer are declined like puer: adulter, adulterer; gener, son-in-law; Liber, Bacchus; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening; and compounds in -fer and -ger, as signifer, armiger.

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

Earlier Iiffection (including Caesar and Cicero).
Servos, m., slave. Aevom, n., age. Equos, m., horse.
SINGULAR.

| Nom. | servos | aevom | equos |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | servī | $\dot{\text { aevì }}$ | equī |
| Dat. | servō | aevō | equō |
| Acc. | servom | aevom | equom |
| Voc. | serve | aevom | eque |
| Abl. | servō | aevō | equō |

Later Inflection (after Cicero).
SINGULAR.

| Nom. | servus | aevum | equus |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | servī | aevī | equī |
| Dat. | servō | aevō | equō |
| Acc. | servum | aevum | equum |
| Voc. | serve | aevum | eque |
| Abl. | servō | aevō | equō |

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

## Peculiarities of Inflection in the Second Declension.

25. I. Proper names in -ius regularly form the Genitive Singular in $-\bar{i}$ (instead of $-\mathrm{i} \overline{1}$ ), and the Vocative Singular in $-\bar{i}$ (for -ie); as, Vergili, of Vergil, or O Versil (instead of Vergilii, Vergilie). In such words the accent stauds upon the penult, even : ough that be short.
26. Nouns in -ius and -ium, until after the beginning of the reign of Augustus ( 31 b.C.), regularly formed the Genitive Singular in -I (instead of -iI); as, -
Nom. ingenium fillus
Gen. ingéni

These Genitives accent the penult, even when it is short.
3. Frius forms the Vocative Singular in -I (for -ie); viz., filf, O son!
4. Deus, god, lacks the Vocative Singular. The Plural is inflected
in -vus, -vum, cal Latin, - an
cero).
, horse.
uos
uī

## clension.

nitive Singular (for -ie); as, Vergilie). In :ough that be
g of the reign Singular in -I

| Nom. | dI | (dei) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | deōrum | (deum) |
| Dat. | dis | (deis) |
| $A c c$. | deర̆s |  |
| Voc. | dr | (dei) |
| Abl. | aIs | (deis) |

5. The Locative Singular ends in $-\overline{\mathrm{i}}$; as, Corinthī, at Corinth.
6. The Genitive Plural has -um, instead of -orum, -
a) in words denoting money and measure; as, talentum, of talents; modium, of pecks.
b) in duumvir, triumvir, decemvir; as, duumvirum.
c) sometimes in other words; as, liberum, of the children; socium, of the allies.

## Exceptions to Gender in the Second Declension.

26. 27. The following nouns in -us are Feminine by exception:-
a) Names of countries, towns, islands, trees-according to the general rule laid down in § 15.2.
b) Five special words, -
alvus, belly; carbasus, flax;
colus, distaff;
humus, ground;
vannus, winnowing-fan.
c) A few Greek Feminines; as, -
atomus, atom;
diphthongus, diphthong.
1. The following nouns in -us are Neuter:
pelagus, sea;
vīrus, poison;
vulgus, crowd.

## Greek Nouns of the Second Declension.

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

Barbitos, m. and f.,
lyre. $\quad \begin{gathered}\text { Androgeōs, m., } \\ \text { Androgeos. }\end{gathered} \quad \quad \overline{\text { Inion, }} \mathrm{n}$,
Nom. barbitos
Gen. barbitī
Dat. barbitō
Acc. barbiton
Voc. barbite
Abl. barbitō

Androgeos.
Androgeōs
Androgeō, -ī
Androgeō
Androgeō, -ōn
Androgeōs
Androgeō

Troy.
Īlion
Īlii
Īliō
Īlion
Illion
Īliō
I. Nouns in -os sometimes form the Accusative Singular in -um, instead of -on; as, Dēlum, Delos.
2. The Plural of Greek nouns, when it occurs, is usually regular.
3. For other rare forms of Greek nouns the lexicun may be consulted.

## THIRD DECLENSION.

28. Nouns of the Third Declension end in $-\mathrm{a},-\mathbf{e},-\mathbf{i},-\overline{0}$, $-\mathbf{y},-\mathbf{e},-\mathbf{l},-\mathbf{n},-\mathbf{r},-\mathbf{s},-\mathbf{t},-\mathbf{x}$. The Third Declension includes several distinct classes of Stems, -
I. Pure Consonant-Stems.
II. i-Stems.
III. Consonant-Stems which have partially adapted themselves to the inflection of i-Stems.
IV. A very few Stems ending in a long vowel or a diphthong.
V. Irregular Nouns.

## I. Consonant Stems.

29. I. In these the stem appears in its unaltered form in all the oblique cases; so that the actual case-endings may be clearly recognized.
ion.
eminine ; and nes, and are
$\bar{n}_{\text {lion, }}$ n., Troy.
Îlion
Īlii
Īliō
İlion
Īlion Īliō
ingular in -um,
ally regular.
n may be con-
-a, -e, -İ, -ō, ion includes
ly adapted vowel or a
tered form ase-endings
30. Consonant-Stems fall into several natural subdivisions, according as the stem ends in a Mute, Liquid, Nasal, or Spirant.

## A. Mute-Stems.

30. Mute-Stems may end, - .
I. In a Labial (b or p); as, trab-s; princep-s.
31. In a Guttural (g or c); as, rēmex (rēmeg-s); dux (duc-s).
32. In a Dental (d or t); as, lapis (lapid-s); mīles (mĩlet-s).
i. Stems in a labial Mute (b, p).
33. Trabs, f., beam. Prīnceps, m., chief.

Singular.

| prīnceps | -s |
| :--- | :--- |
| principis | -is |
| principī | $-\mathbf{i}$ |
| prīncipem | -em |
| princeps | $-\mathbf{s}$ |
| prīncipe | $-\mathbf{e}$ |

PlURAL.
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { prīncipēs } \\ \text { prīncipum } & \text {-ès }\end{array}$
principum -um
principibus -ibus
principēs -ès
principēs -ēs
principibus -ibus
2. Stems in a Guttural Mute (g, c).
32. In these the termination -s of the Nominative Singular unites with the guttural, thus producing, -x .

Rēmex, m., rower.
singular. plural.
Nom. rēmex rēmigēs
Gen. rēmigis rēmigum
Dat. rēmigì rēmigibus
Acc. rēmigen rēmigēs
Voc. rēmex rēmigēs
Abl. rēmige rēmigibus

Dux, c., leader.
singular. plural.
dux ducēs ducis ducum ducì ducibus ducem ducễs dux ducès duce ducibus

## 3. Stems in a Dental Mute (d $\mathbf{t}$ ).

33. In these the final $\mathbf{d}$ or $t$ of the stem disappears in the Nominative Singular before the ending -s.

Lapis, m., stone.
SINGULAR. PLURAL.
Nom. lapis lapidès
Gen. lapidis lapidum
Dat. lapidi lapidibus
Acc. lapidem lapiciès
Voc. lapis lapidēs
Abl. lapide lapidibus

Milles, m., soldier.
SINGULAR. PLURAL.
mīles mîlitēs
mīlitis mīlitum
mīliti mīlitibus
militem mīlites
mīles milites
milite militibus

## B. Liquid Stems.

34. These end in -1 or $-r$.

| Vigil, m., | Victor, m., | Aequor, $\mathrm{n} .$, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| watchman. | conqueror. | sea. |

Nom. vigil
Gen. vigilis
Dat. vigilī
Acc. vigilem
Voc. vigil
Abl. vigile

Nom. vigilēs
Gen. vigilum
Dat. vigilibus
Acc. vigilēs
Voc. vigilēs
Abl. vigilibus

SINGULAR.

| victor | aequor |
| :--- | :--- |
| victōris | aequoris |
| victōrī | aequor |
| victōrem | aequor |
| victor | aequor |
| victōre | aequore |

## PLURAL.

victōrês
victōrum
victōribus
victōrēs
victōrēs
victōribus
aequora
aequorum
aequoribus
aequora
aequora
aequoribus

1. Masculine and Feminine stems ending in a liquid form the Nominative and Vocative Singular without termination.
2. The termination is also lacking in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular of all neuters of the Third Declension.
in the Nomi-
tier.
RAL.
tēs
tum
tibus
tēs
tēs
tibus
ior, n.,

## C. Nasal Stems.

35. These end in $\mathbf{- n},{ }^{1}$ which often disappears in the Nom. Sing.

Leō, m., lion.
SINGULAR. PLURAL.
Nom. leō leōnēs
Gen. leōnis leōnum
Dat. leōnī leōnibus
Acc. leōnem leōnēs
Voc. leō leōnēs Abl. leōne leōnibus

Nömen, n., name. singular. plúral.
nōmen nōınina nōminis nōminum nōminī nōminibus nōmen nōmina nōmen nōmina nōmine nōminibus
D. s-Stems.
36. Mōs, m., custom. Genus, n., race. Honor, m., honor.

Singular.
Nom. mōs
Gen. mōris
Dat. mōrī
Acc. mōrem
Voc. mōs
Abl. mōre
genus
generis
generī
genus
genus
genere
plural. .
genera
generum
generibus
genera
genera
generibus
honor honōris
honōri
honōrem
honor
honōre
honōrès
honōrum
honōribus
honōrēs
honōrēs
honōribus
I. Note that the final $s$ of the stem becomes $r$ (between vowels) in the oblique cases. In some words (honor, color, and the like) the $r$ of the oblique cases has, by analogy, crept into the Nominative, displacing the earlier s, though the forms honōs, colōs, etc., also occur, particularly in early Latin and in poetry.

[^8]
## Inflections.

## II. I-Stems.

## A. Masculine and Feminine 1-Stems.

37. These regularly end in is in the Nominative Singular, and always have-ium in the Genitive Plural. Originally the Accusative Singular ended in -im, the Ablative Singular in -r , and the Accusative Plural in -is; but these endings have been largely displaced by -em, -e, and -es, the endings of Consonant-Stems.
ative SinguOriginally ive Singular ese endings ss, the end-
ermination: -is
-is

- 

-im, -em -is
$-\theta,-I$
-ēs
-ium
-ibus
-īs, -ēs
-ès
-ibus
udust.
e.
sowing.
$d$.
$r$.
hers, many a ave -im, $-\mathbf{I}$.

Singular.


| animālia | calcāria | -ia |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| animālium | calcārium | -ium |
| animālibus | calcāribus | -ibus |
| animālia | calcāria | -ia |
| animālia | calcāria | -ia |
| animālibus | calcāribus | -ibus |

1. In most words of this class the final -i of the stem is lost in the Nominative Singular ; in others it appears as -e.
2. Proper names in -e form the Ablative Singular in -e; as, söracte, Soracte; so also sometimes mare, sea.

[^9]III. Consonant-Stems that have partially adapted themselves to the Inflection of $I$-Stems.
40. Many Consonant-Stems have so far adapted themselves to the inflection of r-stems as to take -ium in the Genitive Plural, and -is in the Accusative Plural. Their true character as Consonant-Stems, however, is shown by the fact that they never take -im in the Accusative Singular, or $-\boldsymbol{I}$ in the Ablative Singular. The foliowing words are exampies of this class :-

> Caedēs, f., slaughter; stem, caed-.
Arx, f., citadel; stem, arc-.
Linter, f., skiff;
stem, lintr-.

SINGULAR.

Nom. caedês
Gen. caedis
Dat. caedī
Acc. caedem
Voc. caedēs
Abl. caede

| arx | linter |
| :--- | :--- |
| arcis | lintris |
| arci | lintrí |
| arcem | lintrem |
| arx | linter |
| arce | lintre |

PLURAL.
Nom. caedēs
Gen. caedium
Dat. caedibus
Acc. caedēs,-is
Voc. caedês
Abl. caedibus
arcês
arcium
arcibus
arcês, -is
arcēs
arcibus
linter
lintris
lintrí lintrem linter lintre
lintrēs
lintrium
lintribus
lintrēs, -is
lintrēs
lintribus
1.
2.

Plura
3. as in
4.
passe

1. The following classes of nouns belong here:-
a) Nouns in -ēs, with Genitive in -is; as, nūbès, at es, clāđēs, etc.
b) Many monosyllables in $-s$ or $-x$ preceded by one or more consonants; as, urbs, monns, stirps, lanx.
c) Most nouns in -ns and -rs; as, cliēns, cohors.
d) Üter, venter; fūr, līs, mās, mūs, nix; and the Plurals faucēs, penātēs, Optimātēs, Samnītēs, Quirītēs.
e) Sometimes nouns in -䄆确 with Genitive -tätis; as, cīvitās,
aetãs.
apted them--ium in the ural. Their is shown by ative Singuwing words
$\mathbf{r}$, f., skiff; , lintr-.
ter
tris
trī
trem
ter
tre
trēs
trium
tribus
trēs, -is
trēs
tribus
ibēs, al נs, one or more
the Plurals rītēs. ; as, cīvitās,

## IV. Stems in $-\bar{I},-\bar{u}$, and Diphthongs.

41. 

> Vis, f., force; stem, vi-.

| Eūs, c., | Bōs, c., | Jupiter, m., |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| swine; | ox, cow; | fupiter; |
| stem, sū-. | stem, bou-. | itom, Jou-. |

singular.

| Nom. vīs | sūs | bōs | Jūpiter |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. vis | suis | bovis | Jovis |  |
| Dat. vi | sui | bovi | Jovi |  |
| Acc. vim | suem | bovem | Jovem |  |
| Voc. vīs | sūs | bōs | Jūpiter |  |
| Abl. vi | sue | bove | Jove |  |
|  |  | PlURAL. |  |  |


| Nom. | vīrēs |
| :--- | :--- |
| Gell. | vīrium |
| Dat. | vīribus |
| Acc. | vīrēs |
| Voc. | vīrēs |
| Abl. | vīribus |


| suês | bovēs |
| :---: | :---: |
| sutum | f bovum boum |
| f suibus | bōbus |
| [ subus | ¢ bübus |
| suēs | bovēs |
| suēs | bovēs |
| ) suibus | ) bōbus |
| ( subus | ) būbus |

1. Notice that the oblique cases of sūs have ŭ in the root syhable.
2. Grūs is declined like sūs, except that the Dative and Ablative Plural are always gruibus.
3. Jūpiter is for Jou-pater, and therefore contains the same stem as in Jov-is, Jov-i, etc.
4. Nāvis was originally a diphthong stem ending in au-, but it has passed over to the i-stems (\$37).

## V. Irregular Nouns.

42. Senex, m., old man. Carō, f., flesh. os, n., bone.

SINGULAR.
Nom. senex
Gen. senis
Dat. senī
Acc. senem
Voc. senex
Abl. sene
carō
carnis ossis
carnī ossī
carnem os
carō os
carne osse

## Inflectiors.

Nom. senta
Gen. senum
Dat. senibus
Acc. senḕs
Voc. senês
Abl. senibus
plural.

| carnës | ossa |
| :--- | :--- |
| carnium | ossium |
| carnibus | ossibus |
| carnës | ossa |
| carnēs | ossa |
| carnibus | ossibus |

1. Iter, itineris, n., way, is inflected regularly throughout from the stem itiner-.
2. Supellex, supellectilis, f., furniture, is confined to the Singular. The oblique cases are formed from the stem supellectil. The Ablative has both -1 ind -e.
3. Jecur, $11 .$, liver, forms its oblique cases from two stems, - jecor- and jecinor-. Thus, Gen. jecoris or jecinoris.
4. Femur, 1.., thigh, usually forms its oblique eases from the stem femor-, but sometimes from the stem femin-. Thus, Gen. femoris or feminis.

General Principles of Gender in the Third Declension.
43. 1. Nouns in -ठ, -or, -ס̄s, -er, -ěs are Masculine.
2. Nouns in -ăs, -ês, -is, -ys, $-\mathbf{x}$, -s (preceded by a consonant); -dō, -gō (Genitive -inis); -iō (abstract and collective), -üs (Genitive -atis or -adis) are Feminine.
3. Nouns ending in -a, -e, -1, -y, -c, -l, -n, -t, -ar, -ur, -ŭs are

## Chief Exceptiona to Gender in the Third Declension.

## 44. Exceptions to the Rule for Masculines.

1. Nouns in - $\mathbf{-}$.
a. Feminine: carō, flesh.
2. Nouns in -or.
a. Feminine : arbor, tree.
b. Neuter : aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.
3. Nouns in -ōs.
a. Feminine: dōs, dowry.
b. Neuter: ōs (öris), mouth
4. Nouns in -er.
a. Feminine: linter, skiff.
b. Neuter: cadaver, corpse; iter, way; taber, tumor; Uber, udder. Also botanical names in -er; as, acer, maple.
5. Nouns in -és.
a. Feminine : seges, crop.

## 45. Exceptions to the Rule for Feminines.

1. Nouns in -ăs.
a. Masculine, ăs, an as (coin); văs, bondsman.
b. Neuter: vâs, vessel.
2. Nouns in -ēs.
a. Masculine: ariēs, rall; pariēs, wall; pęs, foot.
3. Nouns in -is.
a. Masculine : all nouns in -nis and -guis; as, amnis, river; ignis, fire; panis, bread; sanguis, blood; unguis, nail. Also -

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { axis, axle. } & \text { piscis, fish. } \\
\text { collis, hill. } & \text { postis, post. } \\
\text { fascis, bundle. } & \text { pulvis, dust. } \\
\text { lapis, stone. } & \text { orbis, circle. } \\
\text { mēnsis, month. } & \text { sentis, brier. }
\end{array}
$$

4. Nouns in -x.
a. Masculine: apex, peak; cōdex, trec-trunk; grex, flock; imbrex, tile; pollex, thumi; vertex, summit'; calix, cup.
5. Nouns in -s preceded by a consonant.
a. Masculine: dēns, tooth; fōns, fountain; mōns, mountain; pōns, bridge.
6. Nouns in -dō.
a. Masculine : cardō, hinge; ördō, order.
7. Exceptions to the Rule for Neuters.
8. Nouns in -1.
a. Masculine : söl, sun; sāl, salf.
9. Nouns in -n.
a. Masculine: pecten, comb.
10. Nouns in -ur.
a. Masculine: vultur, vulture.
11. Nouns in -ŭs.
a. Masculine : lepus, hare.

## Greek Nouns of the Third Declension.

47. The following are the chief peculiarities of these :-
48. The ending -ă in the Accusative Singular; as, aetheră, aether; Salamīnă, Salamis.
49. The ending -ěs in the Nominative Plural; as, Phrygĕs, Phrygians.
50. The ending -ăs in the Accusative Plural; as, Phrygăs, Phrygians.
51. Proper names in -ās (Genitive -antis) have -ā in the Vocative Singular; as, Atlās (Atlantis), Vocative Atlā, Atlas.
52. Neuters in -ma (Genitive -matis) have -is instead of -ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural ; as, poēmatīs, poems.
53. Orpheus, and other proper names ending in -eus, form the Vocative Singular in eeu (Orpheu, etc.). But in prose the other cases usually follow the second declension; as, Orpheī, Orpheō, etc.
54. Proper names in -ēs, like Periclēs, form the Genitive Singular sometimes in -is, sometimes in $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$; as, Periclis or Pericli.
55. Feminine proper names in -ō have -ūs in the Genitive, but -ō in the other oblique cases ; as, -

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Nom. } & \text { Dìdō } & \text { Acc. Dīdō } \\
\text { Gen. } & \text { Didūs } & \text { Voc. } \\
\text { Dī̀ō } \\
\text { Dat. } & \text { Dīdō } & \text { Abl. }
\end{array}
$$

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

## FOURTH DECLENSION.

## $\breve{u}$-Stems.

48. Nouns of the Fourth Declension end in -us Masculine, and $-\bar{u}$ Neuter. They are declined as follows:-

Frūctus, fruit.
singular. plural.
Nom. frūctus
frūctūs
Gen. frūctūs frūctuum
Dat. frūctuī frūctibus
Acc. frūctum frūctūs
Voc. frūctus frūctī̀s
Abl. frūctū frūctibus

Cornū, horn. singular. plural. cornū cornua cornūs cornuum cornū cornibus
cornt cornua
cornū cornua
cornū cornibus

## Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fourth Declension.

49. 50. Nouns in -us, particularly in early Latin, often form the Genitive Singular in -i, following the analogy of nouns in -us of the Second Declension; as, senātī, örnātī. This is. usually the case in Plautus and Terence.
1. Nouns in -us sometimes have - $\bar{u}$ in the Dative Singular, instead of $-\bar{u}$; as, frūctū (for frūctū̄).
2. The ending -ubus, instead of -ibus, occurs in the Dative and Ablative Plural of artūs (Plural), limbs; tribus, tribe; and in dissyllables in -cus; as, artubus, tribubus, arcubus, lacubus. But with the exception of tribus, all these words admit the forms in -ibus as well as those in -ubus.
3. Domus, house, is declined according to the Fourth Declension, but has also the following forms of the Second:-
domī (locative), at home; domum, homewards, to one's home;
lomō, from home; domōs, homewards, to their (etc.) homes.
4. The only Neuters of th.is declension in common use are : cornū, genū, and verū.

## Exceptions to Gender in the Fourth Declension.

50. The following nouns in -us are Feminine: acus, needle; domus, house; manus, hand; porticus, colonnade; tribus, tribe; $\overline{\mathbf{I}}$ đūs (Plural), Ides.

## FIFTH DECLENSION.

## $\bar{e}$-Stems.

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

Diēs, m., day. singular. plural. Nom. diêes diēs Gen. diē̄i diērum Dat. diē̄ diēbus Acc. diem diēs Voc. diēè diēs Abl. diē diēbus

Rees, f., thing.
Singul.ar. Plural.
rēs rēs
rěī rērum
rexi reb
rem rēs
rēs rēs
rẽ re̊bus

## Inflections.

## Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fifth Declension.

52. 53. The ending of the Genitive and Dative Singular is -¢I, instead of -ēí, when a consonant precedes; as, spěì, rěi, fiděi.
1. A Genitive ending -ī (for-ěī) is found in plēbī (from plëbēs = plēbs) in the expressions tribūnus plëbī, tribune of the people, and plebin scītum, decree of the people; sometimes also in other words.
2. A Genitive and Dative form in -è sometimes occurs ; as, acie.
3. With the exception of diēs and rēs, most nouns of the Fifth Declension are not declined in the Plural. But aciēs, seriēs, speciēs, spẽs, and a few others, are used in the Nominative and Accusative Plural.

## Gender in the Fifth Declension.

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

## DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

54. Here belong -
55. Nouns used in the Singular only.
56. Nouns used in the Plural only.
57. Nouns used only in certain cases.
58. Indeclinable Nouns.

## Nouns used in the Singular only.

55. Many nouns, from the nature of their signification, are regularly used in the Singular only. Thus :-
56. Proper names ; as, Cicerō, Cicero; Italia, Italy.
57. Nouns denoting material; as, aes, copper; lăc, milk.
58. Abstract nouns; as, ignōrantia, ignorance; bonitās, goodness.
59. But the above classes of words are sometimes used in the Plural. Thus:-
a) Proper names, - to denote different members of a family, or specimens of a type; as, Cicerōnēs, the Ciceros; Catōnës, men like Cato.
ion.
gular is -đf, dety.
m plêbês $=$ people, and $r$ words. as, aciè. f the Fifth s, speciës, Accusative
ine, except Feminine
b) Names of materials, - to denote objects made of the material, or different kinds of the substance; as, aera, bronzes (i.e. bronze figures); ligna, woods.
c) Abstract nouns, - to denote instances of the quality ; as, ignōrantiae, cases of ignorance.

Nouns used in the Plural only.
56. Here belong -
I. Many geographical names; as, Thëbae, Thebes; Leuctra, Leuctra; Pompēji, Pompeii.
2. Many names of festivals; as, Megalēsia, the Megalesian festival.
3. Many special words, of which the following are the most important:-

> angustiae, narrow pass.
> arma, weapons.
> delliciae, delight.
> divitiae, riches.
> $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$ dūs, Ides.
> indūtiae, truce.
> insidiae, ambush.
> mājōrēes, ancestors.
> mānēs, spirits of the dead. minae, threats. moenia, city walls. nūptiae, marriage. posterì, descendants. reliquiae, remainder. tenebrae, darkness. verbera, blows.

Also in classical prose regularly -
cervīcēs, neck. fidēs, lyre.
nārēs, nose.
vïscera, viscera.

## Nouns used only in Certain Cases.

57. I. Used in only One Case. Many nouns of the Fourth Declension are found only in the Ablative Singular; as, jussū, by the order; injussü, without the order; nā tū, by birth.
58. Used in Two Cases.
a. Fors (chance), Nom. Sing.; forte, Abl. Sing.
b. Spontis (free-will), Gen. Sing.; sponte, Abl. Sing.
59. Used in Three Cases. Nēm̄̄, no one (Nom.), has also the Dat. nēmini and the Acc. nēminem. The Gen. and Abl are supplied by the corresponding cases of nūllus; viz. nüllīus and nūllō.

## Inflections.

4. Impetus has the Nom., Acc., and Abl. Sing., and the Nom.
and Acc. Plu.; viz. impetus, impetum, impetū, impetūs.
5. a. Preci, precem, prece, lacks the Nom. and Gen. Sing.
b. Vicis, vicem, vice, lacks the Nom. and Dat. Sing.
6. Opis, dapis, and frügis, - all lack the Nom. Sing.
7. Many monosyllables of the Third Declension lack the Gen. Plu.; as, cor, lūx, sōl, aes, ṑs (ōris), rūs, sāl, tūs.

## Indeclinable Nouns.

58. Here belong -

> fās, n., right.
> instar, n., likeness.
> māne, n., morning.
nefäs, n., impiety. nihil, n., nothing.
secus, $n$., sex.

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

## Heteroclites.

59. These are nouns whose forms are partly of one declension, and partly of another. Thus :-
60. Several nouns have the entire Singular of one declension, while the Plural is of another ; as, -
vās, vāsis (vessel); Plu., vāsa, vāsōrum, vāsīs, etc.
jūgerum, jūgerī (acre) ; Plu, jūgera, jūgerum, jūgeribus, etc.
61. Several nouns, while belonging in the main to one declension, have certain special forms belonging to another Thus:-
a) Many nouns of the First Declension ending in -ia take also a Nom. and Acc. of the Fifth; as, māteriēs, māteriem, material, as well as māteria, māteriam.
b) Famēs, hunger, regularly of the Third Declension, has the Abl. famee of the Fifth.
c) Requiēs, requiētis, rest, regularly of the Third Declension, takes an Acc. of the Fifth, requiem, in addition to requiētem.
d) Besides plēbs, plēbis, common people, of the Third DeclenFifth, we find plêbēs, plēběī (also plēbī, see §52.2), of the

## Heterogeneous Nouns.

60. Heterogeneous nouns vary in Gender. Thus: -
61. Several nouns of the Second Declension have tavo forms, - one Masc. in -us, and one Neuter in -um ; as, ciipeus, clipeum, shield; carrus, carrum, cart.
62. Other nouns have one gender in the Singular, another in the Plural ; as, -

SINGULAR.
balneum, n., bath; epulum, n., feast; frēnum, n., bridle; jocus, m., jest; locus, m., place;
rāstrum, n., rake;

PLURAL.
balneae, f., bath-house. epulae, f., feast.
frēni, m. (rarely frēna, n.), bridle.
joca, n. (also jocī, m.), jests.
loca, n., places; loci, m., passages or topics in an author.
rāstrī, m. ; rāstra, n., rakes.
a. Heterogeneous nouns may at the same time be heteroclites, as in case of the first two examples above.

## Plurals with Change of Meaning.

61. The following nouns have one meaning in the Singular, and another in the Plural:SINGULAR.
aedēs, temple; auxilium, help; carcer, prison; castrum, fort; cōpia, abundance; finnis, end; fortūna, fortune; grātia, fuvor ; impedïmentum, hindrance; littera, letter (of the alphabet); mōs, habit, custom; opera, help, service; (ops) opis, help; pars, part; sāl, salt;

PLURAL.
aedēs, house.
auxilia, auxiliary troops.
carcerēs, stalls for racing-chariots.
castra, camp.
cōpiae, troops, resources.
fīnēs, borders, tervitory. fortūnae, possessions, wealth. grātiae, thanks.
impedimenta, baggage.
litterae, epistle, literature. mōrēs, character. operae, laborers. opēs, resources. partēs, party, rôle. sălēs, wit.

## B. ADJECTIVES.

62. Adjectives denote quality. They are declined like nouns, and fall into two classes, -
I. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions.
63. Adjectives of the Third Declension.

> ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS.
63. In these the Masculine is declined like hortus, puer, or ager, the Feminine like porta, and the Neuter like bellum. Thus, Masculine like hortus : -

Bonus, good.
SINGULAR.

Nom. bonus
Gen. boni
Dat. bonō
Acc. bonum
Voc. bone
Abl. bon ${ }^{\circ}$

Nom. boni
Gen. bonōrum
Dat. bonis
Acc. bonōs
Voc. bonī
Abl. bonīs

Feminine. bona bonae
bonae
bonam bona bona

PLURAL.
bonae
bonārum
bonis
bonās
bonae
bonis

Neuter. bonum bon bono bonum bonum bon 8
bona bonōrum
bonis
buna
bona bonīs
a. The Genitive Singular Masculine and Neuter of Adjectives in -ius ends in -ir (not in $-\overline{\mathrm{I}}$ as in case of Nouns; see $\S 25$. I; 2). So also the Vocative Singular of such Adjectives ends in -ie, not in $-\mathbf{i}$. Thus eximius forms Genitive eximī̄; Vocative eximie.
Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions. ..... 35
64. Masculine like puer :-

Tener, tender.
SINGULAR.

Masculine.
Nom. tener
Gen. tenerï
Dat. tenerō
Acc. tenerum
Voc. tener
Abl. tenerö

Nom. teneri
Gen. tenerörum
Dat. teneriss
Acc. tenerös
Voc. tenerī
Abl. tenerīs

Feminine.
tenera
tenerae
tenerae
teneram
tenera
tenerā

PLURAL.
tenerae
tenerārum
tenerīs
tenerās
tenerae
teneris

Neuter. tenerum
tenerī
tenerö
tenerum
tenerum
tenerō
tenera tenerörum
tenerīs
tenera
tenera
teneris
65. Masculine like ager : -

Sacer, sacred.
s'NGULAR.

Feminine.
sacra
sacrae
sacrae
sacram
sacra
sacrā

PLURAL.
Nom. sacri
Gen. sacrörum
Dat. sacris
Acc. sacrōs
Voc. sacrī
Abl. sacris
sacrae
sacrārum
sacrīs
sacrās
sacrae
sacrīs

Neuter.
sacrum
sacrI
sacrō
sacrum
sacrum
sacrō
sacra sacrörum
sacrīs
sacra
sacra
sacrïs

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

## Nine Irregular Adjeotiven.

66. Here belong -
```
alius, amother; alter, the ather;
allus, any;
uter, rohich.? (of two);
solus, alone;
nims, ame, alome.
```

alter, the other; nallus, none; nouter, neither; totus, whole;

They are declined as follows:-
SINGULAR.
Somin. alins ane. Fiminine. Nievtere.

Gen. alterius alterIus alteryus ${ }^{1}$
Dat. alii alii alī̀
Acc. alium aliam aliud
Voc.
Abl. alio
alia
aliō
Nom. uter utra utrum
Gell. utrius utifus utifus
Dat. utim util utir
Acc. utrum utram utrum
Voc. -
Abl. utrō utrā utrō

| Masculina. alter | Fiemininf. altera | Neuthr. alterum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| alterins | alterius | allerius |
| alteri | alteris | alleri |
| alterum | alteram | alterum |
| -- | -- |  |
| alleros | alterat | alteroz |
| tōtus | -tōta | tōtum |
| tôtus | tötits | tōtius |
| tōtı̄ | tōti | +jtis |
| tötum | tōtam | tōtum |
| tōto | tōtã | töto |

1. All these worls lack the Vocative. The Phural is regular.
2. Neuter is declined like uter.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.
67. These fall into three classes, -
I. Adjectives of three terminations in the Nominative Singular, - one for each gender.
2. Adjectives of two terminations.
3. Adjectives of one termination.

[^10]a. With the exception of Comparatives, and a few other words mentioned below in \$70. 1, all Adjectives of the Third Declension follow the inflection of 1 -stems; i.e. they have the Ablative Singular in -I , the Genitive Plural in -ium, the Accusative Plural in -Is (as well as -bs) in the Masculine and Feminine, and the Nominative and Accrsative Plural in -la in Neuters.

## Adjeotives of Three Terminations.

68. These are declined as follows:-

> Āoer, sharp.
singular.

|  | Masculank. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | ãcer |
| Cen. | ăcris |
| Dat. | äcrI |
| Acc: | ăcrem |
| Voc. | ācer |
| Abl. | ăcrI |


| Frmining. | Nkuter. |
| :---: | :---: |
| àcris | åcre |
| ăcris | ăcrıs |
| äcrı | âcri |
| ăcrem | ăcre |
| ācris | ãcre |
| ăcri | ācrI |
| plural. |  |
| ãcrēs | ācria |
| ācrium | ācrium |
| ācribus | ācribus |
| ăcrēs, -is | ācria |
| ācrēs | ācria |
| ācribus | ācribus |

PLURAL.
Nom. ãcrēs
Gen. ācrium
Dat. ācribus
Acc. ācrēs, -iss
Voc. ācrēs
Abl. äcribus

1. Like ãcer are declined alacer, lively; oampester, level; celeber, famous; equester, equestrian; palūster, marshy; pedester, pedestrian; puter, rolten; salūber, wholesome; siivester, woody; terrester, terrestrial; volucer, winged; also names of months in -ber, as September.
2. Celer, celeris, celere, swift, retains the e before r, but lacks the Genitive Plural.
3. In the Nominative Singular of Adjectives of this class the Feminine form is sometimes used for the Masculine. This is regularly true of salubrie, silvestrie, and tarrestris. In case of the other words in the list, the use of the Feminine for the Masculine is confined chiefly to early and late Latin, and to poetry.

Inflections.

## Adjeotives of Two Terminations.

69. These are declined as follows:-

> Fortis, strong.

Nom. fortess fortia

Gen. fortium fortium
Dat. fortibus fortibus
Acc. fortēs, -Is fortia
Voc. fortēs fortia
Abl. fortibus fortibus
SINGUUI,AR.

Fortior, stronger.

| M. and F. | Nzut. |
| :--- | :--- |
| fortior | fortius |
| fortiöris | fortiôris |
| fortiörl | fortiörI |
| fortiōrens | fortius |
| fortior | fortius |
| fortiōre, -I | fortiōre, -I |

PLURAL.


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

## Adjectives of One Termination.

70. Felix, happy.

Prūdēns, prudent.
M. and F. Nbut.

Nom. fêlix fëlix
Gen. felicis fêlicis
Dat. felicr fèlici
Acc. fèlicem fèlīx
Voc. fêlix fêlīx
Abl. fèlici fellicr
Nome fêlices fēlicia Plural.
Gen. fêlicium fêlicium
Dat. fêlīcibus fēlicibus
Acc. fèliceês, -Is fèlicia
Voc. féliceēs félicia Abl. fêlicibus fêlicibus

SINGULAR.
M. AND F .
prūdēns
prūdentis
prüdentr
prīdentem
prūdēns
prūdentr prūdentr
prūdentēs prūdentia
prūdentium prūdentium
prūdentibus prūdentibus
prūdentēs, -Is prūdentia
prūdentē̄s prüdentia
prūdentibus prūdentibus

Vetub, old. SINGULAR.
Nom.
Gen.

Dur. veteri
Acc. veterom
Voc. vetus
Abl. vetere

| Neut. <br> vetus <br> veteris <br> veteri <br> vetus <br> vetus <br> vetere |
| :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

pIUKAL.
Nom. veterês
Gin. veterum
Dat. veteribus
Acc. veterös
Voc. veterōs
Abl. veteribus

Plas, more.


| plūrềs <br> plūrium | plüra |
| :--- | :--- |
| plürlum |  |
| plūribus | plūrıbus |
| plūrēs, -Is | plūra |
| plūribus | plūribus |

1. It will be observed that vetus is declined as a pure ConsonantStem ; i.e. Ablativ Singular in -e, Genitive Plural in -um, Nominative Plural Neuter in -a, and Accusative Plural Masculine and Feminine in -e.s only. In the same way are declined compos, controlling; dives, rich; particeps, shariug; pauper, poor; princeps, chief; sobspes, siffe; superstes, survitills. Yet dives always has Neut. Plu. ditia.
2. Inops, needy, and memor, mindful, have Ablative Singular inopr, memori, but Genitive Plural inopum, memorum.
3. Participles in -ans and -ons follow the declension of 1 -stems. But they do not have -I in the Ablative, except when employed as adjectives ; when used as participles or as substantives, they have -e; as, -
a sapientI virō, by a wise man; but
a sapiente, by a philosopher;
Tarquinió rêgnante, under the reign of Tarquin.
4. Plüs, in the Singular, is always a noun.
5. In the Ablative Singular, adjectives, when used as substantives, -
a) usually retain the adjective declension; as, aequālis, contemporary, Abl. aequālr. cōnsulăris, ex-consul, Abl. cōnsulărr.
So names of Months; as, AprII, April; Desembrr, December.
b) But adjectives used as proper names have - $\theta$ in the Ablative Singular; as, Celere, Ceič: Juvenāle, Fuvenal.
6) Patriais in -as, -atin and -In, -Itis, when designating naces, regularly have-I; is, in Arpinati, on the estate at Il punum; yet -o, when used of persons ; as, ab Arpinate, by an A A pinablian.
6. A very few indedinable adjectives occur, the chief of which are fragi, frural, nēquam, zuorthless.

## COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

71. I. There are three degrees of Comparison, - the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.
72. The Comparative is regularly formed by adding -ior (Neut. -ius), and the Superlative by adding -issimus (-a, -um), to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel; as, -

> altus, high,
fortis, brave, fêlix, fortunate, dives, rich, altior, higher, fortior, fêlicior, divitior,
altissimus, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { highest, } \\ \text { very high. }\end{array}\right.$ fortissime.
fêliciasimus.
divitissimus.
So also Participles, when used as Adjectives; as, -
doctus, learned,

egēns, necily, $\quad$\begin{tabular}{l}
doctior, <br>
egentior,

$\quad$

doctissimus. <br>
egentissimus.
\end{tabular}

3. Adjectives in -or form the Superlative by appending -rimus to the Nominative of the Pusitive. The Comparative is regular. Thus :asper, rough, pulcher, beautiful, ācer, sharp, celer, swift, pauper, poor,
asperior, pulchrior, ācrior, celerior, pauperior,
asperrimus.
pulcherrimus.
àcerrimus.
celerrimus.
pauperrimus.
a. Notice mātūrus, mātūrior, mātūrissimus or mātūrrimue.
4. Five Adjectives in -ilis form the Superlative by adding -limus to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel. The Comparative is regular. Thus:-

| facilis, easy, | facilior, | facillimus. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| diffcilis, diffcult, | difficilior, | diffilllimus. |
| similis, $i$ ike, | similior, | simillimus. |
| dissimilis, unlike, | dissimilior, | dissimillmus. |
| humilis, low, | humilior, | humillimus. |

5. Adjectives in -dious, flous, and-volus, form the Comparative and Superlative as though from forms in -droêns, floçan, -volorns. Thus:-
maledicus, slunterous, măgnificus, magnificent, benevolus, kindly,
maledicentior măgnificentior, benevolentior,
maledicentisaimus. mágnificentissimus. benevolentissimus.
a. Positives in -dioōns and-volêns occur in early Latin; as, maledioêns, benevolēns.

## Irregular Comparison.

72. Several Adjectives vary the Stem in Comparison; viz.bonus, good, malus, bad, parvus, small, măgnus, large, multus, much, frügi, thrifty, nēquam, worthless,
melior, pējor, minor, mājor, plüs, frūgālior, nēquior,
optimus.
pessimus.
minimus.
mãximus.
plūrimus.
frūgālissimus. nēquissimus.
73. Observe that the $\mathbf{i}$ of -ior becomes $\mathbf{j}$-between vowels - in pējor and mãjor.

## Defective Comparison.

73. 74. Positive lacking entirely,-
(Cf. prae, in front of.) prior, former, primus, first.
(Cf. citrā, this side of.) citerior, on this side, citimus, near.
(Cf. ultra, beyond.)
(Cf. intrā, within.)
(Cf. prope, near.)
(Cf. dë, down.)
(Cf. archaic potis, possible.) potior, prefe able, potissimus, chiefest.
1. Positive occurring only in special cases, posterō diē, annō, etc.,
the following day, etci, the following day, etc., posterī, descendants, ulterior, farther, ultimus, farthest. interior, inner, intimus, inmost. propior, nearer, proximus, nearest. dēterior, inferior, dēterrimus, worst.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { inferī, gods of the lower world, } \\ \text { Mare Inferum, Mediterranean }\end{array}\right\}$ inferior, lower, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { infimus, } \\ \text { Sea, } \\ \text { imus, }\end{array}\right\}$ lowe.t.
superī, gods above,
Mare Superum, Adriatic Sea, $\}$ superior, higher, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { suprēmus, last. } \\ \text { summus, highest }\end{array}\right.$
2. Comparative lacking.
vetus, old, fïdus, faithful, novus, new, sacer, sacred, falsus, false,
Also in some other words less frequently used.
veterrimus. fïdissimus. novissimus, ${ }^{3}$ last. sacerrimus. falsissimus.

## 4. Superlative lacking.

alacer, lively, ingēns, great, salūtāris, wholesome, juvenis, young, senex, old,

| alacrior, |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| ingentior, |  |
| salūtārior, |  |
| jūnior, | $=$ |
| senior. |  |

a. The Superlative is lacking also in many adjectives in -alis, -I lis, -1lis, -bilis, and in a few others.

## Comparison by Magis and Māxime .

74. Many adjectives do not admit terminational comparison, but form the Comparative and Superlative degrees by prefixing magis (more) and māximè (most). Here belong -
75. Many adjećtives ending in -ālis, -āris, -idús, -ilis, -icus, -imus, -inus, -örus.
76. Adjectives in -us preceủed by a vowel; as, idōneus, adapted; arduus, steep; necessărius, necessary.
a. Adjectives in -quus, of course, do not come under this rule. The first $\mathbf{u}$ in such cases is not a vowel, but a consonant.
[^11]
## Adjectives not admitting Comparison.

## 75. Here belong -

I. Many adjectives which, from the nature of their signification, do not admit of comparison; as, hodiernus, of to-day; annuus, annual; mortālis, mortal.
2. Some special words; as, mīrus, gnãrus, merus ; anda few others.

## FORMATION AND COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

76. Adiverbs are for the most part derived from adjectives, and depend upon them for their comparison.
I. Adverbs derived from adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive by changing -i of the Genitive Singular to -e ; those derived from adjectives of the Third Declension, by changing -is of the Genitive Singular to -iter ; as, -

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { cārus, } & \text { cārē, dearly; } \\
\text { pulcher, } & \text { pulchrē, beautifully; } \\
\text { ācer, } & \text { ācriter, fiercely; } \\
\text { levis, } & \text { leviter, lightly. }
\end{array}
$$

a. But Adjectives in -ns, and a few others, add -ter (instead of -iter), to form the Adverb; as, -
sapiēns, sapienter, wisely; audāx, audācter, boldly; sollers, sollerter, skillfully.
2. The Comparative of all Adverbs regularly consists of the Accusative Singular Neuter of the Comparative of the Adjective; while the Superlative of the Adverb is formed by changing the $-\mathbf{i}$ of the Genitive Singular of the Superlative of the Adjective to -e. Thus -

| (cārus) | cārē, dearly, | cārius, | cārissimē. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (pulcher) | pulchrē, beautifully, | pulchrius, | pulcherrimē. |
| (ācer) | ācriter, tiercely, | ācrius, | ācerrimē. |
| (levis) | leviter, lightly, | levius, | levissimē. |
| (sapiēns) | sapienter, wiscly, | sapientius, | sapientissimē. |
| (audāx) | audācter, boldly, | audācius, | audācissimē. |

## Inflections.

 77. beně, well, malé, ill, māgnopere, greatly, multum, much, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { nōn multum, } \\ \text { parum, }\end{array}\right\}$ hittle, diū, long, nēquiter, worthlessly, saepe, often, mātūrē, betimes, prope, near, nūper, recently,secus, otherwise,
melius, pējus, magis, plūs, minus, diūtius, nēquius, saepius, mātūrlus, propius,
potius, rather. prius, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { freviously, } \\ \text { before, }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & \text { potissimum, } \\ & \text { primum, first } .\end{aligned}$ sêtius, less.
2. A number of adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form an Adverb in -ō, instead of -ē ; as, crēbrō, frequently; continuō, immediately; rārō; rarely; and a fe a. oito, quickly, has -ठ.
3. A few adjectives employ the Accusative Singular Neuter as the Positive of the Adverb; as, multum, much;
paulum, little;
minimum, least; facile, easily.
4. A few adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive in -iter; as, falsō, falsely; subitō, suddenly;

$$
y \text {; and a few others. }
$$

> Numerals.

## NUMERALS.

## 78. Numerals may be divided into -

I. Numeral Adjectives, comprising -
a. Cardinals; as, ūnus, one; duo, two; etc.
b. Ordinals; as, prīmus, first; secundus, second; etc.
c. Distributives; as, singulĩ, one by one; bīnī, two by two; etc.
II. Numeral Adverbs; as, semel, once; bis, twice; etc.
79. Table of Numeral Adjectives and Adverbs.

## Cardinals. Ordinals.

1. ūnus, ūna, ūnum primus, first
2. duo, duae, duo
trēs, tria
quattuor
3. quīnque
4. sex
5. septem
6. octō
7. novem
8. decem
9. ūndecim
10. duodecim
11. tredecim
12. quattuordecim
-1 15. quindecim
13. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { sēdecim } \\ \text { sexdecim }\end{array}\right\}$
14. septendecim
15. duodēvīgintī
16. ūndēvīginti
17. vīgintī
18. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { vigintī ūnus } \\ \text { ünus }\end{array}\right.$ ūnus et vīgintī
19. $\{$ vīgintī duo duo et vīgintī
20. trigintā
21. quadrāgintā
22. quīnquāgintā
23. sexāgintā
24. septuāgintā
25. octōgintā
26. nōnāgintā
27. centum
secundus, second
tertius, third
quartus, fourth
quintus, fifh
sextus
septimus
octāvus
nōnus
decimus
ūndecimus duodecimus tertius decimus quartus decimus quintus decimus sextus decimus
septimus decimus duodēvīcēsimus ūndēvicēsimıs vīcēsimus vīcēsimus primus ūnus ct vīcēsimus vīcēsimus secundus alter et vīcēsimus trīcēsimus quadrāgēsimus quīnquāgēsimus sexāgēsimus septuāgēsimus octōgēsimus nōnāgēsimus centēsimus

Distributives. singuli, one by one bini, two by two bis ternī (trinī) ter quaterni quater quīuī quīnquiees sēnī septēnī octōni novēnī dēnī ūndēnī duodēnī ternī đēnī quaternī dēni quīnī dēnì sēnì dēnī septēnī dēnī duodēvīcēnī ūndēviceeni vīcēnī vīcēni singulī singulì et viceenī viceēnī bīni bīnī et vicēnī trīcēnī quadrāgēnī quīnquāgēni sexāgēnī septuāgēnī octōgēnī nōnāgēnī centēnī

Adverbs.
semel
sexiēs
septiēs
octiēs
noviēs
deciēs
ūndeciēs
duodeciēs
terdeciēs
quaterdeciēs
quīnquiès deciēs
sexiēs deciēs
septiēs deciēs
octiēs deciēs
noviēs deciès
viciēs
vīciēs semel
vīciēs bis
trīciēs
quadrāgiēs
quīnquāgiēs
sexägiēs
septuāgiēs
octōgiēs
nōnāgiēs
centiēs

## Inflections.

Cardinals. 101. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { centum ūnus }\end{array}\right.$ centum et ūnus 200. ducenti, -ae, -a
300. trecenti
400. quadringenti
500. quīngenti
600. sescentí
700. septingentī
800. octingenti
900. nōngentī
r,000. mille
2,000. duo millia
roo,000. centum millia
ィ,000,000. deciēs centēna millia

Oruinals. centēsimus prinuus centēsimus et prímus ducentēsimu; trecentēsimus quadringentēsimus quïngentēsimus sescentēsimus séptingentēsimus octingentēsimus nōngentèsimus mìllësimus bis millèsimus centiēs millēsimus deciès centiès millē$X$ simus

Distrinutives. centēnì singulì
centēni et singulī ducēnì trecēni quadringēnī quingēnì sescēni septingēnì octingēni nōngēnī singula millia bīna millia centēna mîllia deciēs centēna millia

Adverbs. centiès semel ducentiēs trecentiēs quadringentiēs quīngentiēs scscentiès septingentiēs octingentiēs nōngentiēs milliēs bis milliēs centiēs milliēs deciēs centiēs milliēs

Note. - -énsimus and -iēns are often written in the numerals instead of -ësimus and -iēs.

## Declension of the Cardinals.

80. 81. The declension of ūnus has already been given under $\S 66$.
1. Duo is declined as follows:-

Nom. duo
Gen. duōrum
Dat. duōbus
Acc. duōs, duo
Abl. duōbus
$a$. So ambō, both, except that its final $o$ is long.
duae
duārum
duābus
duās
duābus
duo
duōrum duōbus duo duōbus
3. Tress is declined, -

| Non. | trēs |
| :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | trium |

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

## bonus

5. Minlle is regularly an adjective in the Singular, and indeclinable. In the Plural it is a substantive (followed by the Genitive of the objects enumerated; $\S 201$. r ), and is declined, -

Nom. millia
Gen. millium
Dat. millibus

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Acc. } & \text { millia } \\
\text { Voc. } & \text { millia } \\
\text { Abl. } & \text { millibus }
\end{array}
$$

Thus mille hominẽs, a thousand men; but duo millia hominum, two thousand men, literally two thousands of men.
$a$. Occasionally the Singular admits the Genitive construction; as, mille hominum.

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

## Peculiarities in the Use of Numerals.

81. 82. The compounds from 21 to 99 may be expressed either with the larger or the smaller numeral first. In the latter case, et is used. Thus:-
trīgintā sex or sex et trīgintā, thirty-six.
1. The numerals under 90 , ending in 8 and 9 , are often expressed by subtraction; as, -
duodēvīgintī, eighteen (but also octōdecim);
ūndēquadrāgintā, thirty-mine (but also trigintā novem or novem et trīgintā).
2. Compounds over 100 regularly have the largest number first; the others follow without et; as, centum vigintī septem, one hundred and twenty-seven.
annō mīllésimō octingentēsimō octōgēsimō secundō, in the year 1882.

Yet et may be inserted where the smaller number is either a digit or one of the tens; as, -
centum et septem, one hundred and seven;
centum et quadrāgintā, one hundred and forty.
4. The Distributives are used -
a) To denote so many each, so many apiece; as, bīna talenta iis dedit, he gave them two talents each.
b) When those nouns that are ordinarily Plural in form, but Singular in meaning, are employed in a Plural sense; as, binnae litterae, two epistles.
But in such cases, ūnī (not singulī) is regularly employed for one, and trinī (not ternī) for three; as, ünae litterae, one epistle. trīnae litterae, three epistles.
c) In multiplication; as, -
bis bina sunt quattuor, twice two are four.

## Inflections.

## C. PRONOUNS.

82. A Pronoun is a word that indicates something without naming it.
83. There are the following classes of pronouns:-

## I. Personal.

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

## I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

84. These correspond to the English $I$, you, he, she, it, etc., and are declined ${ }_{1}$ as follows:First Person.

Second Firson. Third Person.
singular.

Nom. ego, $I$
Gen. meī
Dat. mihi ${ }^{1}$
Acc. mē
Voc. -
Abl. mē
tū, thou
tuì tibi ${ }^{1}$
tē
tī
te
plural.
vōs, you
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { vestrum } \\ \text { vestrì }\end{array}\right.$
vōbīs
vōs
vōs
vōbīs

1. A Dative Singular $\mathbf{m i ̄}$ occurs in poetry.
2. Emphatic forms in -met are occasionally found; as, egomet, I myself; tibimet, to you yourself; tū has tüte and tütemot (written also tütimet).
[^12]> Pronouns.
3. In early Latin, med and ted occur as Accusative and Ablative forms.

## II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

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

First Person.
Supplied by oblique cases of ego.
Gen. meī, of myself
Dat. mihi, to myself
Acc. mē, myself
Voc.
Abl. mē, with myself, etc.

Second Person.
Supplied by oblique cases of tū.
tuī, of thyself suī
tibi, to thyself
tē, thyself
tē, with thyself, etc.

Third Person.
sibi ${ }^{1}$
sē or sēsē
sē or sēsē

1. The Reflexive of the Third Person serves for all genders and for both numbers. Thus suī may mean, of himself, herself, itseif, or of themselves; and so with the other forms.
2. All of the Reflexive Pronouns have at times a reciprocal force; as, -
inter sē pūgnant, they fight with each other.
3. In early Latin, sēd occurs as Accusative and Ablative.

## III. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

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

First Person.
meus, -a, -um, my;
noster, nostra, nostrum, our ;

Second Person.
tuus, -a, -um, thy;
vester, vestra, vestrum, your;

Third Person. suus, -a, -um, his, her, its, their.

1. Suus is exclusively Reflexive; as, pater suös liberōs amat, the father loves his children. Otherwise, $\bar{n} i s$, her, its are regularly expressed by the Genitive Singular of is, viz. ējus; and their, by the Genitive Plural, eōrum, eārum.
[^13]
## Inflections.

2. The Vocative Singular Masculine of meus is mi.
3. The enclitic -pte may be joined to the Ablative Singular of the Possessive Pronouns for the purpose of emphasis. This is particularly common in case of suō, suā; as, suōpte, suāpte.
IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.
4. These point out an object as here or there, or as previounly mentioned. They are -
hic, this (where I am):
iste, that (where you are);
ille, that (something distinct from the speaker);
is, that (weaker than ille);
Idem, the same.
Hic, iste, and ille are accordingly the Demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons respectively.

> Hic, this.

SINGULAR.

| Masculine. Feminine. Neuter. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. hī ${ }^{1}$ | haec | hōc |
| Gent. hūjus ${ }^{2}$ | hūjus | hūjus |
| Dat. huic | huic huic |  |
| Acc. hunc | hanc hōc |  |
| Abl. hōc | hāc hōc |  |

PLURAL.
Masculine. Feminine. Neuter.

| `ōrum | hae | haec |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | hōrum |  |

hīs his hīs
hōs hās haec
his his
Iste, that, that of yours. Singular.
Masculine. Feminine. Neuter. Nom. iste ista istud ${ }^{8}$ Ger. istīus istius istīus
Dat. istī istī istī Acc. istum istam istud Abl. istō istā istō

Ille (archaic olle), that, that one, he, is declined like iste. 4

[^14]this ... here; hösce , hising in sometimes append -ce for emphasis; as, hijusce,
${ }^{8}$ For istud, istüc sometimes $n-n \theta$ is added, -ce becomes-ci; as, höscine.
${ }^{4}$ For illud, illuac sometimes occurs.
ular of the articularly

SINGULAR.
Masculine. Feminine. Nieuter.

| Nomr. | is | ea | id |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gch. | ējus | èjue | ējus |
| Dat. | eī | eī | eī |
| Acc. | eum | eam | id |
| $A b l$. | eō | eā | eō |

PLURAL.
Masculine. Feminine. Neuter. eī, i 1, , (ì) eae ea eōrum eārum eōrum eīs, iīs eī, iīs eīs, iis eōs eìs, iis

İdem, the same.

SINGULAR.
Masculine. Feminine. Neuter.
Nom. idem eadem idem
Gen. $\overline{\text { ejjusdem ējusdem ējusdem }}$ Dat. eīdem eídem eïdem Acc. eundem eandem idem Abl. eōdem eādem eōdem

PLURAL.
Masculine. Feminine. fī̈dem iīdem eōrundem eārundem eōrundem eīsdem eīsdem eīsdem eōsdem eāsdem eadem eīsdem eisdem eīsdem The Nom. Plu. Masc. also has idem, and the Dat. Abl. Plu. isdem or fisdem V. THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN.
88. The Intensive Pronoun in Latin is ipse. It corresponds to the English myself, etc.; in 'I myself, he himself.'

| SIngular. |  |  |  | plijral. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Masculine. Feminine. |  |  | Neuter. | Mnsculine. | Feminine. | Neuter.

VI. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.
89. The Relative Pronoun is qui, welo. It is declined:-

SINGULAR.
Masculine. Feminine. Neuter. Nom. quì quae quod Gen. cūjus cūjus cūjus Dat. cui cui cui Acc. quem quam quod $A b l$. quō ${ }^{1}$ quā ${ }^{1}$ quō ${ }^{1}$

PLURAL.
Masculine. Feminine. quī quae quōrum quārum quibus ${ }^{2}$ quibus ${ }^{2}$ quōs quās quibus ${ }^{2}$ quibus ${ }^{2}$ quibus ${ }^{2}$

[^15]2 Sometimes quis.

## Infections.

## VII. interrogative pronouns.

90. The Interrogative Pronouns are quin, who? (substantive) and qur, what? what kind of? (adjective).
91. Quis, who?

SINGULAR.

|  | Masc, and Fiem. | Neuter. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | quis | quid |
| Geln. | cūjus | cūjus |
| Dat. | cui | cui |
| Acc. | quem | quid |
| Abl. | quō | quō |

PLURAL.
Wanting.
2. qui, what? what kind of $?$ is declined precisely like the Relative Pronoun; vis. qui, quae, quod, ctc.
a. An old Ablative $q$ ur occurs, in the sense of howe?
b. QuI is sometimes used for quis in Indirect Questions.
c. Quis, when limiting words denoting persons, is sonetimes an adjective. But in such cases quis homo = what man? whereas qui homō $=$ what sort of a man?
d. Quis and qui may be strengthened by adding-nam. Thus :Substantive. quisnam, who, pray? quidnan, what, pray?
Adjective.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { quinam, quaenam, quodnam, of what kind, pray? }
\end{aligned}
$$

## VIII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

91. These have the general force of some one, any one
M. AND F.
quis,
aliquis,
quisquam,
quispiam,
quisque,
quivis, quaevis, quiavis, fanyone, quilibet, quaelibet, quidlibet, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { anything } \\ \text { you wish. }\end{array}\right.$
ఢixitimm, quaedam, quiddam, $\left\{\begin{array}{c}a \text { certitiz } \\ \text { person, } \\ \text { or theng. }\end{array}\right.$

ADJECTIVES.
Masc. Fem. Nhut.
qui, quae or qua, quod, any.
a'iqui
aliqua, aliquod, any.

No corresponding adjective.
quispiam, quaepiam, quodpiam, any.
quisque, quaeque, quodque, each.
quivis, quaevis,
quilibet, quaelibet, quodvis, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { any } \\ \text { you } \\ \text { wish. }\end{array}\right.$
quìdam, quaedam, quoddam, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { a cer- } \\ \text { tain. }\end{array}\right.$
I. In the Indefinite Pronouns, only the pronominal part is declined. Thus: Genitive Singular alloajus, oajunlibet, etc.
2. Note that aliqui has aliqua in the Nominative Singular Femlnine, also in the Nominative and Accusative Plural Neuter. Qui has both qua and quae in these same cases.
3. Quidam forms Accusative Singular quendam, quândam ; Genitive Plural quörundam, quaruadam; the $m$ being assimilated to $n$ before d .
4. Aliquis may be used adjectively, and (occasionally) aliqui substantively.
5. In combination with ne, ni, nisi, num, either quis or qui may stand as a Substantive. Thus: ni quies or qui.
6. Boquis, anyone, though strictly an Indefinite, generally has interrogative force. It has both substantive and adjective forms, substantive, eoquis, eoquid; adjective, eoquI, eoquae and ecqua, eoquod.
7. Quisquam is not used in the Plural.
8. There are two Indefinite Relatives, - quisoumque and quisquis, whoever. Quioumque declines only the first part; quimquis declines both, but has only quisquin, quidquid, quóquō in common use.

## PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

92. The following adjectives, also, frequently have pronominal force:-
93. "'un, another;
dive:, which of two? (interr.); whichever of two (rel.); unus, one;
alter, the other;
nouter, neither;
nüllus, no one (in oblique cases).
94. The compounds, -
uterque, utraque, utrumque, each of two; uteroumque, utracumque, utrumcumque, whoever of two; uterlibet, utralibet, utrumlibet, either one you please; utervis, utravis, utrumvis, either one you please; alteruter, alterutra, alterutrum, the one or the other. In these, uter alone is declined. The rest of the word remains unchanged, except in case of alteruter, which may decline both parts; as, -

Nom. alteruter altera utra alterum utrum
Gen. alterius utrius etc.

## Inflections.

## Chapter II. - Conjugation.

93. The Inflection of Verbs is called Conjugation.
94. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person
95. Two Voices, -Active and Passive.
96. Three Moods, - Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative.
97. Six Tenses, -

Present, Imperfect, Future,

Perfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect.

But the Subjunctive lacks the Future and Future Perfect; while the Imperative employs only the Present and Future.
4. Two Numbers, - Singular and Plural.
5. Three Persons, - First, Second, and Third.
95. These make up the so called Finis. loo. Besides this, we have the following Noun and Adjective Forms:-

1. Noun Forms, - Infinitive, German, and Supine.
2. Adjective Forms, - Participles (including the Germudive).
3. The Personal Endings of the Verb are, -

4. -s; -astI (Terf. Iud.); to or wanting (Impv.);
5. -t ; -to (Impv.);

Plus. I. -mus ;
2. -is; -stis (Perl. Ind.); te, -tote (Impv.);
3. -nt; - runt (Terf. Ind.); -nt (Impv.);
-r.
-rise, -re; -re, -tor (Impv.)
-turf $;$-tor (Impv.).
-mir.
-mini.
-ntur ; -stor (Impv.).

VERB-STEMS.
97. Conjugation consists in appending certain endings to the Stem. We distinguish three different stems in a

# VerbeStems. - The liour Conjugations. 

1. Prement Btem, from which are formed -
2. Present, Imperfect, and Fiuture Indicative,
3. Present and Imperfect Subjunctlve,
4. The Imperative,
5. The Present Infinitlve,

Active and b'as.
5. The Present Active Particlple, the Germand, and Germalive.
11. Perfeot Stem, from which are formed -

1. Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative,
2. Perfect alld Pluperfect Subjunctlve,
3. Perfect Lufinitive,
III. Partioipial Stem, from which are formed -
4. Peifect Participle,
5. Perfect, Phperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative,
6. Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive,
7. Perfect !ufinitive,

Apparently from the same stem, though really of different origin, ar" the Supine, the Future Active Participle, the Future Infinltive Active and Passive.

## THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

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

| Conjughtion. | infinitive <br> Termination. | Distinguishing Vowzi. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | -are | $\bar{\square}$ |
| II. | -Etre | 8 |
| III. | -rre | $\checkmark$ |
| IV. | -Ire | I |

99. Principal Parts. The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and the Perfect Participle ${ }^{1}$ constitute the Prinoipal Parts of a Latin verb, - so called because they contain the different stems, from which the full conjugation of the verb may be derived.
[^16]
## CONJUGATION OF SUM.

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

## Pres, Ind. sum

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
Pres. Inf.
esse

INDICATIVE MOOD.
Present Tense.

SINGULAR.
sum, I am, es, thou art, "se tr is 25 ;
eram, I was, erss, thou wast, erat, he was;
erō, I shall be, eris, thou wilt be, erit, he will be;
fr $\mathrm{in}_{\mathrm{i}}$ I have been, I was, fusti, thou hast been, thou wast, fuit, he has been, he was;

Perf. ind. fuir

Fut. Partic. ${ }^{1}$ futūrus
sumus, we are, estis, you are, sunt, they are.

Imperfect.
erāmus, we were, erätis, you were, erant, they were.

Future.
erimus, we shall be, eritis, you will be, erunt, they will be.

Perfect.
fuimus, we have been, we were, fuistis, you have been, you were, $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { fuērunt, } \\ \text { fuēre, }\end{array}\right\}$ they have been, they were.

Pluperfect.
fuerămus, we had been, fuerātis, you had been, fuerant, they had been.

## Future Perfect.

fuerimus, we shall have been, fueritis, you will have been, fuerint, they will have been.

[^17]
# Conjugation of Sum. 

## SUBJUNCTIVE. ${ }^{1}$

SINGULAR.
sim, may / be, sis, mayst thou be, sit, let him be, may he be;

Prisent.
plural.
simus, let us be, sītis, be ye, may ycu be, sint, let them be.

## IMPERFECT.

essem, ${ }^{2} /$ should be, essēs, ${ }^{2}$ thou wouldst be, esset, ${ }^{2}$ he would be;
essēmus, we should be, essētis, you would be, essent, ${ }^{2}$ they would be.

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

## Pluperfect.

fuissem, I should inave been, fuissès, thou wouldst have been, fuisset, he would have been;
fuissēmus, we should have been, fuissētis, :nu would have been, fuissent, thry would have been.

## IMPERATIVE. .

Pres. es, be thou,
Fut. estō, thou shalt be, estō, he shall be;

## infinitive.

Pres. esse, to be.
Perf. fuisse, to have been.
Fut. futūrus esse, ${ }^{3}$ to be about to be. Fut. futūrus, ${ }^{4}$ about to be.

[^18]Inflections.

## FIRST (OR Ā-) CONJUGATION.

101. 

Active Voice. - Amō, I love.
PRINCIPAL PARTS.
Pres. Ind. amర

| Pres. Inf. | Perf. Ind. |
| :---: | :---: |
| amãre | amãvi |

Perf. Pass. Partic. amātus

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.
amठ, Ilove, amās, you love, amat, he loves;
plural.
amāmus, we love, amātis, you love, amant, they love.

Imperfect.
amaxbam, I was loving, amiswās, you were loving," amãbat, he was loving;
amābămus, we zere loving, amābãtis, you were loving, amabant, they were loving.

Future.
amảbimus, we shall love, anaảbitis, you will love, amabust, they will love.

Perfect.
amāvimus, zue have loved, we loved, amāvistis, you have loved, you loved,' amāvērunt, 'ēre, they have loved, they loved.

## Pluperfect.

amāverāmus, we had loved, amāverātis, you had loved, amāverant, they had loved.

## Future Perfect.

amāverō, I shall have loved, amāverin, you will huve loved, amāverit, he will have loved;
amāverimus, we shall have !overt, amāveritis, you will have loved, amaverint, they will have loved.

First Conjugation.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.

SINGULAR.
amem, may / love, amēs, may you love, amet, let him love;
amārem, I should love, amārēs, you would love, amāret, he would love;
plural.
amēmus, let us love, amētis, may you lqve, ament, let them love.

Imperfect.
amārēmus, we should love, amārētis, you would love, amarrent, they would loze.

Perfect.
amāverim, I may have loved, amāveris, you may have loved, amāverit, he may have loved;
amāverimus, we may have loved, amāveritis, you may have loved, amāverint, they may have loved.

Pluperfect.
amāvissem, I should have loved, amāvissees, you would have loved, amāvisset, he would have loved;
amāvissēmus, we should haveloved, amāvissētis, you would have loved, amāvissent, they would have loved.

## IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amã, love thou;
Fut. amāto, thou shalt love, amätō, he shall love:

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. amāre, to love. Perf. amāvisse, to have loved.
Fut. amātürus esse, to be about to love.
amāte, love ye.
amātōte, ye shall love, amantos, they shall love.

## PARTICIPLE.

Pres. amāns, ${ }^{1}$ loving.
(Gen. amantis)
Fiut. amātūrus, about to love.

## SUPINE.

Gen. amandi, of loving,
Dat. amandō, for loving,
Acc. amandum, loving, Abl. amandō, by loving. Abl. amātū, to love, be loved.

## FIRST (OR Ā-) CONJUGATION.

102. 

Passive Voice. - Amor, I aml loved.

Pres. Ind. amor

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. amātus sum

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. I am loved.

PLURAL. amāmur amāmin $\overline{1}$ amantur

IMPERFECT.
I was loved.
amābar amābăris, or -re amābătur

Future. I shall be lovied
amābor amăberis, or -re amäbitur
amābāmur amābāminī amābantur amābimur amābimin amābuntur
Perfect.
I have been loved or I was loved. amātus (-a, -um) sum ${ }^{1}$ amātus es amātī (-ae, -a) sumus amātus est

Pluperfect.
$I$ had been loved.
amātus eram ${ }^{1}$ amātus erās amātus erat

Future Perfect.
I shall have been loved.
amātī erimus amātī eritis amātǐ erunt
amātus erō ${ }^{1}$
amātus eris
amātus erit
amātī estis amātī sunt amātì sunt .
amātİ erāmus amātI erātis amātī erant

1 ㅍū, fuistī, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc. So fueram, fuerās, etc., for erem, etc. ; fuerō, etc., for erō, etc.

## subjunctive.

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

| SINGULAR. | PLURAL. |
| :--- | :---: |
| amer | amēmür |
| amēris, or -re | améminI |
| amētur | amentur |

Imperfect.
I should be loved, he would be loved.
amārer amārêris, or -re amārētur
amārēmur amārêmini amārentur

Perfect.
I may have been loved.
amātus sim ${ }^{1}$
a.nātus sīs
amātus sit
amātī sīmus amātI sītis amātI sint

Pluperfect.
I should have been loved, he would have been loved.
amātus essem ${ }^{1}$ amātus essēs amātus esset
amātī essēmus amātī essētis amātī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amāre, be thou loved;
Fut. amãtor, thou shalt be loved, amātor, he shali be loved;

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. amārī, to be loved.
Perf. amātus esse, to have been loved.
Fut. amātum īrī, to be about to be loved.
amāminī, be ye loved.
amantor, they shall be loved.

PARTICIPLE.

Perfect. -amätus, having been loved.
Gerundive. amandus, to be loved, deseraing to be loved.

[^19]Inflections.

## SECOND (OR $\overline{\mathbf{E}}-$ ) CONJUGATION.

103. 

Active Voice. - Moneō, I advise.
PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. moneō

Pres. Inf. monēre

Perf. Ind. monui

Perf. Pass. Partic. monitus

INDICATIVE MOOD.
Present Tense.
SINGULAR. moneठ moness monet

I advise.

PLURAL. monēmus monētis monent

IMPERFECT.
$I$ was advising, or $I$ advised.
monēbam monēbās monẽbat

Future.
I shall advise.
monēbō monēbis monēbit
monēbămus monēbātis monēbant
monēbō
monēbis
monēbit

1 monēbimus monēbitis monēbunt
Perfect.
I have advised, or I advised. monui monuisti monuit

Pluperfect.
I had advised.
monueram monuerās monuerat
monuimus monuistis monuērunt; or -ęre
monuerāmus
monuerātis
monuerant

Future Perfect. I shall have advised.
monuerimus
monueritis
monuerint

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.
May I advise, let him advise.

| singular. moneam moneăs moneat | plural. moneāmus moneātis moneant |
| :---: | :---: |
| Imperfect. |  |
| 1 should advise, he would advise. |  |
| monērem | monērēmus |
| monērēs | monerrētis |
| monerret | monērent |

Perfect. I may have advised.

| monuerim | monuerimus |
| :--- | :--- |
| monueris | monueritis |
| monuerit | monuerint |

Pluperfect.
I should have advised, he would have advised.
monuissem monuissēs monuisset
monuissēmus monuissētis monuissent

## IMPERATIVE.

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

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. monēre, to advise.
Perf. monuisse, to have advised.
Fut. monitūrus esse, to be about to advise.

## GERUND.

Gen. monendi, of advising, Dat. monendō, for advising, Acc. monendum, advising, Abl. monendō, by advising.
monēte, advise ye.
monētōte, ye shall advise, monentō, they shall ailvise.

## PARTICIPLE.

Pres. monēns, advising.
(Gen. monentis.)
Fut. monitūrus, about to advise.

SUPINE.

Acc. monitum, to advise.
Abl. monitū, to advise, be advised

Invections.

## SECOND (OR E-) CONJUGATION.

104. Pammive Voloe. - Moncor, $/$ alm ardivised.


## INDICATIVE MOOD.

Irkenent 'TEnse:, 1 amm ralonsed.

I't.JRAL. moliolinur Honêmiu! monentur
ImpRefrect.
/ reas adzived.
monèbar
monçbăris, or -ré
monebantur
livTURE:
monêbor
monēberis, or-se
monebitur

> monêbannur monğbaniny monêbantur

1 Nhall be adivised.
monębinur monebimins mondbuntur
IRRFRET.
Inivée brenl aderised, I seras adovised.
monitus anm monitus es monitus est
monitus eram monitus erăs monitus erat
> monitl mumus monitI estis monitI sunt

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Piuperfect. } \\
& \text { Ihad been artrised. } \\
& \\
& \\
& \\
& \\
& \\
& \\
& \\
& \text { moniti erămus } \\
& \text { moniti eratis erant }
\end{aligned}
$$

Future Ierfect.
i shall haque been adrised.
nonitus erō monitise exis monitus erit
monitI erimua
monitī eritis
moniti erunt

Second Comjugation.

## subjundtive.

I'resenti.
May I be advised, lel himb be advised.

SINT:UI,AK.
fitomear
momoarim, or -re moneatur
 mone月̆mur ตกเยสีทายที moneantir

Impermedis.
I shinuld be adzised, he wimuld bre adnised.
monซิror
monêrerin, or -ro moner metur $^{\circ}$
monorbmur monerremini monērontur

Iremreis.
/ Inay lure biell advisad.
monitus sim monitus mim monitus sit
moniti simus moniti sitis nouniti mint

Phopierfiect.
I should have bectl udvised, he would have been adzised.
monitus essent
monitus onses
monitus esset
moniti essermus moniti essêtis moniti essent

## IMPERATIVE.

I'res. monerre, be thou advised;
liut. monêtor, thout shalt le' adwised, monëtor, he shull be advised.

INFINITIVE.
Pres. monexin, to be adrised.
Perf: monitus esse, to have been advised.
Fiut. monitum iri, to be about to be adzised.
monermini, be ye advised.
monentor, they shall be advised.

## PARTICIPLE.

Perfect. monitua, fdivised. Gerundive. monendus, to be advised, deserving to be advised.

| THIRD $105 .$ | (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION. <br> Active Voice. - Regō, I rule. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Pres. Ind. regठ | PRINCIPAI, PARTS. |
| singular. <br> regö <br> regis <br> regit | INDICATIVE MOOD. <br> Present Tense. <br> 1 rule. <br> plural. regimus regitis regunt |
| regēbam <br> regẽbā̆s <br> regēbat | imperfect. <br> I was ruling, or $/$ ruled. <br> regēbãmus <br> regēbătis regēbant |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { regam } \\ & \text { regēs } \\ & \text { reget } \end{aligned}$ | Future. <br> $I$ shall rule. <br> regēmus regētis regent |
|  | Perfect. <br> $I$ have ruled, or I ruled. |
| rēxisti rēxit | $\begin{aligned} & \text { rēximus } \\ & \text { rēēistis } \\ & \text { rē̄xērunt, or -ëre } \end{aligned}$ |
| rēxeram <br> rēxerās <br> rēxerat | Pluperfect. <br> I had ruled. <br> rēxerāmus <br> rēxerātis <br> rēxerant |
| rèzerơ rēxeris rēxerit | Future Perfect. <br> I shall have ruled. <br> rēxerimue <br> rēxeritis <br> rēxerint |

## subjunctive.

Present.
May I rule, let him rule.
Singular.
regam
regam
regat

PIURAL.
regămpa
re-itis
regant
IMPERFECT.
$I$ should rule, he would rule.
regerem regerēs regeret

Perfect.
I may have ruled.

| rēxerim | rēxerimus |
| :--- | :--- |
| rēxeris | rēxeritis |
| rēxerit | rēxerint |

Pluperfect.
$I$ should have ruled, he would have ruled.
rēxissem
rēxissēs rēxisset
rēxissēmus rēxissētis rēxissent

## IMPERATIVE.

Pres. rege, rule thou;
Fut. regitō, thou shalt rule, regitō, he shall rule;

## INFINITIVE.

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

## GERUND.

Gen. regendi, of ruling,
Dat. regendō, for ruling,
Acc. regendum, ruling,
Abl. regendō, by ruling.
regite, rule ye. regitōte, ye shall rule, reguntō, they shall rule.

## PARTICIPLE.

Pres. regēns, ruling. (Gen. regentis.)
Fut. rëctūrus, about to rule.

SUPINE.

Acc. rēctum, to rule,
Abl. rēctū, to rule, be ruled.

TIIRE (OR CONSONANT-) CONJIGAMTON.
108.

Pannive Voloe. - Rigew, I Imm ruldad.
PRINCHAS. PARTS.
l'rus. Iner. TENT

Irmpi Ino. Mectus нilu

## indicative mood.

ibristent tinse.
I am rulsol.

| regor <br> regerin <br> regitur | 1 Inm iwlod. | IIIMRAI <br> regtimir <br> regiantur <br> regintitr |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Imprameay. |  |
| rexdbar | / Bores rulid. |  |
| regobaris, in -rá |  | gobamur |
| regebătur |  | regobhinius |
|  |  | regobantur |

Fulure.
1 shall se moled.
regar
renertis. yr re
regetur
regomir regounini regentur

Permect.
I have heen rmbed, or I was simled.
rētus sum rectus ex rēctus est
rectus eram rectus erās rēctus erat
rēctus erō rēctus eris rēctus erit
recti sumus
rêcli estio reèti sunt

Pluperfect.
I had been ruled.

> rēcti erâmun
> rêcti erâtis
> rēcti erant

Future Permect. I shall haze bich ruled. rēctī erimus rēctã eritis rēcts erunt

## Third Conjugration.

## subjundtive.

I'reantint.
May I be ruled, let hime be rivled.

| hinguisar. | riukali. |
| :--- | :---: |
| regar | regainur |
| regaria, or -re | regamiut |
| regatur | regaitur |

imprafect:
I should be rwed, he wemblid be imed.
regerer regerörla, or -re regerôtur

I may have been ruled.


IMPERATIVE.

Pros. regere, be thou ruled;
liut. regitor, thou shall be ruled, regitor, he sluaii be ruled;

INFINITIVE.
l'res. regi, to be ruled.
Perf. rēctus esse, to have been ruted.
Fut. rēctum InI, to be about to be rried.
regimini, be ye ruled.
reguntor, they shall be ruled.

## PARTICIPLE.

Perfect. rëctus, ruled.
Gerundive. regenaus, io be ruled, deserving to be ruled.

## FOURTH (OR $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$-) CONJUGATION.

107. 

Pres. Ind. audiō

Active Voice. - Audiō, Ihear.
PRINCIPAL PARTS.
Pres. Inf. audire

Perf. Ind. Perf. Pass. Partic, audivì audītus

## indicative mood.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR. audiō audīs audit --audiēbam audiēbās audiēbat

I was hearing, or I heard. 1
audiam audiēs audiet
audivì audīvistI audivit
audīveram audīveräs audiverat
audīverō audiveris audīverit

Ihear.
plural. audìmus audītis audiunt

IMPERFECT.

Future. I shall hear.

Perfect.
I hav: heard, or I heard.

Pluperfect. I had heard.

Future Perfect.
$I$ shall have heard. audiēbāmus audiēbātis audiēbant audiēmus audiētis audient audīvimus aụdīvistis audivęrunt, or eêre
audiveraảmus audīverātis audiverant
audīverimus
audiveritis
audīverint

# Fourth Conjugation. 

## subjunctive.

Present.
May I hear, let him herrr.
SINGULAR. audiam audiās audiat PLURAL. audiāmus

IMPERFECT.
I should hear, he would hear.
audīrem audīrēs audīret
audīrēmus audīrētis audīrent

Perfect.
I may have heard.
audīverim audīveris audīverit
audiverimus audīveritis audiverint

Pluperfect.
I should have heard, he would have heard. audivissem audīvissēs audīvizset audīvissēmus audīvissëtis audivissent

## IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audi, hear thou;
Fut. audintō, thou shalt hear, auditō, he shall hear;

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. audire, to hear.
Perf. audivisse, to have heard.
Fut. audītūrus esse, to be about to hear.

## GERUND.

Gen. audiendr, of hearing,
Dat. audiendo, for hearing,
Acc. audiendum, hearing,
Aibl. audienđō, by hearing.
audīte, hear ye. audītōte, ye shall hear, audiuntō, they shall hear.

## PARTICIPLE.

Pres. audièns, hearing.
(Gen. audientis.)
Fut. audītūrus, about to hear.

## SUPINE.

Acc. auditum, to hear, Abl. auditu, to hear, be heard.

## FOURTH (OR İ-) CONJUGATION.

108. 

Passive Voice. - Audior, I am heard.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Ind, |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| audior | Pres. Inf. | Perf. Ind. |
|  | audī̀ | audītus sum |

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.
SINGULAR. audior
audīris
audītur
I am heard. auditus sum


# Fourth Conjugation． 

## sUBJUNCTIVE．

Present．
May I be heard，let him be heard．
singular． aucliar audiãris，or－re audiātur
pludal．
audiāmur audiāmini audiantur

Imperfect．
I should be heard，he would be heard． audīrer audīrēris，or－re audīrētur

# auciirèmur 

 audīrēmiñ̄ audīrenturPerfect． I may have been heard．
auditus sin audītus sīs audītus sit
audītī sīmus audītī sītis audītī sint

Pluperfect．
I should have been heard，he would have been heard． auditus essem audītus esseès auditus esset
audītī essēmus
audîtī essētis audītī essent

IMPERATIVE．

Pres．audīre，be thou heard；
Fiut．audītor，thou shalt be heure？ audītor，he shall berar；

## INFINITIVE．

Pres．audinz，to be heart．
Perf．auditus esse，to have been heard．
Fut．auditum ini，to be about to故角标解。
audīminī，be ye heard．
audiuntor，they shall be heard．

## PARTICIPLE．

Perfect．auditus，heard． Gerundivr．audiendus，to be heard，deserving to be heard．

## VERBS IN -Iō of the third conjugation.

109. 110. Verbs in -io of the Third Conjugation take the endings of the Fourth Conjugation, wherever the latter endings have two successive vowels. This occurs only in the Present System.
1. Here belong -
a) capiō, to take; oupiō, to desire; faciō, to make; fodiō, to dig' fugio, to flec ; jacio, to throw ; pariō, to bear; quatio, to shake ; rapiō, to scise; sapio, to taste.
b) Compounds of lacio and speciō (both ante-classical); as, alliciō, cutice; cōnspiciō, behold.
c) The deponents gradior, to $g^{(0)}$; morior, to die; patior, to suffer.
2. 

Pres. $1_{\text {nd. }}$ capiō,

Active Voice. - Capiō, I take.
PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Inf. | Perf, Ind. | Perf. Pass, Partic. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| capere, | cēpí, | captus. |

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

singular. capī̄, capis, capit ;

Presient Tensie. plural. capimus, capitis, capiunt.

## Imperffect.

capiēbam, -iēbās, -iëbat;
capiēbạ̄mus, -iēbātis, -iēbant.
Future.
capiam, -iēs, -iet ;
capièmus, -iētis, -ient.
Perfect.
cēpī, -istī, -it;
cēpimus, -istis, -ērunt, wrèr.

## Pluperfect.

cēperam, -erās, -erat ;
. cēperāmus, -erātis, -erant.
Future Perfect.
cēperō, -eris, -erit;
cēperimus, -eritis, -erint.

## N.

ke the latter nly in

Verbs in -10 of the Third Conjugation.
SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR.
capiam, -ī̄s, -iat ;
caperem, -erēs, -eret ;
cēperim, -eris, -erit ;
cēpissem, -issēs, -isset ;

Pres. cape;
Fưt. capitō, capitō ;

## infinitive.

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

## GERUND.

Gen. capiendī,
Dat. capiendō,
Acc. capiendum, Abl. capiendö.

Present.
capiāmus, -iãtis, -iant.
imperfect.
caperēmus, -erêtis, -erent.
Perfict. cēperimus, -eritis, -erint.
Pluperiect.
(c. isēmus, -issētis, -issent.

IMPERA;
capite.
capitōte,
capiuntō.

## PARTICIPLE.

Pres. capiēns.
Fiut. captūrus.
SUPINE.

Acc. captum, $A b l$. captū.
111. Passive Voice. - Capior, I am taken.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. capior,

Pres. Inf. capī,

Perf. Ind.
captus sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. capior, caperis, capitur ;

Present Tense.
capimur, capiminī, capiuntur. IMPERFECT.
capiēbāmur, -iēbāminī, iēbantur.
Future.
capiar, -iēris, -iētur ;
capiēmur, -iēminī, -ientur.

## Inflections.

SINIIUI.AR. captus stmm, es, est ;

PRRPEGT:
ceptí stmus, estis, sunt. Phuplerfect.
cilptĭ crianmans, eriatis, crant.
FUTURE PRRFEEF.
captus erō, eris, erit ;
captï crimus, eritis, erunt.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

- PRESGNT.
capiar, -itris, -iottur ;
c:upiämur, -iatminī, -iantur.
Implerfrect.
ciperënur, -creminĭ, erentur. PERFECES.
ciptī sīmus, sitis, sint.
Pedrerbect.
captus essem, cssēs, esset ;
ciptī essēmus, essētis, essent.


## IMPERATIVE.

Pres. capere;
fiur. capitor. capitor;

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. capi.
Berf. captus esse.
fost. captum irì.

Perfect. captus. Gerrmadiãe. capiendus.

## DEPONENT VERBS.

112. Deponent Verbs have in the main Passive forms with Active maning: But -
a. They have the following Active forms: Future Infinitive, Present and Future Participles. Gerund. and Supine.
113. They have the following Passive meanings: always in the Gerundive. and sometimes in the Perfect Passive Participle; as. -
sequendus, to bi followid; adeptus, attivined.

## Deponent Verbs.

113. Pararligms of Deponent Verbs atre -

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { 1. Cotij. } & \text { miror, mirhir, miratus sum, admire. } \\
\text { II. Conj. } & \text { vereor, verêri, veritus sum, fear. } \\
\text { III. Comj. } & \text { nequor, nequi, seontus num, follow. } \\
\text { IV. Conj. } & \text { largior, largiri, largitus sum, give. } \\
\text { III. (in-ior) } & \text { patior, pati, passus num, sulfer. }
\end{array}
$$

INDICATIVE MOOD.

|  | I. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Pres. | mitror |
|  | miriāts |
|  | milrâtur |
|  | тітลัเมแ |
|  | тйтйпия |
|  | mirantur |
| IIIPf. | minrâlar |
| rint. | mirrälor |
| Pors: | mirritus sum |
| Plup. | miriantus cran! |
| $1 \times 1$ ', | míãtus crō |

$\quad$ II.
vereor
verêris
verêtur
verēmur
verēmini
verentur
verēhar
verêbor
veritus sum
veritus cranı
veritus erō
III. sequor largior sequeris largiris sequitur largitur seguimur largïnur seguimini largimini segumetur harginutur sequëbar largiêbar sognar secuintus sum seciltus eran secütus erō
IV.
vereor verēris verêtur verēmur verēmini verentur verébor veritus sum veritus cram veritus erö

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. mirrer
IInff. miriärer l'crf. mirraitus sim 1'lup. mîrätus essem
verear
vererer
veritus sim
veritus essem
seguar sequerer largïrer secintus sim largitus sim secintus essem largitus essem
patiar paterer passus sim passus essem

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. mīräre Fiut. mirritor

P'es. mīrärī
Perf. miniaitus esse
Fut. mirätürus esse

| sequere | largire | patere |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sequitor | largitor | patitor |

## INFINITIVE.

| verērī | sequī | largīrī | palī |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| veritus esse | secūtus esse | largîtus esse | passus esse |
| veritūrus esse | secūtūrus esse | largīūus esse | passürus |

PARTICIPLES.
Pres, mīrīns
Fiut. mīrītürus
Perf. miriàtus
Ger. mīrandus
sequēns secütīrus secuitus sequendus

| largiēns | patiēns |
| :--- | :--- |
| largītürus | passürus |
| largituz | passus |
| iargiendus | patiendus |

GERUND.

## SUPINE.



## SEMI-DEPONENTS.

114. I. Semi-Deponents are verbs which have the Present System in the Active Voice, but the Perfect System in the Passive without change of meaning. Here belong audeō, auđēre, ausus sum, to dare. gaudeō, gaudēre, gãvisus sum, to rejoice. soleō, solëre, solitus sum, to be wont. fidō, fidere, fisus sum, to trust.
115. The following verbs have a Perfect Passive Participle with Active meaning: -
adolēscō, grow up; cēnāre, dine; placêre, please; prandëre, lunch; pōtăre, drink; jūrāre, swear;
adultus, having grown up. cēnātus, having dined. placitus, having pleased, agreeable. prănsus, having lunched. pötus, having drunk. jūrātus, having sworn. a. Jürātus is used in a passive sense also.
116. Revertor and dēvertor both regularly form their Perfect in the Active Voice; viz. -
revertor, reverti (Inf.), revertì (Perf.), to return.
dēvertor, đēvertī (Inf.), dēvertī (Perf.), to turn aside.

## PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

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

## Active Periphrastic Conjugation. <br> INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. amātūrus (-a, -um) sum, I am about to love.
imp. amātūrus eram, I zoas about to love.
Fut. amātīrus erō, I shall be about to love.
Perf. amātūrus fuī, I have been (zoas) about to love.
Plup. armātürus fueram, I had been about to love. Fiut. P. amātürus fuerō, I shali have been about to love.

# Peculiarities of Conjugation. 

Pres em in


SUBJUNCTIVE.
Pres. amãtãrus sim, I may be about to love.
$I m p$. amãtūrus essem, I might be about to love.
Perf. amāturus fuerim, I may have been about to love.
Plup. amãtūrus fuissem, I might have been about to love.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. amāturus esse, to be about to love. Perf. amãtürus fuisse, to have been abont to love.

## Passive Periphrastic Conjugation.

## indICATIVE.

Pres. amandus (-a, -um) sum, I am to be loved, must be loved.
$I m p$. amandus eram, I was to be loved.
Fut. amandus erō, $I$ shall deserve to be loved.
Perf. amandus fui, I was to be loved.
Plup. amandus fueram, I had descried to be loved. Fut. $P$. amandus fuerō, I shall have deserved to be loved.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

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

## INFINITIVE.

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

## PECULIARITIES OF CONJUGATION.

116. i. Perfects in -āvī, -ēvì and -īvī, with the forms derived from them, often drop the ve or vi before endings beginning with $r$ or s. So also nōvī (from nōscō) and the compounds of mōvī (from moveō). Thus: -

| amāvistī | amāstī | dēlēvistī | dēlēstī |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amāvisse | amāsse | dēlēvisse | dēlēsse |
| amāvērunt | amārunt | dēlēvērunt | dēlērunt |
| amāverim | amārim | dēlēverim | dēlērim |
| amāveram | amāram | dēlēveram | dēlēran |
| amāverō | amārō | dēlēverō | dētērō |
| nōvistī | nōstī | nōverim | nōrim |
| nōvisse | nōsse | nōveram | nōram |
| audīvistī | audīstī | audīvisse | audīsse |

## Inflections.

2. In the Gerund and Gerundive of the Third and Fourth Conjugations, the endings -undus, -undi, often occur instead of -endus and -endi, as faciundus, faciundi.
3. Dīcō, dūcō, faciō, form the lmperatives, dĩc, dūc, fac. But compounds of fació form the Imperative in -fice, as cönfice. Compounds of dicō, dūcō accent the ultima; as, ēdúc, ēdíc.
4. Archaic and Poetic forms : -
a. The ending -ier in the Present Infinitive Passive; as, amārier, monērier, dīcier, for amārī, monērī, dīcī.
b. The ending -ibam for -iebam in Imperfects of the Fourth Conjugation, and -ībo for -iam in Futures; as, scībam, scĩbō, for sciēbam, sciam.
c. Instead of the fuller forms, in such words as dixistí, scrīpsistis, surrëxisse, we sometimes find dixtī, scrīpstis,
d. The endings -im, -īs, etc. (for -am, -ās, etc.) occur in a few Subjunctive forms; as, edim (eat), duint, perduint.
5. In the Future Active and Perfect Passive Infinitive, the auxiliary esse is often omitted; as, āctūrum for āctūrum esse; ējectus for ējectus esse.

## FORMATION OF THE VERB-STEMS.

## Formation of the Present Stem.

117. Many verbs employ the Verb Stem for the Present Stem; ${ }^{1}$ as, dīcere, dūcere, amāre, monēre, audīre. Others form the Present Stem variously, as follows :-
r. By appending the vowels $\bar{a}, \overline{\mathbf{e}}, \overline{\mathbf{i}} ;$ as, juvāre, Present Stem juvă- (Vérb Stem juv-). augēre, " " augē- (" " aug-). vincīre, " " vincī-(" " vinc-).
118. By adding i, as capiō, Present Stem capi- (Verb Stem cap-).
119. By the insertion of $n$ ( $m$ before labial-n.utes) before the final consonant of the Verb Stem; as, fundō (Stem fud-), rumpō (Stem rup-).
120. By appending -n to the Verb Stem; as, ...

> cern-ō
pell-ō (for pel-nō).

[^20]5. By appending $t$ to the Verb Stem; as, -flect-ō.
6. By appending sc to the Verb Stem; as, -crēsc-ō
scīsc-ō.
7. By Reduplication, that is, by prefixing the initial consonant of the Verb Stem with i; as, -gi-gn-ō (root gen-). si-st-ō (root sta-).

## Formation of the Perfect Stem.

118. The Perfect Stem is formed from the Verb Stem -
119. By adding $v$ (in case of Vowel Stems) ; as, -

$$
\text { amãv-ī, } \quad \text { dēlēv-ī, } \quad \text { audīv-ī. }
$$

2. By adding $u$ (in case of some Consonant Stems) ; as, -strepu-ī, genu-ì, alu-i.
3. By adding s (in case of most Consonant Stems) ; as, -carp-ō, Perfect carps-ī. scrīb-ō, " scrīps-ī (for scrīb-sī) rīd-eō, " rīs-ī (for rīd-sī). sent-iō, " sēns-ī (for sent-sī).
dic-dīc-ō, " dīx-ī (i.e. dīc-sī).
a. Note that before the ending -sī a Dental Mute ( $\mathbf{t}, \mathrm{d}$ ) is lost; a Guttural Mute ( $\mathbf{c}, \mathrm{g}$ ) unites with s to form $\mathbf{x}$; while the Labial $\mathbf{b}$ is changed to $\mathbf{p}$.
4. Without addition. Of this formation there are three types :
a) The Verb Stem is reduphicated by prefixing the initial consonant with the foliowing vowel or e; as, currō, Perfect cu-currī. poscō, " po-posci. pellō, " pe-pulī.
Note r.- Compounds, with the exception of dō, stō, discō, poscō, omit the reduplication. Thus: com-puli, but re-poposcī.

Note 2.-Verbs beginning with sp or st retain both consonants in the reduplication, but drop $\mathbf{s}$ from the stem; as, spondeō, spo-pondí; stō, steti.
b) The short vowel of the Verb Stem is lengthened; as, legō, lēgī; agō, ègĩ. Note that ă by this process becomes $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$.
c) The vowel of the Verb Stem is unchanged; as, vertō, vertī; minuō, minuī.

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## Formation of Participial Stem.

119. The Perfect Passive Participle, from which the Participial Stem is derived by dropping -us, is formed:-
I. By adding tus (sometimes to the Present Stem, sometimes to the Verb Stem); as, -

| amexe, | Participle | amã-tus. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dēle-re, | , | deele-tus. |
| audi-re, | " | audi-tus. |
| leg-ere, | " | lēc-tus. |
| scrib-ere, | " | scrip-tus. |
| senti-re, | " | sën-sus (for sent-tus). |
| caed-ere, | " | cae-sus (for caed-tus) |

a. Note that $\mathbf{g}$, before $\mathbf{t}$, becomes $\mathbf{c}$ (see $\S 8,5$ ); $\mathbf{b}$ becomes $\mathbf{p}$; while $d \mathrm{~d}$ or tt became ss , which was then often simplified to $\mathbf{s}(\$ 8,2)$.
2. After the analogy of Participles like sēnsus and caesus, where -sus arises by phonetic change, -sus for tus is added to other Verd Stems; as, -

$$
\begin{array}{lcl}
\text { lāb-ī, } & \text { Participle lăp-sus. } \\
\text { fīg-ere, } & " & \text { fī-xus. }
\end{array}
$$

a. The same consonant changes occur in appending this ending -sus to the stem as in the case of the Perfect ending -si (see $\$ 118,3, a$ ).
3. A few Verbs form the Participle in -itus; as, -

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { domā-re, } & \text { dom ̌̌tus. } \\
\text { monē-re, } & \text { mon-itus. }
\end{array}
$$

4. The Future Active Participle is usually identical in its stem with the Perfect Passive Participle; as, amā-tus, amātūrus; monitus, monitūrus. But -
juvā-re, Perf. Partic. jūtus, has Fut. Act. Partic. juvātūrus. ${ }^{1}$

[^21]
## LIST OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS WITH PRINCIPAL PARTS.

## First ( $\bar{A}-$ ) Conjugation.

120. I. Perfectit in -vī. amō amāre amāvī amātus love

All regular verbs of the First Conjugation follow this model. pōtō pōtāre pötāvī pōtus $(\S 114,2)$ drink
II. Perfect in -uī.

| crepō | crepāre | crepuī | crepitürus | rattle |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cubō | cubāre | cubuī | cubitūrus | lie down |
| domō | domāre | domuī | domitūrus | tamc |
| cō | fricāre | fricuī | frictus and fricātus | rub |
| micō | micāre | micuī | -_ | glitter |
| dīmicō | dīmicāre | dīmicāvì | dīmicātum (est) ${ }^{1}$ | fight |
| ex-plicō | explicäre | explicāvī (-uī) | explicātus (-itus) | unfold |
| im-plicō | implicāre | implicāvī (-uī) | implicātus (-itus) | entw |
| secō | secāre | secuī | sectus | cut |
| nō | sonāre | sonuī | sonātưrus | sound |
| tonō | tonāre | nui |  | thunder |
| vetō | vetāre | vetuī | vetitus | forbic |

iII. Perfect in -İ with Lengthening of the Stem Vowel. juvō juvāre jūvī jūtus help lavō lavāre lāvī lautus wash

## IV. Deponents.

These are a" regular, and follow mîror, mīrār̄̄, mīrātus sum.

## Second ( $\bar{E}$-) Conjugation.

121. I. Perfect in -vī.

| dēleō | dēlēre | dēlēvì | dêlētus | destroy |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| fleō | flëre | flêvì | flêtus | weep, lament |
| com-pleō ${ }^{2}$ | complêre | complēvī | complêtus | fill up |
| aboleō | abolēre | abolē vi | abolitus | destroy |
| cieō ${ }^{\text {t }}$ | ciêre | cīvi | citus | set in motion |

[^22]

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


List of the Most Important Verbs.
Note 2. - The following are used only in the Present System :-
aveō
fıīgeō
immineō
maereō
polleō
$<$

| avēre <br> frïgēre <br> imminēre <br> maerēre <br> pollēre | - | - |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | and others. |  |



## III. Perfect in -sī.

| augeō | augēre | auxī | auctus | increase |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| torqueō | torquēre | torsī | tortus | twist <br> indulgeō |
| indulgēre | indulsī | - | indulge |  |
| lūceō | lūcēre | lūxī | - | be light |
| lūgeō | lūgēre | lūxī | - | mourn |
| jubeō | jubēre | jussī | jussus | order |
| per-mulceō | permulcēre | permulsī | permulsus | soothe |
| rīdeō | rīdēre | rīsī | rīsum (est) | laugh |
| suādeō | suādēre | suāsī | suāsum (est) | advise |
| abs-tergeō | abstergēre | abstersī | abstersus | wiphe off |
| ārdeō | ārdēre | ārsī | ārsūrus | burn |
| haereō | haerēre | haesī | haesūrus | stick |
| maneō | manēre | mānsī | mānsūrus | stay |
| algeō | algēre | alsī | - | be cold |
| fulgeō | fulgēre | fulsī | - | gleam |
| urgeō | urgēre | ursī | - | press |

\[

\]

V. Perfect in -і̄ with Lengthening of Stem Vowel.
caveō faveō foveō moveō paveō sedeō videō voveō

| cavēre | cāvī |
| :--- | :--- |
| favēre | fāvī |
| fovēre | fōvī |
| movēre | mōvī |
| pavēre | pāvī |
| sedēre | sēdī |
| vidēre | vīdī |
| vovēre | vōvī |


| cautūrus | take care |
| :--- | :--- |
| fautūrus | favor |
| fōtus | cherish |
| mōtus | move |
| - | fear |
| sessūrus | sit |
| vīsus | see |
| vōtus | vozv |

Vi. Perfect in -İ without either Reduplication or Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

| ferveō | fervēre | fervī (ferbuī) |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| prandeō | prandēre <br> strīdeō | prandī <br> strīdēre | strī̄ī | prānsus (§ 114, 2) $)$ | | boil |
| :--- |
| lunch |
| creak |

VII. Deponents.

| liceor | licērī | licitus sum |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| polliceor | pollicērī | pollicitus sum | bid |
| mereor | merērī | meritus sum | promise |
| misereor | miserērī | miseritus sum | earn |
| vereor | verērī | veritus sum | pity |
| fateor | fatērī | fassus sum | fear |
| cōnfiteor | cōnfitērī | cōnfessus sum | confess |
| reor | rērī | ratus sum | confess |
| medeor | medērī | - | think |
| tueor | tuērī |  |  |
|  |  |  | heal |
|  |  |  | protect |

## Third (Consonant) Conjugation.

122. I. Verbs with Present Stem ending in a Consonant.
I. Perfect in -sì.
a. Type -б̈, -ěre, -sī, -tus.

| carpō | carpere | carpsī | carptus | pluck |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sculpō | sculpere | sculpsī | sculptus | chisel |
| rēpō | rēpere | rēpsī | - | creep |
| serpō | serpere | serpsī | - | crawl |
| scrībō | scrībere | scrīpsī | scrīptus | write |
| nūbō | nūbere | nūpsī | nūpta (woman only) | marry |
| regō | regere | rēxī | rēctus | govern |

List of the Most Important Verbs.

| tegō | tegere | tēxī |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| af-fligō | affligere | afflixī |
| + dīcō | dicere | dīxī |
| dūcō | dūcere | dūxī |
| coquō | coquere | coxī |
| trahō | trahere | trāxī |
| vehō | vehere | vexi |
| cingō | cingere | cinxī |
| tingō | tingere | tīnxī |
| jungō | jungere | jūnxī |
| fingō | fingere | finxī |
| pingō | pingere | pīnxī |
| stringō | stringere | strinxī |
| -stinguō ${ }^{1}$ | -stinguere | -stin in $^{\text {a }}$ |
| unguō | unguere | ūnxī |
| vīvō | vīvere | vīxī |
| gerō | gerere | gessī |
| ūrō | ürere | ussì |
| temnō | temnere | con-tempsī |


| tēctus | cover |
| :--- | :--- |
| afflictus | shatter |
| dictus | say |
| ductus | lead |
| coctus | cook |
| trāctus | draw |
| vectus | carry |
| cinctus | gird |
| tīnctus | dip |
| jūnctus | join |
| fīctus | mould |
| pīctus | paint |
| strīctus | bind |
| -stinctus | blot out |
| ūnctus | anoint |
| vīctum (est) | live |
| gestus | carry |
| ustus | burn |
| con-temptus | despise |

b. Type -б̄, -ĕre, -sī, -sus.

| fīgō | figere | fīxī | fīxus | fasten |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mergō | mergere | mersī | mersus | sink |
| spargō | spargere | sparsī | sparsus | scatter |
| flectō | flectere | flexī | flexus | bend |
| nectō | nectere | nexuī (nexī) | nexus | twine |
| mittō | mittere | mīsī | missus | send |
| rādō | rādere | rāsī | rāsus | shave |
| rōdō | rōdere | rōsī | rōsus | gnaw |
| vādō | vādere | -vāsī 2 | -vāsum (est) ${ }^{2}$ | march, walk |
| lūdō | lūdere | lūsī | lūsum (est) | play |
| trūdō | trūdere | trūsī | trūsus | puesh |
| laedō | laedere | laesī | laesus | injure, hurt |
| claudō | claudere | clausī | clausus | close |
| plaudō | plaudere | plausī | plausum (est) | clap |
| explōdō | explōdere | explōsī | explōsus | hoot off |
| cēdō | cēdere | cessī | cessum (est) | withdrau |
| dīvidō | dīvidere | dīvisī | dīvīsus | divide |
| premō | premere | pressī | pressus | press |

[^23]2. Perfect in $-\mathbf{i}$ with Reduplication.

| ab-dō | abdere | abdidī | abditus | conceal |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| red-dō | red-dere | reddidī | redditus | return |

* So addō, condō, dḕdō, perdō, prödō, trādō, etc.

| cōn-sistō <br> resistō | cōnsistere | cōnstitī |  | take one's stand |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| circumsistō | resistere | restit |  | resist |
| cadō | circumsistere | circumstetī |  | surround |
| $\chi^{\text {caedō }}$ | caedere | ce | cāsūrus | fall |
| ¢ pendō | pendere | cecidi | caesus | kill |
| tendō | pendere | pependi | pēnsus | weigh, pay |
| ndō | tundere | teten | tentus | stretcin |
| fallō | fallere | tutudi <br> fefelli | tūsus, tūnsus | beat |
| pellō |  | fefelli | (falsus, as Adj.) | deceive |
| rrō | currere | 1 | pulsus | drive out |
| parcō | parcere | currí | cursum (est) | run |
| canō | canere | ce | parsūrus | spare |
| tangō | tangere |  |  | sing |
| pungō | pungere | pupugì | pūnctus | touch |

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

| per-cellō | percellere | perculī | perculsus | strike down |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| findō | findere | fidī | fissus | - split |
| scindō | scindere | scidī | scissus | tear apaít |
| tollō | tollere | sus-tulī | sublātus | remove |

3. Perfect in $-\bar{i}$ with Lengthening of Stem-Vowel.

| agō | agere | ēgī | āctus | drive, do |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| peragō | peragere | perēgī | perāctus | finish |
| subigō | subigere | subēgī | subāctus | subdue |
| cōgō | cōgere | coēgī | coāctus | force, gather |
| frangō | frangere | frēgī | frāctus | break |
| perfringō | perfringere | perfrēgī | perfrāctus | break down |
| legō | legere | lēgī | lēctus | gather, read |
| perlegō | perlegere | perlēgī | perlēctus | read through |
| colligō | colligere | collēḡ̄ | collēctus | collect |
| dēligō | dēligere | dēlēgī | dēlēctus | choose |
| dīligō | dīligere | dī'ēxī | dīlēctus | love |
| intellegō | intellegere | intellēxī | intellēctus | understand |
| neglegō | neglegere | neglēxi | neglēctus | neglect |


| emō | emere | ēmì | èmptus | buy |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| coèmō | coëmere | coēmī | coėmptus | buy up |
| redimō | redimere | redèmī | redēmptus | buy back |
| dirimō | dirimere | dirēmī | dirēmptus | destroy |
| dēmō | dēmere | dēmpsi | dēmptus | take away |
| sūmō | sümere | sūmpsī | sūmptus | take |
| prōmō | promere | prōmpsí | (prōmptus, as Adj.) | take out |
| vincō | vincere | vicī | victus | conquer |
| re-linquō | relinquere | relīquī | relictus | leave |
| rum;ō | rumpere | rūpī | ruptus | break |
| edō | edere | èdī | ēsus | eat |
| fundō | fundere | fūdī | fūsus | pour |

4. Perfect in $-\bar{i}$ without either Reduplication or Lengthening of Stem-Vowel.
$\left.\left.\begin{array}{lllll}\text { excūdō } & \text { excūdere } & \text { excūdī } & \text { excūsus } & \begin{array}{l}\text { hammer } \\ \text { cōnsīdō }\end{array} \\ \text { cōnsīdere } & \text { cōnsēdī } & - & \left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { take one's } \\ \text { seat }\end{array}\right. \\ \text { possīdō } & \text { possīdere } & \text { possēdī } & \text { possessus } & \left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { take posscs- } \\ \text { sion }\end{array}\right. \\ \text { accendō } & \text { accendere } & \text { accendī } & \text { accēnsus } & \text { kindle }\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{lll}\text { climb }\end{array}\right\}$
5. Perfect in -uī.
in-cumbō incumbere incubuī gignō gīgnere molō molere vomō vomere fremō fremere gemō gemere metō

| tremere | cremuī |
| :--- | :--- |
| strepere | strepuī |
| alere | aluī |
| colere | coluī |
| incolere | incoluī |
| excolere | excoluī |
| cōnsulere | cōnsuluī |
| cōnserere | cōnseruī |
| dēserere | dēseruī |
| disserere | disseruī |
| texere | texuī |


| - | tremble <br> rattle |
| :--- | :--- |
| altus (alitus) | nourish <br> cultivate <br> cultus |
| inhabit |  |
| excultus | perfect <br> cōnsultus <br> consult |
| dēsertus | join |
| desertus | destus <br> discourse <br> weave |

6. Perfect in -vi.

7. Used only in Present System.
angō
lambō
claudō
furō
vergō
angere

and a few others
III. Verbs with Present Stem ending in -I.

| cupiō | cupere | cupivī | cupitus | wish |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sapiō | sapere | sapīvī |  | taste |
| rapiō | rapere | rapuī | raptus | snatch |
| dīripiō | dīripere | dīripuī | dīreptus | plunder |
| cōnspiciō | cōnspicere | cōnspexī | cōnspectus | gaze at |
| aspiciō | aspicere | aspexi | aspectus | behold |
| illiciō | illicere | illexi | illectus | allure |
| pelliciō | pellicere | pellexī | pellectus | allure |
| êliciō | ēlicere | êlicuī | èlicitus | elicit |
| quatió | quatere |  | quassus | shake |
| concutiō | concutere | concussī | concussus | shake |
| pariō | parere | peperī | partus | bring forth |
| capiō | capere | cēpī | captus | take |
| accipiō | accipere | accēpī | acceptus | accept |
| incipiō | incipere | incēpī | inceptus | begin |
| fació | facere | fēcī | factus | make |
| afficiō | afficere | affēcī | affectus | affect |

Passive, afficior, afficī, affectus sum.

So other prepositional compounds, perjiciō, perficior; interficiõ, intelficior; efc. Butassuêfacere Pussive ussuētiō, assuēfieri, assuēfuctus sum.
So also patefaciō, patefió; calefacio, calefiō; and all not -prepositional compounds.

| jaciō | jacere | jēcī | jactus | hurl |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| abiciō | abicere | abjēcī | abjectus | throw ıway |
| foctiō | fodere | fōchī | fossus | clig |
| fugiō | fugere | fūgī | fugitūrus | flee |
| effugiō | effugere | effūgī | - | escape |

IV. Verbs in -scō.

1. Verbs in -scō from Simple Roots.

2. Verbs in -sco formed from other Verbs.

These usually have Inchoative or Inceptive meaning (see § 155. I). When they have the Perfect, it is the same as that of the Verbs from which they are derived. flōrēscō flōrēscere
scīscō
ārēscō calēscō cōnsenēscō extimēscō ingemiscō adhaerēscō
sciscere
ārēscere calēscere cōnsenēscere extimēscere
ingemīscere adhaerēscere
flōruī
scīvī
āruī
caluī
cōnsenuī extimuī
ingemuī
adhaesī

| begin to bloomn | (fōrē̄) |
| :--- | :--- |
| enact | (sciō) |
| become dry | (āreō) |
| become hot | (calē̄) |
| grozv old | (seneō) |
| fear greatly | (timeō) |
| sigh | (gemō) |
| stick | (haerē̄) |

erficior:
morio
adipīscor adipīscī
comminisscor comminiscï reminīscor reminīscī nanciscor nancīscī nāscor nū acī
oblīvīscor oblīvīscī pacīscor pacīscì proficīscor proficiescì ulē:scor ulcīscī īrāscor īrāscī vescor vescī

| fünctus sum | perform |
| :--- | :--- |
| questus sum | complain |
| locūtus sum | speak |
| secūtus sum | follow |
| fruitūrus | enjov |
| perfrūctus surn | thoroughly eifjoy |
| lāpsus sum | glide |
| amplexus sum | elnbrace |
| nisus sum, nixus sum | strive |
| gressus sum | walk |
| passus sum | suffer |
| perpessus sum | endure |
| ūsus sum | use |
| mortuus sum | die |
| adeptus sum | acauire |
| commentus sum | invent |
|  | reinember |
| nanctus (nactus) sum | acquire |
| nātus sum | be born |
| oblītus sum | forget |
| pactus sum | covenant |
| profectus sum | set out |
| ultus sum | avenge |
| (īrātus, as Adj.) | be angry |

## Fourth Conjugation.

123. I. Perfect ends in -VĪ.
audiō audīre audīvī audītus hear
So all regular Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. sepeiiō sepelīre sepelīvī sepultus bury

## Inflections.

II. Pfrfect ends in -Ū̄.

| aperiō | aperīre | aperū̄ | apertus | open |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| operiō | operīre | operū̄ | opertus | cover |
| saliō | salīre | saluī | - | leap |

III. Perfect ends in -sī̀.

| saepiō | saepīre | saepsī | saeptus | hedge in |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sanciō sancīre sānxī | sānctus <br> vinciō | vincīre | vinxī | vinctus |

IV. Perfect in - $\overline{\mathbf{I}}$, with Lengthening of Stem Vowel. veniō venīre adveniō inveniō invenīre

| vènī | ventum (est) | come |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| advēnī | adventum (est) | arrive |
| invēnī | inventus | find |

V. Perfect with Loss of Reduplication.

| reperiō | reperīre | repperī | repertus | find |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| comp $i \bar{o}$ | comperīre | comperī | compertus | learn |

VI. Used only in the Present.
feriō ēsuriō
ferīre
ēsurīre


## VII. Deponents.

largior largīri
So many others.

| experior | experī̄̄̄ |
| :--- | :--- |
| opperior | opperīrī |
| ōrdior | ōrdī̄̄̄ |
| orior | orīrī |

largitus sum

| expertus sum | try |
| :--- | :--- |
| oppertus sum | await |
| ōrsus sum | begin |
| ortus sum | arise |

Orior also admits forms of the Third Conjugation; as, oreris, orttur, orimur ; orerer (Imp. Subj.); orere (Imper.).

| mētior | mētīrī | mēnsus sיm | measure |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| assentior | assentīrī | assēnsus sum | assent |

## IRREGULAR VERBS.

124. A number of Verbs are called Irregular. The most important are sum, đō, edō, ferō, volō, nōlō, mālō, eō, fīo. The peculiarity of these Verbs is that they append the personal endings in many forms directly to the stem, instead of employing a connecting vowel, as fer-s (2d Sing. of fer- $\overline{\text { ) }}$ instead of fer-is. They are but the relics of what was once in Latin a laice class of Verbs.
125. The Inflection of sum has already been given. Its various compounds are inflected in the same way. They are -
absum
adsum
dēsum insum intersum praesum
obsum prōsum subsum supersum
abesse āfū̄ Pres. Partic. absēns ( adesse adfuī am
deesse dēfuī an lacking inesse interesse praeesse
āfuī am absent
(absentis), absent.
dēfuī
īntuī
interfuī praefuī am in charge of Pres. Partic. praesēns (praesentis) present.

Note.-Prōsum is compounded of prōd (earlier form of prō) and sum; the $\mathbf{d}$ disappears before consonants, as prōsumus, but prōdestis.
126. Possum. In its Present System possum is a compound of pot- (for pote, able) and sum ; potuī is from an obsolete potēre.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
possum, posse, potuī, to be able.
INDICATIVE MOOD.
singular.
Pres. possum, potes, potest ;
Imp. poteram;
Fut. poterō;
Perf. potuī;
Plup. potueram;
Fut. P. potuerō;
plural.
possumus, potestis, possunt. poterāmus.
poterimus. potuimus. potuerāmus. potuerimus.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR.
Pres. possim, possis, possit ; Imp. possem;
Perf. potuerim; Plup. potuissem;

INFINITIVE.
Pres. posse. Perf. potuisse.
plural. possimus, possītis, possint. possēmus. potuerimus. potuissēmus.

PARTICIPLE. Pres. potēns (as an adjective).
127. Dō, I give.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
dō, dăre, dedī, dătus.
Active Voice.
INDICATIVE MOOD.
singular.
Pres. dō, dās, dat;
$I m p$. dăbam, etc.;
Fut. dăbō, etc.;
Perf. dedī;
Plup. dederam;
Fut. P. clederō;
plural.
dămus, dătis, dant.
dăbāmus.
dăbimus.
dedimus.
dederāmus.
dederimus.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. dem;
Imp. dărem;
Perf. dederim;
Plup. dedissem;
dēmus.
dărēnus.
dederimus.
dedissēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. dā;
Fut. dătō;
dătō;
INFINITIVE.
Pres. dăre.
Perf. dedisse.
Fut. dătūrus esse.
GERUND. dandi, etc.
dăte.
dătōte.
dantō.
PARTICIPLE. dāns. dătūrus.

## SUPINE.

dătum, dătū.

1. The Passive is inflected regularly with the short vowel. Thus: dărī, dătur, dăbātur, dărētur, etc.
2. The archaic and poetic forms duim, duint, interduō, perduint, etc., are not from the root da-, but from du-, a collateral root of similar meaning.
3. Edō, $I$ eat. This verb, in addition to its regular inflection, sometimes has duplicate forms in certain tenses of the Present System.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
edō, edere, $\overline{\text { èdi, }}$

Active Voice.
INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. edō
edis, ēs
edit, ēst
edimus editis, ēstis edunt

SUBJINCTIVE.

Imp. ederem, ēssem ederēs, ēssēs ederet, ēsset
ederēmus, ēssēmus
ederētis, ēssētis
ederent, ēssent
IMPERATIVE.
Pres. ede, ēs
Fut. editō, c̄stō
editō, ēstō
edite, ":ste
editōtヶ, ēstōte
eduntō

INFINITIVE.
Pres. edere, ēsse

Passive Voice.
INDICATIVE MOOD.
Pres. 3 d Sing. editur, ēstur

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. $3 d$ Sing. ederētur, ēssētur
I. Observe the long vowel of the abbreviated forms, which alone distinguishes them from the corresponding forms of esse, to be.
2. Note comeđ̄ō, comedere, comēdī, comēsus or comēstus, consume.

> Ferō, I bear.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
ferō,
ferre, tulī,
lātus.

## Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.
Pres. ferō, fers, fert;
$1 m p$. ferēbam;
Fut. feram;
Perf. tulī;
Plup. tuleram;
Fut. P. tulerō;

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. feram;
$I m p$. ferrem;
Perf. . tulerim;
Plup. tulissem;

IMPERATIVE.
Pres. fer;
Fut. fertō;
fertō;

INFINITIVE.
Pres. ferre.
Perf. tulisse.
Fut. lātūrus esse.

GERUND.
Gen. ferendi.
Dat. ferendō.
Acc. ferendum.
Abl. ferendō.
plural. ferimus, fertis, ferunt. ${ }^{1}$ ferābāmus. ferēmus. tulimus. tulerāmus. tulerimus.
ferämus. ferrēmus. tulerimus. tulissēmus.
ferte. fertōte. feruntō.

## PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ferēns.
Fut. lātūrus.

## SUPINE.

${ }^{1}$ It will be observed that not all the forms of fero lack the connecting vowel. Some of them, as ferimus, ferunt, follow the regular inflection of verbs of the
Third Conjugation

## Passive Voice.

feror, ferrī, lātus sum, to be borne.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

singular.
Pres. feror, ferris, fertur;
Imp. ferēbar;
Fut. ferar;
Perf. lātus sum;
Plup. lātus eram;
Fut. P. lātus erō;

PLURAL.
ferimur, feriminī, feruntur. ferēbāmur. ferēmur. lātī sumus. lātī erāmus. lātī erimus.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. ferar;
Imp. ferrer;
Perf. lātus sim;
Plup. lātus essem;
ferāmur.
ferrēmur.
lātī sīmus.
lātī essēmus.

IMPERATIVE.
Pres. ferre;
Fut. fertor; fertor;

INFINITIVE.
Pres. ferrī.
Perf. lātus esse. Perf. lātus.
Fut. lātum īrī. Ger. ferendus.

So also the Compounds -

| afferō | afferre | attulī | allātus | bring toward |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| auferō | auferre | abstulī | ablātus | take away |
| cōnferō | cōnferre | contulī | collātus | compare |
| differō | differre | distulī | dīlātus | put off |
| efferō | efferre | extulī | ēlātus | carry off |
| inferō | īnferre | intulī | illātus | bring against |
| offerō | offerre | obtulī | oblātus | present |
| referō | referre | rettulī | relātus | bring back |

Note. - The forms sustulī and sublätus belong to tollō.
130.

Volō, nర్1ర, mālō.

PRINCIPAL PARTS

| volō, | velle, | volui, | to be willing. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nōlō, | nōlle, | nōluī, | to be unzuilling. |
| mālō, | mālle, | māluī, | to prefer. |

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. volō, vis, vult; volumus, vultis, volunt.
Imp. volēbam.
Fut. volam.
Perf. voluh.
Plup. volueram.
Fut. P. voluerō.
nōlō, nōn vis, nōn vult; nōlumus, nōn vultis, nōlunt. nōlēbam. nōlam. nōluī. nōlueram. nōluerō.

SUBJUNCTIVE.
Pres. velim,-īs,-it, etc. nōlim. Imp. vellem, -ēs, -et, etc. nōllem. Perf. " voluerim.
Plup. voluissem.
hōluerim.
nōluissem.
mālō, māvis, māvult; mālumus, māvultis, mālunt. mālēbam mālam. māluī. mālueram māluerō.
mālim. māllem. māluerim. māluissem.

IMPERATIVE.
Pres. nōlī, nōlīte.
Fut. nōlītō, nōlītōte, nōlītō ; nōluntō.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. velle.
Perf. voluisse.
nōlle.
nōluisse.
mālle. māluisse.

## PARTIC!PLE

Pres. volēns.
nōlēns.

Fī̀.
PRINCIPAL PARTS.
fī̄. fierí, factus sum, to become, be made.
INDICATIVE MOOD.
SINGULAR.
Pres. fīo, fīs, fit;
Imp. fīēbam;
Fut. fīam;
Perf. factus sum;
Plup. factus eram;
Fut. P. factus erō;

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. fīam;
$I m p$. fierem;
Perf. factus sim;
Plup. factus essem;
plúdil.
fïmus, fîtis, fiunt.
fīēbāpus.
fièmus.
factī sumus.
factī erāmus.
factī erimus.
fiāmus.
fierēmus.
factī sīmus.
factī essēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. fī;

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. fierī.
Perf. factus esse. Perf. factus.
Fut. factum īri. Ger. faciendus. :

Note.-A few isolated forms of compounds of fī̃ occur; as, defit, lacks; infit, begins.
132. Eర.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
eō, īre, īvi, itum (est), to go.
INDICATIVE MOOD.
singular.
Pres. eō, ìs, it;
Imp. ibam;
Fut. ībō;
Perf. ivī (iī);
Plup. īveram (ieram);
Fut. P. ìverō (ierō);

PLURAL. imus, itis, eunt.
ībāmus.
ibimus.
ivimus (iimus). īverāmus (ierāmus). ìverimus (ierimus).

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGUIAR.
Pres. eam;
lillp. irem;
lerf. iverim (ierim);
I'Up. ivissem (iissem, issem) ;
iluval.
ciamus.
iremus.
iverimus (ierimus)
ivissēmus (iissēmus, issēmus).

IMPERATIVE.
rres. i;
Fiut. itō;
itō;
infinitive.
Pres. ire.
Perf. ivisse (isse)
Fiut. itūrus esse.
ite.
itōte,
euntō.

GERUND. eundī, etc.

## PARTICIPLE.

P'res. iēns.
(Gen. euntis.)
F'ut. itūrus.

SUPINE. itum, itū.

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

## DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Defective Verbs lack certain forms. The following are the most important : -
133. Used mainly in the Perfect System. Coepi, I have begun.

Memini, $\sqrt{\text { remember }}$.
$\overline{\text { OdI, }} I$ hate.
INDICATIVE MOOD.
Perf. coepī.
Plup. coeperam.
Fut. P. coeperō.

Perf. coeperim.
Plup. coepissem.
memini.
memineram.
meminerō.
SUBJUNCTIVE.
meminerim.
meminissem.
ōdī. ōderam. ōderō.
ōderim. ōdissem.

IMPERATIVE. Sing. mementō ; Plur. mementōte.

INFINITIVE.

Perf. coepisse.
Fiut. coeptūrus essc.

P'erf. coeptus, begrun.
liut. coeptūrus.
ōdisse.
ōsūrus esse.

## PARTICIPLE.

1. When ooepi governs a Passive Infinitive it usually takes the form coeptus est; as, amäri coeptus est, he began to be loved.
2. Note that memini and odif, though Perfect in form, are Present in sense. Similarly the Pluperfect and Future Perfect have the force of the Imperfect and Future ; as, momineram, / remembered; ठdero, $I$ shall hate.
3. Inquam, I say (inserted between words of a direct quotation).

INDICATIVE MOOD.
SINGULAR. PLURAL.
Pres. inquam,
inquis, inquit ;
Fut.
inquiēs, inquiet.
ōsus.
ōsūrus.
135.

Perf. 3d Sing. inquit.

| Pres. | Singular. ājō, | $\xrightarrow{\text { plural. }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ais, |  |
|  | ait; | ājunt. |
| Imp. | ājḕbam, | àjēhãmus, |
|  | àjēbās, | ājēbātis, |
|  | ājēbat; | ājēbant. |
|  | Perf. 3 d Sing. ait. |  |
|  | SUBJUNCTIVE. |  |
|  | Pres. 3 d Sing. ājat. |  |

Note, - For alsne, do you mean $P$ ain is common.

## Inflections.

136. 

Färi, to speak.
This is inflected regularly in the perfect tenses. In the Present System it has -


Note. - Forms of färl are rare. More frequent are its compounds; as, affatur, he addresses; praefämur, we say in advance.
137. Other Defective Forms.
I. Queठ̃, quire, quivi, to be able, and nequeo, nequire, nequivi, to be unable, are inflected like eoठ, but occur chiefly in the Present Tense, and there only in special forms.
2. Quaesol, I entreat; quaesumus, we entreat.
3. Cedo, cette ; give me, tell me.
4. Salvs, salvête, hail. Also Infinitive, salvēre.
5. Havè (avè), havête, hail. Also infinitive, havēre.

## IMPERSONAL VERBS.

138. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English, it snows, it seems, etc. They have no personal subject, but may take an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Neuter Pronoun; as, mé pudet hōc fercisse, lit. it shames me to have done this; hōc decet, this is fitting. Here belong-
I. Verbs denoting operations of the weather; as, -
fulget tonat
fulsit tonuit
it lightens
it thunders

Impersonal Verbs.

| grandinat |  | it hails |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ningit | ninxit | it snows |
| pluit | pluit | it rains |

II. Special Verbs.

| paenitet | paenitēre | paenituit | it repents |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| piget | pigēre | piguit | it grieves |
| pudet | pidēre | puduit | it causes shame |
| aedet | taedēre | taeduit | it disgusts |
| aiseret | miserēre | miseruit | it causes pity |
| Hibet | libēre | libuit | it pleases |
| icet | licēre | licuit | it is lauwful |
| oportet | oportēre | oportuit | it is fitting |
| decet | decēre | decuit | it is becoming |
| dēdecet | dēdecēre | dēdecuit | it is untēoming |
| rēfert | rēferre | rētulit | it concerns |

III. Verbs Impersonal only in Special Senses.

| cōnstat | cōnstāre | cōnstitit | it is evident |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| praestat | praestāre | praestitit | it is better |
| juvat | juvāre | jūvit | it delights |
| appāret | appārēre | appāruit | it appears |
| placet | placēre | placuit (placitum est) | it pleases |
| accēdit | accēdere | accessit | it is added |
| accidit | accidere | accidit | it happens |
| contingit | contingere | contigit | it happens |
| ēvenit | ēvenīre | ēvēnit | it turns out |
| interest | interesse | interfuit | it concerns |

IV. The Passive of Intransitive Verbs; as, -

## ìtur

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

## Part III.

## PARTICLES.

139. Iarticles are the four Parts of Speech that do not admit of inflection; ris. Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Interjections.

## ADVERBS.

140. Most adverbs are in origin case-forms which have become stereotyped by usage. The common adverbial terminations have already been given above ( $\$ 76$ ). The following Table of Correlatives is important: -

Relative and Intrrbogative. ubi, zohere; where?
quö, whither; whither?
ibi, illice, istic, there.
hūc, hither.
©ō, istūc, illūc, thither.
unde, whente; whence? hinc, hence. inde, istinc, illine, thence.
quā, whon': here? hâc, by this way. eã, istāc, illăc, by that way.
nunc, now.
tum, tunc, then.
totiêns, so often.
quotienns, as often as ;
hoze often?
quam, as much as; howe tam, so much. much?

Dumonstrative.
hic, heric.
cum, when.
quandó, when ? -

Indefinite.
alicubi, Usquam, unspiam, somewhere. aliquo, to some place.
alicunde, from somewhere.
aliquă, by some way.
aliquandō, umquam, sometime.
aliquotièns, some number of times.

## PREPOSITIONS.

141. The following Prepositions govern the Accusative: -

| ad | erga | praeter |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| adəersus (adversum) | extră | prope |
| anto | Infra | propter |
| apud | inter | neouadum |
| oiroa | intra | subter |
| oirciter | juxta | super |
| circum | ob | supra |
| ois | penes | trans |
| oitra | per | ultra |
| oontra | pone | versus |
|  | post |  |

1. Üsque is often prefixed to ad, in the sense of even; as, usque ad urbem, even to the cily.
2. Versus always follows its case; as, Rōmam versus, toward liome.
It may be combined with a preceding Preposition; as, ad urbem versus, toward the city.
3. Like prope, the Comparatives propior, propius, and the Superlatives proximus, proximé, sometimes govern the Accusative; as, UbiI proxime Rhernum incolunt, the Ubii dwell next to the Rhine; propius castra hostium, nearer the camp of the enemy.
4. The following Prepositions govern the Ablative:-

| ă, ab, abs | dé | sine |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| absque | é, ex | tenus |
| cōram | prae |  |
| cum | prō |  |

I. $\overline{\mathbf{A}}, \mathbf{a b}$, abs. Before vowels or $\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{a b}$ must be used; before ronsonants we find sometimes $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$, sometimes ab (the latter not before the labials $\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{m}$; nor before $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{q}$, or $\mathbf{t}$ ) ; abs occurs only before $t \mathbf{E}$, and $\mathbf{a}$ is admissible even there.
2. $\overline{\mathbf{E}}$, ex. Before vowels or $\mathbf{h}$, ex must be used; before consomants, we find sometimes $\boldsymbol{E}$, sometimes ex.

## Particles.

3. Tenus regularly follows its case, as pectoribus tenus, up to the breast. It sometimes governs the Genitive, as labiörum tenus, as far as the lips.
4. Cum is appended to the Pronoun of the First and Second Persons, and to the Reflexive Pronoun : usually aiso to the Relative and Interrogative. Thus:-

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { mēcum } & \text { sēcum } \\
\text { tēcum } & \text { quōcum or cum quō } \\
\text { nōbīscum } & \text { ๆuācum or cum quā } \\
\text { vōbiscum } & \text { quibuscum or cum quibus }
\end{array}
$$

143. Two Prepositions, in and sub, govern both the Accusative and the Ablative. With the Accusative they denote motion; with the Ablative, rest; as, in urbem, into the city; in urbe, in the city.
I. Subter and super are also occasionally construed with the Ablative.
144. Relation of Adverbs and Prepositions.
I. Prepositions were originally Adverbs, and many of them still retain their adverbial meaning; as, post, afterwards; ante, previously; contrà, on the other hand, etc.
145. Conversely several words, usually adverbs, are occasionally employed as prepositions; as, -
clam, prīdié, with the Accusative. procul, simul, palam, with the Ablative.
146. Anastrophe. A dissyllabic preposition sometimes follows a relative pronoun which it governs; as, ii, quōs inter erat, those among whom he zvas.

## INTERJECTIONS.

145. Interjections are Particles expressing emotion. They may express -
I. Surprise; as, ên, ecce, ō.
146. Joy ; as, iō, eune.
147. Sorrow and Pain; as, heu, ēheu, vae, prō.
148. Calling; as, heus, eho.

## Part IV.

## WORD-FORMATION.

## I. DERIVATIVES.

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

## A. NOUNS.

## 1. Nouns derived from Verbs.

147. I. The suffix tor (-sor), Fem. -trix, denotes the agent; as, victor, victrix, victor; dēfēnsor, defender.

NOTE. - The suffix -tor is occasionally appended to noun stems; as, gladiātor, gladiator (from gladius).
2. The suffix -or (originally -ōs) denotes an activity or a condition; as, -
amor, iove; timor, fear; dolor, pain.
3. The suffixes -tiō (-siō), Gen. -ōnis, and tus (-sus), Gen. -ūs, denote an action as in process; as, -
vēnātiō, hunting; obsessiō, blockade; gemitus, sighing; cursus, ruinning.
Note. - Rarer endings with the same force are:-
a) -tūra, -sūra: as, -
sepultüra, burial; mēnsūra, measuring.
b) -ium ; as, -
gaudium, rejoicing.
c) -idō, as, -
cupidō, desire.
4. The suffixes -men, -mentum, -crum, -trum, -bulum, -oulum, denote the means or place of an action; as, -
lümen (lūc-s-men), light;
önàmentum, ornament; sepulcrum, graze.
vocābulum, zuord; documentum, proof; arātrum, plough;
vehiculum, carriage.
When the root ends in $c$, the $c$ of the suffix disappears ; as, jaculum for jac-culum (from jaciō).

## 2. Nouns derived from Nouns.

148. I. Diminutives end in -
$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\text {-ulus, } & \text { (-ula, } & \text {-ulum) } \\ \text {-olus, } & \text { (-ola, } & \text {-olum), after a vowel } \\ \text {-culus, } & \text { (-cula, } & \text {-culum) } \\ \text {-ellus, } & \text { (-ella, } & \text {-ellum) } \\ \text {-illus, } & \text { (-illa, } & \text {-illum) }\end{array}\right]$

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

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

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { agellus, field, } & \text { for } & \text { ager-lus; } \\
\text { lapillus, pebble, } & \text { for } & \text { lapid-lus. }
\end{array}
$$

2. The suffix -ium appended to nouns denoting persons designates either a collection of such persons or their function; as, collēgium, a corporation, body of colleagues (collĕga); sacerdōtium, priestly function (sacerdōs).
3. The suffixes -ãrium, -ētum, -īle designate a place where objects are kept or are found in abundance; as, columbãīium, dove-cote (columba);
olīvẽtum, oinvetum, olive-orchard (olīva); ovile,
sheep-fold (ovis).
4. The suffix -atus denotes official position or honor; as, cönsulatus, consulship (cōnsul).
5. The suffix -ina appended to nouns denoting persons designates a vocation or the place where it is carried on; as, -
dootrina, teaching (dootor, teacher);
medicina, the art of healing (medicus," physician); suatrina, cobbler's shop (sâtor, cobbler).
6. Patronymics are Greek proper names denoting son of . . . daughter of. . . . They have the following suffixes:-
a) Masculines: -idēs, -adês, -iđēs; as, Priamidess, son of Priam; Aeneadēs, son of Aeneas; Pēlīềs, son of Peleus.
b) Feminines : -èis, -is, -ias; as, Nèreis, daughter of Nereus; Atlantis, daughter of Atlas; Thaumantias, daughter of Thaumas.

## 3. Nouns derived from Adjectives.

149. The suffixes -täs (-itās), -tūdō (-itūdō), -ia, -itia are used for the formation of abstract nouns denoting qualities; as, bonitās, goodness; celerităs, swiftness; māgnitūdō, greatness; audācia, boldness; amicitia, friendship.
B. ADJECTIVES.
150. Adjectives derived from Verbs.
151. I. The suffixes -bundus and -cundus give nearly the force of a present participle; as, -
tremebundus, trembling; . Irăcundus, wrathful.
152. The suffixes -alx and -ulus denote an inclination or tendency, mostly a faulty one; as, -
loquāx, loquacious; crēdulus, credulous.
153. The suffix -idus denotes a state; as, -
calidus, hot; timidus, timid; cupidus, eager.
154. The suffixes -ilis and -bilis denote capacity or ability, usually in a passive sense; as, -
fragilis, fragile (i.e. capable of being broken); docilis, docile.

## 2. Adjectives derived from Nouns.

a) Liram Common Nouns.
151. 1. The suffixes -ous and -inus are appended to names of substances or materials; as, -
aureus, of sold; ferrous, of iron; fäginus, of beech.
2. The suffixes -ius, -ious, -Ilis, -alis, -ãtis, -ărius, -nus, -anus, -Inus, -Ivus, -onsis signify beloiging to, connected with; as, -
örâtōrius, oratorical;
bellious, pertaining to zoar;
cIvIlis, ciovil;
rēgălin, tegral;
cōusulảris, consular;
circénsis, belonging to the circios.
legiönărius, legionary;
paternus, paternal; urbănus, of the city;
marintus, marine;
aestivus, pertaining to summer;
denote fulluess; as, periculosus, full of danger, aiangerous;
glöriōsus, glorious; opulentus, wealthy.
4. The suffix -tus has the force of provided with; as, barbătus, bearded;
b) From Proper Names.
152. I. Names of persons take the suffixes: -ăuus, -ianuus, -intus ; as, -

Catōuiannus, belonging to Cato; Plautinus, bclonging to Plautus.
2. Names of nations take the suffixes-icus, -ius ; as, Germannicus, German

Thrăcius, Thracian.
3. Names of places take the suffixes -ānus, -Inus, -ĕnsis, -aeus, -fus ; as. -

Rōmãnus, Roman;
Amerinus, of Ameria;

## Athēniēusis, Athenian;

Smyrnaeus, of Sinyrna;
Corinthius, Corinthian.
Note. - -rnus and -ēnsis, appended to names of countries, designate something stationed in the country or connected with it, but not indigenous; as. -
bellum Āfricānum, a zerr (of Romans with Romans) in Africa.

legiōnēs Gallicănae, (Koman) legions stationed in Gaul.

## 3. Adjeotives derived from. Adjeotives.

153. Diminutives in -lus sometimes occur; as, -
parvolun, little; misellus passer, foor little sparrom: pauperculus, needy.
154. Adjectives derived from Adverbs.
155. These end in -ernus, -ternus, -tinus, -tinus ; as, -

| hodiernus, | of to-day | (hodies); |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hesternus, | of yesterdiy | (heri); |
| intestinus, | internal | (intus); |
| diatinus, | long-lasting | (dia). |

## C. VERBS.

## 1. Verbs derived from Verbs.

155. I. Inceptives or inchoatives. These end in -sooz, and are formed from Present Stems. They denote the beginning of an action; as, -

| labāscō, | begrin to totter | (from labō); |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| horrēsco, | grozu rough | (from horreō); |
| tremēscō, | beģin to tremble | (from tremō); |
| obdormiscō, | fall asleep | (from dormió). |

2. Frequentatives or Intensives. These denote a repeated or energetic action. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in to or -soo. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in -itō (not -ātō, as we should expect). Examples of Frequentatives are -
jactō, toss about, brandish (from jaciō, hurl); cursō, runhither and thither (from currō, run); volitō, flit about (from volō, $\rho l y)$.
a. Some double Frequentatives occur; as, $\begin{array}{lll}\text { cantitō, } & \text { sing over and over } & \text { (cantठ̄); } \\ \text { cursitō, } & \text { keep running about } & \text { (cursō); } \\ \text { ventitō, } & \text { keep coming. } & \end{array}$
b. agito, set in motion, is formed from the Present Stem.
3. Desideratives. These denote a desire to do something. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -uriö ; as, Osurio, desire to eat, am hungry
parturiō, zoant to bring forth, amt in labor (edor);
(pario).

## 2. Verbs derived from Nouns and Adjectives (Denominatives).

156. Denominatives of the First Conjugation are mostly transitive, those of the Second exclusively intransitive. Those of the Third and Fourth Conjugations are partly transitive, partly intransitive. Exam.ples are -
a) From Nouns:-

| fraudō, | defraud | (fraus); |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| vestiō, | cloihe | (vestis); |
| fiōred, | bloom | (flōs). |

b) From Adjectives :-

| līberō, free | (līber); |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| saeviō, | be fierce | (saevus). |

## D. ADVERBS.

157. I. Adverbs derived from verbs are formed from the Participial Stem by means of the suffix -im; as, -

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { certātim, } & \text { emulously } & \text { (certō); ; } \\
\text { cursim, } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { in haste }
\end{array} & \text { (currō); } \\
\text { statim } & \text { innmediately } & \text { (stठ̄). }
\end{array}
$$

2. Adverbs derived from nouns and adjectives are formed : -
a) With the suffixes -tim (-sim), -ătim; as, -
gradătim, step by step;
paulătim, gradually; virītim, man by man.
b) With the suffix -tus; as, -
antíquitus, of old; rādīcitus, from the roots.
c) With the suffix -ter; as, breviter, briefly.

## II. COMPOUNDS.

158. I. Compounds are formed by the union of simple words. The second member usually contains the essential meaning of the compound; the first member expresses some modification of this.
159. Vowel changes often occur in the process of composition. Thus:-
a. In the second member of compounds. (See §7. i.)
b. The final vowel of the stem of the first member of the compound often appears as 1 where we should expect $\varnothing$ or $\begin{aligned} & \text { a ; }\end{aligned}$ sometimes it is dropped altogether, and in case of consonant stems $\mathbf{Y}$ is often inserted; as, -
signifer, standard-bearer;
tubicen, trumpeter;
măgnanimus, high-minded;
mätrioIda, matricide.
160. Examples of Compounds.
I. Nouns:-
a) Preposition + Noun; as, -
dē-decus, disgrace;
pro-avus, great-grandfather.
b) Noun + Verb Stem; as, -
agri-cola, farmer ;
frātri-cIda, fratricide.
161. Adjectives: -
a) Preposition + Adjective (or Noun) ; as, -
per-māgnus, very great;
sub-obscūrus, rather obscure;
ä-mēns, frantic.
b) Adjective + Noun; as, -măgn-animus, great-hearted; miseri-cors, compassionate.
c) Noun + Verb Stem; as, -parti-ceps, sharing;
morti-fer, death-dealing.
162. Verbs:-

The second member is always a verb. The first may be-
a) A Noun; as, -
aedi-ficö, build.
b) An Adjective ; as, -
ampli-ficō, enlarge.
c) An Adverb; as, -
male-dicoor, rail at.
d) Another Verb; as, -cale-faciō, make warm.
e) A Preposition; as, ab-jungō, detach; re-ferō, bring back; dis-cernō, distinguish; ex-spectō, azvait.

Note. - Here belong the so-called Inseparable Prepositions:-ambi- (amb-), around; dis- (dir-, dī), apart, asunder; por- forward; red- (re-), back; sēd- (seè-), apart from; vē-, without.
4. Adverbs:-

These are of various types; as, -
anteā, before; Ilico (in locō), on the spot; imprīmīs, especially; obviam, in the way.

## Part V.

## SYNTAX.


160. Syntax treats of the use of words in sentences.

> Сhapter I. --Sentences.

## CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

161. Sentences may be classified as follows :-
i. Declarative, which state something; as, puer soribit, the boy is writing.
162. Interrogative, which ask a question ; as, quid puer scribit, what is the boy writix!g?
163. Exclamatory, which are in the form of an exclamation; as, quot librōs scrīit, how many books he writes!
164. lmperative, which express a command or an admonition ; as, scribe, write!

## FORM OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

162. Questions may be either Word-Questions or Sen-tence-Questions.
I. Word-Questions. These are introduced by the various interrogative pronouns and adverbs; such as - quis, qui, quălis, quantus, quot, quotiēns, quō, quā, etc. Thus :guis venit, who comes? quam diul manêbit, how long will he stay?

## Syntax.

2. Sentence-Questions. These are introduced -
a) By nōnne implying the answer 'yes'; as, nönne vidēs, do you not see?
b) By num implying the answer ' $n o$ '; as, num expectās, do you expect? (i.e. you don't expect, do you?)
c) By the enclitic -ne, appended to the emphatic word, and simply asking for information; as, vidēsne, do you see?
A question introduced by -ne may receive a special implication from the context ; as, sênsistine, did you not perceive?
d) Sometimes by no special word, particularly in expressions of surprise or indignation; as, -
tü in jūdicum cōnspectum venīre audess, do you dare to come into the presence of the judges?
3. Rhetorical Questions. Questions are sometimes such merely in form, being employed to express an emphatic assertion; as, quis dubitat, who doubts? ( $=$ no one doubts).
4. Double Questions. Double Questions are introduced by the following particles:-
```
utrum . . . an;
-ne . . . . . an;
- . . . . an.
```

If the second member is negative, annōn (less often neone) is used. Examples:honestum est an turpe, suntne di annōn, are there gods or not?
a. By an ellipsis of the first member, an sometimes stands alone. Its force depends upon the context ; as, -
$\bar{A}$ rêbus gerendis abstrahit senectüs. Quibus? An eis quae juventulte geruntur et viribus? Old age (it is alleged) withdraws men from active pursuits. From what pursuits? Is it not merely from those which are performed by the strength of youth?
5. Answers.
a. The answer Yes is expressed by ita, etiam, vērō, utiquue,
sâne, or by repetition of the verb; as,'visne locum matermus?' 'sânee.' 'Shall we change the place?' 'Certainly. 'estisne vōs leggăti?' 'simus.' 'Are you envoys?' 'Yes.'
b. The answer No is expressed by nōn, minimes, minimê verrō, or by repeating the verb with a negative ; as, 'jam ea praeteriit ?' 'nōn.' 'Has it passed?' 'No.' 'estne frâter intus?' 'nōn est.' '/s your brother within?' ' No.'

## sUbJECT AND PREDICATE.

163. The two essential parts of a sentence are the Subject and Predicate.

The Subject is that concerning which somethes $r$ is said, asked, etc. The Predicate is that which is saia', asked, etc., concerning the Subject.

## SIMPLE AND CCMPOUND SENTENCES.

164. Sentences containing but one Subject and one Predicate are called Simple Sentences, those containing more are called Compound Sentences. Thus puer librös legit, the boy reads books, is a Simple Sentence; but puer librōs legit et epistulăs soribit, the boy reads books and writes letters, is a Compound Sentence. The different members of a compound Sentence are called Clauses.
165. Coördinate and Subordinate Clauses. Clauses which stand upon an equality are called Coördinate; a Clause dependent upon another is called Subordinate. Thus in puer librös legit et epistulas soribit the two clauses are Coördinate; but in puer librose legit quös pater scribit, the boy reads the books which his father writes, the second clause is Subordinate to the first.

## Chapter II. - Syntax of Nouns.

SUBJECT.
166. The Subject of a Finite Verb (i.e. any form of the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative) is in the Nominative Case.
I. The Subject may be -
a) A Noun or Pronoun; as, -
puer sorIbit, the boy wurites;
hio sorlbit, this man writes.
b) An Infinitive; as, -
decōrum est prơ patriā mori, to die for one's country is a noble thing.
c) A Clause ; as, -
opportūnē accidit quod vènisti, it happened opportinely that you arrized.
2. A Personal Pronoun as Subject is usually implied in the Verb, and is not separately expressed; as, sorlbos, / write ; videt, he sees.
a. But for the purpose of emphasis or contrast the Pronoun is expressed; as, -
ego scrībō et tū legis, I write, and you read.
3. The verb is sometimes omitted when it can be easily supplied from the context, especially the auxiliary sum; as, rēctē ille (sc. facit), he does rightly; cōnsul profectus (sc. est), the consul set out.

## PREDICATE NOUNS.

167. A Predicate Noun is one connected with the Subject by some form of the verb sum or a similar verb.
168. A Predicate Noun agrees with its Subject in Case; ${ }^{1}$ as, -
${ }^{1}$ For the Predicate Genitive see $\$ \oint 198,3 ; 203,5$.

## Predicate Nouns. - Appositives.

Cicerō örātor fuit, Cicero was an orator; Numa creatus est rexx, Numa was elected hing.

1. When possible the Predicate Noun usually agrees with its Subject in Ciender also; as, -
philosophia est vitae magistra, philosophy is the guide of life.
2. Besides sum the verbs most frequently accompanied by a Predicate Noun are -
a) fiō, êvādō, existō ; maneठ̄ ; videor; as, -

Croesus uōn semper mānsit rēx, Croesus did not always remain king.
b) Passive verbs of making, calling, regarding, etc.; as, creor, appellor, habeor: as, -
Rōmulus rēx appellătus est, Romulus zuas called king; habitus est deus, he was regarded as a god.

## APPOSITIVES.

169. I. An Appositive is a Noun explaining or defining another Noin denoting the same person or thing ; as, Cicerö connsul, Cicero, the Consul; urbes Röma, the city Rome.
170. An Appositive agrees with its Subjec ${ }^{+}$in Case ; as, opera Cicerōnis örātōris, the works of Cicero, the orator; apud Hërodotum, patrem historiae, in the works of Herodotus, the father of history.
171. When possible the Appositive agrees with its Subject in Gender also ; as, -
assentātiō adjūtrīx vitiōrum, flattery, the promoter of evils.
172. A Locative may take in Apposition the Ablative of urbs or oppidum, with or without a preposition; as, -
Corinthī, urbe praeclārā, or in urbe praeclārā, at Corinth, a famous city.
173. Partitive Apposicion. A Noun denoting a whole is frequently followed by an Appositive denoting a part ; as, -
militēs, fortissimus quisque, hostibus restitērunt, the soldiers, all the bravest of them, resisted the enemy.

## Syntax.

## THE CASES.

## THE NOMINATIVE.

170. The Nominative is confined to its use as Subject, Appositive, or Predicate Noun, as already explained. See §§ 166-169.

THE VOCATIVE.
171. The Vocative is the Case of direct address; as, crēdite mihi, jüdicēs, believe me, judges.
I. By a species of attraction, the Nominative is occasionally used for the Vocative, especially in poetry and formal prose; as, audi tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban people!
2. Similarly the Appositive of a Vocative may, in poetry, stand in the Nominative; as, năte, mea măgna potentia sollus, $O$ son, alone the source of my great power.

## THE ACCUSATIVE.

172. The Accusative is the Case of the Direct Object.
173. The Direct Object may express either of the two following relations :-
> A. The Person or Thing Affected by the action; as, cōnsulem interfercit, he slew the consul; . lego librum, I read the book.

> B. The Result Produced by the action; as, librum scrīpsī, I wrote a book (i.e. produced one); templum struit, he constructs a temple.
174. Verbs that admit a Direct Object of either of these two types are Transitive Verbs.
a. Verbs that regularly take a Direct Object are sometimes used without it. They are then said to be employed absolutely; as, -
rūmor est meum guătum amāre, it is rumored that my son is in love.

Accusative of the Person or Thing Affected.
175. I. This is the most frequent use of the Accu-
parentēs amāmus, we love our parents; mare aspicit, he gazes at the sea.
2. The following classes of Verbs taking an Accusative of this kind are worthy of note:-
a) Many Intransitive Verbs, when compounded with a Preposition, become Transitive. Thus:-
i) Compounds of circum, praeter, trāns; as, hostēs circumstāre, to surround the enemy; urbem praeterīre, to pass by the city; mūrōs trānscendere, to climb over the walls.
2) Less frequently, compounds of ad, per, in, sub; as, adire urbem, to visit the city; peragrāre Italiam, to travel through Italy; inīre magistrātum, to take office; subīre perīculum, to undergo danger.
b) Many Verbs expressing emotions, regularly Intransitive, have also a Transitive use; as, queror fātum, I lament my fate; doleō ējus mortem, I grieve at his death; rīdeō tuam stultitiam, I laugh at your folly.
So also lūgeō, maereō, mourn; gemō, bemoan; horreō, shudder, and others.
c) The impersonals decet, it becomes; dedecet, it is unbecoming; juvat, it pleases, take the Accusative of the Person Affected; as, -
mee dece haec dicere, it becomes me to say this.
d) In poetry many Passive Verbs, in imitation of Greek usage, are employed as Middles ( $\S 256, \mathrm{I} ; 2$ ), and take the Accusative as Object ; as, -
galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet;
cinctus tempora hederā, having bound his temples with ivy;
nōdō sinūs collëcta, having gathered her dress in a knot.

## Accusative of the Result Produced.

176. I. The ordinary type of this Accusative is seen in such expressions as -
librum scribos, / aurite a book; domum aedificō, I build a house.
177. Many Verbs usually Intransitive take a Neuter Pronoun, or Adjective used as an Accusative of Result. Thas:-
a) A Neuter Pronoun; as, -
haec gemēbat, he made these mogns; illud glörior, I make this boast; eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes.
b) A Neuter Adjective, - particularly Adjectives of number ot amount, - multum, multa, omnia, panca, ctc.; as, -
multa dubits, I have manty douhts; pauca studet, he has ferv interests; multum valet, he has great stringth; nihil prögreditur, he makes no progress.
Note. - In poetry other Adjectives are freely used in this construction; as, minitantem vãne, making vain threats; acerbe tuēns, gizing a ferce look; dulce loquentem, sivectly talking.
178. The adverbial use of several Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives grows out of this Accusative ; as, -
multum sunt in vēnātionne, they are much engaged in hunting.
a. So also plūrimum, very sreatly; plērumque, generally; aliquid, somizohat; quid, why? nikil, not at all; ctc.
179. Sometimes an Intransitive Verb takes an Accusative of Result which is of kindred etymology with the Verb. This is called a Cognate Accusative, and is usually molified by an Adjective; as, sempiternam servitūtem serviat. let hint serve an everlasting slavery; vitam dūram vixi, I have lived a hard life.
a. Sometines the Cognate Accusative is not of kindred etymology, but merely of kindred meaning; as, -
stadium currit, he runs a race;
Olympia vincit, he wins an Olympic victory.
180. The Accusative of Result occurs also after Verbs of tasting and smelling; as.-
piscis mare sapit, the fish tastes of the sea;
ōrâtiōnēs antĩquitatem redolent, the speeches smack of the past.

Two Accusativen - Direot Objeot and Predioate Acousative.
177. 1. Many Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Showing, and the like, take two Accusatives, one of the Person or Thing Affected, the other a Predicati Accusative; as, mē hērēdem fêcit, he made me heir.
Here mẽ is Direct Object, hērēdem Predicate Accusative.
So also -
eum judicom cēpēre, they took him as judge;
urbem Rōmam vocāvit, he called the city Rome; sē virum praestitit, he showed himself a man.
2. The .Predicate Accusative may be an Adjective as well as a Noun; as,--
hominēs caecōs reddit cupiditās, covetonesness renders men blind; Apollō sōcratem sapientissimum jūdicāvit, Apollo adjudged Socrates the wisest man.
a. Some Verbs, as reddö, ustally admit only an Adjective as the Predicate Accusative.
3. In the Passive the Direct Object becomes the Subject, and the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nôminative ; as, urbs Rōma vocāta est, the city zuas called Rome.
a. Not all Verbs admit the Passive construction; reddō and effció, for example, never take it.

## Two Accusatives - Person and Thing.

178. I. Some Verbs take two Accusatives, one of the Person Affected, the other of the Result Produced. Thus:-
a) Verbs of requesting and demanding, as, ōtium divōs rogat, he asks the gods for rest; mẻ duās ōrātiōnēs postulās, you demand two speeches of me.

So also örō, poscō, reposcō, exposcō, fiăgitō, though some of these prefer the Ablative with ab to the Accusative of the Person; as, opem a tê poscō, I demand aid of you.
b) Verbs of teaching (doceō and its compounds); as, tę litterăs doceō, $I$ teach you your letters.
c) Verbs of inquiring; as, te haec rogot, I ask you this; té sententiam rogō, I ask you your opinion.
d) Several Special Verbs; viz. moneō, admoneō, commoneठ̄, cōgō, accūsō, arguō, and a few others. These admit only a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective as Accusative of the Thing; as, -
tē haec moneō, I give you this advice; mê id accūsās, you bring this accusation against me. id cögit nös nătūra, nature compels us (to) this.
e) One Verb of concealing, cêlö ; as, nōn tê cêlāvì sermōnem, I have not concealed the conversation from you.
2. In the Passive construction the Accusative of the Person becomes the Subject, and the Accusative of the Thing is retained; as,omnês artēs ēdoctus est, he was taught all accomplishments; rogătus sum sententiam, I was asked my opinion; aliquid admonēmurppe are given some admonition.
a. Only a few Verbs admit the Passive construction.

## Two Accusatives with Compounds.

179. I. Transitive compounds of trăns may take two Accusatives, one dependent upon the Verb, the other upon the Preposition; as, -
militēs fūmen trādūcit, he leads his soldiers across the river.
180. With other compounds this construction is rare.
181. In the Passive the Accusative dependent upon the preposition is retained; as, -
minlitēs fümen trādücębantur, the soldiers were led across the river.

Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative.
180. 1. The Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative denotes the part to which an action or quality refers ; as, -
tremit artüs, literally, he trembles as to his limbs, i.e. his limbs tremble; nuda genu, lit. bare as to the knee, i.e. with knee bare;
manus revinctus, lit, tied as to the hands, i.e. with hands tied.
2. Note that this construction -
a) Is borrowed from the Greek.
b) Is chiefly confined to poetry.
c) Usually refers to a part of the body.
d) Is used with Adjectives as well as Verbs.

## Accusative of Time and Space.

181. I. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are denoted by the Accusative ; as, quadrāgintā annōs vixit, he lived forty years; hīc locus passūs sescentōs aberat, this place was six hundred paces away. arborẻs quīnquāgintả pedēs altae, trees fifty feet high. abhinc trēs annōs, three years ago.
182. Emphasis is sometimes added by using the Preposition per ; as, per duōs annōs labōrāvī, I toiled throughout two years.

## Accusative of Limit of Motion.

182. I. The Accusative of Limit of Motion is used -
a) With names of Towns, Small Islands, and Peninsulas; as, -

Rōmam vēnī, I came to Rome;
Athēnās proficīscitur, he sets out for Athens;
Dēlum pervènī, I arrived at Delos.
b) With domum, domōs, rūs; as, -
domum revertitur, he returns home;
rūs $\overline{\mathrm{B}} \mathrm{o}, I$ shall go to the country.
Note. - When domus means house (i.e. building), it takes a preposition; as, -
in domum veterem remigrāre, to move back to an old house.
2. Other designations of place than those above mentiuned require a Preposition to denote Limit of Motion; as, Ad Italiam vènit, he came to Italy.
a. The Preposition is also customary when the Accusatives urbem or oppidum stand in apposition with the name of a town; as, -
Cirtam in urbem, to the city Cirta; Gener vam ad oppidum, to the town geneva.
b. The name of a town denoting limit of motion may be combined with the name of a country or other word dependent upon a preposition; as, -
Thūriōs in Italiam pervectus, carried to Thurii in Italy; cum Acēn ad exercitum vēnisset, when he had come to the army at Ace.
3. To denote toward, to the vicinity of, in the vicinity of, ad is used ; as, -

> ad Tarentum vēnī, I came to the vicinity of Tarentum; ad Cannās pūgna facta est, a battle was fought near Canne.
4. In poetry the Accusative of any noun denoting a place may be used without a preposition to express the limit of motion ; as, $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$ taliam vēnit, he came to Italy.
5. The goal notion seems to represent the original function of the Accusative Case. Traces of this primitive force are recognizable in the phrase infitiăs ire, to deny (lit. to go to a denial), and a few other similar expressions.

## Accusative in Exclamations.

183. The Accusative, generally modified by an Adjective, is used in Exclamations; as, mē miserum ah, wretched me!
$\overline{\mathrm{O}}$ fallãcem spem, oh, deceptive hope!

## Accusative as Subject of the Infinitive.

184. The Subject of the Infinitive is put in the Accusative ; as, -
videō hominem abīre, I see that the man is going away.

# The Accusative. - The Dative. 

## Other Uses of the Accusative.

## 185. Here belong -

1. Some Accusatives which were originally Appositives ; viz. id genus, of that kind; as, hominēs id genus, men of that kind (originally hominēs, id genus hominum, men, that kind of men);
virile secus, muliebre secus, of the male sex, of the female sex meam vicem, tuam vicem, etc., for my part, etc.; bonam partem, in large part; māximam partem, for the most part.
2. Some phrases of doubtful origin ; as, -
id temporis, at that time; quod sï, but if;
id aetātis, at that time; cētera, in other respects;
dextrum, on the right; laevum, on the left.

## THE DATIVE.

186. The Dative case in general expresses relations which are designated in English by the prepositions to and for.

## Dative of Indirect Object.

187. The commonest use of the Dative is to denote the person to whom something is given, said, or done. Thus :-
I. With transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative ; as, -
hanc peoūniam mihi dat, he gives me this money; haec nōbīs dixit, he said this to us.
a. Some verbs which take this construction also admit another, particularly the verbs dōnō and circumdō. Thus:Either Themistoclī mūnera dōnāvit, he presented gifts to Themistocles, or Themistoclem mūneribus dōnāvit, he presented Themistocles with gifts ; urbī mūrōs circumdat, he builds walls aroung the city, or urbem mūrīs circumdat, he surrounds the city with walls. K
II. With many intransitivi verbs; as, nulli labôry csadt, he yichds to no labor ; tibi suscênseō, / aln angry with you.
a. Here belong many verbs signifying fayor, ${ }^{1}$ help, injure, please, displease, trust, distrust, command, wbey, serve, resist, indulge, spare, pardon, enty, threaten, belicove, persuade, and the like; as, -
Caesar populãribus favet, Caesar fazurs (i.e. is favorable to) the popular party; amicis cōnfidō, / trust (to) my friends; militibus ignöscit, he pardons (i.c. grants pardon to) the troops;
Orgetorix Helvētilis persuāsit, Orgetorix persuaded (made it acceptable to) the Helietians;
bonis nocet quì malis parcit, he injures (does harm to) the grood, who spares the bad.
Note. - It is to be borne in mind that these verbs do not take the Dative by virtue of their apparent English equivalence, but simply because they are intransitive, and adapted to an indireet object. Some verbs of the same apparent English equivalence are transitive and govern the Accusative; as, juvod, laedê, dēlectō. Thus: audentēs deus juvat, God helps the bold; nēminena
188. Verbs of this class are used in the passive only impersonally; as, -
tibi parcitur, you are spared;
mihi persuădétur, $I$ ambeing persuaded; eī invidētur, he is cnvied.
III. With many verbs compounded with the prepositions: ad, ante, com- ${ }^{2}$ in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super, and sometimes circum.

These verbs fall into two main classes, -

1. Many simple verbs which cannot take a Dative of the indirect object become capable of doing so when compounded with a preposition ; as, -
affictis succurrit, he helps the afficted;
exercituī $\mathbf{p}$ : aefuit, he was in command of the army;
intersum cōnsiliīs, $I$ share in the deliberations.

[^24]2. Many transitive verbs which take only a direct object become capable, when compounded, of taking a Dative also as indirect object ; as, -
injure, e, resist, ade, and vorable
to) the
(maite
$r m$ to) inicere spem amiois, to inspire hope in one's friends; Labiènum exeroitui praefêcit, he put Labienus in charge of the army.

## Dative of Reference.

188. I. The Dative of Reference denotes the person to whom a statement refers, of whom it is true, or to whom it is of interest; as, -
mihi ante oculoss versäris, you hover before my eyes (lit. hover before the eyes to me);
illī sevêrităs amőrem nōn dēminuit, in his case severity did not diminish love (lit. to him severity did not diminish); interclüdere hostibus commeãtum, to cut off the supplies of the enemy.
a. Note the phrase alicul interdicere aquă et igni, to interdict one from fire and water.
Note. - The Dative of Reference, unlike the Dative of Indirect Object, does not modify the verb, but rather the sentence as a whole. It is often used where, according to the English idiom, we should expect a. Genitive; so in the first and third of the above examples.
189. Special varieties of the Dative of Reference are -
a) Dative of the Local Standpoint. This is regularly a participle ; as, -
oppidum prīmum Thessaliae, venientibus ab Ēpirob, the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (lit. to those coming from E.).
b) Ethical Dative. This name is given to those Dative constructions of the personal pronouns in which the connection of the Dative with the rest of the sentence is of the very slightest sort; as, -
tū mihi istīus audâciam dêfendis? tell ine, do you defend that man's audacity?
quid mihi Celsus agit? whai is my Celsus doing?
quid sibi vult? what does he mean? (lit. wish for himself?)
c) Dative of Person Judging; as, -
erit ille mihi semper deus, he will alanays be a grod to me (i.e. in my opinion) ;
quae ista servitūs tam clāro homini, hoù call that be slazery th so illustrious a man (i.e. to his mind)!
d) Dative of Separation. Compounds of ab, as, ex, ad which have the general sense of taking aroay govern a Dative of the person, less often of the thing; as, honōrem dētrāxērunt homini, they took azoay the honor from the man;
Caesar reegi tetrarchiam êripuit, Coesar took the tetrarchy aroay from the king'
siliois scintillam excūdit, he stiuck a spark frome the flint.

## Dative of Agency.

189. The Dative is used to denote agency -
190. Regularly with the Gerundive; as, -
haee nōbis agenda sunt, these things must lie dove by us; mihi eundum est, $I$ Imust $g^{\circ}$ (lit. it must be gone by me).
a. To avoid ambiguity, $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ with the Ablative is sometimes used with the Gerundive; as, -
hostibus ā nōbis parcendum est, the enemy must be spired by us.
191. Much less frequently with the compound tenses of the passive voice and the perfect passive participle ; as, -
disputātiō, quae mihi nūper habita est, the discussion which was recently conducted by me.
192. Rarely with the uncompounded tenses of the passive; as, honesta bonis viris quaeruntur, noble ends are sought by good men.

## Dative of Possession.

190. The Dative of Possession occurs with the verb esse in such expressions as :-
mihi est liber, I have a book; mihi nōmen est Mārous, I have the name Marcus.
191. But with nōmen est the name is more commonly attracted into the Dative; as, mihi nōmen est Mārcō.

# The Dative. 

## Dative of Purpose.

191. The Dative of Purpose designates the end toward zuhich an action is directed or for zulich something exists. It is used -
192. Unaccompanied by another Dative ; aś, castris looum deligere, to choose a place for a camp; legionees praesidiō relinquere, to leave the legions as a guard (its,
for a guard); receptui canere, to sound the signal for a retreat.
193. Much more frequently in connection with another Dative of the person:-
a) Especially with some form of esse ; as, -
fortünae tuae mihi curae sunt, your fortunes are a care to me (lit. for a care);
nobbis sunt odio, they are an object of hatred to us; cui bono ? to whom is it of advantage ?
b) With other verbs ; as, 一.
hös tibi müneri mīsit, he has sent these to you for a present;
Pausaniăs Atticīs vēnit auxiliō, Pausanias came to the aid of the Athenians (lit. to the Athenians for help).
194. In connection with the Gerundive; as, decemvirī lêgibus scrïbundīs, decemvirs for codifying the laws. mē gerendō bello ducem creăv ${ }^{\text {rene }}$, me they have made leader for carrying on the war.
Note. - This construction with the gerundive is not common till Livy.

## Dative with Adjectives.

192. The use of the Dative with Adjectives corresponds very closely to its use with verbs. Thus:-
r. Corresponding to the Dative of Indirect Object it occurs with adjectives signifying: friendly, unfriendly, similar, dissimilar, equal, near, reluted to, etc. ; as, -
mihi inimīcus, hostile to me;
sunt proximī Germãnīs, they are next to the Germans;
noxiae poena păr estō, let the penalty be equal to the damage.
a. For propior and proximus, witi the Accusative, see今 141,3 .
193. Corresponding to the Dative of Purpose the Dative occurs with adjectives signifying: suitable, adapted, fit; as, -
castris idōneus locus, a place fit for a camp; apta diēs sacrifioiō, a day suitable for a sacrifice.
Note. - Adjectives of this last class often take the Accusative with ad. $\checkmark$

## Dative of Direction.

193. In the poets the Dative is occasionally used to denote the direction of motion; as, -
it clāmor caelō, the shout goes heavenward;
cinerēs rivo fluenti jace, cast the ashes toward the firwing stream.
I. By an extension of this construction the poets sometimes use the Dative to denote the limit of motirn; as, dum Latiō deōs inferret, zuhile he was bringing his gods to Latium.

## - THE GENITIVE.

194. The Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

## GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

195. With Nouns the Genitive is the case which defines the meaning of the limited noun more closely. This relation is generally indicated in English by the preposition of. There are the following varieties of the Genitive with Nouns:-

Genitive of Origin, Genitive of Material, Genitive of Possession, Subjective Genitive,

Objective Genitive, Genitive of the Whole, Appositional Genitive, Genitive of Quality.
196. Genitive of Origin ; as, -

Marcin filiux, the son of Marcus.
197. Genitive of Material ; as, -
talentum auri, a talent of gold; modius frümentì, a peck of grain.
198. Genitive of Possession or Ownership; as, domus Cicerōnis, Cicero's house.

1. Here belongs the Genitive with causā and gratia. T:e Genitive always precedes; as, -
hominum causà, for the sake of men"; meōrum amicoorum grătiă, for the sake of my frienc's.
2. Īnstar (lit. image) also takes the Possessive Genitive ; as, equus instar montis, a horse as large as a mountain.
3. The Possessive Genitive is often used predicatively, especially with esse and fieri ; as, domus est regis, the house is the king's; stulti est in erröre manerre, it is (the part) of a fool to remain in error;
10 bellō jūdicium imperătōris est, nōn militum, the decision concerning war belongs to the general, not to the soldiers.
4. Subjeotive Genitive. This denotes the person who makes ") produces something or who has a feeling; as, -
dicta Platōnis, the utterances of Plato;
timoress liberōrum, the fears of the children.
5. Objective Genitive. This denotes the object of an action or feeling; as, -
metus deōrum, the fear of the gods; amor lībertātis, love of liberty; cōnsuëtĩdō bonōrum hominum, intercourse with good men.
6. This relation is often expressed by means of prepositions; as, amor ergā parentēs, love toward one's parents.
7. Genitiv of the Whole. This designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used -
${ }^{*}$ 1. With Nouns, Pronouns, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Ordinal Numerals; as, -
mägna pars hominum, a great part of mankind;
duo milia peditum, two thousand foot-soldiers;
quis mortalium, whe of mortals?
major fratrum, the elder of the brothers;
gēns māxima Germānōrum, the largest tribe of the Germans; primus omnium, the first of all.
a. Yet instead of the Genitive of the Whole we often find ex or dee with the Ablative, regularly so with Cardinal numbers and quidam; as, fidēlissimus dē servis, the most trusty of the slaves; quỉdam ex amicis, certain of his friends; unus ex militibus, one of the soldiers.
$\dot{0}$. In English we often use of where there is no relation of whole to part. In such cases the Latin is more exact, and does not use the Genitive; as, quot vōs estis, how many of you are there? trecenti conjūrāvimus, three hundred of us have conspired (i.e. we, three hundred in number).

* 2. The Genitive of the Whole is used also with the Nominative or Accusative Singular Neuter of Pronouns, or of Adjectives used substantively; also with the Adverbs parum, satis, and partim when used substantively; as, -
quid cōnsili, what purpose?
tantum cibī, so much food;
plūs auctōritātis, more authority;
minus labōris, less labor ;
satis pecūniae, enough money;
parum industriae, too little industry.
a. An Adjective of the second declension used substantively may be employed as a Genitive of the Whole; as, nihil boni, nothing good.
b. But Adjectives of the third declension agree :"rectly with the noun they limit; as, nihil dulcius, nothing sweeter.

3. Occasionally we find the Genitive of the Whole dependent upon Adverbs of place; as, -
ubi terrārum? ubi gentium? where in the world?
a. Sy an extension of this usage the Genitive sometimes occurs in dependcnce upon pridiē and postridiè, but only in the phrases priaide $\overline{\text { èjus diēī, on the day before that; postridiē } \bar{e} j u s \text { dī̄̄i, on the day }}$ after that.
4. Appositional Genitive. The Genitive sometimes has the force of an appositive ; as, -
nōmen rēgis, the name of king;
poena mortis, the penalty of death; ars scribendi, the art of writing.
"203. Genitive of Quality. The Genitive modified by an Adjective is used to denote quality. This construction presents several varieties. Thus it is used -

## GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

204. The Genitive is used with many Adjectives to limit the extent of their application. Thus: -
205. With Adjectives signifying desire, knowledge, familiarity, memory, participation, power, fulness, and their opposites; as, studiōsus discendì, desirous of learning; perītus belli, skilled in war; īnsuètus labōris, unutsed to toil; immemor mandātī tuī, unmindful of your commission; plēna perīculōrum est vīta, life is full of dangers.
a. Some participles used adjectively also take the Genitive; as,diligēns vēritātis, fond of truth; amāns fratriae, devoted to one's country.
206. Sometimes with proprius and oommanis ; as, 一 virt propria ent fortitado, braiterv is characteristic af a math. momoria ent commanim omniuns..rtium, memory is common to all professioms.
a. proprlus and commante ere also construed with the Dative.
207. With similis the Cenitive is the commoner construction in Cicero, when the reference is to living object: ; as, -
filius patris simillimus ost, the som is entrotly like his father. mes similis, like me; vestry aimilis, like you.
When the reference is to things, both Cenitive and Dative occur ; as, mors sommo (or sommi) similient, death is like slecp.
208. In the poess and later prose writers the use of the Genitive with Adjectives is extewted far beyond earlier limits: is, ntrox mimi, fierce of femper; incortus consilli, undecided in puapose.

1

- GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

205. The Genitive is used with the following classes of Verbs : -

## Meminī, Reminissor, Oblīvīscor.

206. 207. Wimen meferring to Persons-
a. memins takes the Genitive in the significations $/$ bear in mind (memor sum), am mindful of, or matic mention of; but the Accusative in the signification, / recall; as, vivorrum memini, /am mindful of the livine; Achillès cūjus supı'ã meminimus, Achillis, of whom we made mention above; Sullam memini, / recall Sulla.
b. obliviscor regnlarly takes the Genitive; as, -Epicūri nōn licet oblivisci, ze mustn't forget Eipucurns.
1. When remerking to Things, memini, reminiscoi; obijviscor take sometimes the Genitive, sometimes the Accusative, apparently without difference of meaning; as, -
animus praeteritorum meminit, the mind remembers the past; meministine nomina, do you remember the names?
reminiscere veteris incommodi, remember the former disaster;
reminiscêns acerbitãtem, remembering the scoucrity.
a. But menter prontothe, and adjectiven used substantively, regularly stanil itt the Aceusative; as, -
hwec momini, / emember this; multa reminiscor, $/$ remember many thimps.
2. The plitase milhi (tibl, efc.) in montorr venit, following the analogy of nomini, takes the (ientive: is, civium mihi in montom vonit, / remember the citizens.

## Admoneō, Commoneō, Commonetactō.

207. These verbs, in addition to an Accusative of the person, occasionally take a Genitive of the thing; as, tō admoneõ amicitiao nostrae, I remind you of our friendship.
a. But more frequently (in Ciecro almost Invariably) these verbs take $\mathbf{a} \boldsymbol{E}$ with the Ablative; as, dé pecania mē admonës, ycu remind me of the moncy.
b. A neuter pronoun or adjective used substantively regularly stands in the Accusative; as,
tē hơc admoneö, I give you this warning.

## $x$

## Verbs of Judicial Action.

208. I. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting take the Genitive of the charge; as, -
me farti acounat, he accuses me of theft;
Verrem avaritiae coarguit, he convicts Verres of avarice; impietātis absolâtus est, he was acquitted of blasphemy.
209. Verbs of Condemning take -
a. The Genitive of the charge ; as, -
peoūniae püblicae damnătus, condemned (on the charge) of embezzlement (lit. public money);
capitis damnătus, condemned on a capital charge (lit. on a charge involving his head).
b. The Ablative of the penally; as, capite damnătus est, he was condemned to death; mille nummis đamnătus est, he was condenned (to pay) a thousand sesterces (lit. by a thousand sesterces, Abl. of Means).

## Syntax.

3. Note the phrases:-
vōti damnätus, vūti reus, having attained one's prayer (lit. condemned on the score 'of one's vow);
dē $\boldsymbol{\nabla} \mathbf{1},($ accused, convicted, etc.) of assault;
inter sicāriōs, (accused, convicted, etc.) of murder.

## Genitive with Impersonal Verbs.

209. I. The Impersonals pudet, paenitet, miseret, taedet, piget take the Accusative of the person affected, along with the Genitive of the person or thing tozard whom the feeling is directed; as, -
pudet mē tui, I am ashamed of you (lit. it shames me of you);
paenitet mē hūjus factī, I repent of this act;
eum taedet vītae, he is weary of life;
pauperumitē miseret, you pity the poor.
a. Instead of the Genitive of the thing we often find an Infinitive or Neuter Pronoun used as subject of the verb. Thus:mē paenitet hōc fēcisse, I repent of having done this; mē hōc pudet, I am ashamed of this.
210. Misereor and miserēscō also govern the Genitive; as, miserēminī sociōrum, pity the allies.

## Interest, Rēfert.

210. With interest, it concerns, three points enter into consideration; viz. -
a) the person concerned;
b) the thing about which he is concerned;
c) the extent of his concern.
211. I. The person concerned is regularly denoted by the Genitive ; as, -
patris interest, it concerns the father.
a. But instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, meì, tuì, etc., the Latin uses the Ablative Singular Feminine of the Possessive, viz. : meā, tuā, etc.; as, meā interest, it concerns me.
Note. - But the Latin says omnium nostrum interest, it concerns us all.
212. The thing about which a person is concerned is denoted -
a) by a Neuter Pronoun as subject; as, -
hōc reĩ püblicae internst, this concerns the state.
b) by an Infinitive; as, --
omuium interest valēre, it concerns all to keep well.
c) by an Indirect Question; as, meā interest quandō veniās, I am concerned as to when you are coming.
213. The degree of concern is denoted -
a) by the Genitive (of Quality) : mãgnĩ, parvì, etc. ; as, meă măgnī interest, it concerns me greatly.
b) by the Adverbs, māgnopere, magis, măximé, ett.; as, cīvium minimee interest, it concerns the citizens very little.
c) by the Neuters, multum, plūs, minus, etc.; as, multum vestrā interest, it concerns you much.
214. Rēfert follows interest in its construction, except that it rarely takes the Genitive of the person. Thus:-

> meā rêfert, it concerns me; but rarely illīus rêfert, it concerns him.

## * Genitive with Other Verbs.

212. I. Verbs of Plenty and Want sometimes govern the Genitive ; as, -
pecūniae indigēs, you need money.
a These verbs more commonly take the Ablative (§ 214, 1); indigeo is the only verb which has a preference for the Genitive.
213. Potior though usually followed by the Ablative, sometimes takes the Genitive, almost always so in Sallust ; and regularly in the phrase : potīī rērum, to get control of affairs.
214. In poetry some verbs take the Genitive in imitation of the Greek; as, dēsine querellārum, cease your complaints'; operum solūti, freed from their tasks.

## Syntax.

## THE ABLATIVE.

213. The Latin Ablative unites in itself three cases which were originally distinct both in form and in meaning; viz. -

The Ablative or from-case. The Instrumental or with-case. The Locative or where-case.
The uses of the Latin Ablative accordingly fall into Genuine Ablative uses, Instrumental uses, and Locative uses.

## GENUINE ABLATIVE USES.

## Ablative of Separation.

214. The Ablative of Separation is construed sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition.
I. The following words regularly take the Ablative without a preposition : -
a) The Verbs of freeing: līberō, solvō, levō;
b) The Verbs of depriving : prīvō, spoliō, exuō, fraudō, nūdō;
c) The Verbs of lacking: egeō, careō, vacō ;
d) The corresponding Adjectives, līber, inānis, vacuus, nūdus, and some others of similar meaning

Thus:-
cūrīs līberātus, freed from cares;
Caesar hostēs armis exuit, Caesar stripped the enemy of their arms;
caret sēnsū commūnī, he lacks common sense ; auxiliō eget, he needs help;
bonōrum vìta vacua est metū, the life of the good is free from fear.
Note 1. - Yet Adjectives and līberō may take the preposition ab, - regularly so with the Ablative of persons; as, -
urbem $\bar{a}$ tyrannō liberarunt, they freed the city from the tyrant.
NOTE 2. - Indigeō usually takes the Genitive. See § 212, I, $a$.
2. Of Verbs signifying to keep from, to remove, to withdraw, some take the preposition, others omit it. The same Verb often admits both constructions. Examples:-
abstinēre cibō, to abstain from food;
hostès finibus prohibuerrunt, they kept the enemy from their borders; praedōnës ab insula prohibuit, he kept the pirates from the island.
3. Other Verbs of separation usually take the Ablative with a Preposition, particularly compounds of dis- and seè; as, -
dissentiō ā tē, I dissent from you;
sēcernantur ā nōbis, let them be separated from us.

## Ablative of Source.

215. The Ablative of Source is used with the participles nătus and ortus (in poetry also with editus, satus, and some others), to designate parentage or station; as, -

Jove nātus, son of $\mathfrak{F u p i t e r}$;
summō locō nãtus, high-born (lit. born from a very high place);
nōbili genere ortus, born of a noble family.
I. Pronouns regularly (nouns rarely) take ex; as, ex mē nātus, sprung from me.
2. To denote remoter descent, ortus ab, or oriundus (with or without ab), is used; as, -
ab Ulixe oriundus, descended from Ulysses.

## Ablative of Agent.

216. The Ablative accompanied by $\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{a b})$ is used with passive verbs to denote the personal agent; as, -
à Caesare accūsātus est, he was arraigned by Caesar.
I. Collective nouns referring to persons, and abstract nouns when personified, may be construed as the personal agent. Thus:hostḕs ā fortūnā dēserēbantur, the enemy were deserted by fortune; $\mathbf{a}$ multitūdine hostium mōntēs tenēbantur, the mountains were held by a multitude of the enemy.
217. Names of animals sumetimes admit the same construction. Thus:ã canibus laniätus est, he was torn to pieces by dogs.

## Ablative of Comparison.

217. I. The Ablative is often used with Comparatives in the sense of than; as, -
melle dulcior, sweeter than honey;
patria mihi vītā cārior est, my country is dearer to me than life.
218. This construction, as a rule, occurs only as a substitute for quam (than) with the Nominative or Accusative. In other cases quam must be used; as, -
tui studiosior sum quam illius, / am fonder of you than of him. Studiōsior illō would have meant, $I$ am fonder of you thar: he is.
219. Plūs, minus, amplius, longius are often employed as the equivalents of plūs quam, minus quam, etc. Thus:-
amplius vigintī urbēs incenduntur, more than twenty cities are fired;
minus quīnque mīlia prōcessit, he advanced less than five miles.
220. Note the use of opiniōne with Comparatives; as, opiniōne celerius venit, he comes more quickly than expected (lit, than opinion).

## INSTRUMENTAL USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

## Ablative of Means.

218. The Ablative is used to denote means or instrument; as, -

Alexander sagittā vulnerātus est, Alexander was wounded by an arrow.

There are the following special varieties of this Ablative: -
I. Ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds take the Ablative ; as, -
dīvitiis ütitur, he uses his wealth (lit. he benefits himself by his wealth); vītā fruitur, he enjoys life (lit. he enjoys himself by life); mūnere fungor, I perform my duty (lit. I busy myself with duty); carne vescuntur, they eat flesh (lit. feed themselves by means of); urbe potitus est, he got possession of the city (lit. made himself powerful by the sity).
a. Potior sometimes governs the Genitive. See $\$ 212,2$.

* 2. With opus est (rarely unsus est), there is need; as, duce nōbis opus est, we need a leader.
a. A Neuter Pronoun or Adjective often stands as subject with opus as predicate. Thus:-
hōc mihi opus est, this is necessary for me.
b. An ordinary substantive rarely stands as subject. Thus dux nöbis opus est is a rare form of expression.
c. Note the occasional use of a perfect passive participle with opus est ; as, -
opus est properātō, there is need of haste.
* 3. With nītor, innixus, and frętus ; as, -
nītitur hastā, he rests on a spear (lit. supports himself by a spear); frētus virtūte, relying on virtue (lit. supported by virtue).

4. With continērrī, cōnsistere, cōnstāre, consist of ; as, nervis et ossibus continentur, they consist of sinews and bones (lit. they are held together by sinews and bones);
mortālı् cōnsistit corpore mundus, the world consists of mortal substance (lit. holds together by means of, etc.).
5. With miscēre and mütāre ; as, -
mella vīnō miscēre, to mix honey with wine;
pācem bellō mūtant, they change peace for war (lit. with war).
6. In expressions of the type:-
quid hōc homine faciās, what can you do with this sitan?
quid meā Tulliolā fīet, what will become of my dear Tullia? (lit. what will be done with her?)
7. In the following special phrases at variance with the ordinary English idiom: -
proeliō con' ${ }^{+}$ndere, vincere, to contend, conquer in battle;
proeliō lacessere, to provoke to battle;
assuētus (assuēfactus) labōre, accustomed to toil;
currū vehī, to ride in a chariot; pedibus ire, to go on foot; tībiiss (fidibus) canere, to play the flute (lyre); pilă lūdere, to play ball; castrīs sē tenëre, to keep in camp;
$\times$ and some others.
8. With Verbs of filling and Adjectives of plenty; as, fossãs virgultis complerunt, they filled the trenches with brush.
a. But plēnus more commonly takes the Genitive. See' $\$ 204, \mathbf{x}$.
9. Under 'Means' belongs also the Ablative of the way by which; as, -
vinum Tiberì dēvectum, wine brought down (by) the Tiber.
10. The means may be a person as well as a thing. Thus:militibus a laca Lemannō ad montem Jaram marum perdacit, with (i.e. by means of) his troops he runs a wall from Lake Geneva to Mt. Jura.

## Ablative of Cause.

219. The Ablative is used to denote cause; as, multa glöriae cupiditāte fêcit, he did many things on account of his love of glory.
I. So especially with verbs denoting mental states; as, delector, gaudeō, laetor, glōrior, fīdō, cōnfīdō. Also with contentus; as, -
fortūnā amicī gaudeō, I rejoice at the fortune of my friend (i.e. on account of it);
victōriā suā glōriantur, they exult over their victory;
nātüra loci connfidebant, they trusted in the character of their country (lit. were confident on account of the character).
a. fīdō and cōnfido always take the Dative of the person ( $\$ 187$, II. $a$ ); sometimes the Dative of the thing.
220. As Ablatives of Cause are to be reckoned also such Ablatives as jussū, by order of, injussū, rogātū, etc.

## Ablative of Manner.

220. The Ablative with cum is used to denote manner; as, -
cum gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with dignity.
I. The preposition may be omitted when the Ablative is modified by an adjective ; as, -
māgnā gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with great dignity.
221. The preposition is regularly omitted in the expressions jūre, injūriā, jocō, vī, fraude, voluntāte, fūrtō, silentiō.
222. A special variety of the Ablative of Manner denotes that in accordance with which or in pursuance of which anything is or is done. It is generally used without a preposition. Thus:-
meã sententiax, according to my opinion; suis morribus, in accordance with their custom; suā sponte, voluntarily, of their own accord; eă condiciōne, on these terms.

## Ablative of Attendant Circumstance.

221. The Ablative is often used to denote an attendant circumstance of an action or an event; as, bonīs auspiciīs, under good auspices; nūlla est altercātiō clămōribus umquam habita mãjōribus, no debate wvas ever held under circumstances of greater applause; exstinguitur ingentī lŭctū prōvinciae, he dies under circumstances of great grief on the part of the province; longō intervãllō sequitur, he follows at a great distance.

## Ablative of Accompaniment.

222. The Ablative with cum is used to denote accompaniment ; as, -
cum comitibus profectus est, he set out with his attendants; cum febrī rediit, he returned with a fever.
223. In military expressions the Ablative may stand without cum when modified by any adjective except a numeral ; as, -omnibus cōpiīs, ingentī exercitū, māgnā manū ; but always cum exercitū, cum duābus legiōnibus.

## Ablative of Degree of Difference.

223. The Ablative is used with comparatives and words involving comparison (as post, ante, īnfrā, suprā; superāre, surpass) to denote the degree of difference; as, -
dīmidiō minor, smaller by a half;
tribus pedibus altior, three feet higher;
paulō post, a little afterwards;
quō plūra habēmus, eō cupimus ampliōra, the more we have, the more we want.

## Ablative of Quality.

224. The Ablative, modified by an adjective, is used to denote quality; as, -
puella eximiā fōrmã, a girl of exceptional beauty; vir singulãrI industriă, a man of singular industry.
225. The Ablative of Quality may also be used predicatively; as, est māgnā prüdentiā, he is (a man) of great wisdom; bonō animo sunt, they are of good courage.
226. In place of the Adjective we sometimes find a limiting Genitive; as, sunt speciè et colore taurì, they are of the appearance a'd color of a bull.
227. In all numerical designations of weight, value, dimension, etc., the Genitive of Quality takes the place of the Ablative of Quality. See § 203. 2.

## Ablative of Price.

225. With verbs of buying and selling, price is designated by the Ablative; as, -
servum quinque minīs ēmit, he bought the slave for five minae.
I. The Ablatives māgnō, plūrimō, parvō, minimö (by omission of pretiō) are used to denote indefinite price; as, -
aedēs māgnō vēndidit, he sold the house for a high price.
226. For the Genitive of Indefinite Price, see $\S 203,4$.

## Ablative of Specification.

226. The Ablative of Specification is used to denote that in respect to which something is or is done; as, Helvētii omnibus Galliss virtūte praestăbant, the Helvetians surpassed all the Gauls in valor; pede claudus, lame in his foot.
I. Note the phrases:-
mājor nātū, older (lit. greater as to age);
minor nātū, younger.
227. Here belongs the use of the Ablative with dignus and indignus ; as, -
digni honore, worthy of honor;
fidē indignī, unworthy of confidence.

## Ablative Absolute.

227. The Ablative Absolute is grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. In its commonest form it consists of a noun or pronoun limited by a participle; aś, --
urbe captā, Aenēās fügit, when the city had been captured, Aeneas fled (lit. the city having been captured).
228. Instead of a participle we often find an adjective or noun; as, vīvō Caesare rēs pūblica salva erat, while Caesur was alive the state zuas safe (lit. Caesar being alive);
Tarquiniö rêge, Pȳthagorās in Italiam vēnit, in the reign of Tarquin Pythagoras came into Italy (lit. Tarquin being king).
Cn. Pompējō, M. Crassō sōnsulibus, in the consulship of Gnaeus Pompey and Marcus Crassus.
229. The Ablative Absolute is generally used in Latin where in English we employ subordinate clauses. Thus the Ablative Absolute may correspond to a clause denoting -
a) Time, as in the foregoing examples.
b) Condition ; as, -
omnēs virtūtēs jaceint, voluptāte dominante, all virtues lie prostrate, if pleasure is master.
c) Opposition ; as, -
perditīs omnibus rëbus, virtūs sē sustentāre poiest, though everything else is lost, yet Virtue can maintain herself.
d) Cause; as, nüllö adversante rēgnum obtinuit, since no one opposed him, he secured the throne.
A) Attendant circumstance; as,passīs palmīs pãcem petīvêrunt, with hands outstretched they sued for peace.
230. An Infinitive or clause sometimes occurs in the Ablative Absolute construction in Livy and later writers; as, audītō eum fūgisse, sohen it was heard that he had fled.
231. A noun or pronoun stands in the Ablative Absolute consiruction only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the clause in which it stands. Exceptions to this principle are extremely rare.

## LOCATIVE USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

## Ablative of Place.

A. Place where.
$\lambda_{228}$. The place where is regularly denoted by the $A b$. lative with a preposition; as, -
in urbe habitat, he dwells in the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz.-
a) Names of towns, - except Singulars of the First and Second Declensions; as, -

Carthāgine, at Carthage;
Athēnīs, at Athens;
Vēiñs, at Veii.
$\not \subset$ b) 'The general words locō, locīs, parte, also many words modified by tötus or even by other Adjectives; as, -
hōe locõ, at. this place;
tötīs castrīs, in the whole camp.
c) The special words : forīs, out of doors; rūrī, in the country; terrā marīque, on land and sea.
d) The poets freely omit the preposition with any word denoting place ; as, -
stant lïtore puppēs, the ships rest on the beach.

## B. Place from which. 1

229. Place from which is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as, -
ab Italiā profectus est, he set out from Italy; ex urbe rediit, he returned from the city.
r. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz.-
a) Names of towns and small islands; as, -

Rōmā profectus est, he set out from Rome;
Rhodō revertit, he returned from Rhodes.

[^25]
## The Ablative.

b) domō, from home; rūre, from the country.
c) Fieely in poetry; an,

Italià deesessit, he withdrew from Italy.
230. The Ablative is used to denote the time at zehich; as, -
quārtă hōrã mortuus est, tue clied at the fourth hour;
annō septuāgēsimō cōnsui creätus, elected consul in his seventieth year.

1. Any word denoting a period of time may stand in this construction, particularly annus, vēr, aestās, hiems, diēs, nox, hōra, comitia (Election Day), lūdi (the Games), etc.
2. Words not denoting time require the preposition in, unless accompanied by a modifier. Thus:but in pãce, in peace; in bello, in war;
3. Expressions like in eō tempore, in summā senectăte take the preposition because they denote situation rather than time.

## B. Time within which.

231. Time within which is denoted by the Ablative etther with or without a preposition; as, stella salturn! trieinta annis cursum cōnficit, the planet Saturn completes its crbit within thirty years; ter in anns, thrice in the course of the year.
r. Occasionally the Ablative denotes duration of time; as, blenniठ prösports rēs habuit, for two years he had a prosperous administration.

## THE LOCATIVE.

232. The Locative case occurs only in the following words: -
I. Regularly in the Singular of names of towns and small islands of the first and second declensions, to denote the place in which; as, Rōmae, at Rome;

Corinthī, at Corinth;
Rhodi, at Rhodes.
2. In the following special forms: -
domi, at home;
humi, on the ground;
belli, in war; vesperi, at evening;
3. Nate the phrase pendēre animi, lit. to be in suspense in one's mind.
4. Consonant Stems occasionally form a Locative in $-\mathbf{i}$; as, Lacedaemoni, at Sparta; Carthāginī, at Carthage; Tiiburī, at Tibur.

- mīlitiae, in war;
heri, yesterday.
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## Chapter III. - Syntax of Adjectives.

233. I. The word with which an Adjective agrees is called its Subject.
234. Attributive and Predicate Adjectives. An Attributive Adjective is one that limits its subject directly ; as, vir sapiēns, a wise man;
A Predicate Adjective is one that limits its subject through the medium of a verb (usually esse); as, -
vir est sapiens, the man is wise;
vir vidēbātur sapiēns, the man seemed wise; vir jūdicātus est sapiēns, the man was judged wise.
235. Participles and Adjective Pronouns have the construction of Adjectives.

## AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

234. Agreement with One Noun. When an Adjective limits one noun it agrees with it in Gender, Number, and Case.
235. Two Adjectives in the Singular may limit a noun in the Plural; as, prìma et vīcēsima legiōnēs, the first and twentieth legions.
236. A Predicate Adjective may stand in the Neuter when its Subject is Masculine or Feminine and denotes a thing ; as, mors est miserum, death is a wretched thing.
237. Agreement with Two or More Nouns. $A$. AGREEMENT AS TO NUMBER.
I. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in number with the nearest noun ; as, pater tuus et māter, your father and mother; eadem alacritās et studium, the same eagerness and zeal.
238. When the Adjective is Predicative, it is regularly Plural ; as, -
pāx et concordia sunt pulchrae, peace and concord are glorious.

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B . \text { AGREEMENT AS TO GENDER. }
$$

I. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in gender with the nearest noun; as, rēs operae multae ac labōris, a mutter of much effort and labor.
2. When the Adjective is Predicative -
a) If the nouns are of the same gender, the Adjective agrees with them in gender; as, pater et fīlius captī sunt, father and son were captured. Yet with feminine abstract nouns, the Adjective is more frequently Neuter; as, stultitia et timiditās fugienda sunt, folly and cowardics must be s...inned.
b) If the nouns are of different gender; then, -
a) In case they denote persons, the Adjective is Masculine; as, -
pater et māter mortui sunt, the father and mother have died.
$\boldsymbol{\beta})$ In case they denote things, the Adjective is Neuter; as, -
honōrēs et victōriae fortuīta sunt, honors and victories are accidentai.
y) In case they include both persons and things, the Adjective is, -
aa) Sometimes Masculine; as, -
domus, uxor, līberī inventī sunt, home, wife, and children are secured.
$\beta \beta$ ) Sometimes Neuter; as, -
parentēs, līberōs, frātrēs vïlia habēre, to hold parents, children, brothers, cheap.
$\gamma \gamma$ ) Sometimes it agrees with the nearest noun ; as, populī prōvinciaeque līberātae sunt, nations and provinces were liberated.
c) Construction according to Sense. Sometimes an Adjective does not agree with a noun according to strict grammatical form, but according to sense; as, -
pars bēstiis objectī sunt, part (of the men) were thrown to beasts.

## ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY.

236. I. Plural Adjectives used Substantively. Adjectives are quite freely used as Substantives in the Plural. The Masculine denotes persons; the Neuter denotes things; as, doctī, scholars; parva, small things; mali, the wicked; Graecī, the Greeks ; mãgna, great things; ūtilia, usefui things ; nostrī, our men.
237. Neuter Plural Adjectives thus used are confined mainly to the Nominative and Accusative cases. Such forms as māgnörum, omnium ; māgnīs, omnibus, would ordinarily lead to ambiguity; yet where there is no ambiguity, they sometimes occur; as, -
parva compōnere māgnis, to compare small things with great. Otherwise the Latin says : mãgnārum rērum, māgnis rēbus, etc.
238. Singular Adjectives used Substantively. Adjectives are less freely used as Substantives in the Singular than in the Plural.
239. Masculine Adjectives occur only occasionally in this use; as, probus invidet nēminī, the honest man envies nobody.
a. Usually vir, homō, or some similar word is employed; as, -
homō doctus, a scholar;
vir Rōmānus, a Roman.
b. But when limited by a pronoun any adjective may be so used ; as, -

> hīc doctus, this scholar; doctus quīdam, a certain scholar.
2. Neuters are likewise infrequent; as, -
vērum, truth;
jūstum, justice; honestum, virtue.
a. This substantive use of Neuter Singulars is commonest in the construction of the Genitive of the Whole, and after Prepositions; as, aliquid vērī, something true; nihil novi, nothing new; in mediō, in the midst.
238. From Adjectives which, like the above, occasionally admit the substantive use, must be carefully distinguished certain others which have become nouns; as, -

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## ADJECTIVES WITH THE FORCE OF ADVERBS.

239. The Latin often uses an Adjective where the English idiom employs an Adverb or an adverbial phrase; as, -
senātus frequēns convēnit, the senate assembled in great numbers; fuit assiduus mēcum, he was constantly with me.

## COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

240. 241. The Comparative often corresponds to the English Positive with 'rather,' 'somewhut,' 'too'; as, -
senectūs est loquācior, old age is rather talkutive.
1. So the Superlative often corresponds to the Positive with 'very'; as,-
vir fortissimus, a very brave man.
2. Strengthening Words. Vel and quam are often used with the Superlative as strengthening particles, vel with the force of 'very,' and quam with the force of 'as possible' ; as, -
vel maximus, the very greatest; quam māximae cöpiae, as great forces as possible.
3. Phrases of the type 'more rich than brave' regularly take the Comparative in both members; as, -
exercitus erat ditior quam fortior, the army was more rich than brave.

## OTHER PECULIARITIES.

241. I. Certain Adjectives may be used to denote a part of an object, chiefly prīmus, extrēmus, summus, medius, īnfimus, īmus; as, summus mōns, the top of the monntain; extrēmä hieme, in the last part of the winter.
242. Prior, prīmus, ultimus, and postrēmus are frequently equivalent to a relative clause; as, prìmus eam vīdi, I was the first who saw her; ultimus deecessit, he was the last who withdrew.
243. When multus and another adjective both limit the same noun, et is generally used; as, -
multae et māgnae cōgitãtiōnēs, many (and) great thoughts.

Personal Pronouns. - Possessive Pronouns.

Chapter IV. - Syntax of Pritouns.

## PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

242. I. The Personal Pronouns as subjects of verbs are, as a rule, not expressed except for the purpose of emphasis, contrast, or clearness. Thus ordinarily : -
videō, $I$ see; amat, he loves.
But ego tē videō, et tã mê vidēs, $I$ see you, and you see me
243. The Genitives meī, tuī, uostrī, vestrī are used only as Objective Genitives; nostrum and vestrum as Genitives of the Whole. Thus:-
memor tuī, mindful of you;
dësĩderium vestrī, longing for you;
nēmō vestrum, no one of you.
a. But nostrum and vestrum are regularly used in place of the Possessive in the phrases omnium nostrum, omnium vestrum.
244. The First Plural is often used for the First Singular of Pronouns and Verbs. Compare the Eng. editorial 'we.'
245. When two Verbs govern the same object, the Latin does not use a pronoun with the second, as is the rule in English. Thus: virtūs amīcitiās conciliat et cōnservat, virtue establishes friendships and maintains them (not eās cōnservat).

## POSSESSIVE PRONOUNE.

243. I. The Possessive Pronouns, as a rule, are not employed except for the purpose of clearness. Thus:patrem amō, I love my father,
dē filiī morte fleebās, you wopt for the death of your son.
But -
dē morte finlī̀ meī flēbăs, you wept for the death of my son.
$a$. When expressed merely for the sake of clearness, the possessive usually stands after its noun; but in order to indicate emphasis or contrast, it precedes ; as, suā manū līberōs occidit, with his owen hand he slow his children;
meã quidem sententiā, in my opinion at least.

## Syntax.

2. Sometimes the Possessive Pronouns are used with the force of an Objective Genitive; as, -

> metus vester, fear of you;
> desiderium turum, longing for you.
3. For special emphasis, the Latin employs ipsius or ipsorrum, in apposition with the Genitive idea implied in the Possessive; as, -
meã ipsĩus operā, by my own help;
nostrā ipsōrum operā, by our own help;
a. So sometimes other Genitives; as, -
mea $\overline{\text { uninius }}$ opera, by the assistance of me alone.

## REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

244. I. The Reflexive Pronoun se and the Pussessive Reflexive suus have a double use:-
I. They may refer to the subject of the clause (either principal or subordinate) in which they stand, - 'Direct Reflexives'; as, sê amant, they love themselves; suōs amicoos adjuvat, he helps his own friends; eum örāvi, ut sē servāret, I besought him to save himself.
II. They may stand in a subordinate clause and refer to the subject of the principal clause, - 'Indirect Reflexives'; as, -
mẻ̉ ōrāvit ut sē dēfenderem, he besought me to defend him (lit. that $I$ defend himself),
mē ōrāvêrunt, ut fortūnārum suārum dēfēnsiōnem susciperem, they besought me to undertake the defense of their fortunes.
$a$. The Indirect Reflexive is mainly restricted to those clauses which express the thought, not of the author, but of the subject of the principal clause.
245. 'The Genitive suī is regularly employed, like meī and tuī, as an Objective Genitive, e.g. oblītus suī, forgetful of himself; but it occasionally occurs - particularly in post-Augustan writers - in place of the Possessive suus; as, fruitur fāmā suī, he enjoys his own fame.
246. Sē and suus are sometimes used in the sense, one's self, one's own, where the reference is not to any particular person; as, -
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se amarre, to love one's self;
suum genium propitiare, to propitiate one's own genius.
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> Reciprocal Pronouns. -- Demonstrative Pronouns.
4. Suus sometimes occurs in the meaning his own, their own, etc. referring not to the subject but to an oblique case ; as, -
Hannibalem suĩ oīvēs $\overline{3}$ oĩvitāte êjēcērunt, his own fellow-citizens drove out Hannibal.
$a$. This usage is particularly frequent in combination with quisque; as, suus quemque error vexat, his own error troubles each.
5. The Reflexives for the first and second persons are supplied by the oblique cases of ego and tū (§85); as, vōs dëfenditis, you'defend yourselves.

## RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

245. 246. The Latin has no special reciprocal pronoun ('each other'), but expresses the reciprocal notion $\mathrm{l}_{\mathrm{j}}$ the phrases: inter nōs, inter vōs, inter sē ; as, -
Belgae obsidês inter sē dedērunt, the Belgae gave each other hostages (lit. among themselves);
amāmus inter nōs, we love each other ?
Galli inter se cohortanti sunt, the Gauls exhorted each other.
a. Note that the Object is not expressed in sentences of this type.

## DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Hic, Ille, Iste.

246. I. Where hic and ille are used in contrast, hīc usually refers to the latter of two objects, and ille to the former.
247. Hic and ille are often used in the sense of 'the following'; as, 一 Themistoclēs hīs verbīs epistulam mïsit, Themistocles sent a letter (couched) in the following words;
illud intellegō, omnium öra in mē conversa esse, I understand this, that the faces of all are turned toward me.
248. Ille often means the famous; as, Solon ille, the famous Solon
249. Iste frequently involves contempt; as, iste homō, that fellow!
250. The above pronouns, along with is, are usually attracted to the gender of a predicate noun; as, hīc ost honor, meminisse officium suum, this is an honor, to be mindful of one's duty.

## Is.

247. I. Is often serves as the antecedent of the relative qui. Thus:-

Māximum, eum qui Tarentum recêpit, dilexi, I loved Maximus, the man who retook Tarentum.
a. Closely akin to this usage is is in the sense of such (= tālis) ; as, -
nōn sum is qui terrear, 1 am not such a person as to be frightened.
b. Note the phrase id quod, where id stands in apposition with an entire clause; as, -
nōn suspicābātur (id quod nuno sentiet) satis multōs testēs nōbīs reliquōs esse, he did not suspect (a thing which he will now perceive) that we had witnesses enough left.
Yet quod alone, without preceding id, sometimes occurs in this use.
2. Is also in all cases serves as the personal pronoun of the third person, 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' 'they,' 'them.'
3. When the English uses 'that of,' 'those of' to avoid repetition of the noun, the Latin omits the pronoun; as, in exercitū Sullae et posteā in Crassī fuerat, he had been in the army of Sulla and afterward in that of Crassus; nūllae mē fäbulae dēlectant nisi Plauti, no plays delight me except those of Plautus.
4. Note the phrases et is, et ea, etc., in the sense : and that too; as, vincula, et ea sen.piterna, imprisonment, and that too permanently.

## $\overline{\mathbf{I}}$ dem.

248. 249. İdem in apposition with the subject or object often has the force of also, likewise ; as, quod idem mihi contigit, which likewise happened to me (lit. which, the same thing) ;
bonus vir, quem eundem sapientem appellāmus, a good man, whom we call also reise.
1. For idem atque (ac), the same as, see $\S 34 \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{I}, c$.

Demonstrative Pronouns. - Relative Pronouns.

## Ipse.

e qui. us, the

## relative pronouns.

250. Agreement. I. The Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender and Number, but its case is determined by its construction in the clause in which it stands; as, -
mulier quam vidēbāmus, the woman whom we saw;
bona quibus fruimur, the blessings which we enjoy.
251. Where the antecedent is compound, the same principles for number and gender prevail as in case of predicate adjectives under similar conditions (see § $235, B, 2$ ). Thus :-
pater et filius, quī captī sunt, the father and son who were captured; stultitia et timiditās quae fugienda sunt, folly and cowardice which mitist be shtithtued;
honōrēs et victōriae quae sunt fortuīta, honors and victories which are accidental.

## Syntax.

3. The Relative regularly agrees with a predicate noun (either Nominative or Accusative) instead of its antecedent ; as, carcer, quae lautumiae vocantur, the prisol while $/$ is called Lalltumiat;
Celtae, quae est tertia pars, the Celts, who .ne wird part.
4. Somstimes the Relative takes its gender ar number from the meaning of its antecedent ; as, -
pars quī bēstiIs objecti sunt, a part (of the men) who were thrown to beiasts.
5. Occasionally the Relative is attracted into the case of its antecedent ; as, nătus eō patre quō dixi, born of the father that $/$ said.
6. Antecedent. I. The antecedent of the Relative is sometimes omitted; as, qui nătüram sequitur sapienns est, he who follozes Nature is wise.
7. The antecedent may be implied in a possessive pronoun (or rarely an adjective); as, -
nostra qui remannsimus caedēs, the slaughter of us who remained; (servili tumultū, quōs üsus ao disciplina sublevärunt, at the uprising of the slaves, whom experience and discipline assisted
$1 \quad$ (servill $=$ servorrum).
8. Sometimes the antecedent is repeated with the Relative: as, erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus, there were two routes, by which (routes).
9. Incorporation of Antecedent in Relative Clause. The antecedent is often incorporated in the relative clause. Thus:-
a) When the relative clause stands first ; as, quam quisque nōvit artem in hāc see exerceat, let each one practice the branch which he knowes.
b) When the antecedent is an appositive; as, nōn longē ã Tolōsātium fīnibus absunt, quae civitäs est in provinciā, they are not far from the borders of the Tolosates, a state which is in our province.
c) When the logical antecedent is a superlative; as, Themistoclēs dē servīs suis, quem habuit fidêlissimum misit, Themistocles sent the most trusty slave he had.

## INDEPINITE PRONOUNS.

252. 253. Quis, any one, is the weakest of the Indefinites, and stands usually in combination with sI, nisi, nẽ, num ; as. -
si quis putat, if any one thinks.
1. Aliquis (adj. aliqui) is more definite than quis, and corresponds usually to the English some one, somebody, some; as, -
nunc aliquis dicat mihi, now let somebody tell me;
utinam modo agătur aliquid, oh that something may be done.
2. Quīdam, a certain one, is still more definite than aliquis; as, homō quīdam, a certain man (i.e. one whom I have in mind).
a. Quidam (with or without quasi, as if) is sometimes used in the sense: a sort of, kind of; as, 一
quaedam cognātion. a sort of relationship:
mors est quasi quaedam migrātio, death is a kind of transfer, as it were.
3. Quisquam, any one, any one whoever (more general than quis), and its corresponding adjective ūllus, any, occur mostly in negative and conditional sentences, in interrogative sentences implying a negative, and in clauses of comparison; as, jūstitia numquam nocet cuiquam, justice never harms anybody; sī quisquam, Catō sapiēns fuit, if anylody was ever wise, Cato weas; potestne quisquam sine perturbātiōne animī īrāscī, can anybody be angry without excitement? sī ūllō modō fierī potest, if it can be done in any zvay; taetrior hī tyrannus fuit quam quisquam superiōrum, he was a viler tyrant than any of his predecessors.
4. Quisque, each one, is used especially under the following circum-stances:-
a) In connection with suus. See $\S 244,4, a$.
b) In connection with a Relative or Interrogative Pronoun;

1 as, -
quod cuique obtigit, id teneat, what falls to each, that let him hold.
c) In connection with superlatives; as, optimus quisque, all the best (lit. cach best one).
d) With ordinal numerals; as, quīntō quōque annō, every four years (lit. each fifth year).
6. Nēmö, no one, in addition to its other uses, stands regularly with adjectives used substantively; as, -

> nēmō mortālis, no mortal; nēmō Rōmānus, no Romañ.

## $\times$ PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

253. I. Alius, another, and alter, the other, are often used correlatively ; as, -
aliud loquitur, aliud sentit, he says one thing, he thinks another;
aliī resistunt, aliī fugiunt, some resici, others flee;
alter exercitum perdidit, alter vēndidit, one ruined the army, the other sold it;
alterī sē in montem recēpērunt, alterī aci impedimenta sce contulèrunt, the one party retreated to the mountain, the others betook themselves to the baggage.
quis), egative nega-
254. Where the English says one does one thing, another another, the Latin uses a more condensed form of statement; as, -
alius aliud amat, one likes one thing, another another; aliud aliis placet, one thing pleases some, another others.
a. So sometimes with adverbs; as, 一 aliī aliō fugiunt, some flee in one direction, others in another.
255. The Latin also expresses the notion 'each 'other' by means of alius repeatid; as, -
Gallī alius alium cohortāti sunt, the Gauls encouraged each other.
256. Cēterī means the rest, all the others; as, cēterīs praestāre, to be superior to all the others.
257. Reliquì means the others in the sense of the rest, those remaining, - hence is the regular word with numerals; as, reliquī sex, the six others.
258. Nescio quis forms a compound indefinite pronoun with the force of some one or other ; as, -
causidicus nescio quis, some pettifogger or other; mīsit nescio quem, he sent some one or other; nescio quō pactō, somehow or othe;-.

## Chapter V.—Syntax of Verbs.

AGREEMENT.

## With One Subject.

254. I. Agreement in Number and Person. A Finite Verb agrees with its subject in Number and Person ; as, vōs vidētis, you see; pater filiōs instituit, the father trains his sons.
255. Agreement in tender. In the compound forms of the verb the participle regularly agrees with its subject in gender; as, -
sêditiơ repressa est, the mutiny was checked.
256. But when a predicate noun is of different gender or number from its subject, the verb usually agrees with its nearest substantive; as, TarquiniI māterna patria erat, Tarquinii was his native country on his mother's side;
nōn omnis error stultitia est dicenda, not every error is to be called folly.
a. Less frequently the verb agrees with an appositive; as, -

Corioli, oppidum Volscōrum, captum est, Corioli, a town of the Volsci, was captured.
4. Construction according to Sense. Sometimes the verb agrees with its subject according to sense instead of strict grammatical form. Thus:-
a) In Number; as, -
multitüdō hominum convēnerant, a crowd of men had gathered.
b) In Gender; as, -
duo mīlia crucibus adfīx̄̄ sunt, two thousand (men) were crucified.

## With Two or More Subjects.

255. I. Agreement in Number. With two or more subjects the verb is regularly plural; as, pater et filius mortui sunt, the father and son died.
256. But sometimes the verb agrees with the nearest subject ; viz., -
a) When the verb ${ }_{2}$ precedes both subjects or stands between them ; as, -
mortuus est pater et filius ;
pater mortur, est ss wlina.
b) When the subjects are sonnected by aut; aut . . . aut; vel . . . vel ; neque . . . neque; as, -
neque pater neque filitis mortuis est, neither father nor son died.
257. When the different srbjects are Solt together as constituting a whole, the singular is used; as. -
temeritās ignörătiơque vitiơfa est, rizshncss and ignorance are báá.
a. This is regularly the ccse in sonâtus populusque Rōmānus.
r from ns, 一 ountry called $n$ of the verb gram-
258. Agreemont in Person. With subjects of different persons the verb always takes the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; as, sī tū et Tullia valētis, ego et Cicerō valëmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.
259. Agreement in Gender. With subjects of different genders the participle in the compound tenses follows the same principles as laid down for predicate adjectives. See $\S 235, B, 2$.

## VOICES.

256. I. The Passive Voice sometimes retains traces of its criginal middle or reflexive meaning ; as, ego nōn patiar ium dēfendī, I shall not allow him to defend himself.
257. In imitation of Greck usage many perfect passive participles are used by the poets as indirect middles, i.e. the subject is viewed as acting not upon himself, but as doing something in his own interest ; as, vêlätus tempora, having veiled his temples.
a. Occasionally finite forms of the verb are thus used; as, tunică indūcitur artūs, he covers his limbs with a tunic.
258. Intransitive Verbs may be used impersonally in the passive; as, curritur, people run (lit. it is run); ventum est, he (they, etc.) came (lit. it was come).

## TENSES.

## TENSES OF H HE INDICATIVE.

$20 \%$. The Latin tenses express two distinct no tions:-
a) The period of time to which the action belongs : Present, Past, or Future.
b) The kind of action: Undefined, Going on, or Completed.

The Latin with its six tenses is able to express each of the three kinds action for each of the three perieds of time (making practically nine

## Syntax.

tenses). It does this by employing certain tenses in more than one way, as may be seen by the following table : -

PERIOD OF 'TIME.

2. It will be seen that the Present may express Undefined action or action Going on; so also the Future. The Perfect likewise has a double use, according as it denotes action Completed in present time (Present Perfect) or Undefined action belonging to past time (Historical Perfect).

## Principal and Historical Tenses.

258. Tenses which denote Present or Future time are called Principal Tenses; those which denote Past time are called Historical.

The Principal Tenses of the Indicative are: Present, Future, Present Perfect, Future Perfect.

The Historical Tenses are: Imperfect, Historical Perfect, Pluperfect.

Present Indieative.
259. Besides the two uses indicated in the table, the Present Indicative presents the following peculiarities : -
" 1 . It is used to denote a genera! truth, i.e. something true not merely in the present but at all times ('Gnomic resent'); as, virtno ocnciliet amīcitiās et cōnservat, ziriue establishes ties of friendship and maintains them (i.e. always does so).
2. It is used of an attempted action ('Conative Present'); as, dum vītant vitia, in contrăria currunt, while they try to avoid (vītant) vices, they rush into opposite ones.
3. In lively narration the Present is often used of a past action ('Historical Present') ; as, -
Caesar Aeduīs obsidēs imperat, Caesar demanded hostages of the Aedui (lit. demands).
4. In corr 19. . on with jam, jam diū, jam prīdem, and similar words, the $P_{s}$ is frequently used of an action originating in the past and conticu. in the present; as, -
jam diū cupiō tē vīsere, I have long been desiring to visit you (i.e. I desire and have long desired).

## Imperfect Indicative.

260. I. The Imperfect primarily denotes action going on in past time; as, -
librum legèbam, I was reading a book.
$a$. This force makes the Imperfect especially adapted to serve as the tense of description (as opposed to mere narration).
261. From the notion of action going on, there easily develops the notion of repeated or customary action; as, lēgātōs interrogābat, he kept asking the envoys;
puer C. Duĩlium vidēbam, as a boy I often used to see Gaius Duilius.
262. Like the Present, the Imperfect often denotes an attempted action ('Conative Imperfect'); as, -
hostēs nostrōs intrā mūnītiōnēs prōgredī prohibēbant, cihe enemy tries to prevent (prohibēbant) our men from advancing within the fortifications.
263. The Imperfect, with jam, jam diū, jam dūdum, etc., is sometimes used of a past action which had been continuing for some time ; as, -
dominilium Rōmae multos jam animos habēbat, he had had his residence at Rome for many years (i.e. he had it at this time and had long had it).

## Future Indicative.

261. 262. The two regular uses of the Future have been given above in the Table (p. 168).
1. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the F. are than is the English. We say: 'If he comes, I shall be glad,' where we really mean : 'If he shall come,' etc. In such cases the Latin rarely admits the Present, but generally employs the Future.
2. Sometimes the Fliture has Imperative force ; as, dicees, say!

## Perfect Indicative.

262. A. Present Perfect. Several Present Perfects denote the state resulting from a completed act, and so seem equivalent to the Present; as, -
nōvī cognōví
cōnsuēvì, I am wont (lit. I have become accustomed).
B. Historical Perfect. The Historical Perfect is primarily the tense of narration (as opposed to the Imperfect, the tense of description) ; as, -
Rēgulus in senātum vēnit, mandāta exposuit, reddī captīvōs negāvit esse ūtile, Regulus came into the Senate, set forth his commission, said it was useless for captives to be returned.
r. Occasionally the Historical Perfect is used of a general truth (' Gnomic Perfect').

## Pluperfect Indicative.

263. The Latin Pluperfect, like the English Past Perfect, denotes an act completed in the past; as, -
Caesar Rhēnum trānsīre dēcrēverat, sed nē i js deerant, Caesar had decided to cross the Rhine, but had no boats.

## Future Perfect Indicative.

264. The Future Perfect denotes an action completed in future time. Thus:-
scrībam epistulam, cum redieris, I will write the letter when you have returned (lit. when you shall have returned).
a. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future Perfect than the English, which commonly employs the Present Perfect instead of the Future Perfect.

## Epistolary Tenses.

265. In letters the writer often uses tenses which are not appropriate at the time of writing, but which will be so at the time when his letter is received; he thus employs the Imperfect and the Perfect for the Present, and the Pluperfect for the Present Perfect ; as, nihil habēbam quod scrīberem, neque enim novī quidquam audieram et ad tuãs omnēs epistulās jam rescrịpseram, $I$ have nothing to write, for I have heard no news and have already answered all your letters.

## TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

266. $A$. In Independent Sentences. See §§ 272-280. $B$. In Dependent Sentences. In dependent sentences the tenses of the subjunctive usually conform to the so-called

## Sequence of Tenses.

267. I. In the Subjunctive the Present and Perfect are Principal tenses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, Historical.
268. By the Sequence of Tenses Principal tenses are followed by Principal, Historical by Historical. Thus:-

Principal Sequence, -
videō quid faciās, I see what you are doing.
vidēbō quid faciās, $I$ shall see what you are doing.
vīderō quid faciăs, I shall have seen what you are doing.
videö quid fēceris, I see what you have done.
vidēbō quid fēceris, I shall see what you have done. vīderō quid fēceris, I shall have seen what you have done.
Historical Sequence, -
vidēbam quid facesēs, I saww what you were doing. vīdī quid facerēs, I saw what you were doing. vīderam quid facerēs, I had seen what you were dorng.
vidēbam quid fëcissess, I sazu what you had done.
vīdī quid fēcissēs, $I$ saw what you had done.
vīderam quid fēcissēs, I had seen what you had done.
3. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive denote incomplete action, the Perfect and Pluperfect completed action, exactly as in the Indicative.

## Peculiarities of Sequence.

268. I. The Perfect Indicative is usually an historicai tense (even when translated in English as a Present Perfect), and so is followed iby the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive; as, -
dęmōnstrāvi quărē ad causam accēderem, / have shown why / took the case (lit. I showed why, etc.).
269. A dependent Perfect Infinitive is treated as an historical tense wherever, if resolved into an equivalent Indicative, it would be historical ; as, -
videor ostendisse quãlēs deĩ essent, I secm to have slooun of what nature the gods are (ostendisse here corresponds to an Indicative, ostendi, $I$ showed).
270. The Historical Present is sometimes regarded as a principal tense, şometimes as historical. Thus:-
Sulla suōs hortātur ut fortī animō sint, Sulla exhorts his soldiers to be stout-hearted;
Gallōs hortātur ut arma caperent, he exhorted the Gauls to take arms.
271. Conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type are not affected by the principles for the Sequence of Tenses; as, honestum tāle est ut vel sī ignōrārent id hominẽs suā tamen pulchritūdine laudabile esset, virtue is such a thing that even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be worthy of praise for its own loveliness.
272. In conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type the Imperfect Subjunctive is usually treated as an Historical tense; as, sī sōlōs eōs dīcerēs miserōs, quibus moriendum esset, nēminem tū quidem eōrum quī viverent exciperēs, if you called only those wretched who must die, you would except no one of those who live.
273. In clauses of Result and some others, the Perfect Subjunctive is sometimes used as an historical tense. Thus:-
rēx tantum mōtus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem jūdicārit, the king was so mitch moved that he adjudged Tissaphernes an enemy.
This construction is rare in Cicero, but frequent in Nepos atid suisequent historians. The Perfect Subjunctive in this use represents a
result simply as a fact without reference to the continuance of the act, and therefore corresponds to an Historical Perfect Indicative of direct statement. Thus, juadicãrit in the above example corresponds to a jūdicāvit, he adjudged. To denote a result as something continuous, all writers use the Imperfect Subjunctive after historical tenses.
274. Sometimes perspicuity demands that the ordinary principles of Sequence be abandoned altogether. Thus: -
a) We may have the Present or Perfect Subjunctive after an historical tense ; as, -
Verrēs Siciliam ita perdidit uv ea restituin nōn possit, Verres so ruined Sicily that it cannot be restored (Direct statement; nōn potest restitui) ;
ārdēbat Hortēnsius dīcenaI cupiditāte sic, ut in nūllō flägrantius studium viderim, Hortensius burned so with eagerness to speak that I have seen in no one a greater desire (Direct statement : in nūllō vīdi, $I$ have seen in no one).
Note. - This usage is different from that cited under 6. Here, by neglect of Scquence, the Perfect is used as a principal tense; there the Perfect was used as an historical tense.
b) We may have a principal tense followed by the Perfect Subjunctive used historically; as, -
nesciō quid causae fuerit cūr nūllās ad mẽ litterãs darēs, I do not know what reason there was why you did not send me a letter.
Here fuerit is historical, as is shown by the following Imperfect Subjunctive.

## Method of expressing Future Time in the Subjunctive.

269. The Future and Future Perfect which are lacking to the Latin Subjunctive are supplied in subordinate clauses as follows:-

ג. a) The Future is supplied by the Present after principal tenses, by the Imperfect after historical tenses.
b) The Future Perfect is supplied by the Perfect after principal tenses, by the Pluperfect after historical tenses.

This is especially frequent when the context clearly shows, by the presence of a future tense in the main clause, that the reference is to future time. Thus:-

Galli pollicentur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperet, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall order;
Galli pollicēbantur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperäret, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should order;
Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperãverit, the Gauls promise they zuill do what Caesar shall have ordered;
Gallī pollicēbantur see factūrō3 quae Caesar imperã visset, the Gauls promised they zuould do what Caesar should have ordered.
2. Even where the context does not contain a Future tense in the main clause, Future time is often expressed in the subordinate clauses by the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. Thus:-
timeō nee veniat, I am afraid he will come;
Caesar exspectābat quid cōnsiliī hostēs caperent, Caesar was waiting to see what plan the enemy would adopt.
3. Where greater definiteness is necessary the periphrastic forms in -ūruśs sim and -ūrus essem are employed, especially in clauses of Result, Indirect Questions, and after nōn dubitō quīn; as, nōn dubitō quīn pater ventūrus sit, $I$ do not doubt that my father will come;
nōn dubitābam quīn pater ventūrus esset, I did not doubt that my father would come.
4. Where the verb has no Future Active Participle or where it stands in the passive voice, its Future character may be indicated by the use of the particles mox, brevi, statim, etc., in connection with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive; as, -
nōn dubitō quīn tē mox hūjus reī paeniteat, $I$ do not doubt that you will soon repent of this thing;
nōn dubitābam quīn haec rēs brevī cōnficerētur, I did not doubt that this thing would soon be finished.

## TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

270. I. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time not absolutely, but with reference to the werb on which they repend. Thus:-
a) The Present Infinitive represents an act as contemporaneous with the time of the verb on which it depends; as, vidētur honōrēs adsequī, he seems to be gaining honors; vidēbātur honōrēs adsequī, he seemed to be gaining honors.
b) The Perfect Infinitive represents an act as prior to the time of the verb on which it depends; as, -
vidētur honōrēs adseoūtus esse, he seems to have gained honors ;
visus est honōrēs adseoūtus esse, he seemed to have gained honors.
c) The Future Infinitive represents an act as subsequent to that of the verb on which it depends; as, -
vidētur honōrēs adsecūtūrus esse, he seems about to gain honors ;
visus est honōrēs adsecūtūrus esse, he seemed about to gain honors.
271. Where the English says 'ought to have done,' 'might have done,' etc., the Latin uses dēbuī, oportuit, potuī, with the Present Infinitive; as, -
dëbuit dicere, he ought to have said (lit. owed it to say) ;
oportuit venīre, he oughi to have come;
potuit vidēre, he might have seen.
" Oportuit, volō, nōlō (and in poetry some other verbs), may take a Prerfect Infinitive instead of the Present; as, -
hōc jam pridem factum esse oportuit, this ought long ago to have been done.
272. Periphrastic Future Infinitive. Verbs that have no Participial Stem express the Future Infinitive Active and Passive by fore ut or futūrum esse ut, with the Subjunctive; as, -
spērō fore ut tē paeniteat levitātis, I hope you will repent of your.
fickleness (lit. hope it will happen that you repent);
spērō futūrum esse ut hostēs arceantur, I hope that the enemy will be kept off.
a. The Periphrastic Future Infinitive is often used, especially in the Passive, even in case of verbs which have the Participial Stem; as, spērō fore ut hostēs vincantur, I hope the enemy will be conquered.
273. Passives and Deponents sometimes form a Future Perfect Infinitive with fore; as, -
spērō epistulam scrīptam fore, $I$ hope the letter will have been written;
puto mee omnia adeptum fore, $I$ think that $I$ shall have gained everything.

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## THE MOODS.

## MOODS IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

The Indicative in Indepencent Sentences.
271. The Indicative is used for the statement of facts, the supposition of facts, or inquiry after facts.
I. Note the following idiomatic uses:-
a) With possum ; as, -
possum multa dicere, $I$ might say much;
poteram multa dicere, I might have said much (§ 270, 2).
b) In such expressions as longum est, aequum est, melius est, cifficile est, $\bar{u} t i l i u s ~ e s t, ~ a n d ~ s o m e ~ o t h e r s ; ~ a s, ~-~$
longum est ea dicere, it would be tedious to tell that;
difficile est omnia persequī, it would be difficult to enumerate everything.

The Subjunctive in Independent Sentences.
272. The Subjunctive is used in Independent Sentences to express something -
I. As willed-Volitive Subjunctive;
2. As desired-Optative Subjunctive ;
3. Conceived of as possible - Potential Subjunctive.

## VOLITYVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

273. The Volitive Subjunctive represents the action as zoilled. It always implies authority on the part of the speaker, and has the following varieties:-
A. Hortatory Subjunctive.
274. The Hortatory Subjunctive expresses an exhortation. This use is confined to the first person plural, of the Present. The negative is nē. Thus:-

> eāmus, let us go; amēmus patriam, let us love our country; nē dēspērēmus, let us not despair.

## The Volitive Subjunctive. <br> B. Jussive Subjunctive.

275. The Jussive Subjunctive expresses a command. The Jussive stands regularly in the Present Tense, and is used -
of facts,
(§ 270, 2). st, melius
as, that; ult to enu-
r. Most frequently in the third singular and third plural ; as, dīcat, let him tell; dicant, let thern tell; impiÏ nē plãcäre audeant deōs, let not the wicked dare to appease the gods.
276. Less frequently in the second person; as, -

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { istō borō ūtảre, use that advantage ; } \\
& \text { modestẽ vīvās, live temperately. }
\end{aligned}
$$

C. Prohibitive Subjunctive.
276. The Subjunctive is used in the second person singular and plural, with ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\imath}} \mathrm{e}$, to express a prohibition. As regards the use of tenses, the Perfect seems to be used where there is special excitement or emotion, otherwise the Present ; as, -

> nè repūgnētis, do not resist!
tū vērō istam nē relīqueris, DON'T yOU LEAVE HER!
a. Neither of these constructions is frequent in classical prose.
b. The distfnction sometimes drawn between the Present and the Perfect in this construction, restricting the former to general prohibitions, and the latter to those addressed to a definite second person, will not hold.
c. A commoner method of expressing a prohibition is by the use of nöli (nōlīte) with a following infinitive, or by cavè nē with the Subjunctive; as, nōlì hōc facere, don't do this (lit. be unzwilling to do)! nōlīte mentîri, do not lie!
cavē nē haec faciās, do not do this (lit. take care lest you do).
D. Deliberative Subjunctive.
277. The Deliberative Subjunctive is used in questions and exclamations implying doubt or indignation. The

Present is used referring to present time, the Imperfect referring to past. The negative is nōn. Thus : -
quid faciam, what shall I do?
ego redeam, shall I go back? quid facerem, what was $I$ to do? hunc er:) nōn diligam, shall I not cherish this man?
a. These Deliberative Questions are usually purely Rhetorical in character, and do not expect an answer.

## E. Concessive Subjunctive.

278. The Subjunctive is used to indicate something as granted or conceded for the sake of argument. The Present is used for present time, the Perfect regularly for past. The negative is ne. Thus :sit hōq vērum, granting that this is true (lit. let this be true); nee sit summum malum dolor, malum certee est, granting that pain is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil; fuerit malus cīvis aliis, tibi quando esse coepit, granting that he was a bad citizen to others, when did he begin to be so toward you?

## OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

279. The Optative Subjunctive occurs in expressions of wishing. The negative is regularly nē. The use of tenses is as follows:-
280. The Present Tense, often accompanied by utinam, is used where the wish is conceived of as possible.
di istaec prohibeant, may the gods prevent that! falsus utinam vătē̈s sim, oh that I may be a false prophet! nē veniant, may they not come!
281. The Imperfect expresses, in the form of a wish, the regret that something is not so now; the Pluperfect that something was not so in the past. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are regularly accompanied by utinam ; as, -
utinam istud ex animō dĩcerees, would that you were saying that in earnest, (i.e. I regret that you are not saying it in earnest); Pēlĩaēs utinam vĩtāsset Apollinis arcūs, would that Achilles had escaped the bow of Apollo; utinam ne natue esnem, would that $I$ had not been born.

## The Potential Subjunctive.

## POTENTIAL SUBjunctive.

280. The Potential Subjunctive expresses a possibility. The negative is nōn. The following uses are to be noted:-
281. The Potential Subjunctive may designate a mere objective possibility (English auxiliary may). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. The subject is generally an indefinite pronoun. Thus:-
dicat aliquis, some one may say; dixerit aliquis, some one may say.
a. This construction is by no means frequent, and is confined mainly to a few phrases like those given as examples.
282. The Potential Subjunctive may represent something as contingent upon a condition expressed or understood (English auxiliary should, would). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:fortūnam citius reperiās quam retineās, one would more ruickly find Fortune than keep it (i.e. if one should make the trial); paene dicam, I should almost say (i.e. if I were to express an opinion); crēdiderim, $I$ should believe.
a. Here belongs the use of velim, mālim, nōlim, as softened forms of statement for volō, mālō, nōlō. Thus:velim mihi ignōscās, I wish you would forgive me;
nōlim putēs mē jocārī, I don't want you to think I'm joking.
b. When the condition is expressed, we get one of the regular types of Conditional Sentences (see §303); as, diēs dēficiat, sī cōner ēnumerāre causās, lime would fail if I should attempt to enumerate the reasons.
283. In the Imperfect the Potential occurs in the second person singu$\operatorname{lar}$ (with indefinite force ; § 356,3 ) of a few verbs, chiefly the following : crēderēs, one might have believed; vidērēs, cernerès, one might have seen, perceived; putārēs, one might have thought.
284. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of the contrary-to-fact type (see $\S 304$ ) are also Potential in character. By omission of the Protasis such an Apodosis sometımes stands alone, particularly vellem, nōllem, māllem; as, vellem id quidem, I would wish that (i.e. were I bold enough).

## The Imperative.

281. The Imperative is used in commands, admonitions, and entreaties (negative nè); as, -

> ēgredere ex urbe, depart from the city; mihi ignōsce, pardon me; valē, farewell.

1. The Present is the tense of the Imperative most commonly used, but the Future is employed -
a) Where there is a distinct reference to future time, especially in the apodosis of conditional sentences; as, rem vōbīs prōpōnam; vōs eam penditōte, I will lay the matter before you; do you (then) consider it ;
sī bene disputābit, tribuitō litterīs Graecīs, if he shall speak well, attribute it to Greek literature.
b) In laws, treaties, wills, maxims, etc. ; as, cōnsulēs summum jūs habentō, the consuls shall have supreme power ;
hominem mortuom in urbe nē sepelītō, no one shall bury a dead body in the city;
amīcitia rēgī Antiochō cum populō Rōmānō hīs lēgibus et condiciōnibus estō, let there be peace between . Intiochus and the Roman people on the following terms and conditions.
quārtae estō partis Mārcus hērēs, let Marcus be heir to a fourth (of the property);
ignōscitō saepe alterī, numquam tibi, forgive your neighbor often, yourself never.
2. Except with the Future Imperative the negative is not used in classical prose. Prohibitions are regularly expressed in other ways. See § 276, $c$.
3. Questions in the Indicative introduced by quin (why not?) are or̂ten equivalent to an Imperative or to the Hortatory Subjunctive; as, quīn abīs, go away! (lit. why don't you go away?)
quīn vōcem continētis, keep still! (lit. why don't you stop your voices?)
quīn equōs cōnscendimus, let us mount our horses (lit. why do we not mount our horses?)

## MOODS IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES. <br> Clauses of Purpose.

282. I. Clauses of Purpose are introduced most commonly by ut (utī), quō (that, in order that), ne (in order that not, lest), and stand in the Subjunctive ; as, edimus, ut vīvāmus, we eat that we may live.
adjūtā mē quō hōc fīat facilius, heïp me, in order that this may be done more easily.
portās clausit, nē quam oppidānī injūriam acciperent, he closed
the gates, lest the townspeople should receive any injury.
a. Quō, as a rule, is employed only when the purpose clause contains a comparative or a comparative idea. Occasional exceptions occur; as, haec faciunt quō Chremētem absterreant, they are doing this in order to frighten Chremes.
b. Ut nē is sometimes found, as more emphatic than nē. Thus:-
ut nē quid neglegenter agāmus, in order that we may not do anything carelessly.
c. Ut nōn (not nê) is used where the negation belongs to some single word, instead of to the purpose clause as a whole. Thus:ut nōn ējectus ad aliēnōs, sed invītātus ad tuōs videăre, that you may seem not driven out among strangers, but invited to your own friends.
d. To say 'and that not' or 'or that not,' the Latin regularly uses nēve (neu) ; as, ut eārum rêrum vīs minuerētur, neu pontī nocērent, that the violence of these things might be lessened, and that they might not harm the bridge; profügit, nē caperētur nēve interficerētur, he fled, that he might not be captured or killed.
c. But neque (for nēve) is sometimes used in the second clause when ut stands in the first, and, after the Augustan era, even when the first clause is introduced by ne.
283. A Relative Pronoun (qui) or Adverb (ubi, unde, quō) is frequently used to introduce a Purpose Clause ; as, -
Helvêtiī lẽgătōs mittunt, qui dicerent, the Helvetii sent envoys to say (lit. who should say);
haec habui, de senectūte quae dicerem, I had these things to say about old age ;
nōn habèbat quō fugeret, he had no place to which to flee (lit. whither he might flee).
a. Quil in such clauses is equivalent to ut is, ut ego, etc.; ubi to ut 1bi; unde to ut inde; quo to ut eob.
284. Relative clauses of purpose follow dignus, indignus, and idōneus ; as, -
idōneus fuit nēmō quem imitārēre, there was no one suitable for you to imitate (cf. nēmō fuit quem imitārêre, there was no one to imitate);
dignus est quī aliquando imperet, he is worthy to rule sometime.
285. Purpose clauses often depend upon something to be supplied from the context instead of upon the principal verb of their own sentences; as, -
ut haec omnia omittam, abiimus, to pass oyer all this ( $I$ will say that) we departed.

## Clauses of Characteristic.

283. 284. A relative clause used to express an essential quality or characteristic of an antecedent not otherwise defined is called a Clause of Characteristic, and stands in the Subịunctive; as, multa sunt, quae mentem acuant, there are many things which sharpen the wits.
Clauses of Characteristic are opposed to those relative clauses which are used merely to state or assume some fact about an antecedent already defined, and which therefore take the Indicative; as, -
Catō, senex jüoundus, quī Sapiēns appellätus est, Cato, a delightful old man, who was called 'The Wise.'
The Clause of Characteristic implies 'a man of the sort that does something'; the Indicative relative clause implies ' $a$ man who actually dues something.'
( $\overline{0}$ ) is freenvoys to tgs to say t. whither ubl to ut and idoitable for e was no letime. supplied own senwill say
ssential wise deands in
1. Clauses of Characteristic are used especially after such expressions as, est quī; sunt quí; nēmō est quī; nūllus est quī; unus est qui ; sollus est quí; quis est qui ; is qui ; etc. Thus :sunt qui dicant, there are (some) who say; nembo est qui putet, there is nobody who thinks; sapientia est una quae maestitiam pellat, philosophy is the only thing that drives away sorrow;
quae civitās est quae nōn everti possit, what state is there that cannot be overthrown?
nōn is sum qui improbōs laudem, I am not the sort of man that praises the wicked.
a. Sometimes (very rarely in Cicero and Caesar) the clause of characteristic is used after comparatives; as, nōn longius hostēs aberant quam quō tēlum adigi posset, the enemy were not too far off for a dart to reach them (lit. further off than [apoint] to which a dart could be cast).
2. The Clause of Characteristic often conveys an accessory notion of cause (since) or opposition (although). Thus:-
a) Cause. The relative is then frequently accompanied by ut, quippe, utpote; as, -
ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, qui tuae virtūtis Homērum praecönem invēneris, $O$ fortunate man, since you have found a Homer as the herald of your valor;
ut quī optimō jūre eam prōvinciam obtinuerit, since he held that province by excellent right.
b) Opposition: -
egomet quī sērō Graecās litterās attigissem, tamen complüręs diēs Athēnis commorätus sum, $I$, although I had taken up Greek literature late in "life, nevertheless tarried several days at Athens.
3. Clauses of Characteristic may also be introduced by quīn $=$ qui (quae, quod) nōn; as, -
nēmö est quīn saepe audierit, there is no one who has not often heard;
nēmō fuit mīlitum quīn vulnerārētur, there was no one of the soldiers who was not wounded.
4. Under Clauses of Characteristic belong also phrases of the type: quod sciam, so far as I know; quod audierim, so far as I have heard.

## Clauses of Result.

284. I. Clauses of Result are usually introduced by ut (that, so that), negative ut nōn (so that not), and take the Subjunctive. The main clause often contains tantus, talis, tot, is ( = talis), tam, or some similar word. Thus:-
quis tam dênens est ut suā voluntâte maereat, who is so senseless as to mourn of his own volition?
sioiliam ita vastavit ut restitui in antiquum statum nōn possit, he has so ravaged Sicily that it cannot be restored to its former condition;
mōns altissimus impendêbat, ut facile perpauci prohibēre possent, a very high mountain overhung, so that a very few could easily stop them.
285. A Result Clause is often introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb, qui ( $=u t$ is), quō ( $=u t$ eठ), etc.; as, nēmō est tam senex quī sê annum nōn putet posse vivere, noboly is so old as not to think he will live a year;
habêtis eum cōnsulem quī pārēre vestrīs dêcrē̂tīs nōn dubitet, you have a consul such as does not hesitaic to obey your decrees.
a. These relative clauses of result are a development of the Clause of Characteristic, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish the two constructions. It is best to class the relative clause as one of Characteristic, unless the result idea is clear and unmistakable.
286. Result clauses may also be introduced by quīn $=u t n \bar{n} n$; as, nihil tam diffcile est quīn ${ }_{\iota}$ quaerendō invēstigarī̀ possit, nothing is so difficult that it cannot be discovered by searching.
nēmठ est tam fortis quīn reî novitāte perturbêtur, no one is so steadfast as not to be thrown into confusion by a strange occurrence.

Note phrases of the type:-
fierī nōn potest quīn scrībam. facere nōn possum quīn scrībam, $\}$ I cannot avoid writing.
4. Note the use of quam ut (sometimes quam alone) to denote Result after comparatives; as, -
urbs erat munitior quam ut primō impetū capi posset, the city was too strongly fortified to be taken at the first attack (lit. more strongly fortified than [so] that it could be taken, etc.).

## Causal Clauses.

285. Causal clauses are introduced chiefly by the following particles:-
286. Quod, quia, quoniam.
287. Cum.
288. Quandō.
289. The use of moods is as follows :-
I. Quod, quia, quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is that of the writer or speaker; they take the Subjunctive when the reason is viewed as that of another. Thus:-

Parthōs timeō quod diffīdō cōpiİs nostrīs, I fear the Parthians, because I distrust our troops.
Themistoclēs, quia nōn tūtus erat, Corcȳram dēmigrāvit, Themistocles, since he was not safe, moved to Corcyra.
neque mé vixisse paenitet, quoniam bene vixi, $I$ do not regre: having lived, since I have lived well.
sōcratēs accūsătus est quod corrumperet juventūtem, Socrates was arraigned on the ground that he was corrupting the young. (Here the reason is not that of the writer but of the accuser. Hence the Subjunctive.)
Aeduì Caesarī grātiās êgêrunt, quod sẽ perīculō līberāvisset, the Aedui thanked Caesar because he had delivered them from danger. (The reason of the Aedui.)
quoniam Miltiadēs dicere nōn posset, verba prō eō fêcit Tisagorās, since Miltiatles could not speak, Tisagoras spoke for him. (The reason of Tisagoras.)
noctū ambulābat Themistoclēs, quod somnum capere nōn posset, Themistocies used to walk at night because (as he said) he couldn't sleep.
a. Verbs of thinking and saying often stand in the Subjurictive in causal clauses as though the act of thinking or saying, and not the contents of the thought or language, constituted the reason. Thus:-
Bellovacĩ suum numerum nōn complêvêrunt, quod sê suõ nōmine cum Römanis bellum gesturös dioe. rent, the Bellovaci dia not furnish their complement, be-
cause they said they were guing to wage war with the Romans on their mun account.
$b$ Nōn quod, nōn quō (by attraction for nōn eō quod), nōn quia, not that, not hecause; and nñn quod nōn, nōn quō nōn, nōn quin, not that . . . not; not because . . . not; not but what, are usually employed merely to introduce a hypothetical reason, and hence take the Subjunctive; as, -
id fēci, nōn quod vōs hano dēfernsiōnem dēsiderare arbitrărer, sed ut omnēs intellegerent, this $/$ did, not because I thought you uceded this defense, but that all might perceive;
Crassō commendātiōnem nōn sum pollioitus, nōn quīn eam valitūram apud tē arbitrürer, sed ogêre mihi commenäaciōne nōn videbbătur, I did no promise a recommendation to Crassus, not that I did nei think it zould have weight with you, but because he did not seem to me to need recommendation.
c. But clauses introduced by nōn quod, nōn quia take the Indicative if they state a fact, even though that fact is denied to be the reason for something; as, -
hōo ita sentiō, nōn quia sum ipse augur, sed quia sio exīstimāre nös est necesse, this I think, not because 1 am myself an augur (which I really am), but because it is necessary for us to think so.
2. Cum causal regularly takes the Subjunctive; as, quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
oum sis mortālis, quae mortalia sunt, cūră, since you are mortal, care for what is mortal.
a. Note the phrase cum praesertim (praesertim cur), especially since; as,-
Aeduōs accūsat, praesertim cum eōrum precibus adductus bellum suscêperit, he blamed the Aedui, especially since he had undertaken the war at their entreaties.
3. Quando (less frequent than the other causal particles) governs the Indicative; as, -
id omittō, quandō vōbīs ita placet, I pass over that, since you so wish.

## Temporal Clauses introduced by Postquam, Ut, Ubi,

 Simul ac, etc.287. I. Posiquam (posteäqvam), aftir; ut, ubi, zu/i"\%; oum primum, simul, simul ac (simul atque), as soon as, wher. used to refer to a single occurrence regularly take the Per. fect Indicative ; as, -
'vixi,' Epaminondas, after he heard that the Boestians hat conquered, said, 'I have lived enouch.'
1d ut audīit, Coroȳram dēmigrāvit, when he heard this, he moved to Corcyra;
Caesar oum primum potuit, ad exercituin oontendit, Caesar, as soon as he could, hurried to the army;
ubi de Caesaris adventū certiōrēs factI sunt, lēgātōs ad eum mittunt, when they were informed of Caesar's arrival, they sent envoys to him.
a. The Historical Present may take the place of the Perfect in this construction.
288. To denote the repeated occurrence of an act, ut, ubi, simul atque, as often as, when following an historical tense, take the Pluperfect Indicative (compare $\S \S 288,3 ; 302,3$ ); as, ut quisque Verris animum offenderat, in lautumiãs statim coniciebbatur, whenever anybody had offended Verres's feelings, he was forthwith put in the stone-quarry; hostēs, ubi aliquōs égredientēs cōnspexerant, adoriëbantur, whenever the enemy had seen any men disemburking, they attacked them.
a. In Livy and succeeding historians the imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used to denote this repeated occurrence of an act (' Indefinite Frequency'); as, -
id ubi dixisset. hastam mittēbat, whenever he had said that, he hurled a spear.
289. Occasionaily the above conjunctions are followed by the Pluperfect Indicative of a single occurrence. This is regularly the case with postquam in expressions denoting a definite interval of time (days, months, years, etc.), such as post terticm annum qua:i, tribus post annis qูuan. Thus:-
paucīs post diēbus quam Lūcā discesserat, ad Sardiniam vēnit, a few days after he had departed from Luca he came to Sardinia;
postquam occupātae Syrācūsae erant, profectus est Carthāginem, after Syracuse had been seized, he set out for Carthage.
290. The Imperfect Indicative also sometimes occurs to denote a continued state; as, -
postquam Rōmam adventābant, senātus cōnsultus est, after they were on the march towards Rome, the Senate was consulted;
postquam structi utrimque stabant, after they had been drawn up on both sides and were in position.
291. Rarely postquam, posteāquam, following the analogy of cum, take the Subjunctive, but only in the historical tenses; as, -
posteāquam sümptuōsa flerī fünera coepissent, lēge sublāta sunt, after funerals had begun to be elaborate, they were done away with by law.

## Temporal Clauses introduced by Cum.

## A. Cum referring to the past.

288. I. Cum, when referring to the past, takes -
A. The Indicative (Imperfect, Historical Perfect, or Pluperfect) to denote the point of time at which something occurs.
$B$. The Subjunctive (Imperfect or Pluperfect) to denote the situation or circumstances under which something occurs.

Examples:--
Indicative.
au tum erās cōnsul, cum in Palātiō mea domus ārdēbat, or zvere you consul at the time when my house burned up on the Palatine? crēdō tum cum Sicilia flōrēbat opibus et cōpiīs māgna artificia fuisse in eā insulā, I believe that at the time when Sicily was powerful in riches and resources there were great crafts in that island;
eō tempore pāruit cum pārēre necesse erat, he obeyed at the time when it was necessary to obey;
illō diē, cum est lāta lēx dē mē, on that day when the law concerning me was parsed.

Subjunctive.
Lȳsander cum vellat Lycūrgi lēgēs commūtāre, prohibitus est, when Lysander desired to change the laws of Lycurgus, he was prevented;
Pȳthagorās cum in geōmetriā quiddam novi invênisset, Mūsīs bovem immolā̀sse dicitur, when Pythagoras had discovered something new in geumetry, he is said to have sacrificed an ox to the Muses.
a. Note that the Indirative is much less frequent in such clauses than the Subjunctive, and is regularly confined to those cases where the main clause has tum, eō dié, eō annō, eō tempore or some similar correlative of the cum. Sometimes it depends entirely upon the point of view of the writer whether he shall employ the Indicative or Subjunctive.
2. When the logical order of the clauses is inverted, we find cum with the Perfect Indicative or Historical Present, in the sense of when, when suddenly. The main clause in such cases often has jam, vix, aegrē, nōndum; as, -
jam Gallī ex oppidō fugere apparābant, cum mātrēs familiae repente prōcurręrunt, the Gauls were already preparing to flee, when suddenly the matrons rushed forth (logically, the matrons rushed forth as the Gauls were preparing to flee);
Trēvirī Labiēnum adorīrī parābant, cum duās legiōnēs vēnisse cognōscunt, the Treviri were preparing to attack, when (suddenly) they learned that two legions had arrived.
3. To denote a recurring action in the past cum is followed by the Indicative, particularly of the Pluperfect (compare $\S \S 287,2 ; 302,3$ ); as, cum ad aliquod oppidum vēnerat, eādem lectīcā ad cubiculum dēferēbātur, whenever he had arriced at some town, he was (always) carried in the same litter to his room; cum equitātus noster sē in agrōs ējēcerat, essedāriōs ex silvis èmittēbat, whenever our cavalry had advanced into the fields, he zvould send his charioteers out from the woods.
a. Sometimes the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is thus used; as, saepe cum aliquem vidēret minus bene vestitum, suum amiculum dodit, often, whenever he saw some one more poorly clethed, he Gave himi his own mantle;
cum prōcucurrissent, Numidae effugiēbant, as ofien as they had advanced, the Numidians ran away. This construction is frequent in Livy and subsequent historians.
B. Cum referring to the Present or Future.
289. When cum refers to the Present or Future it regularly takes the Indicative ; as, -
tum tua rēs agitur, pariēs cum proximus ārdet, your own interests
are at stake when your neighbor's house is burning; cum vidēbis, tum sciess, when you see, then you will know.
a. The Indicative of the Present or Future may denote also a recurring action; as, -
stabilitās amicitiae cōnfīrmāri potest, cum hominēs cupĭdinibus imperäbunt, firm friendship can be established whenever uten shall control their desires.

## C. Other Uses of Cum.

290. 291. Cum Explicative. Cum, with the Indicative, is sometimes used to indicate the identicy of one act with another ; as, cum tacent, clămant, their silence is a shout (lit. when they are silent, they shout).
1. Cum . . . tum. When cum . . . tum mean both . . . and, the cum-clause is in the Indicative; but when cum has the force of while, though, it may take the Subjunctive; as, -
cum tē semper dīlèxerim, tum tuīs factīs incēnsus sum, while I have always loved you, at the same time I am incensed at your conduct.

## Clauses introduced by Antequam and Priusquam.

## A. With the Indicative.

291. Antequam and priusquam (often written ante . . . quam, prius . . . quam) take the Indicative to denote an actual fact.
I. Sometimes the Present or Future Perfect ; as, prius respondēs quam rogō, you answer before Iask; nihil contrā disputābō priusquam dǐxerit, I will say nothing in opposition, before he speaks.
292. Sometimes the Perfect, especially after negative clauses; as, nōn prius jugulandī finnis fuit, quam Sulla onmēs suōs dīvitils explevit, there was no end of murder until Sulla satisfied all his henchmen with wealth.
293. Antequam and priusquam take the Subjunctive to denote an act as anticipateci.
I. Thus the Subjunctive may denote -
a) An act in preparation for which the main act takes place; as, priusquam dìmicārent, foedus ictum est, i.e. in anticipation of the fight, a treaty was struck.
By an extension of this usage, the Subjunctive is sometimes used of general truths, where the anticipatory notion has faded out ; as, -
tempestās minātur antequam surgat, the tempest threatens before it rises.
b) An act anticipated and forestalled; as, priusquam têlum adicī posset, omnis aciēs terga vertit, before a sfeur could be huried, the whole army fled.
c) An act anticipated and deprecated; as, animum omittunt priusquam locō dēmigrent, they die rather than quit their post.
294. After historical tenses the Imperfect Subjunctive is used, especially by post-Augustan writers, where the notion of anticipation has practically vanished; as, -
sōl antequam sē abderet fugientem vīdit Antōnium, the sun before it set saw Antony fleeing.

## Clauses introduced by Dum, Dōnec, Quoad.

293. I. Dum, while, regularly takes the Indicative of the Historical Present; as, Alexander, dum inter prīmōrēs pügnat, sagittā ictus est, Alexander, while he was fighting in the van, was struck by an arrow; dum haec geruntur, in fīnēs Venellōrum pervēnit, while these things were being done, he arrived in the territory of the Venelli.
II. Dum, dōnec, and quoad, as long as, take the Indicative ; as, -
dum anima est, spēs est, as long as there is life, there is hope;
Lacedaemoniōrum gēns fortis fuit, dum Lycūrgī lēgēs vigēbant, the race of the Lacedaemonians was powerful, as long as the laws of Lycurguts were in force;
Catō, quoad vixit, virtūtum laude crēvit, Cato, as long as he lived, increased in the fame of his virtues.
III. Dum, dōnec, and quoad, until, take:-
I. The Indicative, to denote an actual event; as, dönec rediit, fuit silentinum, there roas silence till he came; ferrum in corpore retinuit, quoad renantiatum est Boeotions vilisse, he kept the iron in his body until word was brought that the Boeotians had conquered.
a. In Livy and subsequent hitstorlans dum and doneo In this sense often take the Subjunctive instead of the ludicative; as, trepidātiōnis uliquantum ēdēbant, dōneo timor qulētem fēcisset, thiy showed some trepidation, until fear po oduced quiet.
294. The Subjunctive, to denote anticipation or expectancy; as, -
exspectavit Caesar dum nâvês oonvenifent, Caesar zuaited for the ships to assemble; dum hostēs veniant, morâbor, I shall wait for the enemy to come.

## Substantive Clauses.

294. A Substantive Clause is one which as a whole serves as the Subject or Object of a verb, or denotes some other case relation.

## A. Substantive Clauses developed from the Volitive

295. These are generally used as object-clauses, and occur with the following classes of verbs:-
I. With verbs signifying to admonish, request, command, urge, persuade, induce, ${ }^{1}$ ctc. (conjunctions ut, nē) ; as, -
postuld ut flat, I demand that it be done (dependent form of the Jussive fĩat, let it be done!'); örat, nē abeās, he begs that you will not go azvay; militês cchortătus est ut hostium impetum sustinêrent, he ex-
horted his soldiers to withstand the attack of the enemy; Helvētiìs persuāsit ut exirent, he persuaded the Helvetii to march forth.
a, Jubeō, command, order, regularly takes the Infinitive.
[^26]
## Substantive Clauses.

2. With verbs signifying to grant, concede, permit, allow, ${ }^{1}$ etc. (conjunction ut) ; as, -
huio concesd ut ea praetereat, I allonv hime to pass that by (depend. ent form of the Jussive ea praetereat, let hime pass that by!); cơnsuli permissum est ut duäs legiōnēs ncriberet, the consul was permitted to enroll tzuo legions.
3. With verbs of hindering, preventing; etc. (conjunctions né, quōminus, quin); as, ne lastrum perficeret, mors prohibuit, death prevented him from fimishing the lustrom (dependent form after past tense of ne lastrum perficiat, let hill not finish, etc.); prohibuit quōminus in unum coīreut, he prevented them from coming together; neo, quin orumperet, prohiberi poterat, nor could he be prevented from rushing forth.
a. Quìn is used only when the verb of hindering is accompanied by a negative, or slands in a question implying a negative; it is not necessarily used even then.

Clauses introduced by quōminus and quin are probably developed from Purpose Clauses.
4. With verbs of deciding, resolving, ${ }^{8}$ etc. (conjunctions ut, ne); as, 一
connstitueram ut pridiē Īdüs Aquini manerrem, $I$ had decided to remain at Aquinum on the 12 th;
dëcrēvit senātus ut Opimius vidēret, the Senate decreed that Opimius should see to it; convènit ut ūnis castris miscērentur, it was agrced that they should be united in one camp.
5. With verbs of striving, ${ }^{4}$ etc. (conjunctions ut, nē) ; as, labōrābat ut reliquãs cīvitātēs adjungeret, he was striving to join the remaining states to him; contendit nē ea ēnūntiārentur, he strove that those things should not be reported.
a. Cōnor, try, always takes the Infinitive.

Note. - Verls of all the above classes also admit the Infinitive, especially in poctry.

[^27]6. With a few other expressions, such as necesse est, reliquum est, sequitur, licet, oportet; as,-
reliquum est ut doceam, it remains for me to show;
licet redeās, you may return; oportet loquảmur, we must speak. On licet and oportet without ut, see paragraph 8.
7. Here also belong phrases of the type: nūlla causa est cūr, quãrè, quīn ; nōn est cūr, ctc.; nihil est cūr, etc.; as, nūlla causa est cūr timeam, there is no reason why I should fear
(originally Deliberative : why should I fear? There's no reason); nōn est quārē timeam, there is no reason why I should fear; nihil est quin dicam, there is no reason why $I$ should not say.
8. Many of the above classes of verbs at times take the simple Subjunctive without ut. In such cases we must not recognize any omission of ut, but simply an earlier form of expression which existed before the ut-clause arose. This is regularly the case with necesse est, licet, and oportet; see 6 . Other examples are : -
eōs hōc moneō dēsinant, I warn them to stop;
huic imperat adeat cīvitātēs, he orders him to visit the states.

## B. Substantive Clauses developed from the Optative.

296. Here belong clauses:-
297. With verbs of reishing, desiring, especially cupiō, optō, volo, màlō (conjunctions ut, nē); as, optō ut in hōc jūdiciō nēmō improbus reperiātur, $I$ hope that in this court no bad man may be found (here ut reperiātur represents a simple optative of direct statement, viz. reperiätur, may no bad man be found!) ; cupiō nè veniat, I desire that he may not come.
a. The simple Subjunctive (without ut) sometimes occurs with verbs of this class. (See $\S 295,8$. ) Examples are : vellem scriberēs, I could wish you were ariting; vellem scripsisset, I could wish he had written.
298. With verbs of fearing (timeō, metuō, vereor). Here nē means that, lest, and ut means that not; as, -
timeō nē veniat, I fear that he will iome (originally : may he not come! I'm afraid [he zill]) ;
timeō ut veniat, I fear that he will not come (originally : may he come
I'm afraid [he won't]).

## Substantive Clauses.

a. Nē nōn sometimes occurs instead of ut, especially where the verb of fearing has a negative, or where the writer desires to emphasize some particular word in the dependent clause; as, -
nōn vereor nē hōc nōn flat, I am not afraid that this will not happen;
vereor nē exercitum firmum habēre nōn possit, Ifear that he is unable (nōn possit) to have a strong army.

## C. Substantive Clauses of Result.

297. Substantive Clauses of Result (introduced by ut, ut nōn) are a development of pure Result clauses, and occur with the following classes of words : -
r. As object clauses after verbs of doing, accomplishing (especially faciō, efficiō, cōnficiō). Thus:gravitās morbī facit ut medicīnā egeāmus, the severity of disease makes us need medicine.
298. As the subject of several impersonal verbs, particularly fit, efficitur, accidit, ēvenit, contingit, accēdit, fierī potest, fore, sequitur, relinquitur. Thus:-
ex quō efficitur, ut voluptās nōn sit summum bonum, from which it follows that pleasure is not the greatest good;
ita fit, ut nēmō esse possit beātus, thus it happens that no one can
be happy;
accēdēbat ut nāvēs deessent, another thing was the lack of ships (lit. it was added that ships were lacking).
299. As predicate or appositive after expressions like jūs est, mōs est, cōnsuētūdō est; also after neuter pronouns, hōc, illud, etc. Thus:-
est mōs hominum ut nōlint eundem plūribus rēbus excellere, it is the way of men not to wish the same person to excel in many things.

## D. Sukstantive Clauses introduced by Quīn.

298. Substantive Clauses introduced by quin (used sometimes as subject, sometimes as object) occur after negative and interrogative expressiens of doubt, omission, and the like, particularly after nōn dubitō, $I$ do not doubt; quis
dubitat, who doubts?; nōn (haud) dubium est, there is no doubt. The mood is the Subjunctive. Examples:quis dubitat quin in virtüte divitiae sint, who dowbts that in airtue there are riches?
nōn dubium erat quīn ventūrus esset, there was no doubt that he was about to come.
a. In Nepos, Livy, and post-Augustan writers an Infinitive sometimes takes the place of the quin-clause after nön dubito ; as, nōn dubitāmus inventōs esse, we do not doubt that men were found.
b. Nön dubito, I do not hesitate, is regularly followed by the Infinitive, though sometimes by a quin-clause.
E. Substantive Clauses introduced by Quod.
299. I. Quod, the fact that, that, introduces Substantive Clauses in the Indicative. This construction occurs especially -
a) In apposition with a preceding demonstrative, as hōc, id, illud, illa, ex eō, inde, etc. Thus :-
illud est admīrātiōne dīgnum, quod captīvōs retinendōs ceensuit, this is especially worthy of admiration, that he thought the prisoners ought to be kept;
hōc ūnō praestāmus vel māximè ferīs, quod colloquimur inter nōs, in this one respect are we especially superior to the beasts, that we talk with each other.
b) After bene fit, bene accidit, male fit, bene facere, etc.; as -
bene mihi accidit, quod mittor ad mortem, it is well for me that $I$ am sent to death;
bene fēcistI quod mānsistĭ, you did well in remaining.
300. Quod at the beginning of the sentence sometimes has the force of as regards the fact that. Thus:-
quod multitüdinem Germānōrum in Galliam trādũcō, id meī mūniendì causā faciō, as regards the fact that I am transporting a multitude of Germans into Gaul, I am doing it for the sake of strengthening myself;
quoã mê Agamemnona aemulărī putās, falleris, as regards your thinking that $I$ emulate Agamemnon, you are mistakeis.

## Substantive Clauses.

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## Indirect Questions.

300. I. Indirect Questions are Substantive Clauses used after verbs of asking, inquiring, telling and the like. They take their verb in the Subjunctive. ${ }^{1}$ Like Direct Questions (see § 162) they may be introduced -
a) By Interrogative Pronouns or Adverbs; as, dic mihi ubi fueris, quid fēceris, tell me where you were, what you did; oculiss jūdicārī nṑ potest in utram partem fluat Arar, it cannot be determined by the eye in which direction the Arar fows;
bis bina quot essent, nesciēbat, he did not know how many two times two were.
Note. - Care should be taken to distinguish Indirect Questions from
effugere nēmō id potest quod futūrum est, no one can escape what is destined to come to pass; but
saepe autem ne ūtile quidem est scīre quid futūrum sit, but often it is not even useful to know what is coming to pass.
b) By num or -ne, without distinction of meaning; as, -

Epamīnōndās quaesīvīt num salvus esset clipeus, or salvusne esset clipeus, Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe;
disputātur num interīre virtūs in homine possit, the question is raised whether virtue can die in a man;
ex Sōcrate quaesītum est nōnne Archelāum beātum putāret, the question zyas asked of Socrates whether he did not think Archelaus happy.
Note. - Nōnne in Indirect Questions occurs only after quaerō, as in the last example above.
2. Often the Indirect Question represents a Deliberative Subjunctive of the direct discourse ; as, nesciō quid faciam, $I$ do not know what to $d o$. (Direct : quid faciam, what shall I do!')

[^28]3. After verbs of expectation and endeavor (exspectō, cōnor, experior, temptō) we sometimes find an Indirect Question introduced by $\mathbf{s i n}^{\text {; }}$ as, -
connantur si perrumpere possint, they try whether they can break through.
a. Sometimes the governing verb is omitted ; as, -
pergit ad proximam spēluncam si forte eō vēstigia ferrent, he proceeded to the nearest cave (to see) if the tracks led thither.
4. Indirect Double Questions are introduced in the main by the same particles as direct double questions (§ 162,4 ); viz.:-
utrum . . . an;
-ne . . . . an;

- . . . an;
$-\quad$.

Examples:-
quaerō utrum vērum an falsum sit, quaexō vêrumne an falsum sit, quaerō vērum an falsum sit, quaerō vêrum falsumne sit,
a. 'Or not' in the second member of a double question is ordinarily expressed by necne, less frequently by an nōn; as, di utrum sint neene, quaeritur, it is asked whether there are grods or not.
5. Haud sciō an, nesciō an, by omission of the first member of the double question, occur with the Subjunctive in the sense: $I$ am inclined to think, probably, perhaps; as, -
haud sciō an hōc vêrum sit, $I$ am inclined to think this is true.
6. In early Latin and in poetry the Indicative is sometimes used in Indirect Questions.

## CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

301. Conditional Sentences are compound sentences
(§ I64) consisting of two parts, the Protasis (or conApodosis (or conclusion). We distinguish the following types of Corditional Sentences:-

## Conditional Sentences.

First Type. - Nothing Implied as to the Reality of the Supposed Case.
302. I. Here we regularly have the Indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis. Any tense may be used; as, sì hōc crēdis, errās, if you believe this, you are mistaken;
nătūram sī sequèmur, numquam aberråbimus, if we follow Nature, we shall never go astray;
sī hōc dīxistī, errăstī, if you said this, you were in error.
2. Sometimes the Protasis takes the Indefinite Second Person Singular ( $\$ 356,3$ ) of the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, with the force of the Indicative; as, -
memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceās, memory grows weak unless you exercise it.
3. Here belong also those conditional sentences in which the Protasis denotes a repeated action (compare $\$ \S 287,2 ; 288,3$ ); as, sì quis equitum dēciderat, peditēs circumsistébant, if any one of the horsemen fell, the foot-soldiers gathered about him.
a. Instead of tise Indicative, Livy and subsequent writers employ the Subjunctive of the Historical tenses in the Protasis to denote repeated action; as, -
si dicendo quis diem eximeret, if (ever) anybody consumed a day in pleading; si quando adsidëret, if ever he sat by.
4. Where the sense demands it the Apodosis in conditional sentences of the First Type may be an Imperative or one of the Independent Subjunctives (Hortatory, Deliberative, etc.) ; as, si höc crēditis, tacēte, if you believe this, be silent; sĭ höc crēdimus, taceāmus, if we believe this, let us keep silent.

## Second Type. - Supposed Case represented as Contingent.

303. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive (of the Present or Perfect tense) in both Protasis and Apodosis; as, sĩ höc dīcas, errēs, $\quad$ if you should sa.' this, you would be missī hōc dixeris, errăveris, $\}$ taken.
sI velim Hannibalis proelia omnia dēscribere, diês me déficiat, if I should wish to describe all the battles of Hannibal, time would fail me:
mentiax, si negem, I should lie, if I showld deny it;
haec si têcum patria loquatur, nōnne impetrāre asbbeat, if your country should plead thus with you, would she not deserve to obtain her request ?
a. The Subjunctive in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of this type is of the Potential variety.
b. Sometimes we find the Indicative in the Apodosis of sentences of the Second Type, where the writer wishes to assert the consummation of a result more positively; as, aliter sif faciat, nallam habet auctoritatem, if he should do otherwise, he has no authority.

## Third Typu. - Bupposed Case represented as Contrary to

 Fact.304. I. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive in both Protasis and Apodosis, the Imperfect referring to present time, and the Pluperfect referring to past; as, -
si amioi mei adessent, opis non indigerem, if my friends were here, I should not lack assistance;
si hōc dixissēs, errăssês, if you had said this, you would have erred;
sapientia nön expeterētur, si nihil efflueret, philnsophy would not be desired, if it accomplished nothing;
cönsilium, ratiō, sententia nisi essent in senibus, nōn summum
oठ̄nsilium măjơrēs nostri appellăssent senătum, unless deliberation, reason, and wisdom existed in old men, our ancestors would not have called their highest deliberative body a senate.
305. Sometimes the Imperfect Subjunctive is found referring to the past, especially to denote a continued act, or a state of things still evisting; as, -

Laelius, Furius, Catō, sī nihil litterīs adjuvārentur, numquam sē ad eārum studium contulissent, Laelius, Furius, and Cato would never have devoted themselves to the study of letters, unless they had been (constantly) helped by them;
num igitur si ad centēsimum annum vixisset, senectūtis eụm suae paeniceeret, if he had lived to his hundredth year, would he have regretted (and now be regretting) his old age?

## Conditional Sentences.

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3. The Apodosts in conditional sentences of this type sometimes stands in the Indicative (Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect), viz. -
a) Frequently in expressions of ability, obligation, or neces. sity; as, -
nisi felīcitãs in sōcordiam vertisset, exuere jugum potuêrunt, unless their prosperity had turned to folly, they conld have thrown off the yoke;
Note. - In sentences of this type, however, it is not the possibility that is represented as contrary-to-fact, but something to be supplied in thought from the context. Thus in the foregoing sentence the logical apodosis is et exulssent understood (and they zoould hare shaken it off). When the possibility itself is conditioned, the Sulijunctive is used.
 esset, you ousht to revere' him as a futher, if you had any sense of devotion.
b) With both the Periphrastic Conjugations; as, -
sī Pompējus occisus esset, fuistisne ad arma itürī, if Pompey had becn slain, would you have proceeded to armis?
sī ūnum diem morātī essētis, moriendum omnibus fuit, if you had delaycd one day, you would all have had to die.

## Protasis expressed without $\mathbf{S I}$.

305. 306. The Protasis is not always expressed by a claus with si, but may be implied in a word, a phrase, or merely by the context ; as, aliōquī haec nōn scrïberentur, otherwise (i.e. if matters were otherwise) these things would not be written;
nōn potestis; voluptāte omnia dīrigentēs, retinęre virtütem, you cannot retain virtue, if you direct everything with reference to pleasure.
1. Sometimes an Imperative, or a Jussive Subjunctive serves as Protasis. Thus:-
crās petitō, dabitur, if you ask to-morrow, it shall be given you (lit. ask to-morrow, etc.) ;
haeo reputent, videbunt, if they consider this, they will see (lit. tet them consitler, eti.);
cavē haec faciăs, beware not to do this! (Originally: do this! then beware! i.e. if you do it, beware! Hence beware not to do it!)

## Use of Nisi, Si Nōn, SĪn.

306. 307. Nisi, unless, negatives the entire protasis; sī nōn negatives a single word; as, -
ferreus essem, nisi tē amārem, I should be hard-hearted unless 1 loved you; but -
ferreus essem, sī tē nōn amārem, I should be hard-hearted if I did NOT love you.

In the first example, it is the notion of loving you that is negatived, In the second, the notion of loving.
2. Sī nōn (sĩ minus) must be employed: -
a) When an apodosis with at, tamen, certe follows; as, dolōrem sī nōn potuerö frangere, tamen occultābō, if I cannot crush my sorrow, yet I will hide it.
b) When an affirmative protasis is repeated in negative form; as, -
sī fēceris, māgnam habēbō grātiam; sī nōn fēceris, ignōscam, if you do it, I shall be deeply grateful; if you do not do it, I shall pardon you.
a. But if the verb is omitted in the repetition, only sĩ minus is admissible; as,-
hōc sì assecūtus sum, gaudeō; sī minus, mē cōnsōlor, if $I$ have attained this, I am glad; if not, I console myself.
3. Sin. Where one protasis is followed by another opposed in meaning, but affirmative in form, the second is introduced by $\sin$; as, hunc mihi timōrem ēripe ; sī vērus est, nē opprimar, sīn falsus, ut timēre dēsinam, relieve me of this fear; if it is well founded, ihat I may not be destroyed; but if it is groundless, that I may cease to fear.
4. Nisi has a fondness for combining with negatives (nōn, nemō, nihil) ; as, nihil cōgitāvit nisi caedem, he had no thought but murder.
a. Nōn and nisi are always separated in the best Latinity.
5. Nisi forte, nisi vērō, nisi sī, unless perchance, unless indeed (often with ironical force), take the Indicative; as, nisi vērō, quia perfecta rēs nōn est, nōn vidētur pūnienăa, thr-
less indeed, because an act is not consummated, it does not seem to merit punishment.

## Clauses of Comparison. - Adversative Clauses.

## Conditional Clauses of Comparison.

307. I. Conditional Clauses of Comparison are introduced by the particles, ac sī, ut sī, quasi, quam sī, tamquam sĩ, velut sĩ, or simply by velut or tamquam. They are followed by the Subjunctive mood and regularly involve an ellipsis, as indicated in the following examples:tantus patrēs metus cēpit, velut sī jam ad portăs hostis esset, as great fear seized the senators as (would have seized them) if the enemy were already at the gries;
sed quid ego hīs testibus ūtor quasi rēs dubia aut obscūra sit, but why do I use these witnesses, as (I should do) if the matter were doubtful or obscure; serviam tibi tamquam sī ēmeris mē argentō, I will serve you as though you had bought me for money.
2 . Note that in sentences of this kind the Latin observes the regular principles for the Sequence of Tenses. Thus after principal tenses the Latin uses the Present and Perfect (as in the second and third examples), where the English uses the Past and the Past Perfect.

## Concessive Clauses.

308. The term 'Concessive' is best restricted to those clauses developed from the Jussive Subjunctive which have the force of granted that, etc. (see § 278); as, sit für, sit serrilegus, at est bonus imperātor, granted that he is a
thief and a robber, yet he is a good commander; ut hōc vērum sit, granted that this is true; nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, granted that pain is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil.
a. Here also belongs the use of the Subjunctive with licet (see $\S 295,6$ ), where licet has the force of he may, they may, etc.; as, fremant omnēs licet, dīcam quod sentio, they may all shout, (but) I shall say what I think.

Adversative Clauses with Quamvis, Quamquam, etc.
309. Clauses introduced by quamvis, quamquam, etsī, tametsì, cum, although, while often classed as 'Concessive,' are yet essentially different from genuine Concessive

## Syntax.

clauses. As a rule, they do not grant or concede anything, but rather state that something is true in spite of something else. They accordingly emphasize the adversative idea, and are properly Subordinate Adversative Clauses. The different particles used to introduce these clauses have different meanings and take different constructions, as follows: $\qquad$
I. Quamvis, howearer much, although, does not introduce a statement of fact, but represents an act merely as conceived. It is followed by the Subjunctive, usually of the present tense; as, -
hominès quamvis in turbidīs rēbus sint, tamen interdum animis relaxantur, in horizzer stirring events men may engage, yet at times they relax their energies ;
nōn est potestăs opitulandī rei pūblicae quamvīs ea premātur perioulis, there is no opportunity to succor the state, though it be beset by dungers.
2. Quamquam, etsī, tametsI, although, introduce a statement of fact, and are followed by the Indicative (of any tense) ; as, quamquam omuis virtūs nōs allicit, tamen jūstitia id māximé efficit, although all virtue attraits us, yet justice does so especially;
Caesar, etsi nōndum cōnsilium hostium cognōverat, tamen id quod accidit suspicābātur, Caesar, though he did not yet know the pians of the enemy, yet zuas suspecting what actually occurred.
a. Etsì, although, must be distinguished from etsỉ, even if. The latter is a conditional particte and takes any of the constructions admissible for sil. (See $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{S}}$ 302-304.)
3. Cum, although, is followed by the Subjunctive; as, -

Atticus honōrēs nōn petiit, cum eī patērent, Alticus did not seek honors, though they were open to him.
4. Licet sometimes loses its verbal force (see $\$ 308, a$ ) and sinks to the level of a conjunction with the force of although. It takes the Subjunctive, Present or Perfect ; as, --
licet omnēs terrōrēs impendeant, succrirram, though all terrors hang over me, (yet) / will.lend aid.
5. Quamquam, with the force and yet, is often used to introduce principal clauses; as, -
quamquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak?

## Clauses of Proviso. - Relative Clauses.

6. In post-Augustan writers quamquam is freely construed with the Subjunctive, white quamvis is often used to introduce statements of fact, ard takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Thus:-
quarquam movērētur hiss vōcibus, althoush he was moved by these words; quamvis multi opinārentur, though many thought;
quamvis infēstō animō pervēnerās, though you had come with hostile intent.

## Clauses with Dum, Modo, Dummodo, denoting a Wish or a Proviso.

310. These particles are followed by the Subjunctive (negative nê) and have two distinct uses:-
I. They are used to introduce clauses embodying a zeish entertained by the subject of the leading verb; as, multi honesta neglegunt dummodo potentiam oonsequantur, many neglect honor in their desire to obtain power (if only they may attain);
omnia postposuī, dum praeceptis patris pärērem, I made everything else secondary, in my desire to obey the injunctions of my father; nll obstat tibi, dum nex sit ditior alter, nothing hinders you in your desire that your neighbor may not be richer than you.
II. They are used to express a proviso ('provided that'); as, -
öderint, dum metuant, let them hate, provided they fear; manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria, old men retain their faculties, frovided only they retain their interest and vigor;
nūbant, dum nē dōs fīat comes, let them marry, provided no dowry goes with it.

Note. - Of these two uses of dum, modo, and dummodo, the first is the original one; the second has grown out of the first, and frequently retains the original notion of wishing, as in öderint, dum metuant.

## Relative Clauses.

311. Relative Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns, Adjectives, or Adverbs.
312. 313. Relative clauses usually stand in the Indicative Mood, especially clauses introduced by those General Relatives which are doubled or have the suffix -cunque; as, -
quidquid id est, timeō Danaōs et đōna ferentôn, whatever if is, 1 feat the cirechss cien whin they atfer sijps:
quidquid oritur, quălecumque ent, cansam à nâtara habet, whof-
 in Naturi.
1. Any simple Relative maty introduce a condithonal sentence of any of the three types mentioned in ss 302-304; as, -
qui hoe dieit, errat, he when solys this is mistateln (First Type);
qui hooc areat, erret, he womld bo mistake'n ache should say this (Second Type);
qui hōc dixisset, errãsset, the man soho had said this zormld harve been mistuken.

## INDIRECT DISCOUREE (ŌRATTIO OBLİQUA).

313. When the language or thought of any person is quoted without change, that is called Direct Discourse (Örätio Rēça) ; as, Cacisar sarid, 'The dic is cast.' When, on the other hand, one's language or thought is made to
 the die reas cast; Cacsar thomerht that his troops werre itictorious.
a. For the verbs most frequently employed to introduce Indirect Discourse, see $\$ 33 \mathrm{r}$.

## MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

## Declaratory Sentences.

314. 315. Declaratory Sentences upon becoming Indirect change their main clanse to the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, while all subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive, as, -

Rēgulus dixit quam điū jūre jūrandō hostium tenẽrētur nōn esse see seuātörem, hegrulus said that as lang as he rotas held by his pledge to the chimis he chas not a semator. (Direct: quam diū teneor nōn sum senător.)

## Indirect Discourse.

2. The verb of sayiug, thiutitug, etc., is sometimes to be inferred from the context; ns, -
tum Rōmulus legatōs oircă vioinais genten minit qui mooietilem cōnnblumque peterent: urbên quoque, ut cêtera, ex Infimo nasol, the't lionlulus seut chtorys around antong the meighburiug tribes, to ask for alliatice alld the right of intermatriage, (sayimg that) cities, like everything else, start from a modest begriuntiugr.
3. Subordinate clauses which contain an explanatory statement of the writer are not properly a part of the Indirect Discourse, and hence regularly take the Indicative; ins, --

## certior faotus ex ef parte viol, quam Gallis ooncesserat, omnes

 noota discessisse, he zuas informed that all had departed by night froter thut part of the willage which he hat gratuled to the Gatuls.4. Sometimes a subordinate clause is such only in its external form, and in sense is principal. It then takes the Infinitive with Subject Aceurative. This occurs especially in case of relative clauses, where quif is equivalent to et hio, nam hio, elc. ; as, -
dixit urbem Athẽnięnaium pröpignnoulum oppositum esse barbaris, apud quam jam bis clansēs rêglăs fêisse naufragium, he satid the city of the Atheminus had been set against the barbarians liki al butwarli, near which (=and near it) the feets of the King had twice ind disaster.
5. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is sometimes omitted when it refers to the same person as the subject of the leading verb, or can easily be supplied from the context ; as, -
cum id nescire Mãgo diceret, zeltcn Mago said he did not know this (for sê nescire).

## Interrogative Sentences.

315. 316. Real questions of the Direct Discourse, upon becoming indirect, are regularly put in the Subjunctive; as, -

Ariovistus Caesari responait : sē prius in Galliam vênisse quam populum Rōmānum. Quid sibi vellet? Cūr in suãs possessiōnēs veniret, Ariovistus replied to Caesar that he
had come into Gaul before the Roman people. What did he (Caesar) mean? Why did he come into his domain? (Direct: quid tibi vis ? oūr in meăs possesmiönēs venis ?)
2. Rhetorical questions, on the other hand, being asked merely for effect, and being equivalent in force to emphatic statements, regularly stand in the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse. Thus:-
quid est levius (lit. zuhat is more trivial, = nothing is more trivial) of the Direct Discourse becomes quid esse levius in the Indirect.
3. Deliberative Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse remain unchanged in mood in the Indirect; as, -
quid faceret, what was he to do? (Direct: quid faciam?)

## Imperative Sentences.

316. All Imperatives or Jussive Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse appear as Subjunctives in the Indirect ; as, -
militēs certiörēs fĕcit paulisper intermitterent proelium, he told the soldiers to stop the b.attle for a little. (Direct: intermittite.)
a. The Negative in such sentences is ne ; as, nē suae virtūtI tribueret, let him not attribute it to his own valor!

## TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

A. Tenses of the Infinitive.
317. These are used in accordance with the regular
a. The Perfect Infinitive may represent any past tense of the Indicative of Direct Discourse. Thus:sciō tē haec égisse may mean -

## B. Tanses of the Subjunctive.

318. These follow the regular principle for the Sequence of Tenses, being Principal if the verb of saying is Principal; Historical if it is Historical. Yet for the sake of vividness, we often find the Present Subjunctive used after an historical tense; as, Caesar respondit, sī obsidēs dentur, sêsê păcem esse factürum, Caesar replied that, if hostages be given, he would make peace. a. For the sequence after the Perfect Infinitive, see § 268, 2.

## CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

## Conditional Sentences of the First Type.

319. A. The Apodosis. Any tense of the Indicative is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive (§§270; 317,a).
B. The Protasis. The protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive which are required by the Sequence of Tenses.

Examples:-

Dtrect.
sī hōc crēdis, errās, sī hōc crễâes, errảbis, $\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errã̃tūrum esse ; }\end{array}\right.$ $\{$ dīxī, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse. (dīcō, sī hōc crēdideris, tē errātūrum sī hōc crēdideris, errābis, esse; dīxī, sī hōc crēdidissēs, tē errātūrum esse.
sī hōc crēdēbãs, errāvistī, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { dīcō, sī höc crēderēs, tē errā visse ; } \\ \text { dīxī, sī hc̄ crēderēs, tē errāvisse. }\end{array}\right.$
$a$. Note that a Future Perfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse regularly appears in the Indirect as a Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and as a Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense.

## Conditional Sentences of the Second Type.

320. A. The Apodosis. The Present Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse regularly becomes the Future Infinitive of the Indirect.
B. The Protasis. The Protasis take; those tenses of the Subjunctive demanded by the sequence of tenses.

Examples:-
sī hōc crêdăs, errês, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { dicicō, sī hīc crē̃dās, tē errătưrum esse ; } \\ \text { dīxī, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errātuarum esse. }\end{array}\right.$

## Conditional Sentences of the Third Type.

## 321. A. The Apodosis

I. The Imperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes:-
a) In the Active Voice the Future Infinitive.
b) In the Passive Voice it takes the forin futurum ense (fore) ut, with the Imperfect Subjunctive.
2. The Pluperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes:-
a) In the Active Voice the Infinitive in -ürus fuisse.
b) In the Passive Voice it takes the form futūrum fuisse ut with the Imperfect Subjunctive.
B. The Protasis. The protasis in Conditional Sentences of this type always remains unchanged.

Examples:-
sī hōc crēderēs, errārēs,
sī hōc crēdidissēs, errāvissēs,
sī hōc dīxissēs, pūnītus essēs,
dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse ;
dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc crēdidissēs, tē errātūrum fuisse;
dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc dīxissēs fūtūrum fuisse ut pünīrēris.
322. When an apodosis of a conditional sentence of the Third

Inc
de
quin-clause (after non dubito, etc.), it stands in the Perfect Subjunctive in the form -arus fuerim; as, -
ita territi sunt, ut arma traditari fuerint, ${ }^{1}$ nisi Caesar subito
advenisset, they were so frightened that they would have given up their arms, had not Caesar suddenly arriven';
nōn dubitō quin, sĭ hōc dīxiss 3 s , errătärus fueris, 1 / do not doubt that, if you had saud ihis, you zoould have made a mistake.
a. This peculiarity is confined to the Active Voice. In the Passive, such sentences, when they become dependent, remain unchanged; as, -
nōn dubitō quĩn, sī hōc dǐxissēs, vituperātus essês, $I$ do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have been blamed.
b. When an Indirect Question becomes an apodosis in a conditional sentence of the Third Type, -arus fuerim (rarely -urrus fuissem) is used; as, -
quaerō, num, sī hōc dixissēs, errătarus fueris (or fuissès).
c. Potul, when it becomes a dependent apodosis in sentences of this 'Type, usually changes to the Perfect Subjunctive; as. -
concursă tōtīus cīvitātis dēfānsi sunt, ut figidissimōs quoque ōrātōrēs populi studia excitāre potuerint, they were defended before a gathering of all tie citizens, so that the interest of the people would have been enough to excite even the most apathetic orators.

## IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

 Indirect character is merely implied by the context; as, dêmōnstrâbantur mihi praetereă, quae Sōcratēs dè immortalitāte animōrum disseruisset, there were explained to me besides, the arguments which Socrates had set forth concerning the immortality of the soul (i.e. the arguments which, it vas said, Socrates had set forth); Paetus omnês librōs quōs pater suus relīquisset mihi dōnãvit, Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said) his father had left.[^29]
## SUBJUNCTIVE: BY ATITRACTION.

324. I. Subordinate clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive are frequently attracted into the same mood, especially when they do not express a fact, but constitute all essential part of one complex idea; as, -
nemó avarum adhico luventus est, oui, quod haberet, enset matin, mo miser has yet been fimmet whin was sattisfied with what he hud;
cum diveruas oanaan afferrent, dum formam sui quisque et animis ot ingenis redderent, as they brought firmourd different argruments, while wach mirroired his mun individual type of mind and naturial bint.
quod ego fatear, pudeat, should I be ashumed of a thing which I admit?
325. Similarly a subordinate clause dependent upon an Infinitive is put in the Subjunctive when the two form one closely united whole ; as, -
 proelifs interfeotr, it is the custom at Athens every year for those to be publicly elligiged suho have been killed in battle. (Here the notion of 'praising those who fell in battle' forms an inseparable whole.)

## NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

325. These are the Infinitive, Participle, Gerund, and Supine. All of these partake of the nature of the Verb, on the one hand, and of the Noun or Ar ective, on the other. Thus:-

As Verbs, -
a) They may be limited by adverbs;
b) They admit an object;
c) They have the properties of voice and tense.

As Nouns or Adjectives, -
a) They are declined;
b) They take Noun or Adjective constructions.

## Noun and Adjective forms of the Verb.

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## THE infinitive.

## Infinitive without Bubjeot Aoounative.

326. This may be used ither as Subject or Object.

Nort. - The Infinilive was originatiy a Dative, and traces of this are still to be sern In the poetical use of the Infintive to express purpore; as, nec dulces cocour. rent özouln natl praerlpere, and no sweet childien will run to snatch kisses.

## 1. As Subject.

327. 328. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Subject of onse and various impersonal verbs, particularly opus est, necesse est, oportet, juvat, deslectat, plaoet, libet, licet, praentat, conduolt, expedit, deoet, pudet, interest, etc.; as, -
duloe ot decörum est prō patria mory, it is sweet and noble to die for one's country;
virörum est fortium toleranter dolorem pati, it is the part of brave men to endure pain with patience;
senatui placuit legatös mittere, the Senate decided (lit. it pleased the Senate) to send envoys.
1. Even though the Infinitive itself appears without Subject, it may take a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the Accusative ; as, allud est Iranoundum esse, allud Iratum, it is one thing to be irascible, another to be angry;
impane quaelibet facere, id est regem esse, to do whatever you please with impunity, that is to be a king.
a. But when licet is followed by a Dative of the person, a Predicate Noun or Adjective with esse is attracted into the same case: as, licult osse ōtlōsō Themistocli, lit. it was permitted to Themistocles to be at leisure. So sometimes with other Impersonals.

> B. As Object.
328. I. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Object of many verbs, to denote another action of the same subject, particularly after volō, cupiō, mãlō, nōlơ;
debbeō, ought ; statuō, cönstituō, decide;
cogito, meatitor, purpose, intenu;
neglegō, neglect;
vereor, timeठ, fear ;
audeठ, dare;
ntuded, contendo, strive;
parō, prepure (so paratus) ;
inciplo, coepI, Instituס, begrin ;
pergot, continlue;
döninō, dêmistō, certse ;
ponnum, can;
oonnor, tiy;
tan hós intuerri audess, do you dilie to look on these men?
Dęmonthenês nd fluctum maris de̊clămãre nole̊bat, Demosthenes used to declaim by the zervess of the sea.
2. A Predicate Noun or Adjective with these Infinitives is attracted into the Nominative; as, -
beătun esme sine virtūte nêmu potent, no olle cunt be huppy without virtue ;
Catठ esse quam vidêrr bonus mãębat, Cato preferred to be good rather than to sectm so.

## Infinitive with Subject Acousative.

329. This may be used either as Subject or Object.
A. As Subject.
330. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative (like the simnle Infinitive) appears as Subject with esse and Impersonal verbs, particularly with aequum est, justum est, ütle est, turpe est, apertum est, perspicuum est, fama est, opinio est, spess est, făs est, nefăs est, opus est, necesse est, oportet, appăret, cōnstat, praedtat, etc.; as, -
nihil in bello oportet contemni, nothing ought to be despised in war; apc tum est sibi quemque nātūrã esse cărum, it is manifest that
by nature everybody is dearest to himself.

> B. As Object.
331. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used as Object after the following classes of verbs:-
I. Most frequently after verbs of saying, thinking, Anowing, perceiving, and the like (Verba Sentiendt et Dēclärandi). This is the
regular construction of Principal Clauses of Inclirect Discourse. Verbs that take this construction are, among others, the following: sentio,
 momini ; dioō, affirmō, negō (say that . . . not), tıAdō, nãrrō, fateor, renpondeठ, noribō, prömittō, glörior. Also the phrases: oertiorem facio (inform), momoria teneठ (remember), clf.

Examples:-
Epioneer putant oum corporibus simul animos interire, the lipiThales cureans think !hat the soul perishes with the body;
ant aquam esse initium rêrum, Thales said that water was the first principle of the universe;
Desmooritus negat quioqula esse sempiternum, Democritus says nothing is everlasting;
sporb eum venturum esse, I hope that he will come.
II. With jubeō, order, and vetō, forbid; as, -

Caesar milite̊s pontem facere jussit, Cacsar ordered the soldiers to make a bridge.
a. When the name of the person who is ordercd or forbidden to do something is omitted, the Infinitive wilh jubeo and veto is put in the Passive; as, Caesar pontem flerl jussit.
111. With patior and sinob, permit, allonv; as, nallơ sê implicã̃r negōtiō passus est, he did not permit himself to be involved in any difficulty.
IV. With volō, nōiō, malō, oupiō, when the Subject of the Infinitive is d:fferent from that of the governing verb; as, -
neo mihi hunc errobrem extorquêrl volo, nor do I wish th's error to be wrested from $m e$;
eäs rês jactārī nōlēbat, he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed;
tē tuis divitils frui cupimus, we desire that you enjoy your wealth.
a. When the Subject of both verbs is the same, the simple Infinitive is regularly used in accordance with $\$ 328$, r. But exceptions occur, especially in case of esse and lassive Infinitives; as, -
cupiō mē esse clēmentem, I desire to be lenient;
Timoleōn måluit sē diltgì quam matuil, Timoleon preferred to be loved rather than feared.
b. Volo and nolō also admit the S ibjunctive, with or without ut. (See § 296, x, a.)
V. With Verbs of emotion (jay, sorrow, regret, etc.), especially gaudeō, laetor, doleō ; aegrē ferō, molestē ferō, graviter ferō, am annoyed, distressed; mīror, queror, indīgnor; as, gaudeō tē salvum advenīre, I rejoice that you arrive safely; nōn molestē ferunt sē libīdinum vinculīs laxātōs esse, they are not troubled at being released from the bonds of passion; mīror tē ad mè nihil scrībere, I wonder that you write me nothing.
a. Instead of an Infinitive these verbs also sometimes admit a quodclause as Object. (See § 299.) Thus:-
miror quod nōn loqueris, I wonder that you do not speak.
VI. Some verbs which take two Accusatives, one of the Person and the other of the Thing ( $\$ 178$, i) may substitute an Infinitive for the second Accusative ; as, -
cōgō tē hōc facere, I compel you to do this (cf. tē hōc cōgō);
docuī tē contentum esse, $/$ taught you to be content (cf. tē modes.
tiam docuī, I taught you temperance).

## Passive Construction of the Foregoing Verbs.

332. Those verbs which in the Active are followed by the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, usually admit the personal construction in the Passive. This is true of the following:-
a) jubeor, vetor, sinor; as, -
mīlitēs pontem facere jussī sunt, the soldiers were ordered to build a bridge;
pōns fierī jussus est, a bridge was ordered built;
mīlitēs castrīs exîre vetitī sunt, the troops were forbidden to go out of the camp;
Sēstius Clōdium accūsāre nōn est situs, Sestius was not allowed to accuse Clodius.
b) videor; I am seen, I seem; as, -
vidētur comperisse, he seems to have discovered.
c) dīcor, putor, exīstimor, jūaicor (in all persons); as, dīcitur in Italiam vēnisse, he is said to have come into Italy;
Rōmulus prīmus rèx Rōmānōrum fuisse putātur, Romulus is thought to have been the first king of the Romans.

Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb.
d) fertur, feruntur, trāditur, trāduntur (only in the third person) ; as,
fertur Homērus caecus fuisse, Homer is said to have been blind;
carmina Archilochī contumēliīs referta esse trāduntur, Archilochus's poems are reported to have been full of abuse.

Note. - In compound tenses and periphrastic forms, the last two classes of verbs, $c$ ), $d$ ), more commonly take the impersonal construction; as, -
trāditum est Homērum caecum fuisse, the story goes that Homer was blind.

## Infinitive with Adjectives.

333. The Infinitive with Adjectives (except parātus, assuētus, etc.; see $\S 328$, I) occurs only in poetry and post-Augustan prose writers ; as, -
contentus dēmōnstrāsse, contented to have proved; audāx omnia perpeti, bold for enduring everything.

## Infinitive in Exclamations.

334. The Infinitive is used in Exclamations implying scorn, indig. nation, or reglet. An interrogative (or intensive) -ne is often attached to some word in the clause. Examples:-
huncine sōlem tam nigrum surrēxe mihi, to think that to-day's sun
rose with such evil omen for me!
sedēre tōtōs diès in vīlla, to stay whole days at the villa!

## Historical Infinitive.

335. The Infinitive is often used in historical narrative instead of the Imperfect Indicative. The Subject stands in the Nominative; as, interim cottīdiē Caesar Aeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, meanwhile

Caesar was daily demanding grain of the Aedui.

## PARTICIPLES.

## Tenses of the Participle.

336. I. The tenses of the Participle, like those of the Infinitive (see § 270 ), express time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb upon which the Participle depends.
337. The Present Participle denotes action contemporary with that of the verb. Thus:-
audiō tē loquentem =you ARE speaking and I hear you; audiēbam tē loquentem = you were speaking and I heard you; audiam tē loquentem $=$ you will BE speaking and I shall hear you.
$a$. The Present Participle is sometimes employed with Conative force; as, -
assurgentem rēgem resupinat, as the king was trying to rise, he threw him down.
338. The Perfect Passive Participle denotes action prior to that of the verb. Thus:-
locūtus taceō $=\zeta$ HAVE spoken and an silent;
locūtus tacuī $=I$ HAD spoken and then was silent;
locūtus tacēbō $=I$ SHALL speak and then shall be silent.
339. The absolute time of the action of a participle, therefore, is determined entirely by the finite verb with which it is connected.
340. Certain Perfect Passive Participles of Depnnent and SemiDeponent Verbs are used as Presents; ziz. arbitrātus, ausus, ratus, gāvīsus, solitus, ūsus, cōnfīsus, diffīsus, secūtus, veritus.

## Use of Participles.

337. As an Adjective the Participle may be used either as an attributive or predicate modifier of a Substantive.
r. Attributive Use. This presents no special peculiarities. Examples are:-
glōria est cōnsentiēns laus bonōrum, glory is the unanimous praise of the good;
Conōn mūrōs ā Lȳ̄sandrō dīrutōs reficit, Conon restored the walls destroyed by Lysander.
338. Predicate Use. Here the Participle is often equivalent to a subordinate clause. Thus the Participle may denote:-
a) Time; as, -
omne malum nāscēns facile opprimitur, every evil is easily crushed at birth.
b) A Condition; as, -
mente ūtī nōn possumus cibō et pōtiōne complēti, if gorged with food and drink, we cannot use our intellects.

Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb.
c) Manner ; as, -

Solōn senēscere sē dīcēbat multa in diēs addiscentem, Solon said he grew old learning many new things every day.
d) Means; as, -
soll oriēns diem cōnficit, the sun, by its rising, makes the day.
e) Opposition ('though'); as, mendācì hominī nē vērum quidem dīcentr crēdimus, we do not believe a liar, though he speaks the truth.
f) Cause; as, perfidiam veritus ad suōs recessit, since he feared treachery, he returned to his own troops.
3. Videō and audiō, besides the Infinitive, take the Present Participle in the Predicate use ; as, videō tē fugientem, I see you fleeing.
a. So frequently faciō, fingō, indūcō, etc.; as, -
eis Catōnem respondentem facimus, we represent Cato reply-
ing to them; Homērus Laërtem colentem agrum facit, Homer represents Laertes tilling the field.
4. The Future Active Participle (except futūrus) is regularly confined to its use in the Periphrastic Conjugation, but in poets and later writers it is used independently, especially to denote purpose; as, -
vēnēruut castra oppūgnātūrī, they came to assault the camp.
5. The Perfect Passive Participle in combination with a noun is sometimes equivalent to an abstract noun with a dependent Genitive ; as, -
post urbem conditam, after the founding of the city; Quīnctius deefènsus, the defense of Quinctius; quibus animus occupatus, the preoccupation of the mind with which; nōn redaitae rees, the failure to make restitution.
6. Habeo sometimes takes a Perfect Passive Participle in the Predicate construction with a force not far removed from that of the Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative ; as, 一
cöpiās quãs coāctãs habēbat, the forces which he had collected.
7. The Gerundive denotes ahligration or mecessity. Like other Participles it may be used either as Attributive or Predicate.
a) Less frequently as Attributive. Thus:-
liber legendus, a book auorth radin! ${ }^{\text {; }}$ legess observandae, laws descroing of olscrvance.
b) More frequently as Predicate.

1) In the Passive P'eriphrastic Conjugation (amandus est, eff.). In this use Intransitive Verbs can be used only impersonally, but admit their ordmary case-construction (Gen., Dat., Abl.) ; as, veniendum est, it is necessary to come; obliviscendum est injūriārum, one must forget injuries; numquam prōditōrI crēdendum est, you must never trust a traitor;
suō cuique ūtendum est jūdiciō, circry man must use his own juldsment.
2) After cūrō, provide for; dō, trādō, gizue arer ; relinquō. liaqe; concédō. hand dier: and some other verbs, instead of an object clause or to denote purpose ; as, -
Caesar pōntem in Arare faciondum cūrāvit, Caesar provided for the construction of a bridge oreer the slrar ; imperātor urbem mīlitibus dīipiendam concessit, the seneral handed oner the city to the soldiers to plunder.
8. For the Gerundive as the equivalent of the Gerund, see $\$ 339$, .

THE GERUND.
338. As a verbal noun the Gerund admits noun constructions as follows :--

1. Genitive. The Genitive of the Gerund is used -
a) With nouns, as Objective or Appositional Genitive (see §S 200, 202) ; as, cupiditās dominandi, desire of ruling; ars scrïbendi, the art of curiting.
b) With Adjectives; as, -
cupidus audiendi, desirous of hearing.
c) With causă, gratiz ; as, -
discendi causā, for the sake of learning.
2. Dative. The Dative of the Gerund is used -
a) With Adjectives; as, aqua utilis est bibendō, water is useful for drinking.
b) With Verbs (rarely) ; as, adfui sorībendo, / was present at the writing.
3. Accusative. The Accusative of the Gerund is used only with Prepositions, chiefly ad and in to denote purpose ; as, homǒ ad agendum nâtus est, man is born for action.
4. Ablative. The Ablative of the Gerund is used -
a) Without a Preposition, as an Ablative of Means, Cause, etc. (see §§ 218, 219); as, -
mēns discendō alitur et cōgitando, the mind is nourished by learning and reflection.
Themistoclës maritimōs praedōnēs cōnnectandō mare tūtum reddidit, Themistocles made the sea safe by following up the pirates.
b) After the prepositions $\overline{\mathbf{a}}, \mathrm{de}$, ex, in ; as, -
summa voluptãs ex discendō capitur, the keenest pleasure is derived from learning; multa dẻ bene beãtēque vivendō a Platōne disputãta sunt, there zuas much discussion by Plato on the subject of lizing well and happily.
5. As a rule, only the Genitive of the Gerund and the Ablative (without a preposition) admit a Direct Object.

## Gerundive Construction instead of the Gerund.

339. 340. Instead of the Genitive or Ablative of the Gerund with a Direct Object, another construction may be, and very often is, used. This consists in putting the Direct Object in the case of the Gerund (Gen. or Abl.) and using the Gerundive in agreement with it. This is called the Gerundive Construction. Thus: -

Gerund Construction.
cupidus urbem videndi, desirous of seeing the city; dēlector ōrātōrës legendō, $/$ am charmed with reading the orators. \}

Grrundive Construction.
cupidus urbig videndao ;
dēlector ōrãtōribus legendīs.
2. The Gerundive Construction must be used to avoid a Direct Object with the Dative of the Gerund, or with a case dependent upon a Preposition; as, -
locus castriss mūniendīs aptus, a place adapted to fortifying a camp; ad păcem petendam vēnıērunt, they came to ash peace;
multum temporis cōnsūmō in legendīs poêtis, I spend much time in reading the poets.
3. In order to avoid ambiguity (see $\$ 236,2$ ), the Gerundive Construction must not be employed in case of Neuter Adjectives used substantively. Thus regularly -
philosophī cupidì sunt vērum invēstìgandì, philusophers are eager for discovering truth (rarely vērī invèstīgandī);
studium plūra c̣ognōscendī, a desire of inoweing more (not plürium cognö́cendörum).
4. From the nature of the case only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Gerundive Construction; but untor, frnor, fungor, potior (originally transitive) regularly admit it ; as, -
hostēs in spem potiundōrum castrōrum vēnerant, the enemy had conceived the hope of gaining possession of the camp.
5. The Genitives meī, tuī, suī, nostrī, vestrī, when used in the Gerundive Construction, are regularly employed without reference to Gender or Number, since they were originally Neuter Singular Adjectives used substantively. Thus:-
mulier suī servandī causā aufūgit, the zooman fled for the sake of saving herself;
lēgātī in castra vēnērunt suī pūrgandī causā, the envoys came into camp for the purpose of clearing themselves; So nostrī servandī causā, for the sake of saving ourselves.
6. Occasionally the Genitive of the Gerundive Construction is used to denote purpose; as, sī arborum truncī sīve nāvēs dēiciendī operis essent a barbarīs missae, if trunks of trees or boats should be sent down by the barbarians for the purpose of destroying the structure.
7. The Dative of the Gerundive Construction occurs in some expressions which have the character of formulas; as, -
decemvirī lēgibus scrībundīs, decemairs for codifying the laws; quīndecimvirī sacrīs faciundīs, quindecemvirs for performing the sacrifices.

## Direct

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## Chapter VI. - Particles.

## coördinate conjunctions.

341. Copulative Conjunctions. These join one word, phrase, or clause to another.
I. a) et simply connects.
b) -que joins more closely than et, and is used especially where the two members have an internal connection with each other; as, parentēs līberīque, parents and children;
cum hominēs aestū febrīque jactantur, when people are tossed about with heat and fever.
c) atque (ac) usually emnhasizes the second of the two things connected,-and alse, :nd indeed, and in fact. After words of likeness and difference atque (ac) has the force of as, than. Thus:ego idem sentiō ac tū, I think the same as you; haud aliter ac, not otherwise than.
d) neque (nec) means and not, neither, nor.
342. a) -que is an enclitic, and is appended always to the second of two words connected. Where it connects phrases or clauses it is appended to the first word of the second clause; but when the first word of the second clause is a Preposition, -que is regulariy appended to the next following word; as, ob eamque rem, and on account of that thing.
b) atque is used before vowels and consonants; ac never before vowels, and seldom before $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{q u}$.
c) et nōn is used for neque when the emphasis of the negative rests upon a special word; as, vetus et nōn ignōbilis ōrātor, an old and not ignoble orator.
d) For and nowhere, and never, and none, the Latin regularly said nec üsquam, nec umquam, nec ūllus, etc.
343. Correlatives. Copulative Conjunctions are frequently used correlatively ; as, -
```
et . . . et, both . . . and;
neque (nec) . . . neque (nec), neither . . . nor ;
cum . . . tum, while . . . at the same time;
tum . . . tum, not only . . . but also.
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Less frequently:-

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et . . . neque; * neque . . . et.
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a. Note that the Latin, with its tendency to emphasize antithetical relations, often uses correlatives, especially et . . . et, et . . . neque, where the English employs but a single connective.

## 4. In enumeratious -

a) The different members of a series may follow one another without connectives (Asyndeton; see $\$ 346$ ). Thus :ex cupiditātibus odia, discidia, discordiae, sēditiōnēs, bell- nāscuntur, from covetous desires spring up hatred, dissensions, discord, sedition, wars.
b) The different memiers may severally be connected by et (Polysyndeton). Thus:-
hōrae cē̃unt et diês et mēnsês et annĩ, hours and days und years and months pass awvay.
c) The connective may be omitted between the former members, while the last two are connected by -que (rarely et); as, Caesar in Carnūtēs, Andēs Turonēsque legiōnees dēdūcit, Caesar leads his legions into the territory of the Carnutes, Andes, and Turones.

## 342. Disjunctive Conjunctions indicate an alternative.

I. a) aut must be used when the alternatives are mutually exclusive; as, cita mors venit aut viotōria laeta, (either) swift death or glad victory comes.
b) vel, -ve (enclitic) imply a choice between the alternatives; as, quī aethēr vel caelum nōminātur, which is called aether or heaven.
2. Correlatives. Disjunctive Conjunctions are often used correlatively ; as, -

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { aut . . . aut, either . . . or } \text {; } \\
& \text { vel . . . vel, either . . . or; } \\
& \text { sīve . . . sīve, if . . . . or if. }
\end{aligned}
$$

343. Adversative Conjunctions. These denote opposition.
344. a) sed, but, merely denotes opposition.
b) vērum, but, is stronger than sed, but is less frequently used.
c) antem, but on the other hand, however, marks a transition. It is always post-positive.
Definition. A post-positive word is one that cannot begin a sentence, but is placed after one or more words.
d) at, but, is used especially in disputation, to introduce an opposing argument.
e) atquī means but yet.
f) tamen, yet, usually stands after the emphatic word, but not always.
g) vērō, however, indeed, in truth, is always post-positive.
345. Note the correlative expressions : -
nōn solum (nōn modo) . . . sed etiam, not only . . . but also;
nōn modo nōn . . . sed nē . . . quidem, not only not, but not even ; as, -
nōn modo tibi nōn irāscor, sed nē reprehendō quidem faotum tuum, I not only am not angry with you, but $I$ do not even blame your action.
a. But when the sentence has but one verb, and this stands with the second member, nōn modo may be used for nōn modo nōn; as, -
aásentātiō nōn modo amicō sed nē liberō quidem digna est, Aattery is not only (not) worthy of a friend, but not even of a
free man.
346. Illative Conjunctions. These represent the statement which they introduce as following from or as in conformity with what has preceded.
347. a) itaque = and so, accordingly.
b) $\operatorname{ergo}=$ therefore, accordingly.
c) igitur (regularly post-positive ${ }^{1}$ ) $=$ therefore, accordingly.
348. Igitur is never combined with et, atque, -que, or neque.
349. Causal Conjunctions. These denote cause, or give an explanation. They are nam, namque, enim (post-positive), etenim, for.
350. Asyndeton. The conjunction is sometimes omitted between coördinate members, particularly in lively or impassioned narration. Thus:-
a) A Copulative Conjunction is omitted; as, -
avāritia īnfinīta, īnsatiābilis est, avarice is boundless (and) insatiable;
Cn. Pompèjō, M. Crassō cōnsulibus, in the consulship of Gnateus Pompey (and) Marcus Crassus. The conjunction is regularly omitted between the names of consuls when the praenomen (Märcus, Gäius, etc.) is expressed.
b) An Adversative Conjunction may be omitted; as, ratiōnēs dēfuērunt, ūbertās ōrātiōnis nōn dēfuit, arguments were lacking, (but) abundance of words was not.
[^30]> Adverbs. - Word-Order.

## ADVERBG.

347. I. The following particles, sometimes classed as Conjunctions, are more properly Adverbs :-
etiam, also, even.
quoque (always post-positive), also.
quidem (always post-positive) lays stress upon the preceding word.
It is sometimes equivalent to the English indeed, in fact, but more frequently cannot be rendered, except by vocal emphasis. nठ̄ . . . quidem means not even; the emphatic word or phrase always stands between; as, nē ille quidem, not even he.
tamen and verro, in addition to their use as Conjunctions, are often employed as Adverbs.
348. Negatives. Two Negatives are regularly equivalent to an affirmative as in English, as nōn nūlli, some; but when nön, nēmठ nihil, numquam, etc., are accompanied by neque . . . neque, nōn . . nōn, nōn modo, or nē . . . quidem, the latter particles simply take up the negation and emphasize it ; as, -
habeō hīo nëminem neque amicum neque cognătum, I have here no one, neither friend nor relative.
nonn enim praetereundum est nē id quidem, for not even that must be passed by.
a. Haud in Cicero and Caesar occurs almost exclusively as a modifier of Adjec ives and Adverbs, and in the phrase haud scio an. Later writers use it freely with verbs.

## Chapter VII. - Word-Order and SentenceStructure.

## A. WORD-ORDER.

348. In the normal arrangement of the Latin sentence the Subject stands at the beginning of the sentence, the Predicate at the end; as, -
Darǐus classem quīngentãrum năvium comparăvit, Darius got ready a fieei of five hundred ships.

## Syntax.

349. But for the sake of emphasis , he normal arrangement is often abandoned, and the emphatic word is put at the beginning, less frequently at the end of the sentence; as, -
māgnus in hōc bellō Themistoclēs fnit, great was Themistocles in this war; aliud iter habermus nullum, other course we have none.

## SPECIAL PRINCIPLES.

350. I. Nouns. A Genitive or other oblique case regularly follows the word upon which it depends. Thus: -
a) Depending upon a Noun:-
tribūnus plēbis, tribune of the plebs;
fillius rēgis, son of the king;
vir măgnì animì, a wan of noble spirit.
Yet always senãtūß cōnsultum, plêbis scītum.
b) Depending upon an Adjective:-
ignărus rērnm, ignorant of affairs;
dignir amioitiā, worthy of friendship;
plūs aequō, more than (what is) fair.
351. Appositives. An Appositive regularly follows its Subject; as, -

Philippus, rēx Macedonum, Philip, king of the Macedonians; adsentātiō, vitiōrum adjūtrīx, flattery, promoter of evils. Yet fūmen Rhēnus, the River Rhine; and always in good prose urbs Rōna, the city Rome.
3. The Vocative usually follows one or more words; as, Audì, Caesar, hear, Caesar!

Adjectives. No general law can be laid down for the position of Adjectives. On the whole they precede the noun oftener than they follow it.
a. Adjectives of quantity (including numerals) regularly precede their noun; as, -
omnēs hominēes, all men;
septingentae năvēs, seven hundred vessels.
b. Note the force of position in the following: media urbs, the middle' of the city; urbs media, the middle city ; extrenmum bellum, the end of the war; bellum extrēmum, the last war.
c. Rōmãnus and Latinus regularly follow; as, senătus populusque Rōmănus, the Roman Senate and l'eople;
lãi Ròmănix, the loman games; fêriae Latinae, ale Latin holidays.
d. When a Noun is rodified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, a favorite order is : Adjective, Genitive, Noun; as, summa omnium rērum abundantia, the greates! abundance of all things.

## 5. Pronouns.

a. The Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns regularly precede the Noun; as, hic homō, this man; ille homō, that man; erant duo itinera, quibus itineribus, etc., there were two routes, by which, etc. quĭ homo? what sort of a man?
b. But ille in the sense of 'that well known,' 'that famous,' usually stands after its Noun; as, -
testula illa, that well-known custom of ostracism; Mèdēa illa, that famous Medea.
c. Possessive and Indefinite Pronouns usually follow their Noun ; as, -
pater meus, my father;
homō quīdan, a certain man; mulier aliqui, some zoman.
But for purposes of contrast the Possessive often precedes its Noun; as, meus pater, my father (i.e. as opposed to yours, his, etc.).
d. Where two or more Pronouns occur in the same sentence, the Latin is fond of putting them in close proximity; as, nisi forte ego vōbīs cessāre videor, unless perchance 1 seem to you to be doing nothing.
6. Adverbs and Adverbial phrases regularly precede the word they modify ; as, -
valde diligēns, extremely diligent; saepe dixi, I have often said; tō jam diū hortāmur, we have long been urging you; paulo post, a little after. .
7. Prepositions regularly precede the words they govern.
a. But limiting words often intervene between the Preposition and its case; as, -
dee commūnī hominum memoriă, concerning the common memory of men; ad beātē vīvendum, for living happily.
b. When a noun is modified by an Adjective, the Adjective is often placed before the preposition; as, -
măgnō in dolōre, in great grief;
summã cum laude, with the highest credit ;
quă dè causä, for which cause;
hanc ob rem, on account of this thing.
c. For Anastrophe, by which a Preposition is put after its case, see $\oint$ I $44,3$.
8. Conjunctions. Autem, enim, and igitur regularly stand in the second place in the sentence, but when anmbined with est or sunt they often stand third; as, -
ita est enim, for so it is.
9. Words or Phrases referring to the preceding sentence or to some part of it, regulerly stand first ; às, -
id ut audivit, Corcȳram dēmigrāvit, when he heard that (referring to the contents of the preceding sentence), he moved to Corcyra; eō cum Caesar vēnisset, timentës oōnfirmat, when raesar had come thither (i.e. to the place just mentioned), he encouraged the timid.
10. The Latin has a fondness for putting side by side words which are etymologically related; as, -
ut ad senem senex dê sonestūte, sīc hōc librō ad amīoum amīcissimus dè amicitiā scripsī, as $I$. an old man, wrote to an old man, on ol: age, sc in this book, as a fond friend, I have written to a friend concerning friendship.
II. Special rhetorical devices for indicating emphasis are the following: -
a) Hyperbaton, which consists in the separation of words that regularly stand together; as, -
septimus mini Originum liber est in manious, the seventh book of my 'Origines' is under way;
receptō Caesar Ōricō proficīscitur, having recovered Oricus, Caesar set out.
b) Anáphora, which consists in the repetition of the same word or the same word-order in successive phrases; as, sed plēnī omnēs sunt librī, plēnae sapientium vōcēs, plēna exemplōrum vetustās, but all books are full of it, the voices of sages are full of it, antiquity is full of examples of it.
c) Chiásmus, ${ }^{1}$ which consists in changing the relative order of words in two antithetical phrases; as, -
multōs dēfendī, laesī nēminem, many have I defended, I have injured no one; horribilem illum diem aliīs, nōbīs faustum, that day dreadful to others, for us fortunati.
d) Sýnchysis, or the interlocked arrangement. This is mostly confined to poetry, yet occurs in rhetorical prose, especially

* that of the Imperial Period; as, simulătam Pompējānārum grātiam partium, pretended interest in the Pompeian party.

12. Metrical Close. At the end of a sentence certain cadences were avoided; others were much employed. Thus:-
a) Cadences avoided.
$-\cup \cup-\simeq$; as, esse vidēiur (close of hexameter).
$-\cup \cup \underline{~ ; ~ a s, ~ e s s e ~ p o t e s t ~(c l o s e ~ o f ~ p e n t a m e t e r) . ~}$
b) Cadences frequently employed.

- $\quad$ _ as, auxerant.
. $\cup-\cup ; \quad$ as, comprobāvit.
$ー \cup \cup \cup — \cup ; ~ a s, ~ e s s e ~ v i d e a ̃ t u r . ~$
$\cup-\cup —$; as, rogåtū tuō.
${ }^{1}$ So namet from a fancied analogy to the strokes of the Greek letter $\overrightarrow{\mathrm{X}}$ (chi). Thus:-

$\underset{\text { dēfendì }}{\text { multōs }} X_{\text {nēminem }}^{\text {laesī }}$

## Syntax.

## B. SENTENCE-STRUCTURE.

351. 352. Unity of Subject. - complex sentences the Latin regularly holds to unity of Subject in the different members; as, -
Caesar prīmum suō, deinde omnium ex cōnspectū remōtīs equīs, ut aequātō perīculō spem fugae tolleret, cohortätus suōs proclium commisit, Caesar having first removed his own horse from sight, then the horses of all, in order, by making the danger equal, to take away hope of fight, encouraged his men and joined battle.
1. A word serving as the common Subject or Object of the main clause and a subordinate one, stands before both; as, -
Aedui cum sē dēfendere nōn possent, lēgātōs ad Caesarem mittunt, since the Aedui could not defend themsilves, they sent envoys to Caesar;
ille etsī flāgrābat bellandi cupiditāte, tamen påci serviendum putāvit,' although he was burning with a desire to fight, yet he thought he ought to aim at peace.
$a$. The same is true also
I) When the Subject of the main clause is Object (Direct or Indirect) of a subordinate clause ; as, -
; Caesar, cum hōc eī nūntiatum esset, mātūrat ab urbe proficisci, when this had been reported to Caesar he hastened to set out from the city.
2) When the Subject of a subordinate clause is at the same time the Object (Direct or Indirect) of the main clause ; as, -
L. Manliō, cum dictātor fuisset, M. Pompōnius tribūnus plēbis diem dixit, M. Pomponius, tribune of the people, instituted proceedings against Lucius Manlius though he had been dictator.
3表 Of subordinate clauses, temporal, conditional, and adversative clauses more commonly precede the main clause; indirect questions and clauses of purpose or result more commonly follow; as, postquam haec dixit, profectus est, after he said this, he set out ; sì quis ita agat, imprūdēns sit, if any one should act so, he would < be devoid of foresight;
accidit ut ūnă nocte omnēs Hermae dēicerentur, it happened that in a single night all the Hermae were thrown down.
4. Sometimes in Latin the m.n verb is placed within the subordinate clause ; as, -
sī quid est in mē ingenī, quod sentiō quam sit exiguum, if there is any talent in me, and I know how little it is.
5. The Latin Period. The term Period, when strictly used, designates a compound sentence in which the subordinate clauses are inserted within the main clause; as, --
Caesar etsī intellegēbat quā dē causã ea dicerentur, tamen, nē aestātem in Trēverīs cōnsümere oōgerētur, Indutiomarum ad ser venire jussit, though Caesar perceived why this was said, yet, lest he should be forced to spend the sumimer among the Treveri, he ordered Indutionarus to come to him.
In the Periodic structure the thought is suspended until the end of the sentence is reached. Many Roman writers were extremely fond of this sentence-structure, and it was well adapted to the inflectional character of their language ; in English we generally avoid it.
6. When there are several subordinate clauses in one Period, the Latin so arranges them as to avoid a succession of verbs. Thus : At hostēs cum mīsissent, quí, quae in castris gererentur, cognōscerent, ubi sē dēceptōs intellēxērunt, omnibus cōpiīs subsecūtī ad flümen contendunt, but the enemy when they had sent men to learn what zuas going on in camp, after discovering that they had been outwitted, followed with all their forces and hurried to the river.

## Chapter VIII. - Hints on Latin Style.

352. In this chapter brief consideration is given to a few features of Latin diction which belong rathe to style than to formal grammar.

## NOUNS.

353. I. Where a distinct reference to several persons or things is involved, the Latin is frequently much more exact in the use of the Plural than is the English; as, -
domoss eunt, they go home (i.e. to their homes);
Germãnī corpora cūrant, the Germans care for the body; animos militum recreat, he renezus the courage of the soldiers; diēs noctēsque timēre, to be in a state of fear day and night.
354. In case of Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively, the Latin often employs the Plural where the English uses the Singular; as, -
omnia sunt perdita, everything is lost;
quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
haec omnibus pervulgāta sunt, this is very well known to all.
355. The Latin is usually more concrete than the English, and espepeace with Carthage;
liber doctrinae plēnus $=$ a learned book;
prũdentiā Themistoclis Graecia servāta est $=$ Themistocles's foresight saved Greece.
356. The Nouns of Agency in -tor and -sor (see § 147, I) denote a permanent or characteristic activity; as, -
accüsātōrēs (professional) accusers;
örātōrēs, pleaders;
cantōrēs, singers;
Arminius, Germāniae lIberātor, Arminius, liberator of Germany.
a. To denote single instances of an action, other expressions are commonly employed; as,-
Numa, qui Rōinulo successit, Numa, successor of Romulus; qui mea legunt, my readers; quỉ mē audiunt, my auditors.
357. The Latin avoids the use of prepositional phrases as modifiers of a Noun. In English we say: 'The war against Carthage'; 'a journey through Gaul'; 'cities on the sea'; 'the book in my hands' ; 'the fight at Salamis'; etc. The Latin in such cases usually employs another mode of expression. Thus:-
a) A Genitive; as, dolor injūriārum, resentment at injuries.
b) An Adjective ; as, urbēs maritimae, cities on the sea; pūgna Salamīnia, the fight at Salamis.
c) A Participle; as, pūgna ad Cannās facta, the battle at Cannae.
d) A Relative clause; as, -
liber quĩ in meīs manibus est, the book in my hands.
Note. -- Yet within certain limits the Latin does employ Prepositional phrases as Noun modifiers. This is particularly frequent when the governing noun is derived from a verb. The following are typical examples:-
trānsitus in Britanniam, the passage to Britain; excessus è vïtā, departure from life ; odium ergā Römãnōs, hatred of the Romans; liber dee senectūte, the book on old age;
amor in patriam, love for one's country.

## ADJECTIVES.

354. I. Special Latin Equivalents for English Adjectives are -
a) A Genitive; as, -
virtūtēs animī $=$ moral virtues; dolörēs corporis $=$ bodily ills.
b) An Abstract Noun ; as, novitās reī = the strange circumstance; asperitās viārum $=$ rough roads.
c) Hendiadys (see $\S 374,4$ ); as, ratiō et ördō = systematic order ; ărdor et impetus = eager onset.
d) Sometimes an Adverb; as, omnēs circã populi, all the surrounding tribes; suōs semper hostēs, their perpetual foes.
355. Often a Latin Noun is equivalent to an English Noun modified by an Adjective ; as, -
prūdentia, practical knowledge; libellus, little book
356. Adjectives are not used in immediate agreement with proper names; but an Adjective may limit vir, homō, ille, or some other word used as an Appositive of a proper name; as, -

Sōcratēs, homō sapiēns = the wise Socrates; Scipiō, vir fortissimus = the doughty Scipio; Syrācūsae, urbs praeclārissima = famous Syracuse.
4. An Adjective may be equivalent to a Possessive Genitive; as, pāstor rēgius, the shepherd of the king; tumultus servilis, the uprising of the slaves.

## PRONOUNS.

355. In Compound Sentences the Relative Pronoun has a fondness for connecting itself with the subordinate clause rather than the main one; as,
ā quō cum quaererētur, quid māximē expedīret, respondit, when it was asked of him what was best, he replied. (Less commonly, quī, cum ab eō quaererētur, respondit.)
356. Uterque, am.hō. Uterque means each of two; ambō means both; as,-
uterque frāter abiit, each of the two brothers departed (i.e. separately);
ambō frātrēs abiērunt, i.e. the two brothers departed together.
a. The Plural of uterque occurs -
1) With Nouns used only in the Plural (see §56); as, in utrīsque castrīs, in each camp.
2) Where there is a distinct reference to two groups of persons or things; as, -
utrīque ducēs clārī fuērutnt, the generals on each side (several in number) zere famous.

## VERBS.

356. I. In case of Defective and Deponent Verbs a Passive is supplied:-

[^31] ther
admīratiōnī est, he is admired;
oblivionne obruitur, he is forgotten (lit. is overwhelmed by oblivion); in ūsū esse, to be used.
b) By the Passive of Verbs of related meaning. Thus : agitārī as Passive of persequī ; temptārī as Passive of adorīrī.
2. The lack of the Perfect Active Participle in Latin is supplied -
a) Sometimes by the Perfect Passive Participle of the Deponent ; as, -
adhortātus, having exhorted; veritus, having feared:
b) By the Ablative Absolute; as, hostium agrīs vāstātīs Caesar exercitum redūxit, having ravaged the country of the enemy, Caesar led back his army.
c) By subordinate clauses; as, eō cum advēnisset, castra posuit, having arrived there, he pitched a camp;
hostēs quī in urbem irrūperant, the enemy having burst into the city.
3. The Latin agrees with English in the stylistic employment of the Second Person Singular in an indefinite sense ( $=$ 'one'). $C f$. the English 'You can drive a horse to water, but you can't make him drink.' But in Latin this use is mainly confined to certain varietiés of the Subjunctive, especially the Potential ( $\$ 280$ ), Jussive ( $\$ 275$ ), Deliberative ( $\$ 277$ ), and the Subjunctive in conditional sentences of the sort included under $\S 302,2$, and 303. Examples : vidērēs, you could see ; ūtāre vīribus use your strength;
quid hōc homine faciās, what are you to do with this man?
mēns quoque et animus, nisi tamquam lūminī oleum instillēs
exstinguuntur senectūte, the intellect and mind too are ex-
tingrished by old age, unless, so to speak, you keep pouring oil into the lump;
tantō amōre possessiōnēs suās amplexī tenēbant, ut ab eīs membra divellì citius posge dicer会s, they clutg to their possessions with such an affectionate embrace, that you would have said their limbs could sooner be torn from their bodies.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.
357. 1. To denote 'so many years, etc., afterwards or before' the Latin employs not merely the Ablative of Degree of Difference with post and ante (see § 223), but has other forms of expression. Thus:post quinque annōs, five years afterward;
paucōs ante diēs, a few days before;
ante quadriennium, four years before;
post diem quartum quam ab urbe discessimus, four days after we left the city;
ante tertium annum quam deecesserat, three years before he had died.
2. The Latin seldom combines both Subject and Object with the same Infinitive; as, -

## Rōmãnōs Hannibalem vīcisse cōnstat.

Such a sentence would be ambiguous, and might mean either that the Romans had conquered Hannibal, or that Hannibal had conquered the Romans. Perspicuity was gained by the use of the Passive Infinitive; as, -
Rōmănōs ab Hannibale victōs esse cōnstat, it is well established that the Romans were defeated by Hannibal.

## PECULIARITIES IN CONNECTION WITH THE USE OF the Dative.

358. I. The English for does not always correspond to a Dative notion in Latin, but is often the equivalent of prō with the Ablative, viz. in the senses -
a) In defense of; as, prō patriā morī, to die for one's country.
b) Instead of, in behalf of; as, -
ūnus prō omnibus dixit, one spoke for all.
haec prō lēge dicta sunt, these things were said in behalf of the law.
c) In proportion to; as, -
prō multitūdine hominum, in proporition to the population.

## Part VI.

## PROSODY.

360. Prosody treats of metres and versification.
361. Latin Verse. Latin Poetry was essentially different in character from English. In our own language poetry is based upon accent, and poetical form consists essentially in a certain succession of accented and unaccented syllables. Latin poctry, on the other hand, was based not upon accent, but upon quantity, so that with the Romans poetical form consisted in a certain succession of long and short syllables, i.e. of long and short intervals of time.

This fundamental difference in the character of English and Latin poetry is a natural result of the difference in character of the two languages. English is a strongly accented language in which quantity is relatively subordinate. Latin, on the other hand, was a quantitative language, in which accent was relatively subordinate.

## QUANTITY OF VOWELS AND SYLLABLES.

## GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

362. The general principles for the quantity of vowels and syllables have been given above in $\S 5$. The following peculiarities are to be noted here:-
I. A vowel is usually short when followed by another vowel (§ 5. A. 2), but the following exceptions occur: -

## Quantity of Vowels and Syllables.

a) In the Genitive termination-Ius (except alterius); as, illius, tötius. Yet the i may be short in poetry; as, illius, totilus.
${ }^{4}$ ) In the Genitive and Dative Singular of the Fifth Declension;

c) In fio, excepting fit and forms where $i$ is followed by or. Thus: fiezbam, fiat, fiunt; but fieri, fierom.
d) In a few other words, especially words derived from the Greek; as, dius, Aenēās, Darēus, hērōes, etc.
2. A diphthong is usually long (§ 5. B. 2), but the preposition prae in composition is often shortened before a vowel ; as, praeacuatus.
3. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonauts ( $\$ 5.1 \mathrm{~B} .2$ ) is long, even when one of the consonants is in the following word; as, terret populum. Occasionally the syllable is long when both consonants are in the following word; as, pro segete spicās.
4. A vowel before j is regularly long, but is short in compounds of jugum ; as, bǐjugis, quadrǐjugis.
5. Compounds of jaciō, though written inicit, adicit, etc., have the first syllable long, as though written inj-, adj-. The actual pronunciation of such words is not clear. Rexicio has $\mathbf{e}$.

## Quantity of Final Eyllables.

A. Final Syllables ending in a Vowel.
363. I. Final a is mostly short, but is long in the following situations:-
a) In the Ablative Singular of the First Declension; as, portã.
b) In the Imperative; as, laudã.
c) In indeclinable words (except ită, quiă) ; as, trīgintā, contrā, posteā, intereā, etc.
2. Final $e$ is usually short, but is long -
a) In the Ablative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diē, rē; hence hodiē, quārē. Here belongs also famē (§ 59. 2. b).
b) In the Imperative of the Second Conjugation; as, mone, habę, etc.; yet occasionally cavé, vale.
c) In Adverbs derived from Adjectives of the Second Declension, along with ferē and ferme. Deň, malě, temerĕ, saepĕ have e.
d) In $\bar{e}, \mathbf{d e}, \mathrm{me}, \mathrm{te}, \mathbf{s e}, \mathrm{ne}$ (not, lest), nē (verily). R
3. Final 1 is usually long, but is short in nisi and quasi. Miht, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi, have regularly 1 , but sometimes $\mathbf{i}$; yet always ibidem, ibique, ubique.
4. Final o is regularly long, but is short -
a) In egð, duб, modð (only), cito.
b) Rarely in the First Person Singular of the Verb, and in Nominatives of the Third Declension; as, amb, loo.
c) In a few compounds beginning with the Preposition pro; as, proffundere, proficiscis, profugere.
5. Final $\mathbf{u}$ is always long.

## B. Final Syllables ending in a Cons. ant.

364. 365. Final syllables ending in any other consonant than s are short. The following words, however, have a long vowel : sall, sōl, Lār, pār, vēr, fưr, dīc, dūc, lãc, ēn, nōn, quīn, sīn, sīc, oūr, hio ${ }^{1}$ (this). Also adverbs in c; as, hīc, hūe, istīc, illūo, etc.
1. Final syllables in -as are long; as, terrās, amãs.
2. Final syllables in -es are regularly long, but are short -
a) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of dental stems (§33) of the Third Declension which have a short penult in the Genitive; as, segĕs (segetis), obsěs (obsidis), mĩlěs, divĕs. But a few have -ēs; viz. pēs, ariēs, abiēs, pariēs.
b) In ěs (thou art), peněs.
3. Final -os is usually long, but short in ठs (ossis), compors, impors.
4. Final -is is usually short, but is long -
a) In Plurals; as, portīs, hortīs, nōbīs, vōbīs, nūbīs (Acc.).
b) In the Nominative Singular of Nouns of the Third Declension with long vowel in the Penult of the Genitive; as, Samnīs (-Itis).
c) In the Second Person Singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation; as, audis.
d) In vis, force; is, thou goest ; fis ; sīs; velis ; nōlis ; viss, thou wilt; (mãvis, quamvis, quīvìs, etc.).
5. Final -us is usually short, but is long -
a) In the Genitive Singular and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural of the Fourth Declension; as, frūctūs.

[^32]b）In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of those nouns of the Third Declension in which the $u_{0}$ belongs to the stem； as，palüs（－ãis），servitūs（－âtis），tellüs（－uris）．
365．Greek Nouns retain in Latin their original quantity；as， Aenêa，epitomê，Dęlos，Pallas，Simois，Salamis，Diaus，Paridr， $\mathbf{a}$ êr，aethēr，crātēr，hêrōăs．Yet Greek nouns in－w regularly shorten the vowel；as，rhētరr，Hector．

## VERSE－STRUCTURE．

## GENERAL PRINCIPLES．

366．1．The metrical unit in versification is a short syllable，tech－ nically called a mora（ $\cup$ ）．A long syllable（ - ）is regarded as equiva－ lent to two morae．

2．A Foot is a group ef syllables．The following are the most important kinds of feet ：－

Feet of Three Morae．
－$\cup$ Trochee．
$\checkmark$－Iambus．
Feet of Four Morar．
ー レ D Dactyl．
$\checkmark \cup$－Anapaest．
3．A Verse is a succession of feet．
4．The different kinds of verses are named Trochaic，Iambic，Dac－ tylic，Anapaestic，according to the foot which forms the basis of their structure．

5．Ictus．In every foot the long syllable naturally receives the greater prominence．This prominence is called ictus．${ }^{1}$ It is denoted thus： $\mathscr{C} \cup \cup \leq \cup$ ．

6．Thesis and Arsis．The syllable which receives the ictus is called the thesis ；the rest of the foot is called the arsis．

7．Elision．Final syllables ending in a vowel，a diphthong，or $-m$ are regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or $\mathbf{h}$ ．In reading，we pedinarily omit the elided syllable entirely．Probably the ancients slut，ed the words together in some way．This miy be indi－ cated as follows：しorpore in ūnõ ；multum ille et ；mōnstrum hor－ rendum；causaé īrārum．
a．Omission of elision is called hiatus．It occurs especially before and after monosyllabic Interjections；as，$\overline{\mathbf{O}}$ et praesidium．

[^33]8. The ending of a word within a foot is called a caesūra (cutting). Every verse usually has one prominent caesura. The ending of a word and foot together within the verse is called a diaeresis.
9. Verses are distinguished as Catalectic or Acatalectic. A Catalectic verse is one in which the last foot is not complete, but lacks one or more syllables; an Acatalectic verse has its last foot complete.
10. At the end of a verse a slight pause occurred. Hence the final syllable may be either long or short (syllaba anceps), and may terminate in a vowel or $m$, even though the next verse begins with a vowel.
11. Iambic, Trochaic, and Anapaestic verses are further designated as dimeter, trimeter, tetrameter, according to the number of dipodies (pairs of feet) which they contain. Dactylic verses are measured by single feet, and are designated as tetrameter, pentameter, hexameter, accordingly.

## SPECIAL PECULIARITIES.

367. I. Synizēsis (Synaeresis). Two successive vowels in the interior of a word are often united into a long syllable; as, aureīs, deinde, anteīre, deesse.
368. Diastole. A syllable usually stort is sometimes long; as, vidēt, audit.
369. Systole. A syllable usually long is sometimes short; as, stetěrunt.
a. Diastole and Systole are not mere arbitrary processes. They usually represent an earlier pronunciation which had passed out of vogue in the ordinary speech.
370. After a consonant, $i$ and $u$ sometimes become $j$ and $v$. The preceding syllable then becomes long; as, -
abjete for abiete; genva for genua.
371. Sometimes $v$ becomes $\mathfrak{u}$; as, -
silua for silva; dissoluō for dissolvō.
372. Sometimes a verse has an extra syllable. Such a verse is called an Hypermeter. The extra syllable ends in a vowel or -m , and is united with the initial vowel or $h$ of the next verse by Eynapheia. Thus:-
errāmus.

## Verse-Structure.

7. Tmesis (cutting). Col into their elements ; as, - Compound words are occasionally separated quō mé cunque rapit tempestřs, for quōcunque, etc. consonants; as, -

A short vowel is sometimes dropped between two repostus for repositus.

## THE DACTYLIC HEXAMETER.

368. I. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. But in all the feet except the fifth a spondee (_ ) may take the place of the dactyl. The sixth foot may be either a spondee or a trochee, since the final syllable of a verse may be either long or short (syllaba anceps). The following represents the scheme of the verse:-

$$
\leq \bar{\sim}, \bar{\infty}, \leq \infty, \leq \infty, \leq w, \leq \underline{\sim}
$$

2. Sometimes we find a spondee in the fifth foot. Such verses are called Spondaic. A dactyl usually stanis in the fourth place, and the fifth and sixth feet are generally made up of a quadrisyllable; as, armātumque aurō circumspricit Ōrī̄na cāra deūm subolēs, māgnum Jovis incrēmentum.

## 3. Caesura.

a) The favorite position of the caesura in the Dactylic Hexameter is after the thesis of the third foot; as, arma virumque canō || Trōjae quī prīmus ab ōrìs.
b) Less frequently the caesura occurs after the thesis of the fourth foot, usually accompanied by another in the secofd foot ; as, -
Inde torõ || pater Aenēās || sīc ōrsus ab altō est.
c) Sometimes the caesura occurs between the two short syllables of the third foot; as, Ō passì graviōra || dabit deus hīs quoque fīnem. This caesura is called Feminine as opposed to the caesura after a long syllable, which is called Masculine (as under $a$
and $b$ ).
d）A pause sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot． This is called the Bucolic Diaeresis，as it was borrowed by the Romans from the Bucolic poetry of the Greaks．Thus ：－ sōlstitium pecorI dêfendite；｜｜jam venit aestās．

## DACTYLIC PENTAMETER．

369．I．The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts， each of which contains two dactyls，followed by a long syllable．Spondees may take the place of the dactyls in the first part，but not in the second．The long syllable at the close of the first half of the verse always ends a word．The scheme is the following：－

2．The Pentameter is never used alone，but only in connection with the Hexameter．The two arranged alternately form the so－called Ele－ giac Distich．Thus：－

## Vergilium vidī tantum，nec amāra Tibullō <br> Tempus amicitiae fäta dedēre meae．

## IAMBIC MEASURES．

370．I．The most important Iambic verse is the Iambio Trimeter（§ 366 ，I I）called also Senarius．This is an acata－ lectic verse．It consists of six Iambi．Its pure form is：－

## いーレーレーシーレーレー <br> Beătus ille quI procul negötiis．

The Caesura usually occurs in the third foot；less fre－ quently in the fourth．

2．In place of the Iambus，a Tribrach（ $\checkmark \checkmark \checkmark$ ）may stand in any foot but the last．In the odd feet（first，third，and fifth）may stand a Spondee，Dactyl，or Anapaest，though the last two are less irequent． Sometimes a Proceleusmatic（ $\smile \checkmark \cup \checkmark$ ）occurs．

3．In the Latin comic writers，Plautus and Terence，great free－ dom is permited，and the various equivalents of the Iambus，viz． the Dactyl，Anapaest，Spondee，Tribrach，Proceleusmatic，are freely admitted in any foot except the last．
all
th foot. owed by Chus : -
parts, a long dactyls yllable ends a led Ele-

# SUPPLEMENTS TO THE GRAMMAR. 

I. JULIAN CALENDAR.
371. I. The names of the Roman months are: Jānuãrius, Februãrius, Märtius, Aprīlis, Māius, Jūnius, Jūlius (Quintilis ${ }^{1}$ prior to 46 в.с.), Augustus (Sextilis ${ }^{1}$ before the Empire), September, Octōber, November, December. These words are properly Adjectives in agreement with mensis understood.
2. Dates were reckoned from three points in the month :-
a) The Calends, the first of the month.
b) The Nones, usually the fifth of the month, but the seventh in March, May, July, and October.
c) The Ides, usually the thirteenth of the month, but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.
3. From these point; dates were reckoned backward; consequently all days after the Ides of any month were reckoned as so many days before the Calends of the month next following.
4. The day before the Calends, Nones, or Ides of any month is designated as prīdiē Kalendās, Nōnās, İdūs. The second day before was designated as dié tertiō ante Kalendās, Nōnās, etc. Similarly the third day before was designated as diē quărtō, and so on These designations, of course, are arithmetically inaccurate, but the Romans reckoned both ends of the series.
5. In indicating dates, the name of the month is added in the form of an Adjective agreeing with Kalendās, Nōnās, Īdūs. Various forms of expression occur, of which that given under $d$ ) is most common : -
a) diē quīntō ante $\overline{\mathbf{I}}$ aūs Mārtiãs ;
b) quīıtō ante Īdūs Mãrtiās;
c) quīn $\overline{0}$ (V) Ī dūs Mārtiās ;
d) ante diem quīıtum (V) Īdūs Mărtiās.

[^34]6. These designations may be treated as nouns and combined with the prepositions in, ad, ex ; as, -
ad ante diem IV Kalendaas Octöbrēs, up to the 28 th of September. ex ante diem quintum İdūs Octōbrēs, from the 1 ith of October.
7. In leap year the 25 th was reckoned as the extra day in February. The 24th was designated as ante diem VI Kalendās Märtiās, and the 25th as ante diem bis VI Kal. Märt.
372.

CALENDAR.

| Days of the Month. | March, May, July, October. | January, August, December. | April, June, September, November. | February. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Kalendis. | Kalendis. | Kalendis. | Kalendis. |
| 2 | VI. Nōnās. | IV. Nōnās. | IV. Nōnās. | IV. Nōnās. |
| 3 | V . | III. | III. | III. |
| 4 | IV. | Prìdiè Nōnās. | Prīdiè Nōnās. | Prīdiē Nōnās. |
| 5 | III. | Nōnīs. | Nōnîs. | Nōnīs. |
| 6 | Prìdiē Nônās. | VIlI. İdūs. | VriI. İdūs. | ViiI. İdūs. |
| 7 | Nōnīs. | VII. | VII. | VII. |
| 8 | VIII. İdūs. | VI. | VI. | VI. |
| . 9 | VII. | V. | V . | V . |
| 10 | VI. | IV. | IV. | IV. |
| 11 | V . | III. | III. " | III. |
| 12 | IV. | Prīdiē Īdūs. | Prīdiē İdūs. | Prìdiē İdūs. |
| 13 | III. | İdibus. | İdibus. | İdibus. |
| 14 | Prìdiē İdūs. | XIX. Kalend. | XVIII. Kalend. | XVI. Kalend. |
| 15 | İdibus. | XVIII. | XVII. | XV. |
| 16 | XVII. Kalend. | XVII. | XVI. | XIV. |
| 17 | XVI. | XVI. | XV. | XIII. |
| 18 | XV. | XV. | XIV. | XII. |
| 19 | XIV. | XIV. | XIII. | XI. |
| 20 | XIII. | XIII. | XII. | X . |
| 21 | XII. | XII. | XI. | IX. |
| 22 | XI. | XI. | X . | VIII. |
| 23 | X. | X . | IX. | VII. |
| 2. | IX. | IX. | VIII. | VI. |
| 25 | VIII. | VIII. | Vr. | V. (VI.) |
| 26 | VII. | VII. | VI. | IV. (V.) |
| 27 | VI. | VI. | V . | III. (IV.) " |
| 28 | V . | V. | IV. | Prid. Kal.(III. Kal.) |
| 29 | IV. | IV. | III. | (Prīd. Kal.) |
| 30 | III. <br> Pridiē Kalend. | III. <br> Pridiê Kalend | Prīdiè Kalend. | (Enclosed forms are |
| 3 3: | Pridie kalend. | Pride Kalend. |  | for leap-year.) |

# Figures of Syntax. 

II. ABBREVIATIONS OF PROPER NAMES. 373.
A. = Aulus.

App. = Appius.
C. = Gätus.
$\mathrm{Cn} .=$ Gnaeus.
D. = Decimus.
K. = Kaesō.
L. = Lŭcius.
M. = Märcus.
$M^{\prime} \cdot=$ Mānius.

Mam. = Māmercus.
N. = Numerius.
P. = Publius.
Q. = Quintus.

Sex. = Sextus.
Ser. = Servius.
Sp. = Spurius.
T. = Titus.

Ti. = Tiberius.
III. FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC.

## A. Figures of Syntax.

374. I. Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words; as, sed enim audierat, but (she was afraid), for she had heard, etc.
375. Brachýlogy is a brief or condensed form of expression; as, ut ager sine cultūrā frūctuōsus esse nōn potest, sīc sine doctrīnā animus, as a field cannot be productive without cultivaSpecial varieties of Brachylogy are -
a) Zeugma, in which one verb is made to stand for two; as, minis aut blandimentis corrupta, $=($ terrified $)$ by threats or corrupted by flattery.
b) Compendiary Comparison, by which a modifier of an object is mentioned instead of the object itself; as, -
dissimilis erat Charēs eōrum et factīs et möribus, lit. Chares was different from their conduct and character, i.e. Chares's conduct and character were different, etc.
376. Pléonasm is an unnecessary fullness of expression; as, prius praedīcam, lit. I will first say in advance.
377. Hendiadys ( $\left.\epsilon^{\prime \prime} \nu \delta i \alpha ̀ \delta v o i v, ~ o n e ~ t h r o u g h ~ t w o\right) ~ i s ~ t h e ~ u s e ~ o f ~ t w o ~$ nouns joined by a conjunction, in the sense of a noun modified by a Genitive or an Adjective; as, -
febris et aestus, the heat of fever;
celeritāte cursūque, by swift running.
378. Prolépsis, or Anticipation, is the introduction of an epithet in advance of the action which makes it appropriate; as, -
submersās obrue puppēs, lit. overwhelm their submerged ships, i.e. overwhelm and sink their ships.
a. The name Prolepsis is also applied to the introduction of a noun or pronoun as object of the main clause where we should expect it to stand as subject of a subordinate clause. Thus:-
nōstī Mārcellum quam tardus sit, you know how slow Marcellus is (lit. you know Marcellus, how slow he is). Both varieties of Prolepsis are chiefly confined to poetry.
379. Anacoluthon is a lack of grammatical consistency in the construction of the sentence; as, -
tum Ancī fīlī̄ . . . impēnsius eīs indīgnitās crēscere, then the sons of Ancus . . . their indignation increased all the more.
380. Hysteron' Proteron consists in the inversion of the logical order of two words or phrases ; as, -
moriāmur et in media arma ruāmus = let us rush into the midst of arms and die.

## B. Figures of Rhetoric.

375. I. Litotes is the use of two negatives for an emphatic affirmative ; as, -
haud parum laböris, no little toil (i.e. much toil); nōn ignōrō, I am not ignorant (i.e. I am well aware).
376. Oxymbron is the combination of contradictory conceptions; as, sapiēns insānia, wise folly.
377. Alliteration is the employment of a succession of words presenting $f$ quent repetition of the same letter (mostly initial); as, sēnsim sine sēnsū aetās senēscit. *,
378. Onomatopóia is the suiting of sound to sense; as, quadrupedante putrem sonitū quatit ungula campum, 'And shake with horny hoofs the solid ground.'

## INDEX TO THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ One of the most eminent of living Latinists, Professor Eduard Wölflin, of Munich, has expressed the opinion that the essentials may be given within even smaller compass than this. See his Preface to the Schmalz-Wagener Lateinische Grammatik, 1891.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ For ' voiceless, ' ' surd,' ' hard,' or ' tenuis ' are sometimes used.
    2 For ' voiced,' 'sonant,' 'soft,' or ' media' are sometimes used.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ In this book, long vowels are indicated by a horizontal line above them; as, $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{\delta}$, etc. Vowels not thus marked are short. Occasionally a curve is set above

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ To avoid confusion, the quantity of syllables is not indicated by any sign.
    ${ }^{2}$ But if the 1 or $\mathbf{r}$ introduces the second part of a compound, the preceding syllable is always long; as, abrumpō.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ The great majority of all Latin nouns come under this category. The principles for determining their gender are given under the separate declensiuns.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Stem is often derived from a more primitive form, called the Root. Thus, the stem porte- goes back to the root per-, por-. Roots are monosyllabic. The addition made to a root to form a stem is called a Suffix. Thus in porta- the suffix is -ta-.

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ There is only one stem ending in -m, - hlems, hiemis, winter.

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ Mēnsis, month, originally a consonant-stem (mēns-), has in the Genitive Plural both mēnsium and mēnsum. The Accusative Plural is mēnsēs.

[^10]:    : This is almost always used instead of alius in the Genitive.

    - A Dative Singular Feminine alterae also occurs.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ Supplied by vetustior, from vetustus.
    2 Supplied by recentior.
    ${ }^{3}$ For newest, recentissimus is used.
    ${ }^{4}$ Supplied by minimus nãtua.
    ${ }^{5}$ Supplied by māximus nātia.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ The final $i$ is sometimes long in poetry.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ The final $\mathbb{I}$ is sometimes long in poetry.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ The vowel is sometimes short in poetry, - hyc.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ An Ablative quil occurs in quicum.

[^16]:    1 Where the Perfect Participle is not in use, the Future Active Participle, if it occurs, is given as one of the Principal Parts.

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Perfect Participle is wanting in sum.

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ The meanings of the different tenses of the Subjunctive are so many and so varied, particularly in su-ordinate clauses, that no attempt can be made to give them here. For fuller information the pupil is referred to the Syntax.
    ${ }^{2}$ For essem, eseēs, esset, essent, the forms forem, forēs, foret, fleent are sometimes used.
    ${ }^{3}$ For futurus esse the form fore is often used.
    4 Declined like bonus, -a., -um.

[^19]:    1 Fuerim, etc., are sometimes used for sim ; so fuissem, etc., for essem.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ Strictly speaking, the Present Stem always ends in a Thematic Vowel (or or
     involved prevents a scientific treatment of the subject here. See the Appendix.

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ But the compounds of juvō sometimes have $-j \bar{u} t \bar{u} r u s ;$ as, $a d j \bar{u} t \bar{u} r m$,

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ Used only impersonally.
    ${ }^{2}$ So impleō, expleō.
    ${ }^{3}$ Compounds follow the Fourth Conjugation : acciō, accīre, etci.

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ Fully conjugated only in the compounds : exstinguö, restinguö, distinguō.
    ${ }^{2}$ Only in the compounds: $\bar{e} v a \bar{a} d \bar{o}, i n v a ̄ d \overline{0}, p e r v a ̄ d o ̄$.

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ Many such verbs were origina!ly intransitive in English also, and once gov. erned the Dative.

    2 This was the original form of the preposition cum.

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ Place from whic; , though strictly a Genuine Ablative use, is treated here for sake of convenience.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ Especially: moneō, admoneō ; rogō, ōrō, petō, postulō, precor, flăgito ; mando imporō, praecipiō; suadeō, hortor, cohortor; per-

[^27]:    ${ }^{1}$ Especially: permittō, concēdō. nōn patior.
    ${ }^{2}$ Especially: prohibeō, impediō, dēterrē̄.
    ${ }^{3}$ Especially : cōnstituō, dēcernō, cēnseō, placuit, convenit, paciscor.
    ${ }^{4}$ Especially : labōrō, dō nperam, id agō, contendō, impetrō.

[^28]:    ${ }^{1}$ Exclamations, also, upon becoming indirect, take the Subjunctive, as cōn sĩderà quam variae sint hominum cupidinēs, consider how varied are the
    desires of men. (Direct: quam variae sunt hominum cupidinēs !)

[^29]:    1 Tragituri fuemint and erräturus fuerls are to be regarded as representing trāditūrī fuērunt and errātūrus fuistī of Direct Discourse. (See
    $\$ 304,3, b)$.

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ Except in Sallust and Silver Latin.

[^31]:    a) By the corresponding verbal Nouns in combination with esse, etc.; as, 一
    in odiō sumus, wee are hated; in invidiā sum, I am envied;

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ Rarely hic.

[^33]:    ${ }^{1}$ Ictus was not accent，－neither stress ancent nor musical accent，－but was simply the quantitative prominence inherent in a long syllable．

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ Originally the Roman year began with March. This explains the names Quintilis, Sextilis, September, etc., fifth month, sixth month, etc.

