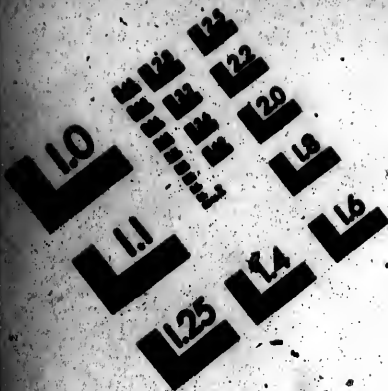




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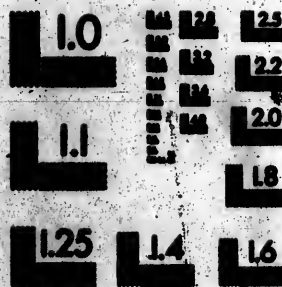
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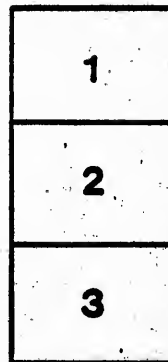
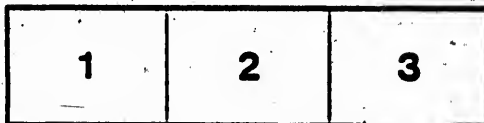
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# OUTLINES OF LATIN SYNTAX.

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## INTRODUCTION.

**PARTS** of speech, either singly or combined, form propositions  
e. g., *Amā, thou lovest*; *puēr lūdit, the boy plays*.

**Propositions**, either singly or combined, form sentences; e. g.,  
*Equūs currit, (one prop.), the horse runs*; *Puēr lūdit et equūs currit*  
(two propositions).

**Sentences**, in their various forms and combinations, of course,  
comprise the language.

Sentences may be divided into two classes, viz. :

- (1) Simple sentences, or such as contain a single proposition ;  
e. g., *Puēr lūdit*.
- (2) Compound sentences, or such as contain more than one  
proposition ; e. g., *Puēr lūdit et equūs currit*.

In a compound sentence, the propositions which compose it are  
either,

- (1) Independent of each other, as in the above example, and  
are called co-ordinate propositions ; or,
- (2) One of them is used to qualify the other, or some part of  
it, and is called a dependent or subordinate proposition,  
while that on which it depends is called a leading or prin-  
cipal proposition ; e. g., *Servūs vēnit ut portās clauderet*,  
*the slave has come to shut the gates*. Here, '*servūs vēnit*'  
is a principal proposition, and '*ut portās clauderet*' is a de-  
pendent proposition.

## CHAPTER I.

### *The Essential Elements of Sentences.—Subject and Predicate.*

#### SECTION I.—SUBJECT.

1. EVERY sentence, however simple, consists of two distinct parts, viz :

(1) The *Subject*, or that of which it speaks, as, *puŕ*, in the sentence *puŕ lădt*.

(2) The *Predicate*, or that which is said of the subject, as *lădt*, in the above sentence.

2. The subject of a sentence must be either,

(1) A noun ; e. g., *puŕ*, in the sentence *puŕ lădt* ; or,

(2) A word or clause used as a noun ; e. g., *mentiri*, in the sentence *turpē est mentiri*.

*The Subject.*—When a noun or pronoun is the subject of a finite verb, it is put in the nominative case ; e. g., *Equŭs currit*, *the horse runs*.

3. The subject may either be *simple* or *compound*.

(1) The *simple subject* consists either of a single nominative, or of two or more nominatives representing the same person or thing ; e. g., (1) *Lătinŭs rēgnăbăt*, *Latinus was reigning* ; (2) *Lătinŭs rex rēgnăbăt*, *Latinus the king was reigning*.

(2) The *compound subject* consists of two or more simple subjects connected by conjunctions, expressed or understood ; e. g., *Caeŕ ōt Balbŭs Rŏmăm vĕnĕrunt*, *Caesar and Balbus came to Rome*.

#### SECTION II.—PREDICATE.

4. The predicate of a sentence must be either,

(1) A verb ; e. g., *lădt*, in the sentence *puŕ lădt* ; or,

(2) The verb *esse* (or sometimes a passive verb) with an attributive\* noun or adjective ; e. g.,

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\* By an *attributive* noun is meant one which is used to qualify or describe another noun.

1.

Cicēro fuit consūl, *Cicero was consul.*  
 Christiāni est nēmīnēm violārē, *it is the duty of a Christian to wrong nobody.* Here, *fuit consūl* and *Christiāni est* are the predicates.

2.

Terrā est rōtundā, *the earth is round.*  
 Hūmānūm est errārē, *to err is human.* Here, *est rōtundā* and *hūmānūm est* are the predicates.

5. *Finite Verb.*—A finite verb must agree with its subject in number and person; e. g., *Puēr lūdīt, the boy plays.*

REM.—If the subject is *compound*, the verb is generally put in the plural.

6. *Attributive Noun.*—An attributive noun in the predicate, after the verb *essē* and a few passive verbs, is put,

(1) In the same case as the subject, when it denotes the same person or thing; e. g., *Cicēro fuit consūl, Cicero was consul.*

(2) In the genitive, when it denotes a different person or thing; e. g., *Christiāni est nēmīnēm violārē, it is the duty of a Christian to wrong nobody.*

7. *Adjectives.*—Adjectives and participles (whether in the subject or the predicate) agree in *gender, number, and case*, with the nouns which they qualify; e. g., *Terrā est rōtundā, the earth is round.*

8. The predicate, like the subject, may be either *simple* or *compound*.

(1) The *simple* predicate contains but a single finite verb; e. g., *Puēr currīt, the boy runs.*

(2) The *compound* predicate consists of two or more simple predicates connected by conjunctions, expressed or understood; e. g., *Puēr currīt et lūdīt, the boy runs and plays.*

9. In principal sentences (including simple sentences) the verb of the predicate may be put in any finite mood.

(1) The *indicative* is used in positive assertions; e. g., *Portās claudīt, he is shutting the gates.*

(2) The *subjunctive* is used,

- (a) To express an affirmation *doubtfully or conditionally*; e. g., *Dārēt, he would give it (i. e., if he had it, perhaps).*
- (b) *Sometimes to express a wish or command*; e. g., *Scribāt, he may write, may he write, or let him write.*
- (3) The imperative is used to express a command; e. g., *Portās claudē, shut the gates.*
10. *Vocative.*—The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the vocative; e. g., *Quid est, Cātillinā? why is this, Catiline!*
- REM.—This, of course, forms no part of the subject or predicate.

## CHAPTER II.

*Subordinate Elements.—Modifiers.*

## SECTION I.—USE OF MODIFIERS.

11. BOTH subject and predicate may have qualifying words and clauses connected with them, to limit or qualify their meaning; e. g.,
- (1) *Lātinūs rex rēgnāvīt, Latinus the king reigned.* Here the subject is modified by *rex*.
- (2) *Miltēs fortitēr pūgnant, the soldiers fight bravely.* Here the predicate is modified by *fortitēr*.
12. Any modifier, whether in the subject or the predicate, may be itself modified; e. g., *Lātinūs, bōnūs rex, rēgnāvīt.* Here the modifier, *rex*, is itself modified by *bōnūs*.
13. Nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs, are often found with modifiers.

## SECTION II.—MODIFIERS OF NOUNS.

14. Nouns, including pronouns, may be modified,
- I. By adjectives and participles.
- II. By nouns and clauses used with the force of adjectives.
15. I. Nouns may be modified by adjectives and participles; e. g., *Bōnūs puēr, a good boy.*
16. II. Nouns may be modified by nouns and clauses used with the force of adjectives. These are,



(1) Limiting nouns.

(2) Relative clauses.

17. *Limiting Nouns.*—A noun limiting the meaning of another noun is put,

(1) In the same case as that noun, when it denotes the same person or thing; e. g., *Lātīnūs rex*, *Latinus the king*.

(2) In the genitive, when it denotes a different person or thing; e. g., *Rēgis filiūs*, *the king's son*; except,

(a) When it denotes *character or quality*; it is then accompanied by an adjective, and is put either in the genitive or ablative; e. g., *Puēr eximīae pulchritūdīnis*, or *Puēr eximīā pulchritūdīnē*, *a boy of remarkable beauty*.

18. *Relative Clauses.*—The relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in *gender and number*; e. g., *Puēr qui lūdīt*, *the boy who plays*.

19. The predicate of a relative clause is sometimes in the *indicative* and sometimes in the *subjunctive*. It may be observed, however, that the *subjunctive* is used,

(1) To express *purpose or result*; e. g., *Lēgātōs miserunt qui dicerent*, *they sent ambassadors to say* (lit., *who might say*).

(2) To define an *indefinite antecedent*; e. g., *Sunt qui putent*, *there are (some) who think*.

### SECTION III.—MODIFIERS OF ADJECTIVES.

20. Adjectives may be modified,

I. By adverbs.

II. By words (generally the oblique cases of nouns) used with the force of adverbs.

21. I. Adjectives may be modified by adverbs; e. g., *Haud difficilis*, *not difficult*.

22. *Adverbs.*—Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs; e. g., *Haud difficilis*, *not difficult*; *miles fortiter pugnāt*, *the soldier fights bravely*.

23. II. Adjectives may be modified by words (generally the oblique cases of nouns) used with the force of adverbs. These are,

- (1) The genitive.
- (2) The dative.
- (3) The ablative.
- (4) The infinitive.

24. *Genitive*.—Many adjectives signifying *desire, knowledge, skill, participation, recollection, fulness*, and the like, together with their *contraries*, take the genitive; e. g., *Cupidus laudis, desirous of praise*.

25. *Dative*.—Many adjectives are followed by the dative of the object to which the quality is directed, or for which it exists; e. g., *Pax mihi gratissimā erat, peace was very acceptable to me*.

26. *Ablative*.—Adjectives may be modified by an ablative denoting *cause, manner, or means*; e. g., *Aeger avaritiā, diseased by avarice*.

27. *Ablative*.—The adjectives, *dignus, indignus, contentus, praeditus, frons, and liber*, take the ablative; e. g., *Virtus parvō contentū est, virtue is content with little*.

28. *Supine in ū as Ablative*.—The supine in ū as a verbal noun in the ablative is used after adjectives signifying *good or bad, easy or difficult, agreeable or disagreeable, &c.*; e. g., *Difficilē dictū (difficult in saying), difficult to say*.

29. *Ablative*.—The comparative degree without *quā* is followed by the ablative; e. g., *Clēmentīā divinitis, more godlike than clemency*.

*Obs.*—If *quā* is expressed, the following noun will be in the same case as that which precedes; e. g., *Eurōpā minōr est quā Asia, Europe is smaller than Asia. Certum est solem majōrem esse quā terrā, It is certain that the sun is larger than the earth*.

30. *Infinitive*.—The infinitive sometimes depends upon adjectives; e. g., *Dignus amari, worthy to be loved*.

#### SECTION IV.—MODIFIERS OF VERBS.

31. Verbs may be modified,

I. By objects.

II. By adverbial modifiers.

## § 1. Objects.

32. Verbs may be modified by objects. These are,

- (1) The oblique cases of nouns.
- (2) Infinitives or clauses used as nouns.

33. Verbs may take one or more oblique cases of nouns as objects: e. g., (1) *Caius puellam laudat*, *Caius praises the girl*.  
 (2) *Balbus puero viam monstrat*, *Balbus shows the way to the boy*.

34. The accusative is used as the direct object of an action; e. g.,  
*Caius puellam laudat*, *Caius praises the girl*.

35. The genitive is used.

- (1) After verbs of pitying; e. g., *Miseremini sociorum*, *pity the allies*.
- (2) After verbs of remembering and forgetting; e. g., *Memini vivorum*, *I remember the living*.
- (3) After *refer* and *interest*; e. g., *Interest omnium*, *it is the interest of all*.

REM.—Verbs of remembering and forgetting sometimes take the accusative; e. g., *Memini Cinnam*, *I remember Cinna*.

36. The dative is used,

- (1) After *esse* in expressions denoting possession; e. g., *Puero est liber*, *the boy has a book* (lit., *there is a book to the boy*).
- (2) After the compounds of *esse*, except *posse*, to be able; e. g., *Mihi profuit*, *it profited me*.
- (3) After the compounds of *esse*, *satis*, and *multum*; e. g., *Officio suo satisfecit*, *he has discharged his duty* (lit., *has done enough for*).
- (4) After the compounds of the prepositions, *ad*, *ante*, *contra*, *in*, *inter*, *sub*, *post*, *praes*, *sub*, and *super*, together with a few others; e. g., *Veni tibi succurrere*, *I have come that you may assist (succor) me*.
- (5) After verbs signifying to command or obey, please or displease, favor or injure, serve or resist, together with to indulge, spare, pardon, envy, believe, persuade, &c.; e. g., *Legibus parat*, *he obeys the laws* (is obedient to the laws).

37. The ablative is used,

- (1) After the deponent verbs, *atque*, *frui*, *fungi*, *potiri*, *vesci*,

*dignāri*,\* and their compounds; e. g., *Lactē vescuntūr*, they live upon milk.

(2) After verbs signifying to abound or be destitute of; e. g., *Nēmō aliōrūm opē cōrēre pōtest*, no one can be (do) without the assistance of others.

38. *Two Accusatives*.—Verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and concealing, may take two accusatives, one of the person and one of the thing; e. g., *Caesār frūmentūm Aeduōs flagitābāt*, Caesar demanded corn of the Aedui.

39. *Accusative and Genitive*.—Verbs of accusing, convicting, acquitting, warning, and the like, take the accusative of the person, and the genitive of the crime, charge, &c.; e. g., *Caitūm prōditōnis accūsant*, they accuse Caius of treachery.

40. *Accusative and Genitive*.—The impersonal verbs of feeling, *miserēt*, *poenitēt*, *pudet*, *taedet*, and *piget*, take the accusative of the person, together with the genitive of the object which produces the feeling; e. g., *Taedēt mē vitae*, I am weary of life (lit., it wearies me of life).

41. *Accusative and Dative*.—Any transitive verb may take the accusative of the direct object and the dative of the indirect object; e. g., *Balbus puērō viām monstrāt*, Balbus shows the way to the boy.

42. *Accusative and two Datives*.—Transitive verbs of giving, sending, imputing (*dārē*, *mittērē*, *vertērē*, &c.), sometimes take a direct object in the accusative, together with two indirect objects in the dative; e. g., *Rēgnūm suūm Rōmānis dōnō dēdit*, he gave his kingdom to the Romans as a present (for a present).

43. *Accusative and Ablative*.—Verbs signifying to separate from, or deprive of, take the accusative of the direct object, together with the ablative of that from which it is separated, &c.; e. g., *Mē lucē privant*, they deprive me of light.

\* *Dignāri* takes a direct object in connection with the ablative; e. g., *Tē hōnōrē dignātūr*, he thinks you worthy of honour.

† The first of these objects is said to express the direction; the second the purpose of the verb.

44. *Two Datives.*—Intransitive verbs signifying to be, to come, to go, and the like, often take two datives, one denoting the object to which, and the other the object for which; e. g., *Cæsari auxiliō veniit, he came to the assistance of Caesar.*

45. *Dative and Ablative.*—*Opus est* and *avis est*, as impersonal verbs signifying need, take the dative of the person and the ablative of the object needed; e. g., *Ducō nobis opus est, we need a leader* (lit., *there is need to us of a leader*).

46. Verbs sometimes take an infinitive or clause as object; e. g.,

1. *Cupit pugnare, he desires (what ?) to fight.*
2. *Spēro tē esse beatū, I hope (what ?) that you are happy.*
3. *Nesciō undē sol ignē habēt, I know not (what ?) whence the sun derives its fire.*

47. *Infinitive as Object.*—The infinitive mood, either alone or with other words connected with it, may be used as the object of a verb. (See examples above).

REM.—The infinitive as object is used chiefly after verbs of perceiving, declaring, desiring, and the like.

48. *Subject of Infinitive.*—The subject of the infinitive is put in the accusative; e. g., *Spēro tē esse beatū, I hope you are happy.*

REM.—In this example, *tē*, which is the subject of *esse*, is put in the accusative according to rule.

49. *Dependent Question as Object.*—An indirect or dependent question may be used as the object of a verb; e. g., *Nesciō undē sol ignē habēt, I know not whence the sun derives its fire.*

50. The verb in dependent questions is put in the subjunctive, as in the above example.

51. *Object after Passive Verbs.*—Verbs in the passive voice are followed by the same cases as in the active, except the direct object, which becomes the subject of the passive; e. g., (*Act.*) *Balbū furti accusant, they accuse Balbus of theft*; (*Pass.*) *Balbū furti accusātūr, Balbus is accused of theft.*

52. *Agent of Passive Verbs.*—After passive verbs, the agent is expressed by the ablative with *ā* or *ab*; e. g., *Puer ā Caiō docētūr, the boy is taught by Caius*; except,

The periphrastic form from the participle, in *dua*, which takes the dative of the agent; e. g., *Mihī scribendū est, I must write.*

53. *Impersonal Passives Verbs.*—Verbs which have no direct object in the active voice, are only used impersonally in the passive; e. g., *Mihī crēditūr, I am believed* (lit., *it is believed to me*).

## § II. Adverbial Modifiers.

54. Verbs often take adverbial modifiers; these are,

(1) Adverbs.

(2) Adverbial expressions.

55. Verbs may be modified by adverbs; e. g., *Fortitēr pugnāt, he fights bravely.*

REM.—Adverbial modifiers are the same whether the verb is *active* or *passive*.

56. Verbs may be modified by adverbial expressions: these are,

(1) The oblique cases of nouns (with or without prepositions).

(2) Infinitives, or dependent propositions.

57. The oblique cases of nouns (with or without prepositions) used as adverbial modifiers, may be referred to the following classes, viz.:

(1) Adverbial expressions of *manner, means, &c.*

(2) Adverbial expressions of *time.*

(3) Adverbial expressions of *place.*

(4) Miscellaneous adverbial expressions.

58. The oblique cases of nouns (and sometimes of adjectives) may be used as adverbial modifiers denoting *manner, means, &c.*

59. *Manner, Means, &c.*—The *manner* or *cause* of an action, and the *means* or *instrument* employed, are expressed by the ablative; e. g., *Dōminūm glādiō occidit, he killed his master with a sword.*

60. *Price.*—Price, when expressed by nouns, is usually put in the ablative, and when expressed by adjectives, usually in the genitive; e. g., (1) *Avārus pātriā aurō vendit, the avaricious man will sell his country for gold;* (2) *Avārus pēcūniām māgnī aestimāt, the avaricious man values money highly.*

61. The oblique cases of nouns may be used as adverbial modifiers denoting *time*.

62. *Time*.—Time *when* is expressed by the ablative without a preposition; e. g., *Hišmš uršūs dormīt, the bear sleeps in winter.*

63. *Length of Time*.—Length of time is generally expressed by the accusative; e. g., *Caiūs annūm ūnūm vixīt, Caius lived one year.*

64. The oblique cases of nouns (with or without prepositions) may be used as adverbial modifiers denoting *place*.

65. The name of a town where anything is, or is done, if of the first or second declension and singular number, is put in the genitive, otherwise in the ablative; e. g., (1) *Caiūs Cortōnæ vixīt, Caius lived at Cortona*; (2) *Caiūs Tibūrē vixīt, Caius lived at Tibur.*

66. The name of a place where anything is, or is done, when not a town, is generally put in the ablative with a preposition; e. g., *Uršūs in antrō dormīt, the bear sleeps in a cave.*

67. After verbs of motion,

(1) The place to which the motion is directed, if a town or small island, is expressed by the accusative without a preposition, otherwise by the accusative with one; e. g., (1) *Rōmām vēnirē, to come to Rome*; (2) *In Itāliām vēnirē, to come into Italy.*

(2) The place from which the motion proceeds, if a town or small island, is expressed by the ablative without a preposition, otherwise by the ablative with one; e. g., (1) *Rōmā vēnirē, to come from Rome*; (2) *Ab Itāliā vēnirē, to come from Italy.*

68. *Dōmīs* and *rūs*, together with the genitives *belli*, *hōmī*, and *militiæ*, are used like names of towns; e. g., *Caiūs rūrē rēdiīt, Caius returned from the country*; *Balbūs ēt dōmī ēt militiæ mēctūm fuit, Balbus was with me both at home and on service.*

69. The supine in *ūm*, as a verbal noun in the accusative, follows verbs of motion to express the purpose or object of that motion; e. g., *Mittīt lēgātōs pācēm pētītūm, he sends ambassadors to sue for peace.*

70. The ablative absolute and the oblique cases of nouns with prepositions are used to express various adverbial relations.

71. *Ablative Absolute*.—A noun and a participle standing grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence, are put in the ablative absolute; e. g., *Cæsar victis hostibus, Cæsar having conquered his enemies* (or, *when he had conquered*; lit., *his enemies being conquered*).

REM.—The ablative absolute generally expresses either the adverbial relation of *time* (as in the above example) or that of *cause*; sometimes, however, it adds an attendant circumstance.

72. *Prepositions with Accusative*.—The following twenty-six prepositions govern the accusative; viz., *Ad, adversus, antè, apud, circum* or *circum, cis* or *citrâ, contra, ergâ, extrâ, infrâ, intèr, intrâ, juxtâ, ob, pênâ, pèr, pônè, post, præter, præpè, proptèr, secundum, suprà, trans, ultrâ, versus* (*rare*).

73. *Prepositions with Ablative*.—The following eleven prepositions govern the ablative; viz., *A* (*âb* or *abs*), *absquè, còram, cùm, dè, è* or *ex, pàllàm, præ, præ, sînè, tènùs*.

74. *Prepositions with Accusative or Ablative*.—The five prepositions, *clàm, in, sùb, subtèr, and supèr*, take sometimes the accusative and sometimes the ablative.

REM. 1.—*In* and *sùb* govern the accusative in answer to *whither* (i. e. after verbs of motion), and the ablative in answer to *where* (i. e. after verbs of rest). *Subtèr* generally takes the accusative. *Supèr* takes the accusative after verbs of motion, and also when it signifies *upon*, and the ablative when it signifies *on* or *of*, (as of a subject spoken or written about.)

REM. 2.—Prepositions in composition often govern the same cases as when they stand alone.

75. Verbs may be modified by infinitives or by dependent propositions.

76. *Infinitive as Modifier of Verb*.—The infinitive mood may be used after verbs denoting *custom, ability, and the like*; e. g., *Nòn facièrè possum, I am not able to do, &c.*

77. Dependent propositions, as adverbial modifiers, are generally introduced by conjunctions, and express a great variety of relations, as *time, place, manner, condition, &c.*



78. Dependent propositions take the verb,

- (1) Sometimes in the indicative ; e. g., *Itē scribām, quān hās litterās dābām, I was making a journey when I gave these letters.*
- (2) But more commonly in the subjunctive ; e. g., *Si quid hābeāt, dābit, if he has anything, he will give it.*

#### SECTION V.—MODIFIERS OF ADVERBS.

79. Adverbs are modified by other adverbs ; e. g., *Satis bene scripserat, he has written sufficiently well.*

80. Prepositions and conjunctions are connectives, and neither modify nor are modified.

81. Interjections are expressions of emotion or mere marks of address, and have no grammatical influence upon the rest of the sentence.

### CHAPTER III.

#### USE OF MOODS, PARTICIPLES, GERUNDS, AND SUPINES.

82. THE indicative is used in positive assertions ; e. g., *Puer ludit, the boy plays.*

REM.—The indicative is commonly used in principal propositions, but sometimes in dependent ones.

83. The subjunctive is used both in principal and dependent propositions.

84. I. In principal propositions the subjunctive is used,

- (1) To express a wish or a command ; e. g., *Scribāt, he may write, may he write, or let him write.*
- (2) To express an affirmation *doubtfully or conditionally* ; e. g., *Dārēt, he would give it (i. e. if he had it, perhaps.)*

85. II. In dependent propositions,

- (1) With *ut, nē, quō, quān, quōmōdō*, to express *purpose or consequence* ; e. g., *Vēnit ut scribāt, he has come to write ;*

- Caus nihil obest quominus sit beatus, *nothing prevents Catus from being happy (by which he should be less happy).*
- (2) With *quoniam* (*quod*), when it introduces a cause or reason, or in any way shows the dependence of one event upon another ; e. g., Quae cum ita sint, *since these things are so.*
- (3) With *licet*, although, *quasi*, *tandem*, *de se*, as if, *idem*, *modo*, *dummodo*, provided, if only, *quomodo* however much, however ; e. g., Improbus ita vivit, quasi nesciat, &c., *the wicked (man) lives, as if he did not know, &c.* ; Nemo, quomodo sit locuples, *no one, however wealthy he may be.*
- (4) In conditional sentences, to represent the condition either as *simply possible* or as *impossible* ; e. g., Si quid habet, dabit, *if he has anything, he will give it.* Si quid haberet, daret, *if he had anything, he would give it.*
- (5) In indirect or dependent questions ; e. g., Nescio unde sol ignem habet, *I know not whence the sun derives its fire.*
- (6) In relative clauses, (1) to express *purpose* or *result*, and (2) to define an indefinite antecedent ; e. g., (1) Legatos miserunt qui dicerent, *they sent ambassadors to say* ; (2) Sunt qui putent, *there are (some) who think.*

86. *Subjunctive Tenses in Dependent Propositions.*—The subjunctive, (1) when dependent upon a present or future tense, is put in the *present imperfect* to denote an incomplete action, and in the *present perfect* to denote a completed action ; and (2) when dependent upon a past tense, in the *past imperfect* to denote an incomplete action, and in the *past perfect* to denote a completed action ; e. g.,

1. Nescio quid dicat, *I know not what he is saying.*
2. Nescio quid dixerit, *I know not what he said.*
3. Nescivit quid diceret, *I knew not what he said.*
4. Nescivit quid dixisset, *I knew not what he had said.*

87. The imperative is used to express a command ; e. g., Portas claudere, *shut the gates.*

88. The infinitive, which expresses the simple meaning of the verb, without reference to person or number, is used,

- (1) As the subject of another verb ; e. g., Difficile est iudicare, *it is difficult to judge.*

(2) As the object of another verb; e. g., *Opto sapientē, I desire to be wise.*

(3) As the modifier of an adjective or verb; e. g., (1) *Dignus amari, worthy to be loved*; (2) *Nōn factū possum, I am not able to do, &c.*

89. Participles, gerunds, and supines are followed by the various cases of nouns like the other parts of verbs. In regard to their own government, it must be observed,

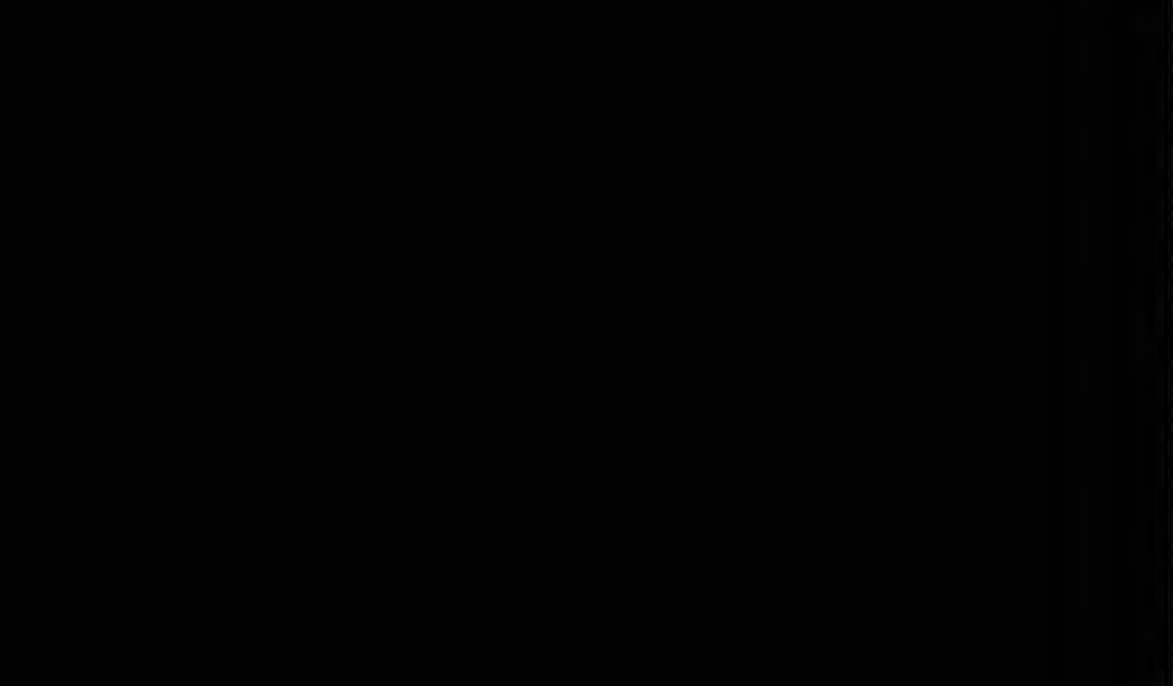
(1) That participles, like adjectives, agree with substantives.

(2) That gerunds are governed like the same cases of substantives.

(3) That supines, as verbal nouns, are governed like the same cases of other nouns.







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