A

LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

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GOLDWIN SMITH PROFESSOR OF LATIN IN CORNELL UNIVERSITY

Quicquid praecipies, esto brevis, ut cito dicta
Percipiunt animi dociles teneantque fideles :
Omne supervacuum pleno de pectore manat.

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PREFACE.

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

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

C. E. B.

ITHACA, NEW YORK,
October 16, 1907.

FROM THE PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

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

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 minuitiae of usage which would otherwise demand consideration in a student's grammar.

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

Ithaca, New York,
December 15, 1894.

¹ One of the most eminent of living Latinists, Professor Eduard Wolfflin, of Munich, has expressed the opinion that the essentials may be given within even smaller compass than this. See his Preface to the Schmalz-Wagener Lateinische Grammatik, 1891.
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PART I.

SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY.

THE ALPHABET.

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

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

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

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS.

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

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

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

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

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

---

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

4. The Mutes admit of classification also as

Labials, p, b, ph.
Dentals (or Linguals), t, d, th.
Gutturals (or Palatals), c, k, q, g, ch.

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

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

anceps, double, pronounced angceps.

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

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

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

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

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<td>b, d, g</td>
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<td>l, r, m, n</td>
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<td>f, s, h</td>
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<tr>
<td>Semivowels</td>
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a. The Double Consonants, x and z, being compound sounds, do not admit of classification in the above table.
Sounds of the Letters.

SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

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

1. Vowels.
   a as in father;  å as in the first syllable of ahd;
   ë as in they;  ø as in mel;
   ì as in machine;  ý as in pin;
   ð as in note;  ø as in obey, melody;
   ü as in rude;  ü as in fuh;
   y like French u, German û.

2. Diphthongs.
   ae like ai in aisle;  eu with its two elements, ë and ü, pronounced in rapid succession;
   oe like oi in oil;  ui occurs almost exclusively in cui (e.g. coquus) and huic. These words are pronounced as though written kwel and wheel.
   ei as in reid;  au like ow in how;
   au like ow in how.

3. Consonants.
   b, d, f, h, k, l, m, n, p, qu are pronounced as in English, except that
   bs, bt are pronounced ß, ßt.
   c is always pronounced as k.
   t is always a plain t, never with the sound of sh as in Eng. oration.
   g always as in get; when ng precedes a vowel, gu has the sound of gw, as in anguis, languidus.
   j has the sound of y as in yel.
   r was probably slightly trilled with the tip of the tongue.
   s always voiceless as in sin; in suadeō, suavis, suescē, and in compounds and derivatives of these words, su has the sound of sw.
   v like w.
   x always like ks; never like Eng. gɔ or z.
   z uncertain in sound; possibly like Eng. zd, possibly like s. The latter sound is recommended.
   The aspirates ph, ch, th were pronounced very nearly like our stressed Eng. p, t, ð—so nearly so, that, for practical purposes, the latter sounds suffice.

Doubled letters, like ll, mm, tt, etc., should be so pronounced that both members of the combination are distinctly articulated.
SYLLABLES.

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

In the division of words into syllables,—

1. A single consonant is joined to the following vowel; as, vo-lat, ge-rit, pe-rit, a-dest.

2. Doubled consonants, like tt, ss, etc., are always separated; as, vit-ta, mis-sus.

3. Other combinations of two or more consonants are regularly separated, and the first consonant of the combination is joined with the preceding vowel; as, ma-gis-trî, dig-nus, môn-strum, sis-te-re.

4. An exception to Rule 3 occurs when the two consonants consist of a mute followed by 1 or r (pl, cl, tl: pr, cr, tr, etc.). In such cases both consonants are regularly joined to the following vowel; as, a-gri, vo-lu-bris, pa-tris, má-tris. Yet if the 1 or r introduces the second part of a compound, the two consonants are separated; as, ab-rumpô, ad-látus.

5. The double consonant x is joined to the preceding vowel; as, ax-is, têx-î.

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 or ns; as, Infâns, Inferior, cônsûmô, cênsêô, Ínsum.

b) when the result of contraction; as, nilum for nihilum.

2. A vowel is short,—

a) before nt, nd; as, amant, amandus. A few exceptions occur in compounds whose first member has a long vowel; as, nôn-dum (nôn dum).

b) before another vowel, or h; as, meus, trahô. Some exceptions occur, chiefly in proper names derived from the Greek; as, Aenêás.

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

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

1. A syllable is long,\(^1\) —
   a) if it contains a long vowel; as, mäter, rēgnun, dius.
   b) if it contains a diphthong; as, causae, foedus.
   c) if it contains a short vowel followed by x, z, or any two
      consonants (except a mute with l or r); as, 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 l or r, i.e. by pl, cl, tl; pr, or,
   tr, etc.; as, āgrī, volūbris.\(^2\) 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 con-
   taining 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 sepa-
   rating the two elements (as ag-ri) the poets were able to use such
   syllables as long.

ACCENT.

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

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

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

---

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

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

4. Sometimes the final -e of -ne and -ce disappears, but without affecting the accent; as, tantón, iste, illúo, vidéón (for vidéene).

5. In utráque, each, and pléráque, most, -que is not properly an enclitic; yet these accents the penult, owing to the influence of their other cases, — utérque, utránque, pléránque.

VOWEL CHANGES.1

7. 1. In Compounds, —
   a) ē before a single consonant becomes ì; as,—
      collígō for con-legō.
   b) ā before a single consonant becomes ì; as,—
      adígō for ad-agō.
   c) ā before two consonants becomes ē; as,—
      expers for ex-pars.
   d) ae becomes ì; as,—
      conquerō for con-quae-rō.
   e) au becomes ā, sometimes ì; as,—
      conclúdō for con-claudō;
      explídō for ex-plaudō.

2. Contraction. Concurrent vowels were frequently contracted into one long vowel. The first of the two vowels regularly prevailed; as,—

   tres for tre-es;
   copia for co-opia;
   malō for ma(v)elō;
   cōgō for co-agō;
   amásti for amā(v)istī;
   cōmō for co-emō;
   débeō for dé(h)abeō;
   jūnior for ju(v)enior.
   nihil for nihil;

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

   vinculum for earlier vinculum.

So periculum, saeculum.

4. Syncope. Sometimes a vowel drops out by syncope; as,—

   är dor for är dor (compare áridus);
   valdé for validé (compare validus).

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

8. 1. Rhotacism. An original s between vowels became r; as,—

arbós, Gen. arboris (for arbosia);
genus, Gen. generis (for genesis);
dirimō (for dis-emō).

2. dt, tt, ts each give s or ss; as,—

pōnsum for pend-tum;
versum for vert-tum;
mīles for mīlet-s;
 sessus for sedtus;
passus for pattus.

3. Final consonants were often omitted; as,—

cor for cord;
laō for lact.

4. Assimilation of Consonants. Consonants are often assimilated to a following sound. Thus: accurrō (adc-); aggerō (adg-)
asserō (ads-); allātus (adl-); apportō (adp-); attulī (adt-)
arīdeō (adr-); afferō (adf-); occurrō (obc-); suppressō (subp-)
offerō (obf-); corrūō (comr-); collātus (coml-); etc.

5. Partial Assimilation. Sometimes the assimilation is only partial. Thus: —

a) b before s or t becomes p; as,—

scriptū (scrib-stf), scriptum (scrib-tum).

b) g before s or t becomes c; as,—

āctus (āg-tus).

c) m before a dental or guttural becomes n; as,—

eundem (eum-dem); prīnceps (prīm-ceps).

PECULIARITIES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

9. Many words have variable orthography.

1. Sometimes the different forms belong to different periods of the language. Thus, quom, voltus, voĭnis, volt, etc., were the prevail-

---

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ad-gerō or aggerō; ad-serō or asserō; ad-liciō or alliciō; in-lātus or illātus; ad-rogāns or arrogāns; sub-moveō or summmoveō; and many others.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

INFLECTIONS.

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

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

CHAPTER I. — Declension.

A. NOUNS.

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

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

2. Nouns are also distinguished as Concrete or Abstract.

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

Under concrete nouns are included, also, collective nouns; as, legio, legion; comitatus, retinue.

b) Abstract nouns designate qualities; as, constantia, steadiness; paupertas, poverty.

Gender of Nouns.

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

Natural Gender.

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

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

2. Feminine, if they denote females; as, —
   matre, mother; regina, queen.

Grammatical Gender.

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

A. Gender determined by Signification.

1. Names of Rivers, Winds, and Mouths are Masculine; as, —
   Sequana, Seine; Eurus, east wind; Aprilis, April.

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

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

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

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

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

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

B. Gender determined by Ending of Nominative Singular.

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

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

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

NUMBER.

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

CASES.

17. There are six Cases in Latin:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Case of Subject;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Objective with of, or Possessive;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>Objective with to or for;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>Case of Direct Object;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocative</td>
<td>Case of Address;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>Objective with by, from, in, with.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ The great majority of all Latin nouns come under this category. The principles for determining their gender are given under the separate declensions.
Inflections.

1. Locative. Vestiges of another case, the Locative (denoting place where), occur in names of towns and in a few other words.

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

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

THE FIVE DECLENSIONS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Declension</th>
<th>Final Letter of Stem</th>
<th>Gen. Termination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>ã</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>ò</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>ĭ&lt;br&gt;Some consonant</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>ū</td>
<td>ðas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>ē</td>
<td>-šl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cases alike in Form.

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

2. The Dative and Ablative Plural are always alike.

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

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

---

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

**FIRST DECLENSION.**

\(\alpha\)-Stems.

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

**Porta, gate; stem, port\(\alpha\).**

**Singular.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Meanings</th>
<th>Terminations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>porta a gate (as subject)</td>
<td>-(\alpha)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>portae of a gate</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>portae to or for a gate</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>portam a gate (as object)</td>
<td>-am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>porta O gate!</td>
<td>-(\alpha)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>port(\alpha) with, by, from, in a gate</td>
<td>-(\alpha)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Meanings</th>
<th>Terminations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>portae gates (as subject)</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>portarum of gates</td>
<td>-arum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>portas to or for gates</td>
<td>-as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>portas gates (as object)</td>
<td>-as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>portae O gates!</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>portas with, by, from, in gates</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**Particularities of Nouns of the First Declension.**

21. 1. **Exceptions in Gender.** Nouns denoting males are Masculine; as, nauta, sailor; agricultura, farmer; also Hadria, Adriatic Sea.

2. Rare Case-Endings, —

a) An old form of the Genitive Singular in -\(\alpha\) is preserved in the combination pater famili\(\alpha\)s, father of a family; also in mater famili\(\alpha\)s, filius famili\(\alpha\)s, filia famili\(\alpha\)s. But the regular form of the Genitive in -\(\alpha\)e is also admissible in these expressions; as, pater familiae.

b) In poetry a Genitive in -\(\alpha\) also occurs; as, aul\(\alpha\).
c) The Locative Singular ends in -ae; as, Rōmae, at Rome.

d) A Genitive Plural in -um instead of -ārum sometimes occurs; as, Dardanīdum instead of Dardanīdārum. This termination -um is not a contraction of -ārum, but represents an entirely different case-ending.

e) Instead of the regular ending -ēs, we usually find -ābus in the Dative and Ablative Plural of dea, goddess, and filia, daughter, especially when it is important to distinguish these nouns from the corresponding forms of deus, god, and filius, son. A few other words sometimes have the same peculiarity; as, libertābus (from liberta, freedwoman), equābus (marer), to avoid confusion with libertīs (from libertus, freedman) and equīs (from equus, horse).

Greek Nouns.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Archiās, Archias</th>
<th>Epitomē, epitome</th>
<th>Comētēs, comet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. Archiās</td>
<td>epitomē</td>
<td>comētēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. Archiaē</td>
<td>epitomēs</td>
<td>comētēae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. Archiāe</td>
<td>epitomēae</td>
<td>comētēae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. Archiam (or -ān)</td>
<td>epitomēn</td>
<td>comētēn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. Archiā</td>
<td>epitomē</td>
<td>comētē (or -ā)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. Archiā</td>
<td>epitomē</td>
<td>comētē (or -ā)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

2. Some other peculiarities occur, especially in poetry.

SECOND DECLENSION.

ō-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.
Second Declension.

Nouns in -us and -um are declined as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Termination</th>
<th>Termination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. hortus</td>
<td>-us</td>
<td>bellum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. hortī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>bellī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. hortō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>bellō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. hortum</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>bellum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. hortē</td>
<td>-e</td>
<td>bellum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. hortō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>bellō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLURAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Termination</th>
<th>Termination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. hortī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>bella</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. hortōrum</td>
<td>-ōrum</td>
<td>bellōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. hortīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>bellīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. hortōs</td>
<td>-ōs</td>
<td>bella</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. hortī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>bella</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. hortīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>bellīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Termination</th>
<th>Termination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. puer</td>
<td>ager</td>
<td>vir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. puerī</td>
<td>agrī</td>
<td>virī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. puerō</td>
<td>agrō</td>
<td>virō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. puerum</td>
<td>agrum</td>
<td>virum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. puer</td>
<td>ager</td>
<td>vir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. puerō</td>
<td>agrō</td>
<td>virō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLURAL.

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

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

In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of ager, the stem is further modified by the development of e before r.

2. The following nouns in -er are declined like puer: adulter, adulterer; gener, son-in-law; Liber, Bacchus; 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 Inflection (including Caesar and Cicero).

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

SINGULAR.

Nom. servos aevum equus
Gen. servi aevi equi
Dat. servō aevō equō
Acc. servom aevum equom
Voc. serve aevom equo
Abl. servō aevō equō

Later Inflection (after Cicero).

SINGULAR.

Nom. servus aevum equus
Gen. servi aevi equi
Dat. servō aevō equō
Acc. servum aevum equum
Voc. serve aevum equo
Abl. servō aevō equō

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

Peculiarities of Inflection in the Second Declension.

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

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

Nom. ingenium filius
Gen. ingénium filif

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

3. Filius forms the Vocative Singular in -i (for -ei); viz. filif, O son!

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

Nom. df (def)
Gen. déorum (deum)
Dat. ðís (deís)
Acc. déós
Voc. df (def)
Abl. ðís (deís)

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

6. The Genitive Plural has -um, instead of -órum,—
   a) in words denoting money and measure; as, talentum, of
talents; modium, of pecks; sesterium, of sesterces.
   b) in divumvir, 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. 1. The following nouns in -us are Feminine by exception: —
   a) Names of towns, islands, trees — according to the general
   rule laid down in § 15. 2; also some names of countries; as,
   Aegyptus, Egypt.
   b) Five special words,—
      alvus, belly;
carasus, flax;
culus, distaff;
humus, ground;
vannus, winnowing-fan.
   c) A few Greek Feminines; as,—
      atomus, atom;
diphthongus, diphthong

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

27. These end in -oς, -oς, Masculine or Feminine; and
-o, Neuter. They are mainly proper names, and are de-
clined as follows:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Greek Noun</th>
<th>English Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barbitos, m. and f., lyre.</td>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>barbitos</td>
<td>Androgeōs, m., Androgeos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>barbiti</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>barbitō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>barbiton</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>barbite</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>barbitō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Nouns in -oς sometimes form the Accusative Singular in -um, instead of -oν; as, Dēlum, Delov.
2. The Plural of Greek nouns, when it occurs, is usually regular.
3. For other rare forms of Greek nouns the lexicon may be con-
sulted.

THIRD DECLENSION.

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

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

I. Consonant-Stems.

29. 1. In these the stem appears in its unaltered form in all the oblique cases; so that the actual case-endings may be clearly recognized.
Third Declension.

2. Consonant-Stems fall into several natural subdivisions, according as the stem ends in a Mute, Liquid, Nasal, or Spirant.

A. Mute-Stems.

30. Mute-Stems may end, —

1. In a Labial (p); as, princeps-s.
2. In a Guttural (g or c); as, rēmex (rēmeg-s); dux (duc-s).
3. In a Dental (d or t); as, lapis (lapid-s); miles (mīles-s).

1. STEMS IN A LABIAL MUTE (p).

31. Princeps, m., chief.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Termination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. princeps</td>
<td>-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. principis</td>
<td>-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. principi</td>
<td>-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. principem</td>
<td>-em</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. princeps</td>
<td>-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. principi</td>
<td>-e</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. principēs</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. principum</td>
<td>-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. principibus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. principēs</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. principēs</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. principibus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. STEMS IN A GUTTURAL MUTE (g, c).

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

Rēmex, m., rower.              Dux, c., leader.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. rēmex</td>
<td>rēmīgēs</td>
<td>dux</td>
<td>ducēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. rēmigis</td>
<td>rēmīgum</td>
<td>ducis</td>
<td>ducum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. rēmīgit</td>
<td>rēmīgitbus</td>
<td>duct</td>
<td>ducibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. rēmīgēm</td>
<td>rēmīgēs</td>
<td>ducem</td>
<td>ducēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. rēmex</td>
<td>rēmīgēs</td>
<td>dux</td>
<td>ducēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. rēmige</td>
<td>rēmīgitbus</td>
<td>duce</td>
<td>ducibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

3. STEMS IN A DENTAL MUTE (d, t).

33. In these the final d or t of the stem disappears in the Nomina-
tive Singular before the ending -s.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lapis, m., stone.</th>
<th>Miles, m., soldier.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SINGULAR.</td>
<td>PLURAL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. lapis</td>
<td>lapidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. lapidēs</td>
<td>lapidum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. lapidī</td>
<td>lapidībus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. lapidēm</td>
<td>lapidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. lapis</td>
<td>lapidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. lapide</td>
<td>lapidībus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Liquid Stems.

34. These end in -i or -r.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vigil, m., watchman.</th>
<th>Victor, m., conqueror.</th>
<th>Aequor, n., sea.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SINGULAR.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. vigil</td>
<td>victor</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. vigilis</td>
<td>victōris</td>
<td>aequorīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. vigili</td>
<td>victōri</td>
<td>aequorīf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. vigilem</td>
<td>victōrem</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. vigil</td>
<td>victor</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. vigile</td>
<td>victōre</td>
<td>aequore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| PLURAL.              |                        |                 |
| Nom. vigilēs         | victōrēs               | aequora         |
| Gen. vigilum         | victōrum               | aequorum        |
| Dat. vigilībus       | victōribus             | aequorībus      |
| Acc. vigilēs         | victōrēs               | aequora         |
| Voc. vigilēs         | victōrēs               | aequora         |
| Abl. vigilībus       | victōribus             | aequorībus      |

1. Masculine and Feminine stems ending in a liquid form the Nomi-
native 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.
Third Declension.

C. Nasal Stems.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. leō</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>nōmen</td>
<td>nōmina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. leōnēs</td>
<td>leōnum</td>
<td>nōminis</td>
<td>nōminum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. leōnī</td>
<td>leōnibus</td>
<td>nōminī</td>
<td>nōminibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. leōnem</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>nōmen</td>
<td>nōmina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. leō</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>nōmen</td>
<td>nōmina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. leōne</td>
<td>leōnibus</td>
<td>nōmine</td>
<td>nōminibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D. a-Stems.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. mōs</td>
<td>genus</td>
<td>honor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mōris</td>
<td>generis</td>
<td>honōris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mōrī</td>
<td>generī</td>
<td>honōrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mōrem</td>
<td>genus</td>
<td>honōrem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. mōs</td>
<td>genus</td>
<td>honor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mōre</td>
<td>generē</td>
<td>honōre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. mōres</td>
<td>genera</td>
<td>honōrēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mōrum</td>
<td>generum</td>
<td>honōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mōribus</td>
<td>generibus</td>
<td>honōribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mōrés</td>
<td>genera</td>
<td>honōrēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. mōrés</td>
<td>genera</td>
<td>honōrēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mōribus</td>
<td>generibus</td>
<td>honōribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Note that the final s of the stem becomes r (between vowels) in the oblique cases. In some words (hōnōr, 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.

1 There is only one stem ending in -m, — hiems, hiemis, winter.
II. i-Stems.

A. Masculine and Feminine i-Stems.

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>TERMINATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. tussis</td>
<td>ignis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. tussis</td>
<td>ignis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. tussī</td>
<td>ignī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. tussīm</td>
<td>ignem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. tussis</td>
<td>ignis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. tussī</td>
<td>ignī or -ē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. tussīs</td>
<td>ignīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. tussītum</td>
<td>ignītum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. tussībus</td>
<td>ignībus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. tussīs or -ēs</td>
<td>ignīs or -ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. tussīs</td>
<td>ignīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. tussībus</td>
<td>ignībus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. To the same class belong —

- apis, bee.
- auris, ear.
- avis, bird.
- axis, axle.
- būris, plough-beam.
- clāvis, key.
- collis, hill.
- crātis, hurdle.
- febris, fever.
- orbis, circle.
- ovis, sheep.
- pelvis, basin.
- puppis, stern.
- restis, rope.

Words marked with a star regularly have Acc. -im; those marked with a † regularly have Abl. -ī. Of the others, many at times show -im and -ī. Town and river names in -is regularly have -im, -ī.
Third Declension.

2. Not all nouns in -is are 1-Stems. Some are genuine consonant-stems, and have the regular consonant terminations throughout, notably, canis, dog; juvenis, youth.¹

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

B. Neuter 1-Stems.

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

Sedile, seat; Animal, animal; Calcar, spur;
stem, sedīli-. stem, animāli-. stem, calcāri-.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>TERMINATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. sedile</td>
<td>animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. sedilis</td>
<td>animālis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. sedilī</td>
<td>animālī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. sedile</td>
<td>animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. sedile</td>
<td>animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. sedilī</td>
<td>animalī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. sedilia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. sedilium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. sedilibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. sedilia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. sediliā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. sedilibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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, Sōracte, Soracte; so also sometimes mare, sea.

¹ Mōnsēs, month, originally a consonant stem (mōnēs), has in the Genitive Plural both mōnsēlium and mōnsum. The Accusative Plural is mōnēsēs.
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 i-stems as to take -ium in the Genitive Plural, and -is in the Accusative Plural. Their true character as Consonant-Stems, however, is shown by the fact that they never take -im in the Accusative Singular, or -i in the Ablative Singular. The following words are examples of this class: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Caedēs, f., slaughter;</th>
<th>Arx, f., citadel;</th>
<th>Linter, f., skiff;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>stem, caed-</td>
<td>stem, arc-</td>
<td>stem, lintr-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR.**

| Nom. | caedēs | arx | linter |
| Gen. | caedēs | arcis | lintris |
| Dat. | caedi | arcī | lintrī |
| Acc. | caedēm | arcem | lintrem |
| Voc. | caedēs | arx | linter |
| Abl. | caede | arce | lintre |

**PLURAL.**

| Nom. | caedēs | arcēs | lintrēs |
| Gen. | caedēm | arcēm | lintrēm |
| Dat. | caedēm | arcēm | lintrēm |
| Acc. | caedēs, -is | arcēs, -ēs | lintrēs, -ēs |
| Voc. | caedēs | arcēs | lintrēs |
| Abl. | caedēs | arcēbūs | lintrēbūs |

The following classes of nouns belong here:

a) Nouns in -ēs, with Genitive in -is; as, nūbēs, aedēs, clādēs, etc.

b) Many monosyllables in -s or -x preceded by one or more consonants; as, urbs, mōns, stirps, lanx.

c) Most nouns in -ns and -rs; as, clīēns, cohors.

d) Úter, venter; für. is, mās, mūs, nīx; and the Plurals faucoēs, penatēs, Optimātēs, Sammitēs, Quirītēs.

e) Sometimes nouns in -tēs with Genitive -tātis; as, civitās, aetās. Civitās usually has civitātium.
Third Declension.

IV. Stems in -i, -ū, and Diphthongs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Sūs, c.</th>
<th>Bōs, c.</th>
<th>Juppiter, m.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vis, f.</td>
<td>swine;</td>
<td>ox, cow;</td>
<td>jupiter;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stem, vi-</td>
<td>stem, sū-</td>
<td>stem bou-</td>
<td>stem, Jov-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. vis</th>
<th>sūs</th>
<th>bōs</th>
<th>Juppiter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. —</td>
<td>suīs</td>
<td>bovis</td>
<td>Jovis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. —</td>
<td>suī</td>
<td>bovī</td>
<td>Jovī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. vīm</td>
<td>suem</td>
<td>bovem</td>
<td>Jovem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. vīs</td>
<td>sūs</td>
<td>bōs</td>
<td>Juppiter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. vī</td>
<td>sue</td>
<td>bove</td>
<td>Jove</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. vīrūs</th>
<th>suēs</th>
<th>bovēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. vīrūm</td>
<td>suum</td>
<td>bovum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. vīrībus</td>
<td>suibus</td>
<td>bōbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. vīrūs</td>
<td>suēs</td>
<td>bovēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. vīrīs</td>
<td>suēs</td>
<td>bovēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. vīrībus</td>
<td>suibus</td>
<td>bōbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Notice that the oblique cases of sūs have ū in the root syllable.
2. Grūs is declined like sūs, except that the Dative and Ablative Plural are always grūbus.
3. Juppiter 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). Its Ablative often ends in -I.

V. Irregular Nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Senex, m., old man.</th>
<th>Carō, f., flesh.</th>
<th>Os, n., bone.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. senex</th>
<th>carō</th>
<th>os</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. senis</td>
<td>carnis</td>
<td>ossis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. senī</td>
<td>carī</td>
<td>ossi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. senem</td>
<td>carnem</td>
<td>os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. senex</td>
<td>carō</td>
<td>os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. senē</td>
<td>carne</td>
<td>osse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

Plural.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>senēs</th>
<th>carnēs</th>
<th>ossa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gén.</td>
<td>senum</td>
<td>carnium</td>
<td>ossium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>senibus</td>
<td>carnibus</td>
<td>ossibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>senēs</td>
<td>carnēs</td>
<td>ossa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>senēs</td>
<td>carnēs</td>
<td>ossa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>senibus</td>
<td>carnibus</td>
<td>ossibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 -ī and -ē.
3. Jecur, n., liter, forms its oblique cases from two stems, -jecor- and jecinor-. Thus, Gén. jecoris or jecinoris.
4. Femur, n., thigh, usually forms its oblique cases from the stem femor-, but sometimes from the stem femīn-. Thus, Gén. femoris or feminis.

General Principles of Gender in the Third Declension.

43. 1. Nouns in -ō, -or, -ōs, -er, -ēs are Masculine.
2. Nouns in -ās, -ēs, -ēs, -ṣ, -x, -s (preceded by a consonant); -ōs, -gō (Genitive -inis); -ō (abstract and collective), -ēs (Genitive -ātis or -ādis) are Feminine.
3. Nouns ending in -a, -e, -i, -y, -c, -l, -n, -t, -ar, -ur, -ēs are Neuter.

Chief Exceptions to Gender in the Third Declension.

44. Exceptions to the Rule for Masculines.

1. Nouns in -ā.
   a. Feminine: carō, flesh.
2. Nouns in -or.
   a. Feminine: arbor, tree.
   b. Neuter: aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.
   a. Feminine: ãōs, dowry.
   b. Neuter: ōs (ōris), mouth.
   a. Feminine: līnter, skiff.
Third Declension.

   a. Feminine: seges, crop.

45. Exceptions to the Rule for Feminines.

1. Nouns in -ās.
   a. Masculine: vās, bondman.
   b. Neuter: vās, vessel.

   a. Masculine: ariēs, ram; pāriēs, wall; pēs, foot.

   a. Masculine: all nouns in -nis and -gīus; as amnis, river; ignis, fire; pānis, bread; sanguis, blood; ungūs, nail. Also —
      axis, axle.
      collis, hill.
      fascis, bundle.
      lapis, stone.
      mēnsis, month.
      piscis, fish.
      postis, post.
      pulvis, dust.
      orbis, circle.
      sentis, brier.

   a. Masculine: apex, peak; cōdex, tree-trunk; grex, flock; imbrēx, tile; pollex, thumb; vertex, summit; calix, cup.

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

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

46. Exceptions to the Rule for Neuters.

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

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

   a. Masculine: vultur, vulture.

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

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

1. The ending -ā in the Accusative Singular; as, aetherā, aether; Salamīnā, Salamis.

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

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

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

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

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

7. Proper names in -ēs, like Pericēs, form the Genitive Singular sometimes in -ēs, sometimes in -ī; as, Pericēs or Pericīl.

8. Feminine proper names in -ē have -īs in the Genitive, but -ē in the other oblique cases; as,—

   | Nom. | Acc.  |
---|------|------|
   | Didō | Didō  |
   | Didās| Didā |
   | Didō | Didō |

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

FOURTH DECLENSION.

ā-Stems.

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

| Frūctus, m., fruit. | Cornū, n., horū. |
---|---|
| SINGULAR. | PLURAL. | SINGULAR. | PLURAL. |
| Nom. | frūctus | frūctūs | cornū | cornua |
| Gen. | frūctūs | frūctuum | cornūs | cornuum |
| Dat. | frūctū | frūctibus | cornū | cornibus |
| Acc. | frūctum | frūctūs | cornū | cornua |
| Voc. | frūctus | frūctūs | cornū | cornua |
| Abl. | frūctū | frūctibus | cornū | cornibus |
Fourth Declension.—Fifth Declension.

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fourth Declension.

49. 1. 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, ērnātī. This is usually the case in Plautus and Terence.

2. Nouns in -us sometimes have -ū in the Dative Singular, instead of -uī; as, frūctū (for frūctūtī).

3. The ending -ubus, instead of -ibus, occurs in the Dative and Ablative Plural of artūs (Plural), ūmbīs; tribūs, tribē; and in dis-syllables in -cus; as, artūbus, tribūbus, arcubus, lacubus. But with the exception of tribus, all these words admit the forms in -ibus as well as those in -ubus.

4. 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;
   - domō, from home;
   - domōs, homewards, to their (etc.) homes.

5. The only Neuters of this declension in common use are: ōrnū, horn; genū, knee; and verū, spit.

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; īdūs (Plural), īdes; also names of trees (§ 15. 2).

FIFTH DECLENSION

3-Stems

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. diēs</td>
<td>diēs</td>
<td>rēs</td>
<td>rēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. diēī</td>
<td>diērum</td>
<td>rēī</td>
<td>rērum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. diēī</td>
<td>diēbus</td>
<td>rēī</td>
<td>rēbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. diēm</td>
<td>diēs</td>
<td>rem</td>
<td>rēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. diēs</td>
<td>diēs</td>
<td>rēs</td>
<td>rēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. diē</td>
<td>diēbus</td>
<td>rē</td>
<td>rēbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fifth Declension.

52. 1. The ending of the Genitive and Dative Singular is -ėi, instead of -ėi, when a consonant precedes; as, spēi, rōi, fidēi.

2. A Genitive ending -ī (for -ēi) is found in plēbī (from plēbēs = plēbēs) in the expressions tribūnus plēbī, tribune of the people, and plēbī scitum, decree of the people; sometimes also in other words.

3. A Genitive and Dative form in -ē sometimes occurs; as, acliē.

4. With the exception of dīēs and rōs, most nouns of the Fifth Declension are not declined in the Plural. But acliēs, serīēs, speciēs, spēs, and a few others are used in the Nominative and Accusative Plural.

Gender in the Fifth Declension.

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

Defective Nouns.

54. Here belong —

1. Nouns used in the Singular only.
2. Nouns used in the Plural only.
3. Nouns used only in certain cases.
4. Indeclinable Nouns.

Nouns used in the Singular only.

55. Many nouns, from the nature of their signification, are regularly used in the Singular only. Thus: —

1. Proper names; as, Cicero, Cicero; Italia, Italy.
2. Nouns denoting material; as, aed, copper; lac, milk.
3. Abstract nouns; as, ignorantia, ignorance; bonitas, goodness.
4. But the above classes of words are sometimes used in the Plural. Thus: —

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

6. 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, ignorantiae, cases of ignorance.

Nouns used in the Plural only.

56. Here belong —

1. Many geographical names; as, Thēbae, Thebes; Leuotra, Leuctra; Pompeji, 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. mānēs, spirits of the dead.
arma, weapons. minae, threats.
dēliciae, delight. moenia, city walls.
dīvitiæ, riches. nuptiae, marriage.
Īdūs, Ides. posteri, descendants.
indūtiae, truce. reliquiae, remainder.
insiidiae, ambush. tenebrae, darkness.
majūrēs, ancestors. verbera, blows.

Also in classical prose regularly —

cervīca, neck. nārēs, nose.
sīdēs, lyre. viscerā, viscera.

Nouns used only in Certain Cases.

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

2. Used in Two Cases.

a. Fōrs (chance), Nom. Sing.; forte, Abl. Sing.

b. Spontēs (free-will), Gen. Sing.; sponte, Abl. Sing.

3. Used in Three Cases. Namō, no one (Nom.), has also the Dat. nāminī and the Acc. nāminem. The Gen. and Abl. are supplied by the corresponding cases of nālius; viz. nālius and nāliō.
Inflections.

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

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

6. Opis, dapis, and frūgis, — all lack the Nom. Sing.

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

Indeclinable Nouns.

58. Here belong —

fās, n., right. n. nefās, n., impiety.

iustar, n., likeness. nihil, n., nothing.
māne, n., morning. secus, n., sex.

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

Heteroclites.

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

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

vās, vāsis (vesel); Plu., vāsa, vāsōrum, vāsīs, etc.
jügerum, jügeri (acre); Plu., jügera, jügerum, jügeribus, etc.

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

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

b) Pāmās, hunger, regularly of the Third Declension, has the Abl. famē 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 Declension, we find plēbēs, plēbēi (also plēbi, see § 52.2), of the Fifth.
Heterogeneous Nouns.

60. Heterogeneous nouns vary in Gender. Thus:—

1. Several nouns of the Second Declension have two forms,—one Masc. in -us, and one Neuter in -um; as, 
    olimps, olimptum, shield; carrus, carrum, cart.

2. 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;
 rástrum, n., rake;

**PLURAL.**

balneae, f., bath-house.
epulae, f., feast.
frēnī, m. (rarely frēna, n.), bridle.
jōca, n. (also jōcī, m.), jests.
locā, n., places; locī, m., passages
or topics in an author.
rāstrī, m.; rāstra, n., rakes.

a. Heterogeneous nouns may at the same time be heteroclytes, 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.**

aedes, temple;
auxilium, help;
carcer, prison;
castrum, fort;
copia, abundance;
finit, end;
fortūna, fortune;
grātia, favor;
impedimentum, hindrance;
littera, letter (of the alphabet);
mōs, habit, custom;
opus, help, service;
(sups) opis, help;
para, part;
sal, salt;

**PLURAL.**

aedes, house.
auxilia, auxiliary troops.
carcerēs, stalls for racing-chariots
castra, camp.
copiae, troops, resources.
finita, borders, territory.
fortūnae, possessions, wealth.
grātiae, thanks.
impedimenta, baggage.
litterae, epistle; literature.
mōrēs, character.
operae, laborers.
opēs, resources.
partēs, party; rôle.
scilēs, with.
Inflections.

B. ADJECTIVES.

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

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

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS.

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

**Bonus, good.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>SINGULAR</strong></th>
<th><strong>FEMININE</strong></th>
<th><strong>NEUTER</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> bonus</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong> bonūs</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> bonō</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> bonum</td>
<td>bonām</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong> bone</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong> bonō</td>
<td>bonā</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PLURAL</strong></th>
<th><strong>FEMININE</strong></th>
<th><strong>NEUTER</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong> bonōs</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong> bonōrum</td>
<td>bonārum</td>
<td>bonōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong> bonōs</td>
<td>bonās</td>
<td>bonās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong> bonās</td>
<td>bonās</td>
<td>bona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong> bone</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong> bonōs</td>
<td>bonās</td>
<td>bonās</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The Gen. Sing. Masc. and Neut. of Adjectives in -us ends in -is (not in -ē as in case of Nouns; see § 25, 1; 2). So also the Voc. Sing. of such Adjectives ends in -ē, not in -ī. Thus eximia forms Gen. eximīs; Voc. eximīa.

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

64. Masculine like puer:

Tener, tender.

SINGULAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tener</td>
<td>tenera</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>teneris</td>
<td>teneris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tenerōs</td>
<td>tenerōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>tenera</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>tenerō</td>
<td>tenerō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLURAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tener</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tenerērum</td>
<td>tenerērum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tenerēs</td>
<td>tenerēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tenerēs</td>
<td>tenerēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>tenerēs</td>
<td>tenerēs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65. Masculine like ager:—

Sacer, sacred.

SINGULAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sacer</td>
<td>sacra</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>sacrī</td>
<td>sacrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>sacrō</td>
<td>sacrō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>sacer</td>
<td>sacra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>sacrō</td>
<td>sacra</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLURAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sacrī</td>
<td>sacrae</td>
<td>sacra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>sacrōrum</td>
<td>sacrōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>sacrīs</td>
<td>sacrīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sacrōs</td>
<td>sacrōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>sacrī</td>
<td>sacrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>sacrīs</td>
<td>sacrīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Most adjectives in -er are declined like sacer. The following, however, are declined like tener: asper, rough; lacer, torn; liber, free;
Inflexions.

miser, wretched; prósper, prosperous; compounds in -fer and -ger; sometimes dexter, right.

2. Satur, full, is declined: satur, satura, saturum.

Nine Irregular Adjectives.

66. Here belong —

alius, another; alter, the other;
nólus, none;
uter, which? (of two); neuter, neither;
sólus, alone; totus, whole;
únus, one, alone.

They are declined as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. alius</td>
<td>alia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. alterius</td>
<td>alterius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. alií</td>
<td>alií</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. alium</td>
<td>aliam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. ---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. alió</td>
<td>aliā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. uter</td>
<td>utra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. utorius</td>
<td>utorius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. utrī</td>
<td>utrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. utrum</td>
<td>utram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. ---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. utorō</td>
<td>utorā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. All these words lack the Vocative. The Plural is regular.
2. Neuter is declined like uter.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

67. These fall into three classes, —

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

---

1 This is almost always used instead of allus in the Genitive.
2 A Dative Singular Feminine alterae also occurs.
Adjectives of the Third Declension.

1. 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 I-stems; i.e. they have the Ablative Singular in -i, the Genitive Plural in -ium, the Accusative Plural in -is (as well as -es) in the Masculine and Feminine, and the Nominative and Accusative Plural in -ia in Neuters.

Adjectives of Three Terminations.

68. These are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine</strong></td>
<td><strong>Feminine</strong></td>
<td><strong>Neuter</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ácer</td>
<td>ácris</td>
<td>ácre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ácres</td>
<td>ácres</td>
<td>ácres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. ácri</td>
<td>ácri</td>
<td>ácri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. ácrem</td>
<td>ácrem</td>
<td>ácre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. ácer</td>
<td>ácres</td>
<td>ácre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. ácri</td>
<td>ácri</td>
<td>ácri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ácrēs</td>
<td>ácrēs</td>
<td>ácria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ácrium</td>
<td>ácrium</td>
<td>ácrium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. ácribus</td>
<td>ácribus</td>
<td>ácribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. ácrēs, -is</td>
<td>ácrēs, -is</td>
<td>ácria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. ácrēs</td>
<td>ácrēs</td>
<td>ácria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. ácribus</td>
<td>ácribus</td>
<td>ácribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Like ácer are declined alacer, lively; campestre, level; celeber, famous; equester, equestrian; palus, marshy; pedester, pedestrian; puter, rotten; salūber, wholesome; silvester, woody; terrester, terrestrial; volucrēs, 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 salūbris, silvestris, and terestris. In case of the other words in the list, the use of the Feminine for the Masculine is confined chiefly to early and late Latin, and to poetry.
## Inflections.

### Adjectives of Two Terminations.

69. These are declined as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>foris</td>
<td>forte</td>
<td>forior</td>
<td>forius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>foris</td>
<td>foris</td>
<td>forioris</td>
<td>forioris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>fori</td>
<td>fori</td>
<td>foriori</td>
<td>foriori</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>fortem</td>
<td>forte</td>
<td>foriorem</td>
<td>fortius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>foris</td>
<td>forte</td>
<td>fortior</td>
<td>fortius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>fori</td>
<td>fori</td>
<td>foriöre, -i</td>
<td>foriöre, -i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>fortis</td>
<td>fortia</td>
<td>fortioris</td>
<td>fortiora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>fortis</td>
<td>fortium</td>
<td>fortiorum</td>
<td>fortiorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>fortibus</td>
<td>fortium</td>
<td>fortiorbus</td>
<td>fortiorbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>fortis, -is</td>
<td>fortia</td>
<td>fortioris, -is</td>
<td>fortiora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>fortis</td>
<td>fortia</td>
<td>fortioris</td>
<td>fortiora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>fortibus</td>
<td>fortibus</td>
<td>fortiorbus</td>
<td>fortiorbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

### Adjectives of One Termination.

70. **Felix, happy.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>felix</td>
<td>felix</td>
<td>prudens</td>
<td>prudens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td>prudentis</td>
<td>prudentis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>felicem</td>
<td>felicem</td>
<td>prudentem</td>
<td>prudentem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>felicem</td>
<td>felicem</td>
<td>prudentem</td>
<td>prudentem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>felix</td>
<td>felix</td>
<td>prudens</td>
<td>prudens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>felicem</td>
<td>felicem</td>
<td>prudentem</td>
<td>prudentem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td>prudentis</td>
<td>prudentis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>felicum</td>
<td>felicum</td>
<td>prudentum</td>
<td>prudentum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>felicibus</td>
<td>felicibus</td>
<td>prudentibus</td>
<td>prudentibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>felicis, -is</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td>prudentis, -is</td>
<td>prudentia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td>prudentis</td>
<td>prudentia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>felicibus</td>
<td>felicibus</td>
<td>prudentibus</td>
<td>prudentibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Adjectives of the Third Declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vetus, old.</th>
<th>Pīlis, more.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. vetus</td>
<td>vetus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. veteris</td>
<td>veteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. veterī</td>
<td>veterī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. veterem</td>
<td>vētērum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. vētus</td>
<td>vētus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. vētēre</td>
<td>vētērē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular.**

**Plural.**

| Nom. veterēs | vetera       | plūrēs     | plūra |
| Gen. veterum | vētērum     | plūriūm   | plūriūm |
| Dat. veteribus| vētēribus | plūriūs   | plūriūs |
| Acc. veterēs | vētēra     | plūrēs, -ēs| plūra |
| Voc. vētēra  | vētēra     | ——        | ——    |
| Abl. vētēribus | vētēribus | plūriūs   | plūriūs |

1. It will be observed that *vetus* is declined as a pure Consonant-Stem; *i.e.* Ablative Singular in -ē, Genitive Plural in -um, Nominative Plural Neuter in -a, and Accusative Plural Masculine and Feminine in -ēs only. In the same way are declined *compos*, *controlling*; *dīves*, *rich*; *particeps*, *sharing*; *pauper*, *poor*; *prīncēps*, *chief*; *sōapes*, *safe*; *superstes*, *surviving*. Yet *dīves* always has Neut. Plu. *dītia*.

2. *Inops*, *needly*, and *memor*, *mindful*, have Ablative Singular *inopī*, *memorī*, but Genitive Plural *inopum*, *memorum*.

3. Participles in -āns and -ēns follow the declension of 1-stems. But they do not have -ī in the Ablative, except when employed as adjectives; when used as participles or as substantives, they have -ē; as, —

 inadeceptī virō, *by a wise man*; but
 inadeceptē, *by a philosopher*;
 Tarquinīō rēgnante, *under the reign of Tarquin*.

4. *Pīlis*, in the Singular, is always a noun.

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

a) usually retain the adjective declension; as, —


So names of Months; as, *Aprīli*, *April*; *Decembrī*, *December*.

b) But adjectives used as proper names have -ē in the Ablative Singular; as, *Colōro*, *Celer*; *Juvenāle*, *Juvenal*.
Inflections.

c) Patrils in -ās, -ātia and -īs, ītia, when designating places, regularly have -ī; as, in Arpīnātī, on the estate at Arpinum; yet -e, when used of persons; as, ab Arpīnāte, by an Arpīnian.

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

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

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

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

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

altus, high. altior, higher, altissimus, { highest, very high.
fortis, brave. fortior, fortissimus.
felix, fortunate, felicior, felicissimus.

So also Participles, when used as Adjectives; as, —
doctus, learned. doctior, docessimus.
egens, needy, egentior, egentissimus.

3. Adjectives in -er form the Superlative by appending -rimus to the Nominative of the Positive. The Comparative is regular. Thus: —
asper, rough, asperior, asperrimus.
pulcher, beautiful, pulchrior, pulcherrimus.
ācer, sharp, āctor, accrimus.
celer, swift, celerior, celerrimus.

a. Notice mātūrus, mātūrior, mātūrissimus or mātūrirmus.

4. Five Adjectives in -ilis form the Superlative by adding -ilimus to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel. The Comparative is regular. Thus: —
facilis, easy, facilius, facilior, facillimus.
difficilis, difficult, difficilius, difficilius.
similis, like, similior, similimus.
dissimilis, unlike, dissimilior, dissimilimus.
humilis, low, humilius, humilior, humilius.
5. Adjectives in -dicus, -ficus, and -volus form the Comparative and Superlative as though from forms in -dicēns, -ficēns, -volēns. Thus:

maledicus, slanderous, maledicentor, maledicentissimus.
magnificus, magnificent, magnificentior, magnificentissimus.
benevolus, kindly, benevolenter, benevolentissimus.

a. Positives in -dicēns and -volēns occur in early Latin; as, maledicēns, benevolēns.

6. Dives has the Comparative divitior or ditiōr; Superlative divitissimus or ditiissimus.

Irregular Comparison.

72. Several Adjectives vary the Stem in Comparison;

bonus, good, melior, optimus.
malus, bad, pejor, pessimus.
parvus, small, minor, minus.
magnus, large, major, maximus.
multus, much, plūs, plūrimus.
frugifer, thrifty, frugāior, frugalissimus.
nēquām, worthless, nēquior, nēquissimus.

Defective Comparison.

73. 1. Positive lacking entirely, —

(Cf. prae, in front of.) prior, former, primus, first.
(Cf. citrā, this side of.) citerior, on this side, citimus, near.
(Cf. ultrā, beyond.) ultior, farther, ultimus, farthest.
(Cf. intrā, within.) interior, inner, intimus, nearest.
(Cf. prope, near.) propior, nearer, proximus, nearest.
(Cf. dē, down.) dēterior, inferior, dēterrimus, worst.
(Cf. archeic potis, possible.) potior, preferable, potissimus, chiepest.

2. Positive occurring only in special cases, —

posterō die, annō, etc., the following day, etc., posterior, later, postrēmus, latest, last.
posterī, descendents, postumus, late born, posthumous.
exterī, foreigners, exterior, outer, extrēmus, outermost.
nātīonēs, externae, extimus, natiōnēs.
Inflections.

Inferi, gods of the lower world,
Mare Infernum, Mediterranean Sea,
inferior, lower,
Infimus, lowest.

superi, gods above,
Mare Superum, Adriatic Sea,
superior, higher,
supremus, last.
summus, highest.

3. Comparative lacking.

vetus, old,

fidus, faithful,
novus, new,
sacer, sacred,
falsus, false,

veterrimus.

fidissimus.
novissimus; last.
sacerrimus.
falsissimus.

Also in some other words less frequently used.

4. Superlative lacking.

alacer, lively,
ingens, great,
salutarius, wholesome,
juvenis, young,

alacrior,
ingentior,
salutario,
junior,

veterrimus.

veterrimus.

veterrimus.

veterrimus.

veterrimus.

a. The Superlative is lacking also in many adjectives in -alis, -ilis, -ilis, -biliis, and in a few others.

Comparison by Magis and Maximē.

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

1. Many adjectives ending in -alis, -aris, -idas, -ilis, -icos, imus, inus, -or us.

2. Adjectives in -us, preceded by a vowel; as, idōneus, adoptēs.

arduus, steep; necessarius, necessary.

a. Adjectives in -quus, of course, do not come under this rule.

The first u in such cases is not a vowel, but a consonant.

1 Supplied by vetustior, from vetustus.
2 Supplied by recentior.
3 For recentius, recentissimus is used.
4 Supplied by minimus nātū.
5 Supplied by maximus nātū.
Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs.

Adjectives not admitting Comparison.

75. Here belong—

1. Many adjectives which, from the nature of their signification, do not admit of comparison: as, hodiernus, of to-day; annuus, annual; mortalis, mortal.

2. Some special words; as, mīrus, gnārus, merus; and a few others.

FORMATION AND COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

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

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

   cárus, cărē, dearly;
   pulcher, pulchrē, beautifully;
   ácer, ácritēr, fiercely;
   levīs, leviter, lightly.

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

   sapiēns, sapienter, wisely;
   audāx, audāctēr, 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 -i of the Genitive Singular of the Superlative of the Adjective to -ē. Thus —

   (cárus) cărē, dearly, cărius, căriissimē.
   (pulcher) pulchrē, beautifully, pulchrius, pulcherrimē.
   (ácer) ácritēr, fiercely, ácritus, ácerrimē.
   (levīs) leviter, lightly, levius, leviissimē.
   (sapiēns) sapienter, wisely, sapientius, sapientissimē.
   (audāx) audāctēr, boldly, audāctius, audāctissimē.
Adverbs Peculiar in Comparison and Formation.

77. 1.

benē, well, melius, optimē.
malē, ill, pejus, pessimē.
magnopere, greatly, magia, maximē.
multum, much, plus, plūrimum.
nōn multum,  little, minus, minimē.
parum,  diū, long, diūtius, diūtissimē.
nēquitia, worthlessly, nēquiūs, nēquissimē.
saepe, often, saepius, saepissimē.
mātūrē, betimes, mātūrius, mātūrissimē.
prope, near, proplus, proximē.
nūper, recently, — potius, rather, nūperrimē.
— prius,  previously,  { before,  } primum,  first.
secus, otherwise, sētius, less.

2. A number of adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form an Adverb in -ē, instead of -ē; as, —

crebrō, frequently; falsō, falsely;
continuō, immediately; subitō, suddenly;
rārō, rarely; and a few others.

a. cito, quickly, has -ē.

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

4. A few adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive in -ter; as, —

firmus, firmly; firmiter, firmly; humānus, humāniter, humanly;
largus, large; largiter, copiously; alius, aliter, otherwise.

a. violentus has violenter.

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

**NUMERALS.**

78. Numerals may be divided into —

I. Numeral Adjectives, comprising —

   a. Cardinals; as, *únus*, *one*; *duo*, *two*; etc.
   b. Ordinals; as, *primus*, *first*; *secundus*, *second*; etc.
   c. Distributives; as, *singuli*, *one by one*; *bíni*, *two by two*; etc.

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cardinals</th>
<th>Ordinals</th>
<th>Distributives</th>
<th>Adverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <em>únus</em>, <em>úna</em>, <em>únum</em></td>
<td><em>primus</em>, <em>first</em></td>
<td><em>singuli</em>, <em>one by one</em></td>
<td><em>semel</em>, <em>once</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <em>duo</em>, <em>duae</em>, <em>duo</em></td>
<td><em>secundus</em>, <em>second</em></td>
<td><em>bíni</em>, <em>two by two</em></td>
<td><em>bis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <em>tréś</em>, <em>tria</em></td>
<td><em>térāius</em>, <em>third</em></td>
<td><em>térni</em> (<em>tīnī</em>)</td>
<td><em>ter</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <em>quattuor</em></td>
<td><em>quārtus</em>, <em>fourth</em></td>
<td><em>quātermī</em></td>
<td><em>quater</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <em>quinque</em></td>
<td><em>quīntus</em>, <em>fifth</em></td>
<td><em>quīnī</em></td>
<td><em>quinquēs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. <em>sex</em></td>
<td><em>sextus</em></td>
<td><em>sēnī</em></td>
<td><em>sexīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. <em>septem</em></td>
<td><em>septimus</em></td>
<td><em>septēnī</em></td>
<td><em>septīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. <em>octō</em></td>
<td><em>octāvus</em></td>
<td><em>octōnī</em></td>
<td><em>octīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. <em>novem</em></td>
<td><em>nōnus</em></td>
<td><em>novēnī</em></td>
<td><em>novīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. <em>decem</em></td>
<td><em>decimus</em></td>
<td><em>dēnī</em></td>
<td><em>decīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. <em>undecim</em></td>
<td><em>undeclimus</em></td>
<td><em>undēnī</em></td>
<td><em>undeclīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. <em>duodecim</em></td>
<td><em>duodecimus</em></td>
<td><em>duodeclīs</em></td>
<td><em>duodeclīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. <em>tridecim</em></td>
<td><em>tērīius decimus</em></td>
<td><em>tērēnī dēnī</em></td>
<td><em>terdecīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. <em>quattuordecim</em></td>
<td><em>quārtīus decimus</em></td>
<td><em>quātermī dēnī</em></td>
<td><em>quaterdecīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. <em>quindecim</em></td>
<td><em>quīntīs decimus</em></td>
<td><em>quinī dēnī</em></td>
<td><em>quinquēs decīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. <em>sedecim</em></td>
<td><em>sexīs decimus</em></td>
<td><em>sēnī dēnī</em></td>
<td><em>sexīs decīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. <em>septendecim</em></td>
<td><em>septimi decimus</em></td>
<td><em>septēnī dēnī</em></td>
<td><em>septīs decīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. <em>duodevigintī</em></td>
<td><em>duodevincimus</em></td>
<td><em>duodevincēnī</em></td>
<td><em>octōs decīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. <em>undevigintī</em></td>
<td><em>undevincimus</em></td>
<td><em>undevincēnī</em></td>
<td><em>novīs decīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. <em>vigintī</em></td>
<td><em>vincimus</em></td>
<td><em>vincēnī</em></td>
<td><em>vincīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. <em>vigintī únus</em></td>
<td><em>vincisinus prīmus</em></td>
<td><em>vincēnī singuli</em></td>
<td><em>vincīs semel</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. <em>vīgnī duo</em></td>
<td><em>vincisinus secundus</em></td>
<td><em>vincēnī bīnī</em></td>
<td><em>vincīs bīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. <em>trīgintā</em></td>
<td><em>trīcinus</em></td>
<td><em>trīcēnī</em></td>
<td><em>trīcēs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. <em>quadragintā</em></td>
<td><em>quadragēnī</em></td>
<td><em>quadragēnī</em></td>
<td><em>quadragēs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. <em>quinquagintā</em></td>
<td><em>quinquagenī</em></td>
<td><em>quinquagenī</em></td>
<td><em>quinquāgēs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. <em>sextagintā</em></td>
<td><em>sexagēnis</em></td>
<td><em>sexagenī</em></td>
<td><em>sexāgēs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70. <em>septuagintā</em></td>
<td><em>septuagenī</em></td>
<td><em>septuagenī</em></td>
<td><em>septuāgēs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80. <em>octogintā</em></td>
<td><em>octogēnis</em></td>
<td><em>octogēnī</em></td>
<td><em>octōgēs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90. <em>nonagintā</em></td>
<td><em>nōnagenī</em></td>
<td><em>nōnagenī</em></td>
<td><em>nōnāgēs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100. <em>centum</em></td>
<td><em>centēmis</em></td>
<td><em>centēnī</em></td>
<td><em>centēs</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Inflections.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cardinals</th>
<th>Ordinals</th>
<th>Distributives</th>
<th>Adverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>centum unus</td>
<td>centésimus primus</td>
<td>centéni singuli</td>
<td>centiès semel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>centum et unus</td>
<td>centésimus et primus</td>
<td>centéni et singuli</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200. ducenti, -ac, -a</td>
<td>ducentésimus</td>
<td>ducenti</td>
<td>ducentiès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300. trecenti</td>
<td>trecentésimus</td>
<td>trecenti</td>
<td>trecentiès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400. quadringenti</td>
<td>quadringentésimus</td>
<td>quadringeni</td>
<td>quadringentiès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500. quingenti</td>
<td>quingentésimus</td>
<td>quingeni</td>
<td>quingentiès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600. sescenti</td>
<td>sescentésimus</td>
<td>sescenti</td>
<td>sescentiès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700. septingenti</td>
<td>septingentésimus</td>
<td>septingeni</td>
<td>septingentiès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800. octingenti</td>
<td>octingentésimus</td>
<td>octingeni</td>
<td>octingentiès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900. nöngenti</td>
<td>nöngentésimus</td>
<td>nöngeni</td>
<td>nöngentiès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000. mille</td>
<td>millesimus</td>
<td>singula milia</td>
<td>miliès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,000. duo milia</td>
<td>bis millesimus</td>
<td>bina milia</td>
<td>bis miliès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000. centum milia</td>
<td>centés millesimus</td>
<td>centéna milia</td>
<td>centiès miliès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000. deciès centēna milia</td>
<td>deciès centiès miliès</td>
<td>deciès centēna simus</td>
<td>deciès centiès miliès</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE.** — *-susimus and -iēns are often written in the numerals instead of -śimus and -iēs.*

### Declension of the Cardinals.

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

2. **Duo** is declined as follows:

- **Nom.** duo — duae — duo
- **Gen.** duōrum — duōrum
- **Dat.** duōbus — duōbus
- **Acc.** duōs, duo — duās — duo
- **Abl.** duōbus — duābus — duōbus

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

3. **Tres** is declined,

- **Nom.** trēs — tria
- **Gen.** trium
- **Dat.** tribus
- **Acc.** trēs (tris) — tria
- **Abl.** tribus

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

5. **Mille** is regularly an adjective in the Singular, and indeclinable. In the Plural it is a substantive (followed by the Genitive of the objects enumerated; § 201. 1), and is declined,

- **Nom.** milia
- **Gen.** milium
- **Dat.** milibus
- **Acc.** milia
- **Voc.** milia
- **Abl.** milibus
Numerals.

Thus mīlle homīnēs, a thousand men; but duo mīlia homīnium, two thousand men, literally two thousands of men.

a. Occasionally the Singular admits the Genitive construction; as, mīlle homīnium.

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

Thus:—
trīgintā sex or sex et trīgintā, thirty-six.

2. The numerals under 90, ending in 8 and 9, are often expressed by subtraction; as,—
duōdēvigintī, eighteen (but also octōdecim);
āntēquadragintā, thirty-nine (but also trīgintā novem or novem et trīgintā).

3. Compounds over 100 regularly have the largest number first; the others follow without et; as,—
centum vīgintī septem, one hundred and twenty-seven.
annō octingentāsimō octōgēsimō secundō, in the year 882.

Yet et may be inserted where the smaller number is either a digit or one of the tens; as,—
centum et septem, one hundred and seven;
centum et quadragintā, one hundred and forty.

4. The Distributives are used—

a) To denote so many each, so many a piece; as,—
bīna talenta eīs dedit, he gave them two talents each.

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

But in such cases, ūnī (not singulī) is regularly employed for one, and trīnī (not ternī) for three; as,—
ūnae litterae, one epistle; trīnae litterae, three epistles.

c) In multiplication; as,—
bīs bīna sunt quattuor, twice two are four.

d) Often in poetry, instead of the cardinals; as,—
bīna hastīlia, two spears.
C. PRONOUNS.

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

83. There are the following classes of pronouns: —

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

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Person.</th>
<th>Second Person.</th>
<th>Third Person.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.  ego, I</td>
<td>tū, thou</td>
<td>is, he; ea, she; id, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.  me</td>
<td>tuū</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.  mihi</td>
<td>tibi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.  mē</td>
<td>tē</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. ——</td>
<td>tū</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mē</td>
<td>tē</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PLURAL.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. nōs, we</td>
<td>vōs, you</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. nostrum</td>
<td>vestrum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nostri</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. nōbis</td>
<td>vōbis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. nōs</td>
<td>vōs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. ——</td>
<td>vōs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. nōbis</td>
<td>vōbis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. A Dative Singular mi occurs in poetry.

2. Emphatic forms in -met are occasionally found; as, egomet, I myself; ti-bimet, to you yourself; tū has tūte and tūtemet (written also tūtimet).

1 The final i is sometimes long in poetry.
Pronouns.

3. In early Latin, mēd and tēd occur as Accusative and Ablative forms.

II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Person.</th>
<th>Second Person.</th>
<th>Third Person.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supplied by oblique cases of ego.</td>
<td>Supplied by oblique cases of tū.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mē, of myself</td>
<td>tui, of thyself</td>
<td>sui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mihi, to myself</td>
<td>tibi, to thyself</td>
<td>sibi¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mē, myself</td>
<td>tē, thyself</td>
<td>sē or sēsē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. —</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mē, with myself, etc.</td>
<td>tē, with thyself, etc.</td>
<td>sē or sēsē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

inter sē pugnānt, they fight with each other.

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

III. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Third Person.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>suus, -a, -um, his, her, its, their.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Suus is exclusively Reflexive; as,—

pater liberōs suōs amat, the father loves his children.

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

¹ The final i is sometimes long in poetry.
2. The Vocative Singular Masculine of meus is mi.

3. The enclitic -pte may be joined to the Ablative Singular of the Possessive Pronouns for the purpose of emphasis. This is particularly common in case of suō, suā; as, suōpte, suāpte.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

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

hic, this (where I am);
iste, that (where you are);
ille, that (something distinct from the speaker);
is, that (weaker than illle);
Idem, the same.

Hic, iste, and illle are accordingly the Demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hic</td>
<td>haec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hūjus</td>
<td>hūjus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>huic</td>
<td>huic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hunc</td>
<td>hanc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>hōc</td>
<td>hāc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>iste</td>
<td>ista</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>īstius</td>
<td>īstius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>īsti</td>
<td>īsti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>īstum</td>
<td>īstam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>īstō</td>
<td>īstā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ille (archaic olle), that, that one, he, is declined like iste.8

1 Forms of hic ending in -s sometimes append -ce for emphasis; as, hājusce, this . . . here; hōscce, hīscce. When -ne is added, -c and -ce become -cl; as, huncine, hōscine.

2 For īstud, īstē sometimes occurs; for īsta, īstaece.

3 For īlēd, īlēc sometimes occurs.
The Intensive Pronoun.—The Relative Pronoun. 51

Is, he, this, that.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine. Feminine</td>
<td>Neuter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. is ea id</td>
<td>ei, ii, (i) eae ea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ejus ejus ejus</td>
<td>eorum eorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. ei ei ei</td>
<td>eis, iis eis, iis eis, iis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. eum eam id</td>
<td>eis eis eis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. eo ea eó eó</td>
<td>eis, iis eis, iis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Idem, the same.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine. Feminine</td>
<td>Neuter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. idem eadem idem idem</td>
<td>eadem eadem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ejusdem ejusdem ejusdem</td>
<td>eorumdem eorumdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. eadem eadem eadem eadem</td>
<td>eisdem eisdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. eadem eadem eadem eadem</td>
<td>eisdem eisdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. eodem eodem eodem eodem</td>
<td>eisdem eisdem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

V. THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine. Feminine</td>
<td>Neuter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ispe ipsa ipsum ipsi ipsae ipsa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ipsius ipsius ipsius ipsorum ipsorum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. ipsi ipsi ipsi ipsis ipsis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. ipsum ipsum ipsum ipsos ipsas ipsa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. ipsō ipsā ipsō ipsis ipsis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VI. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine. Feminine</td>
<td>Neuter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. qui quae quod qui quae quae</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. cujus cujus cujus quorum quam quorum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. cui cui cui quibus quibus quibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. quem quam quod quos quas quae</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. qui quā quō quibus quibus quibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 An ablative qui occurs in quicum. 2 Sometimes quia.
VII. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

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

1. **Quis**, **who?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>quis</td>
<td>quid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cujus</td>
<td>cujus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cui</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>quem</td>
<td>quid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>quo</td>
<td>quō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **quid**, **what?** **what kind of?** is declined precisely like the Relative Pronoun; *viz.* **qui**, **quae**, **quod**, *etc.*
   - a. An old Ablative **quī** occurs, in the sense of *how?*
   - b. **Quī** is sometimes used for **quis** in Indirect Questions
   - c. **Quīs**, when limiting words denoting persons, is sometimes an adjective. But in such cases **quis homō** = *what man?*
     whereas **quī homō** = *what sort of a man?*
   - d. **Quīs** and **quī** may be strengthened by adding -**nam**. Thus:—
     Substantive. **quisnam**, **who, pray?** **quidnam**, **what, pray?**
     Adjective. **quīnam**, **quaenam**, **quodnam**, of what kind, pray?

VIII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Substantives</th>
<th>Adjectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>M. and F.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Neut.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quis, quid,</td>
<td><em>any one,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aliquid,</td>
<td><em>something.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisquam,</td>
<td>quidquam,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quispiam,</td>
<td><em>any one,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisque,</td>
<td><em>anything.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisque, quaeque,</td>
<td>quaeque, quodque, each.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisvis, quaevis,</td>
<td>quisvis, quaevis, quodvis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quiilibet, quaetibet, quiilibet,</td>
<td>quiilibet, quaelibet, quiilibet, <em>you wish.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quidam, quaedam, quiddam,</td>
<td>quidam, quaedam, quoddam,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a certain</td>
<td>a certain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| or thing. | or thing.| or thing. | or thing.
Indefinite Pronouns.—Pronominal Adjectives. 53

1. In the Indefinite Pronouns, only the pronominal part is declined. 
   Thus: Genitive Singular alicuius, alicuiuslibet, etc.

2. Note that aliqui has aliqua in the Nominative Singular Feminine, also in the Nominative and Accusative Plural Neuter. Qui has both qua and quae in these same cases.

3. Quidam forms Accusative Singular quendam, quandam; Genitive Plural qudrundam, qudrundam; the m being assimilated to n before d.

4. Aliquis may be used adjectively, and (occasionally) aliqui substantively.

5. In combination with nē, sī, nisi, num, either quis or qui may stand as a Substantive. Thus: sī quīs or sī qui.

6. Ecquis, any one, though strictly an Indefinite, generally has interrogative force. It has both substantive and adjectival forms,—substantive, ecquis, ecquid; adjective, ecquī, ecqua and ecqua, ecquod.

7. Quisquam is not used in the Plural.

8. There are two Indefinite Relatives,—quicumque and quisquis, whoever. Quicumque declines only the first part; quisquis declines both, but has only quisquis, quidquid, quōquō in common use.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

96. The Personal Endings of the Verb are,—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. -ō; -m; -i (Perf. Ind.)</td>
<td>-r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -a; -sti (Perf. Ind.)</td>
<td>-ris, -re; -re, -tor (Impv.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -t; -tō (Impv.)</td>
<td>-tur; -tor (Impv.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plu. 1. -mus;</td>
<td>-mur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -tis; -stis (Perf. Ind.)</td>
<td>-minū.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -nt; -srunt (Perf. Ind.)</td>
<td>-ntur; -ntor (Impv.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Impv.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VERB-STEMS.

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

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

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

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

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

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjugation</th>
<th>Infinitive Termination</th>
<th>Distinguishing Vowel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>-āre</td>
<td>å</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>-ēre</td>
<td>ȇ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>-ēre</td>
<td>ȇ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>-īre</td>
<td>ɨ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPAL PARTS.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres. Ind.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Pres. Inf.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Perf. Ind.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Fut. Partic.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>sum</em></td>
<td><em>esse</em></td>
<td><em>fuil</em></td>
<td><em>futūrus</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>sum</em>, I am,</td>
<td><em>sumus</em>, we are,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>es</em>, thou art,</td>
<td><em>estis</em>, you are,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>est</em>, he is;</td>
<td><em>sunt</em>, they are.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERFECT.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>eram</em>, I was,</td>
<td><em>erāmus</em>, we were,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>crās</em>, thou wast,</td>
<td><em>erātis</em>, you were,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>erat</em>, he was;</td>
<td><em>erant</em>, they were.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUTURE.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>erō</em>, I shall be,</td>
<td><em>erimus</em>, we shall be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>eris</em>, thou wilt be,</td>
<td><em>eritis</em>, you will be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>erit</em>, he will be;</td>
<td><em>erunt</em>, they will be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERFECT.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>fuī</em>, I have been, I was,</td>
<td><em>fuimus</em>, we have been, we were,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fuisti</em>, thou hast been, thou wast,</td>
<td><em>fuistis</em>, you have been, you were,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fuīt</em>, he has been, he was;</td>
<td><em>fuērunt</em>, they have been, they were.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLUPERFECT.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>fueram</em>, I had been,</td>
<td><em>fuerāmus</em>, we had been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fuerās</em>, thou hadst been,</td>
<td><em>fuerātis</em>, you had been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fuerat</em>, he had been;</td>
<td><em>fuerant</em>, they had been.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUTURE PERFECT.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>fuerō</em>, I shall have been,</td>
<td><em>fuerimus</em>, we shall have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fueris</em>, thou will have been,</td>
<td><em>fueritis</em>, you will have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fuerit</em>, he will have been;</td>
<td><em>fuerint</em>, they will have been.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The Perfect Participle is wanting in *sum*. 
Conjugation of Sum.

Subjunctive.\(^1\)

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

Imperfect.

| sim, I should be, | simus, we should be, |
| sit, thou wouldst be, | sitis, you would be, |
| sit, he would be; | sint, they would be; |

Perfect.

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

Pluperfect.

| fuissem, I should have been, | fuissemus, we should have been, |
| fuisse, thou wouldst have been, | fuissetis, you would have been, |
| fuisset, he would have been; | fuisset, they would have been; |

Imperative.

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

Infinitive.

| Pres. esse, to be. |
| Perf. fuisse, to have been. |
| Fut. futūrus esse,\(^8\) to be about to be. | Fut. futūrus,\(^4\) about to be. |

1 The meanings of the different tenses of the Subjunctive are so many and so varied, particularly in subordinate clauses, that no attempt can be made to give them here. For fuller information the pupil is referred to the Syntax.

2 For esse, esse, esset, esserent, the forms forem, forēs, forēs, forērent are sometimes used.

3 For futūrus esse the form fore is often used.

4 Declined like bonus, -a, -um.
**Inflections.**

**FIRST (OR Ā-) CONJUGATION.**

101. **Active Voice.** — Amō, I love.

**PRINCIPAL PARTS.**

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

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

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

**Imperfect.**

| amābam, I was loving | amābāmus, we were loving, |
| amābās, you were loving | amābātis, you were loving, |
| amābat, he was loving | amābant, they were loving. |

**Future.**

| amābō, I shall love, | amābimus, we shall love, |
| amābis, you will love, | amābitis, you will love, |
| amābit, he will love | amābunt, they will love. |

**Perfect.**

| amāvē, I have loved, I loved; | amāvēmus, we have loved, we loved, |
| amāvēsti, you have loved, you loved; | amāvēstis, you have loved, you loved, |
| amāvit, he has loved, he loved; | amāvērunt, -ēre, they have loved, they loved. |

**Pluperfect.**

| amāverēam, I had loved, | amāverēmus, we had loved, |
| amāverēs, you had loved, | amāverētis, you had loved, |
| amāverat, he had loved | amāverant, they had loved. |

**Future Perfect.**

| amāverēō, I shall have loved, | amāverēmus, we shall have loved, |
| amāverēris, you will have loved, | amāverētis, you will have loved, |
| amāverēit, he will have loved | amāverēnt, they will have loved. |
First Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amem, may I love,</td>
<td>amemus, let us love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amēs, may you love,</td>
<td>amētis, may you love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amēt, let him love</td>
<td>ament, let them love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amārem, I should love,</td>
<td>amāremus, we should love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amārēs, you would love,</td>
<td>amārētis, you would love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāret, he would love;</td>
<td>amārent, they would love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PERFECT.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāverim, I may have loved,</td>
<td>amāverimus, we may have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāversus, you may have loved,</td>
<td>amāverītis, you may have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverit, he may have loved;</td>
<td>amāverint, they may have loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLUPERFECT.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāvissem, I should have loved,</td>
<td>amāvissēmus, we should have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvissent, you would have loved,</td>
<td>amāvissētis, you would have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvisset, he would have loved;</td>
<td>amāvissent, they would have loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERATIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Fut.</th>
<th>1 For declension of amāns, see § 70. 3.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amor, love thou;</td>
<td>amor, he shall love;</td>
<td>amor, love ye.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. amor, thou shalt love,</td>
<td>amantō, he shall love;</td>
<td>amantō, ye shall love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PARTICIPLE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. amor, to love.</th>
<th>Fut. amātūrus, about to love.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. amor, to love.</td>
<td>(Gen. amantūs.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. amātūrus esse, to be about to love.</td>
<td>Fut. amātūrus, about to love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GERUND.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gen. amandūr, of loving,</th>
<th>Acc. amor, to love,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dat. amor, for loving,</td>
<td>Abl. amor, by loving,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. amor, loving,</td>
<td>Abl. amor, to love, be loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. amor, by loving.</td>
<td>Abl. amor, to love, be loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

FIRST (OR Ā--) CONJUGATION.

102. Passive Voice.—Amor, I am loved.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amor</td>
<td>amāī</td>
<td>amātus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amor</td>
<td>amāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāris</td>
<td>amāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātur</td>
<td>amantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I was loved.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābāris, or -re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābātur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUTURE.</th>
<th>I shall be loved.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāberis, or -re</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābitur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERFECT.</th>
<th>I have been loved or I was loved.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus (-a, -um) sum(^1)</td>
<td>amātī (-ae, -a) sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus es</td>
<td>amātī estis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus est</td>
<td>amātī sunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLUPERFECT.</th>
<th>I had been loved.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus eram(^1)</td>
<td>amātī erāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erās</td>
<td>amātī erātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erat</td>
<td>amātī erant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUTURE PERFECT.</th>
<th>I shall have been loved.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus erō(^1)</td>
<td>amātī erīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus eris</td>
<td>amātī erītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erit</td>
<td>amātī erunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

\(^1\) Ful, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc. So fueram, fuerās, etc., for eram, etc.; fuerō, etc., for erō, etc.
**First Conjugation.**

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>amér</em></td>
<td><em>amémur</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amérís, or -re</em></td>
<td><em>amémín</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amétur</em></td>
<td><em>amëntur</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>amérer</em></td>
<td><em>amérëmur</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amérëría, or -re</em></td>
<td><em>amérëmin</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amérëtúr</em></td>
<td><em>amérëntur</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PERFECT.**
*I may have been loved.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>amá̂tus sím</em> (^1)</td>
<td><em>amá̂tús símus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amá̂tus sís</em></td>
<td><em>amá̂tís sítis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amá̂tus sít</em></td>
<td><em>amá̂tís sint</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**
*I should have been loved, he would have been loved.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>amá̂tus essem</em> (^1)</td>
<td><em>amá̂tís essëmus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amá̂tus essís</em></td>
<td><em>amá̂tís essëtis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amá̂tus essét</em></td>
<td><em>amá̂tís essënt</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Fut.</th>
<th>IMPERATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>amäře, be thou loved;</em></td>
<td><em>amá̂tor, thou shalt be loved,</em></td>
<td><em>amä̂tor, be ye loved.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amä̂tor, he shall be loved;</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>amantor, they shall be loved.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>amäř, to be loved.</em></td>
<td><em>amá̂tus, loved, having been loved.</em></td>
<td><em>amá̂tum im, to be about to be loved.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amá̂tus esse, to have been loved.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Gerundive. amandus, to be loved, deserving to be loved.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) Fuerim, etc., are sometimes used for sím; so fuisset, etc., for essem.
Inflections.

SECOND (OR E-) CONJUGATION.


PRINCIPAL PARTS.

moneō    monere    monui    monitus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

moneō         monēmus
monēs         monētis
monēt

Imperfect.

I was advising, or I advised.
monebāmum     monēbāmus
monēbās       monēbātis
monēbat

Future.

I shall advise.
monebō        monēhimus
monēbis      monēbitis
monēbit

Perfect.

I have advised, or I advised.
moneō         monuimus
monuistiī    monuistis
monuēt

Pluperfect.

I had advised.
monueram     monuerāmus
monuerās    monuerātis
monuerat

Future Perfect.

I shall have advised.
moneerō     monuerimus
monuerīs    monuerītis
monuerit
Second Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I advise, let him advise.

SINGULAR.  PLURAL.
monēam  monēamus
monēās  monēātis
monēat  monēant

IMPERFECT.

I should advise, he would advise.

monērem  monēremus
monērēs  monērētis
monēret  monērent

PERFECT.

I may have advised.

monuerim  monuerimus
monuerīs  monuerītis
monuerit  monuerint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have advised, he would have advised.

monuissem  monuissemus
monuisseīs  monuisseītis
monuisset  monuisset

IMPERATIVE

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

Pres.  monēte, advise ye.
Fut.  monētōte, ye shall advise,
      monētōt, they shall advise.

INFINITIVE.

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

PARTICIPLE.

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

GERUND.

Gen.  monēndī, of advising,
Dat.  monēndō, for advising,
Acc.  monēndum, advising,
Abl.  monēndō, by advising.

SUPINE.

Acc.  monitūnum, to advise.
Abl.  monītī, to advise, be advised.
SECOND (OR Ė-) CONJUGATION.

104. Passive Voice.— Moneor, I am advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. Ind</th>
<th>Pres. Inf.</th>
<th>Perf. Ind</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneor</td>
<td>monēri</td>
<td>monitus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.  
I am advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneor</td>
<td>monēmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēris</td>
<td>monēmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monētur</td>
<td>monēntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.  
I was advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monēbar</th>
<th>monēbāmur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēbāris, or -re</td>
<td>monēbāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbātur</td>
<td>monēbantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FUTURE.  
I shall be advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monēbor</th>
<th>monēbimur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēberis, or -re</td>
<td>monēbimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbitur</td>
<td>monēbuntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PERFECT.  
I have been advised, I was advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monitus sum</th>
<th>monītī sumus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus es</td>
<td>monītī estis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus est</td>
<td>monītī sunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLUPERFECT.  
I had been advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monitus eram</th>
<th>monītī eramus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus erās</td>
<td>monītī erātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erat</td>
<td>monītī erant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FUTURE PERFECT.  
I shall have been advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monitus erē</th>
<th>monītī erēmus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus erīs</td>
<td>monītī erītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erīt</td>
<td>monītī erunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Second Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.
May I be advised, let him be advised.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.
monear monēamur
moneāris, or -re monēāmini
moneātur monēantur

Imperfect.
I should be advised, he would be advised.
moneārer monēāremur
moneāris, or -re monēāremini
moneārentur

Perfect.
I may have been advised.
monitus sim monitis simus
monitus als monitis sitis
monitus sit monitis sint

Pluperfect.
I should have been advised, he would have been advised.
monitus essem monitis essēmus
monitus essēs monitis essētis
monitus esset monitis essent

Imperative.
Pres. monēre, be thou advised; monēmini, be ye advised.
Fut. monētor, thou shalt be advised,
monētor, he shall be advised. monēntor, they shall be advised.

Infinitive.
Pres. monēri, to be advised.
Perf. monitus esse, to have been advised.
Fut. monitum ēri, to be about to be advised.

Participle.
Perfect. monitus, advised, having been advised.
Gerundive. monēndus, to be advised, deserving to be advised.
Inflections.

THIRD (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION.


PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regō</td>
<td>regere</td>
<td>rēxi</td>
<td>rēctus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th></th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I rule.</td>
<td></td>
<td>regitus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Imperfect.

I was ruling, or I ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I was ruling, or I ruled.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I was ruling, or I ruled.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future.

I shall rule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future</th>
<th></th>
<th>Present Tense.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall rule.</td>
<td></td>
<td>regent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perfect.

I have ruled, or I ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th></th>
<th>Future. Present Tense.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have ruled.</td>
<td></td>
<td>rēxi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pluperfect.

I had ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pluperfect.</th>
<th></th>
<th>I have ruled.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had ruled.</td>
<td></td>
<td>rēxeram</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future Perfect.

I shall have ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future Perfect.</th>
<th></th>
<th>I shall have ruled.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I shall have ruled.</td>
<td></td>
<td>rēxerō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

rēxiris
rēxerat
Third Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I rule, let him rule.

SINGULAR.
regam  PLURAL.
regámus
regás  regátis
regat

IMPERFECT.

I should rule, he would rule.

regerem  regerémus
regerés  regeréstis
regeret  regerent

PERFECT.

I may have ruled.

rēxerim  rēxerīmus
rēxeris  rēxerītis
rēxerit  rēxerīnt

PLUPERFECT.

I should have ruled, he would have ruled.

rēxissem  rēxissemus
rēxisse  rēxisstis
rēxisset  rēxissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. rege, rule thou;  regite, rule ye.
Fut. regitō, thou shalt rule,  regitōte, ye shall rule,
       reguntō, they shall rule.

INFINITIVE.

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

PARTICIPLE.

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

GERUND.

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

SUPINE.

Acc. rēctum, to rule,
Abl. rēctā, to rule, be ruled.
Inflections.

THIRD (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION


PRINCIPAL PARTS.

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

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am ruled.</td>
<td>regimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regor</td>
<td>regimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regeřis</td>
<td>reguntur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regitur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

I was ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regobar</td>
<td>regobamur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regobaris, or -re</td>
<td>regobamini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regobatur</td>
<td>regobantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FUTURE.

I shall be ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regar</td>
<td>regemur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regaris, or -re</td>
<td>regemini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regetur</td>
<td>regentur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PERFECT.

I have been ruled, or I was ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rectus sum</td>
<td>rectus sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus es</td>
<td>rectus estis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus est</td>
<td>rectus sunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLUPERFECT.

I had been ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rectus eram</td>
<td>rectus eramus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus eras</td>
<td>rectus eratis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus erat</td>
<td>rectus erant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have been ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rectus erō</td>
<td>rectus erimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus eris</td>
<td>rectus eritis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rectus erit</td>
<td>rectus erunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Third Conjugation.

### Subjunctive.

#### Present.

*May I be ruled, let him be ruled.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regar</td>
<td>regāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regāris, or -re</td>
<td>regāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regātur</td>
<td>regantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperfect.

*I should be ruled, he would be ruled.*

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regērēr</td>
<td>regērāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regērēris, or -re</td>
<td>regērāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regērētur</td>
<td>regērērentur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Perfect.

*I may have been ruled.*

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēctus sim</td>
<td>rēctus simus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēctus sīa</td>
<td>rēctus sīdas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēctus sīt</td>
<td>rēctus sīnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Pluperfect.

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

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēctus essem</td>
<td>rectī essemus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēctus essēs</td>
<td>rectī essētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēctus esset</td>
<td>rectī essent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative.

Pres. regere, be thou ruled;

Fut. regitor, thou shalt be ruled,

reguntor, they shall be ruled.

### Infinitive.

Pres. rege, to be ruled.

Perf. rēctus esse, to have been ruled.

Fut. rēctum ēri, to be about to be ruled.

### Participle.

Perfect. rēctus, ruled, having been ruled.

Gerundive. regendus, to be ruled, deserving to be ruled.
Inflections.

FOURTH (OR Ī-) CONJUGATION.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPAL PARTS.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres. Ind.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Pres. Inf.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiō</td>
<td>audīre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiō</td>
<td>audiōmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīs</td>
<td>audiōtis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīt</td>
<td>audiōunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

| audiōbam    | audiōbāmus|
| audiōbās    | audiōbātis|
| audiōbat    | audiōbant |

**Future.**

| audiēam    | audiēmus  |
| audiēs     | audiētis  |
| audīet     | audiēunt  |

**Perfect.**

| audīvī      | audīvīmus  |
| audīvistī   | audīvistīs |
| audīvit     | audīvīrunt, or -ère |

**Pluperfect.**

| audiōveram  | audiōverāmus|
| audiōverās  | audiōverātis|
| audiōverat  | audiōverant |

**Future Perfect.**

| audiōverō   | audiōverīmus|
| audiōverēs  | audiōverītis|
| audiōverit  | audiōverīnt |
Fourth Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.
May I hear, let him hear.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiam</td>
<td>audiamus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīās</td>
<td>audīātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiant</td>
<td>audiant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.
I should hear, he would hear.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīrēm</td>
<td>audīrēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīrēs</td>
<td>audīrētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīrēt</td>
<td>audīrent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PERFECT.
I may have heard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīverīm</td>
<td>audīverīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīverīs</td>
<td>audīverītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīverīt</td>
<td>audīverīnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīvissem</td>
<td>audīvissemus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvissēs</td>
<td>audīvissētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvisset</td>
<td>audīvisset</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERATIVE.

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

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

INFINITIVE.

Pres. audīre, to hear.
Perf. audīisse, to have heard.
Fut. audītūras esse, to be about to hear.

PARTICLE.

Pres. audīēns, hearing.
(Gener. audīentēs.)
Fut. audītūrus, about to hear.

GERUND.

Gen. audīendī, of hearing,
Dat. audīendō, for hearing,
Acc. audīendum, hearing,
Abl. audīendō, by hearing.

SUPINE.

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

FOURTH (OR Ī-) CONJUGATION.


PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pers. Ind. Pres. Inf Perf. Ind
audior audīrī auditus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular. I am heard. Plural.
audior audīmur
audīrī audīmini
audītūr audīuntur

Imperfect. I was heard.

audīēbar audiēbāmur
audīērīs, or -re audiēbāmini
audīētūr audiēbantur

Future. I shall be heard.

audiār audiēmur
audiērīs, or -re audiēmini
audiētūr audiēntur

Perfect. I have been heard, or I was heard.

auditus sum auditīf sumus
auditus es auditīf ētis
auditus est auditīf sunt

Pluperfect. I had been heard.

auditus eram auditīf erāmus
auditus erās auditīf erātis
auditus erat auditīf erant

Future Perfect. I shall have been heard.

auditus erō auditīf erīmus
auditus erīs auditīf erītis
auditus erit auditīf erīnt
Fourth Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiāre</td>
<td>audiāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiāris, or -re</td>
<td>audiāminf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiātūr</td>
<td>audiāntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

I should be heard, he would be heard.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiārer</td>
<td>audiāremur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiāres, or -re</td>
<td>audiāreminf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiāretur</td>
<td>audiārentur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PERFECT.

I may have been heard.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiētus sim</td>
<td>audiētis simus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiētus sis</td>
<td>audiētis sīsis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiētus sit</td>
<td>audiētis sīt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLUPERFECT.

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

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiētus esse</td>
<td>audiētis esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiētus essēs</td>
<td>audiētis essēsis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiētus esset</td>
<td>audiētis essent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audiēre, be thou heard; audiēminf, be ye heard.

Fut. audiētor, thou shalt be heard, audiētuntor, they shall be heard.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. audiēre, to be heard.

Perf. audiētūs esse, to have been heard.

Fut. audiētūm esse, to be about to be heard.

PARTICIPLE.

Perfect. audiētus, heard, having been heard.

Gerundive. audiēndus, to be heard, deserving to be heard.
VERBS IN -IŌ OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

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

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

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

**PRINCIPAL PARTS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiō</td>
<td>capere</td>
<td>cēpī,</td>
<td>captus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

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

**Imperfect.**

| capiēbam, -iēbās, -iēbat; | capiēbāmus, -iēbātis, -iēbant. |

**Future.**

| capiām, -iēs, -iēt; | capiēmus, -iētis, -iēt. |

**Perfect.**

| cēpī, -isti, -iēt; | cēpimus, -isti, -erunt or -ēre. |

**Pluperfect.**

| cēperam, -erās, -erat; | cēperāmus, -erātis, -erant. |

**Future Perfect.**

| cēperō, -eris, -erit; | cēperimus, -eritis, -erint. |
Verbs in -īō of the Third Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR.

Present.

caπlām, -īäs, -īāt;

caπlāmus, -īātis, -īānt.

Imperfect.

caperēmus, -ērētis, -ērēnt.

Perfect.

cēperīmus, -ērītis, -ērīnt.

Pluperfect.

cēpissēmus, -ēssētis, -ēssent.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. cape;

Fut. capítō,

capiuntō.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. capere.

Perf. cēpisse.

Fut. captūrus esse.

GERUND.

Gen. capiendi,

Dat. capiendō,

Acc. capiendum,

Abl. capiendō.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. capiēns.

Fut. captūrus.

PARTICIPLE.

SUPINE.

111. Passive Voice.— Capior, I am taken.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

capior,

Pres. Inf.

capi

Perf. Ind.

captus sum.

PLURAL.

capimur, caplimini, capiuntur.

Imperfect.

capiēbamur, -ēbāmini, -ēbantur.

Future.

capiēmur, -ēmini, -ēnuntur.
Inflections.

Singular.

captus sum, es, est;

captus eram, eras, erat;

captus erō, eris, erit;

Plural.
captī sumus, estis, sunt.
captī erāmus, erātis, erant.
captī erīmus, eritis, erunt.

Pluperfect.
captus erō, eris, erit;

Future Perfect.
captus erō, eris, erit;

Pluperfect.
captus erō, eris, erit;

Subjunctive.

Present.
capiār, -āris, -ātur;
capiāmur, -āmini, -āntur.

Imperfect.
caperēr, -erēris, -erētur;
caperēmur, -erēmini, -erēntur.

Perfect.
captus sīm, sīs, sit;
captī sīmus, sītis, sīnt.

Pluperfect.
captus essēm, essēs, essēt;
captī essēmus, essētis, essēnt.

Imperative.

Pres. capere;
Fut. capitor,
capitor;

Infinitive.

Pres. capī.
Perf. captus esse.
Fut. captum ēri.

Participle.

Perfect. captus.
Gerundive. capiendus.

Deponent Verbs.

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

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

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

sequendus, to be followed; adeptus, attained.
Deponent Verbs.

113. Paradigms of Deponent Verbs are —

I. Conj. mīor, mīrārī, mīrātus sum, admitō.
II. Conj. vereor, verērī, veritus sum, feār.
III. Conj. sequor, sequī, secūtus sum, follow.
IV. Conj. largior, largīrī, largītus sum, give.
III. (in -ior) patior, patī, passus sum, suffer.

### INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>III.</th>
<th>IV.</th>
<th>III (in -ior).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mīor</td>
<td>vereor</td>
<td>sequor</td>
<td>largior</td>
<td>patior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrārī</td>
<td>verēris</td>
<td>sequeris</td>
<td>largiris</td>
<td>pateris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrātur</td>
<td>verētur</td>
<td>sequitur</td>
<td>largitur</td>
<td>patitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrāmūr</td>
<td>verēmūr</td>
<td>sequimūr</td>
<td>larginūr</td>
<td>patimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrāmini</td>
<td>verēmini</td>
<td>sequiminī</td>
<td>largiminī</td>
<td>patiminī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrantur</td>
<td>verentur</td>
<td>sequuntur</td>
<td>largiuntur</td>
<td>patiuntur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impf.</td>
<td>mīrābar</td>
<td>verēbar</td>
<td>sequēbar</td>
<td>largēbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>mīrābōr</td>
<td>verēbor</td>
<td>sequar</td>
<td>largiar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. mīrātus sum</td>
<td>veritus sum</td>
<td>secūtus sum</td>
<td>largitus sum</td>
<td>passus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. mīrātus eram</td>
<td>veritus eram</td>
<td>secūtus eram</td>
<td>largitus eram</td>
<td>passus eram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. mīrātus erō</td>
<td>veritus erō</td>
<td>secūtus erō</td>
<td>largitus erō</td>
<td>passus erō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SUBJUNCTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>III.</th>
<th>IV.</th>
<th>III (in -ior).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mīer</td>
<td>verear</td>
<td>secur</td>
<td>largiar</td>
<td>patiar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīrer</td>
<td>verērer</td>
<td>sequerer</td>
<td>largier</td>
<td>paterer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. mīrātus sim</td>
<td>veritus sim</td>
<td>secūtus sim</td>
<td>largius sim</td>
<td>passus sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. mīrātus essem</td>
<td>veritus essem</td>
<td>secūtus essem</td>
<td>largius essem</td>
<td>passus essem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IMPERATIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>III.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mīrāre</td>
<td>verēre</td>
<td>sequeere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. mīrātor</td>
<td>verētor</td>
<td>sequitur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### INFINITIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>III.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mīrārī</td>
<td>verērī</td>
<td>sequef</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. mīrātus esse</td>
<td>veritus esse</td>
<td>secūtus esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. mīrātūrus esse</td>
<td>veritūrus esse</td>
<td>secūtūrus esse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PARTICIPLES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>III.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mīrāns</td>
<td>verēns</td>
<td>sequēns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. mīrātūrus</td>
<td>veritūrus</td>
<td>secūtūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. mīrātus</td>
<td>veritus</td>
<td>secūtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ger. mīrandus</td>
<td>verendus</td>
<td>sequendus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### GERUND.

| mīrandi, | verendi | sequendi |
| mīrandō, etc. | verendō, etc. | sequendō, etc. |

### SUPINE.

| mīrātum, -ī | veritum, -ī | secūtum, -ī |
| largitum, -ī | passum, -ī |
Inflections.

Semi-Deponents.

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

audeō, audĕre, ausus sum, to dare.
gaudēō, gaudĕre, gāvisus sum, to rejoice.
soleō, solĕre, solitus sum, to be wont.
fidēō, fidere, fiusus sum, to trust.

2. The following verbs have a Perfect Passive Participle with Active meaning:

adolēscō, grow up; adultus, having grown up.
cēnāre, dine; cēnātus, having dined.
placēre, please; placitus, having pleased, agreeable.
prandēre, lunch; prānusus, having lunched.
pōtēre, drink; pōtus, having drunk.
jūrāre, swear; jūrātus, having sworn.

a. Jūrātus is used in a passive sense also.

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

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

Periphrastic Conjugation.

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

Active Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. amatūrus (-a, -um) sum, I am about to love.
Imp. amatūrus eram, I was about to love.
Fut. amatūrus erō, I shall be about to love.
Perf. amatūrus erit, I have been (was) about to love.
Plup. amatūrus fueram, I had been about to love.
Fut. P. amatūrus fuerō, I shall have been about to love.
Peculiarities of Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. amātūrus sim, may I be about to love.
Imp. amātūrus essem, I might be about to love.
Perf. amātūrus fuerim, I may have been about to love.
Plup. amātūrus fuisset, I might have been about to love.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amātūrus esse, to be about to love.
Perf. amātūrus fuisset, to have been about to love.

Passive Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE.

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

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. amandus sim, may I 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 fuisset, I might have deserved to be loved.

INFINITIVE.

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

PECULIARITIES OF CONJUGATION.

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

amāvīstī amāstī dēlēvīstī dēlēstī
amāvisse amāsse dēlēvisse dēlēsse
amāvērunt amārunt dēlēvērunt dēlērunt
amāverim amārim dēlēverim dēlērim
amāveram amāram dēlēveram dēlēram
amāverō amārō dēlēverō dēlērō
nōvīstī nōstī nōverim nōrim
nōvisse nōsse nōveram nōram
audīvīstī audīstī audīvisse audīsse
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. Dicō, dūcō, faciō, form the Imperatives, dicō, dūcō, fac. But compounds of faciō form the Imperative in -ōce, as cōnōce. Compounds of dicō, dūcō, accent the ultima; as, ēducō, ēducē.

4. Archaic and Poetic forms:
   a. The ending -ier in the Present Infinitive Passive; as, amāriēr, monēriēr, dicier, for amāriēr, monēriēr, dicier.
   b. The ending -ībam for -ībām in Imperfects of the Fourth Conjugation, and -ībō for -īam in Futures; as, scībām, scībō, for scīēbam, sciam.
   c. Instead of the fuller forms, in such words as dīxistī, scripsistis, surrēxisse, we sometimes find dīxī, scripsīs, surrēxē, etc.
   d. The endings -im, -īs, etc. (for -am, -ās, etc.) occur in a few Subjunctive forms; as, edīm (eat), duīnt, perduīnt.

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, dicēre, dūcēre, amāre, monēre, audīre. Others form the Present Stem variously, as follows:

1. By appending the vowels, ā, ē, ĩ; as, —
   juvāre, Present Stem juvā- (Verb Stem juv-).
   augēre, " " augē- (" " aug-).
   vincēre, " " vincē- (" " vinc-).

2. By adding i, as capiō, Present Stem capi- (Verb Stem cap-).

3. By the insertion of n (m before labial-mutes) before the final consonant of the Verb Stem; as, fundō (Stem fu-), rumpō (Stem rup-).

4. By appending -n to the Verb Stem; as, —
   cern-ō pell-ō (for pel-nō).

¹ Strictly speaking, the Present Stem always ends in a Thematic Vowel (ō or ō); as, dic-ō, dic-ō; amā-ō, amā-ō. But the multitude of phonetic changes involved prevents a scientific treatment of the subject here. See the Author's Latin Language.
Formation of the Verb Stems.

5. By appending t to the Verb Stem; as,—
   flect-ō.

6. By appending sc to the Verb Stem; as,—
   cōsc-ō,    scisc-ō.

7. By Reduplication, that is, by prefixing the initial consonant of
   the Verb Stem with i; as,—
   gi-igō (root gen-),    si-stō (root sta-).

Formation of the Perfect Stem.

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

1. By adding v (in case of Vowel Stems); as,—
   amāv-ī,    dēlēv-ī,    audīv-ī.

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

3. By adding a (in case of most Consonant Stems); as,—
   carp-ā, Perfect carpa-ī.
   sorīb-ō, “ sorips-ī (for sorīb-sī).
   rīd-eō, “ rīs-ī (for rīd-sī).
   sent-īō, “ sēns-ī (for sent-ī).
   dīx-ō, “ dīx-ī (i.e. dīx-sī).

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

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

   a) The Verb Stem is reduplicated by prefixing the initial con-
      sonant with the following vowel or e; as,—
      currō, Perfect cu-currī.
      pelīō, “ pe-pulī.

   NOTE 1. — Compounds, with the exception of dō, stō, sitō, discō, poscoā,
      omit the reduplication. Thus: com-pulī, but re-poscī.

   NOTE 2. — Verbs beginning with ap or at retain both consonants in the re-
      duplication, but drop a from the stem; as, spondaē, spo-pondī; stō, stētī.

   b) The short vowel of the Verb Stem is lengthened; as, legō, legī;
      agō, agī. Note that ā by this process becomes ē.

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

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

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

amā-re, Participle amā-tus.
dēlē-re, “ dēlē-tus.
audī-re, “ audī-tus.
leg-ere, “ leuk-tus.
scīb-ere, “ scrip-tus.
sentī-re, “ sēn-sus (for sent-tus).
caed-ere, “ cae-sus (for caed-tus).

a. Note that g, before t, becomes c (see § 8, 5); b becomes p; while dt or tt becomes ss, which is then often simplified to s (§ 8, 2).

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

lab-ī, Participle lab-sus.
fig-ere, “ fl-xus.

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

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

domā-re, dom-tus.
monē-re, mon-tus.

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

juvā-re, Perf. Partic. jūtus, has Fut. Act. Partic. juvātūrus.¹

¹ But the compounds of juvō sometimes have -jūtūrus; as, adjūtūrus.
LIST OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS, WITH PRINCIPAL PARTS.

First (ā-) Conjugation.

1. PERFECT IN -āī.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amō</td>
<td>amāre</td>
<td>amāvi</td>
<td>amātus</td>
<td>lovel</td>
<td>pōtē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All regular verbs of the First Conjugation follow this model.

II. PERFECT IN -ūī.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>crepō</td>
<td>crepāre</td>
<td>crepuī</td>
<td>crepitūrus</td>
<td>rattile</td>
<td>cubō</td>
<td>cubāre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fricō</td>
<td>fricāre</td>
<td>fricuī</td>
<td>frictus and fricātus</td>
<td>rub</td>
<td>micō</td>
<td>micāre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dimicō</td>
<td>dimicāre</td>
<td>dimicāvi</td>
<td>dimicātum (est)</td>
<td>fight</td>
<td>ex-plicō</td>
<td>explicāre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secō</td>
<td>secāre</td>
<td>secuī</td>
<td>sectus</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>sonō</td>
<td>sonāre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tonō</td>
<td>tonāre</td>
<td>tonuī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>thunder</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vetō</td>
<td>vetāre</td>
<td>vetuī</td>
<td>vetitus</td>
<td>forbid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. PERFECT IN -ī WITH LENGTHENING OF THE STEM VOWEL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>juvō</td>
<td>juvāre</td>
<td>jūvi</td>
<td>jūtus</td>
<td>help</td>
<td>lavō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. PERFECT REDUPLICATED.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>stō</td>
<td>stāre</td>
<td>steti</td>
<td>stātūrus</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V. DEponents.

These are all regular, and follow mtrō, mtrāt, mtrātus sum.

Second (ē-) Conjugation.

1. PERFECT IN -ēī.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dēleō</td>
<td>dēlēre</td>
<td>dēlevi</td>
<td>dēletus</td>
<td>destroy</td>
<td>fēleō</td>
<td>fēlēre</td>
<td>fēlevi</td>
<td>fēletus</td>
<td>weave, lament</td>
<td>com-planō</td>
<td>complāre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Used only impersonally.
2 So implēō, explēō.
3 Compounds follow the Fourth Conjugation: accū, accēre, etc.
II. Perfect in -UI.

a. Type -oë, -ère, -uï, -itus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arceō</td>
<td>arceère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coercēō</td>
<td>coercère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exercēō</td>
<td>exercère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calceō</td>
<td>calère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>careō</td>
<td>carère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doleō</td>
<td>dolère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habēō</td>
<td>habère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>débeō</td>
<td>débère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praebēō</td>
<td>praebère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jaceō</td>
<td>jacère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mereō</td>
<td>merère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moñeō</td>
<td>monère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noceō</td>
<td>nocère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pāreō</td>
<td>pâreère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>placeō</td>
<td>placère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taceō</td>
<td>tacère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>terreō</td>
<td>terrère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>valeō</td>
<td>valère</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1. — The following lack the Participial Stem:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>egeo</td>
<td>egère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>émineō</td>
<td>éminère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flōreō</td>
<td>flôrère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horreō</td>
<td>horrère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>latēō</td>
<td>latère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>niteō</td>
<td>nître</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oleō</td>
<td>olère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>palleō</td>
<td>pallère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patēō</td>
<td>patère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rubēō</td>
<td>rubère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>silēō</td>
<td>silère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>splendeō</td>
<td>splendère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>studēō</td>
<td>studère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stupeō</td>
<td>stupère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>timeō</td>
<td>timère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>torpeō</td>
<td>torpère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vigeō</td>
<td>vigère</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vireō</td>
<td>virère</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and others.
List of the Most Important Verbs.

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

aveō  avère  ——  ——  wish
frigeō  frigère  ——  ——  be cold
immineō  immínère  ——  ——  overhang
maereō  maërère  ——  ——  mourn
polleō  pollère  ——  ——  be strong

and others.

b. Type -eō, -ère, -uē, -tus (-sus).

cēnseō  cēnsère  cēnsuē  cēnus  estimate
doceō  docère  docuē  doctus  teach
miscēō  miscère  miscuē  mixtus  mix
tenēō  tenère  tenuē  ——  hold

So contineō and sustineō; but —

retineō  retinère  retinuē  retentus  retain
obtineō  obtinère  obtinuē  obtentus  maintain

torreō  torère  torruē  tostus  bake

III. Perfect in -sē.

augeō  augère  auxī  auctus  increase
torqueō  torquère  torsī  tortus  twist
indulgeō  indulgère  indulsī  ——  indulge
lūceō  lúcère  lūxī  ——  be light
lūgeō  lūgère  lūxī  ——  mourn
jubeō  jubère  jussī  jussus  order
per-mulceō  permulcère  permulsī  permulus  soothe
rideō  ritère  risī  risum (est)  laugh
suādeō  suādere  suāsī  suāsum (est)  advise
abs-tergeō  abstergère  abstersī  abstersus  wipe off
ärdeō  ärdere  ärīsī  ärāsūs  burn
haereō  haerère  haesī  haesūs  stick
maneō  manère  mãnsī  mãnsūs  stay
algeō  algère  alsī  ——  be cold
fulgeō  fulgère  fulsī  ——  gleam
urgeō  urgère  ursī  ——  press

IV. Perfect in -ś with Replication.

mordeō  mordère  momordō  morsus  bite
spondeō  spondère  spopondō  spōnsus  promise
tondeō  tondère  totondō  tonsus  shear
peundeō  peundère  pepeundō  ——  hang
**Inflections.**

V. **Perfect in -ē with Lengthening of Stem Vowel.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Stem Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>caveō</td>
<td>cavēre</td>
<td>cāvī</td>
<td>cautūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faveō</td>
<td>favēre</td>
<td>fāvī</td>
<td>fautūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foveō</td>
<td>fovēre</td>
<td>fōvī</td>
<td>fōtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moveō</td>
<td>movēre</td>
<td>mōvī</td>
<td>mōtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paveō</td>
<td>pavēre</td>
<td>pāvī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sedeō</td>
<td>sedēre</td>
<td>sēdī</td>
<td>sessūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>videō</td>
<td>vidēre</td>
<td>vīdī</td>
<td>visus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voveō</td>
<td>vovēre</td>
<td>vōvī</td>
<td>vōtus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Stem Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Stem Past of Infinitive</th>
<th>Past Participle of Infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fervēre</td>
<td>fervēre</td>
<td>(fervī fervī)</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>boil</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prandēre</td>
<td>prandēre</td>
<td>prandī</td>
<td>prānsus (§ 114, 2)</td>
<td>lunch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strideō</td>
<td>stridēre</td>
<td>strīdī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>creak</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VII. **Deponents.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Stem Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Stem Past of Infinitive</th>
<th>Past Participle of Infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>liceor</td>
<td>licēri</td>
<td>licius sum</td>
<td>bid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>polliceor</td>
<td>pollicērī</td>
<td>pollicitus sum</td>
<td>promise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mereor</td>
<td>merērī</td>
<td>meritus sum</td>
<td>earn</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>misereor</td>
<td>misērī</td>
<td>miseritus sum</td>
<td>pity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vereor</td>
<td>verērī</td>
<td>veritus sum</td>
<td>fear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fateor</td>
<td>fātērī</td>
<td>fassus sum</td>
<td>confess</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confiteor</td>
<td>confītērī</td>
<td>confissus sum</td>
<td>confess</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reor</td>
<td>rērī</td>
<td>ratus sum</td>
<td>think</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medecor</td>
<td>medērī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>heal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tueor</td>
<td>tuērī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>protect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Third (Consonant) Conjugation.**

122. I. **Verbs with Present Stem Ending in a Consonant.**

1. **Perfect in -ē.**

   a. **Type -ē, -ēre, -ēsī, -tus.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Stem Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Stem Past of Infinitive</th>
<th>Past Participle of Infinitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>carpō</td>
<td>carpēre</td>
<td>carpsī</td>
<td>carptus</td>
<td>pluck</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sculptō</td>
<td>sculptēre</td>
<td>sculpṭī</td>
<td>sculptūs</td>
<td>chisel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēpō</td>
<td>rēpere</td>
<td>rēpsī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>creep</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serpō</td>
<td>serpere</td>
<td>serpsī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>crawl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scribō</td>
<td>scribēre</td>
<td>scripsī</td>
<td>scriptūs</td>
<td>write</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nūbō</td>
<td>nūbere</td>
<td>nūpsī</td>
<td>nūptā (woman only)</td>
<td>marry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regō</td>
<td>regere</td>
<td>rēxī</td>
<td>rēctus</td>
<td>govern</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of the Most Important Verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tegō</th>
<th>tegere</th>
<th>tēxī</th>
<th>tēctus</th>
<th>cover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>at-fligō</td>
<td>affigere</td>
<td>affīxī</td>
<td>affīctus</td>
<td>shatter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dicō</td>
<td>dicere</td>
<td>dīxī</td>
<td>dictus</td>
<td>say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dúcō</td>
<td>dúcere</td>
<td>dúxī</td>
<td>ductus</td>
<td>lead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coquo</td>
<td>coquere</td>
<td>coxī</td>
<td>coctus</td>
<td>cook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trahō</td>
<td>trahere</td>
<td>trāxī</td>
<td>trāctus</td>
<td>draw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vehō</td>
<td>vehere</td>
<td>vexī</td>
<td>vectus</td>
<td>carry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cingō</td>
<td>cingere</td>
<td>cinxī</td>
<td>cinctus</td>
<td>gird</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tingō</td>
<td>tingere</td>
<td>ĭnxī</td>
<td>ĭncitus</td>
<td>dip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jungō</td>
<td>jungere</td>
<td>ĭnxī</td>
<td>ĭncitus</td>
<td>join</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fingō</td>
<td>fingere</td>
<td>ĭnxī</td>
<td>ĭctus</td>
<td>mould</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pingō</td>
<td>pingere</td>
<td>ĭnxī</td>
<td>ĭctus</td>
<td>paint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stringō</td>
<td>stringere</td>
<td>strīnxī</td>
<td>strīctus</td>
<td>bind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-stinguō</td>
<td>-stinguere</td>
<td>-stīnxī</td>
<td>-stīctus</td>
<td>blot out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unguō</td>
<td>unguere</td>
<td>ĭnxī</td>
<td>ĭncitus</td>
<td>anoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vivō</td>
<td>vivere</td>
<td>vīxī</td>
<td>vīctum (est)</td>
<td>live</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gerō</td>
<td>gerere</td>
<td>gessī</td>
<td>gestus</td>
<td>carry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>úrō</td>
<td>ūrere</td>
<td>ussī</td>
<td>ūstus</td>
<td>burn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>temnō</td>
<td>temnere</td>
<td>con-tempsi</td>
<td>con-temptus</td>
<td>despise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Type -ē, -ēre, -ēi, -ēsus.

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

1 Fully conjugated only in the compounds: exstinguō, restinguō, distinguō.

2 Only in the compounds: ēvādō, invādō, pervādō.
2. Perfect in -ē with Reduplication.

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
ab-dō & abdēre & abdīdi & abdītus & conceal \\
red-dō & red-dēre & reddīdi & reddītus & return \\
\end{array}
\]

So addō, condō, dedō, perdō, prōdō, trādō, etc.

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
cōn-sīstō & cōnsistere & cōнстити & — & take one’s stand \\
resistō & resistere & reﬆити & — & resist \\
circumsistō & circumsistere & circumстви & — & surround \\
cadō & cadere & cecidī & cāsūrus & fall \\
caedō & caedere & cecidī & caesus & kill \\
pendō & pendere & pencendī & pēnsus & weigh, pay \\
tendō & tendere & tetendī & tentus & stretch \\
tundō & tundere & tutudī & tūsus, tūnsus & beat \\
fallō & fallere & fetellī & (falsus, as Adj.) deceive \\
pellō & pellere & pepullī & pulsus & drive out \\
currō & currere & currī & cursum (est) & run \\
parcō & parcere & pepercī & parsūrus & spare \\
canō & canere & cecinī & — & sing \\
tangō & tangere & tetigī & tāctus & touch \\
pungō & pungere & pупugī & pūnctus & prick \\
\end{array}
\]

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

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
per-cellō & percellere & perculī & perculus & strike down \\
findō & findere & fidī & fissus & split \\
scindō & scindere & scidī & scissus & tear apart \\
tollō & tollere & sus-tuli & sublātus & remove \\
\end{array}
\]

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

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
agō & agere & ēgī & āctus & drive, do \\
peragō & peragere & perēgī & perāctus & finish \\
subigō & subigere & subēgī & subāctus & subdue \\
cōgō & cōgere & coēgī & coāctus & force, gather \\
frangō & frangere & frēgī & frāctus & break \\
perfringō & perfringere & perfrēgī & perfrāctus & break down \\
legō & legere & légī & lēctus & gather, read \\
perlegō & perlegere & perlegī & perlecōtus & read through \\
colligō & colligere & collēgī & collēctus & collect \\
dēligō & dēligere & dēlēgī & dēlecōtus & choose \\
dilīgō & diligere & dilēxī & dilēctus & love \\
intellegō & intellegere & intellexī & intellecōtus & understand \\
neglegō & negligere & neglexī & neglecōtus & neglect \\
\end{array}
\]
List of the Most Important Verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>emō</td>
<td>emere</td>
<td>ēmī</td>
<td>ēmpītus</td>
<td>buy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coēmō</td>
<td>coēmere</td>
<td>coēmī</td>
<td>coēmpītus</td>
<td>buy up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>redimō</td>
<td>redimere</td>
<td>redēmī</td>
<td>redēmpītus</td>
<td>buy back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dirimō</td>
<td>dirimere</td>
<td>dirēmī</td>
<td>dirēmpītus</td>
<td>destroy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēmō</td>
<td>dēmere</td>
<td>dēmpī</td>
<td>dēmpītus</td>
<td>take away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sūmō</td>
<td>sūmere</td>
<td>sūmpī</td>
<td>sūmpītus</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōmō</td>
<td>prōmere</td>
<td>prōmpī</td>
<td>(prōmpītus, as Adj.)</td>
<td>take out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vincō</td>
<td>vincere</td>
<td>vīcī</td>
<td>vīctus</td>
<td>conquer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-linquō</td>
<td>reliquere</td>
<td>reliquī</td>
<td>reflēctus</td>
<td>leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rumpō</td>
<td>rumpere</td>
<td>rūpī</td>
<td>ruptūs</td>
<td>break</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>edō</td>
<td>ēsse</td>
<td>ēdī</td>
<td>ēsus</td>
<td>eat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fundō</td>
<td>fundere</td>
<td>fūdī</td>
<td>fūsus</td>
<td>pour</td>
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4. Perfect in -ī without either Reduplication or Lengthening of Stem-Vowel.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Meaning</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>excūdō</td>
<td>excūdere</td>
<td>excūdī</td>
<td>excūsus</td>
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<tr>
<td>cōnsīdō</td>
<td>cōnsīdere</td>
<td>cōnsīdī</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possīdō</td>
<td>possīdere</td>
<td>possīdī</td>
<td>possessīsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accendō</td>
<td>accendere</td>
<td>accendī</td>
<td>accēnsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a-scendiō</td>
<td>ascendiō</td>
<td>ascendī</td>
<td>ascēnsum (est)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dē-fendō</td>
<td>défendere</td>
<td>défendī</td>
<td>défēnsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre-hendō</td>
<td>prehendere</td>
<td>prehendī</td>
<td>prehēnsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>icō</td>
<td>icere</td>
<td>īcī</td>
<td>īctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vellō</td>
<td>vellere</td>
<td>vellī</td>
<td>vulsus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vertō</td>
<td>vertere</td>
<td>vertī</td>
<td>versus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pandō</td>
<td>pandere</td>
<td>pandī</td>
<td>passus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>solvere</td>
<td>solvī</td>
<td>solūtus</td>
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<tr>
<td>visō</td>
<td>visere</td>
<td>visī</td>
<td>visūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volvō</td>
<td>volvere</td>
<td>volvī</td>
<td>volūtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verrō</td>
<td>verrere</td>
<td>verrī</td>
<td>versus</td>
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</table>

5. Perfect in -ui.

<table>
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<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>incumbō</td>
<td>incumbere</td>
<td>incubūtī</td>
<td>incubūtūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ignō</td>
<td>ignere</td>
<td>genuī</td>
<td>genitus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>molō</td>
<td>molere</td>
<td>molūtī</td>
<td>molūtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vomō</td>
<td>vomere</td>
<td>vomūtī</td>
<td>vomītus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fremō</td>
<td>fremere</td>
<td>fremūtī</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gemō</td>
<td>gemere</td>
<td>genuī</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metō</td>
<td>metere</td>
<td>messūtī</td>
<td>messūs</td>
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</table>
### Inflections.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin Root</th>
<th>Inflection</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tr>
<td>tremō</td>
<td>tremere</td>
<td>tremuī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strepō</td>
<td>strepere</td>
<td>strepuī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alō</td>
<td>alere</td>
<td>aluī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colō</td>
<td>colere</td>
<td>coluī</td>
</tr>
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<td>incolō</td>
<td>incolere</td>
<td>incoluī</td>
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<td>excolō</td>
<td>excolere</td>
<td>excoluī</td>
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<td>cōnsulō</td>
<td>cōnsulere</td>
<td>cōnsuluī</td>
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<td>cōnserere</td>
<td>cōnseruī</td>
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<tr>
<td>déserō</td>
<td>déserere</td>
<td>déseruī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disserō</td>
<td>disserere</td>
<td>disseruī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>texō</td>
<td>texere</td>
<td>texuī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Perfect in -vi.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin Root</th>
<th>Inflection</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sinō</td>
<td>sinere</td>
<td>sīvī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>désinō</td>
<td>désinere</td>
<td>désiī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pōnō</td>
<td>pōnere</td>
<td>posuī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ob-linō</td>
<td>oblinere</td>
<td>oblēvī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serō</td>
<td>serere</td>
<td>sēvī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnserō</td>
<td>cōnserere</td>
<td>cōnsēvī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cernō</td>
<td>cernere</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discernō</td>
<td>discernere</td>
<td>discrēvī</td>
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<tr>
<td>décernō</td>
<td>décernere</td>
<td>décrēvī</td>
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<td>spernō</td>
<td>spernere</td>
<td>sprēvī</td>
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<tr>
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<td>sternere</td>
<td>strāvī</td>
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<tr>
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<td>prōsternere</td>
<td>prōstrāvī</td>
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<tr>
<td>petō</td>
<td>petere</td>
<td>petīvī (petīī)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appetō</td>
<td>appetere</td>
<td>appetīvī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turō</td>
<td>terere</td>
<td>trīvī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quaecrō</td>
<td>quaercere</td>
<td>quaesīvī</td>
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<td>acquirō</td>
<td>acquirere</td>
<td>acquisīvī</td>
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<tr>
<td>arcessō</td>
<td>arcessere</td>
<td>arcessīvī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capessō</td>
<td>capessere</td>
<td>capessīvī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lacesśō</td>
<td>lacesśere</td>
<td>lacesśīvī</td>
</tr>
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</table>

7. Used only in Present System.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin Root</th>
<th>Inflection</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>angō</td>
<td>angere</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lambō</td>
<td>lambere</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>claudō</td>
<td>claudere</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>furō</td>
<td>furere</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vergō</td>
<td>vergere</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and a few others.
List of the Most Important Verbs.

II. Verbs with Present Stem ending in -U.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
<th>Aorist</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>induō</td>
<td>induere</td>
<td>induī</td>
<td>indūtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imbō</td>
<td>imbure</td>
<td>imbuī</td>
<td>imbūtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luō</td>
<td>luere</td>
<td>luī</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>polluō</td>
<td>polluere</td>
<td>polluī</td>
<td>pollūtus</td>
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<td>minuō</td>
<td>minuere</td>
<td>minuī</td>
<td>minūtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statuō</td>
<td>statuere</td>
<td>statuī</td>
<td>statūtus</td>
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<td>constituō</td>
<td>cōnstituere</td>
<td>cōnstituī</td>
<td>cōnstitūtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suō</td>
<td>suere</td>
<td>suī</td>
<td>sūtus</td>
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<td>tribuō</td>
<td>tribuere</td>
<td>tribuī</td>
<td>tribūtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ruō</td>
<td>ruere</td>
<td>ruī</td>
<td>ruītūs</td>
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<tr>
<td>diruō</td>
<td>diruere</td>
<td>diruī</td>
<td>dirūtus</td>
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<tr>
<td>obruō</td>
<td>obruere</td>
<td>obruī</td>
<td>obrūtus</td>
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<td>acuō</td>
<td>acuere</td>
<td>acuī</td>
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<td>arguere</td>
<td>arguī</td>
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<td>congruere</td>
<td>congruī</td>
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</tr>
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<td>metuere</td>
<td>metuī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>ab-nuō</td>
<td>abnuere</td>
<td>abnuī</td>
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<td>repuī</td>
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<td>struīxī</td>
<td>struēctus</td>
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<td>flūō</td>
<td>flure</td>
<td>flūxī</td>
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</table>

III. Verbs with Present Stem ending in -I.

<table>
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<th>Aorist</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>cupiō</td>
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<td>cupītus</td>
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<td>saipō</td>
<td>sapere</td>
<td>sapivī</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>rapiō</td>
<td>rapere</td>
<td>rapuī</td>
<td>raptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diripō</td>
<td>diripere</td>
<td>diripuī</td>
<td>direptus</td>
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<td>conspicō</td>
<td>conspicere</td>
<td>conspexī</td>
<td>conspectus</td>
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<td>aspicō</td>
<td>aspicere</td>
<td>aspexī</td>
<td>aspectus</td>
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<td>illiciō</td>
<td>illicere</td>
<td>illexī</td>
<td>illectus</td>
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<td>pellicere</td>
<td>pellexī</td>
<td>pelllectus</td>
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<td>eliciō</td>
<td>elicere</td>
<td>elicuī</td>
<td>elícticus</td>
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<td>quatiō</td>
<td>quatere</td>
<td>——</td>
<td>quassus</td>
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<td>concussus</td>
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<td>cēpī</td>
<td>captus</td>
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<td>accēpī</td>
<td>acceptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incipiō</td>
<td>incipere</td>
<td>incēpī</td>
<td>inceptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faciō</td>
<td>facere</td>
<td>fēcī</td>
<td>factus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>afficiō</td>
<td>afficere</td>
<td>affēcī</td>
<td>affectus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Passive, afficior, affici, affectus sum
So other prepositional compounds, perficiō, perficior; interfecī, interficior; etc. But—

assuēfacciō assuētere assuēfēci assuēfactus accusō
Pattīce, assuēfō, assuēfēri, assuēfactus sum.

So also patēfacciō, patēfō; calefacciō, calefō; and all non-prepositional com-
pounds.

jacōi jacerē jēcī jactus hurī
abiciōi abicere abīcē abjectus throw away
fodiōi fodere fōdī fossus dig
fugiōi fugere fūgī fugitūrus flee
effugiōi effugere effūgī escape

IV. Verbs in -scō.

1. Verbs in -scō from Simple Roots.

poscō poscere pospōsci demand
discō discere didicī learn
pasco pascere pāvī pāstus feed
pāscor pāscē pāstus sum graze
crēscō crēscere crēvī crētus grow
cōnsuēscō cōnsuēscere cōnsuēvī cōnsuēctus accustom one’s self
quiēscō quiēscere quiēvī quiētūrus be still
adolescō adolescere adolesvī adultus grow up
obsolescō obsolescere obsolevī grow old
nōscō nōscere nōvī become acquainted
{ become acquainted
ignōscō ignōscere ignōvī ignōtūrus pardon
{ with
agnōscō agnōscere agnōvī agnitus recognize

cognōscō cognōscere cognōvī cognitus get acquainted
{ with

2. Verbs in -scō formed from other Verbs.

These usually have Inchoative or Inceptive meaning (see § 155. 1).
When they have the Perfect, it is the same as that of the Verbs from
which they are derived.

flōrēscō flōrēscere flōrūi begin to bloom (flōreō)
sciscō sciscere scivī enact (sciō)
ārēscō ārēscere ārūi become dry (āreō)
calēscō calēscere calūi become hot (caleō)
cōnsenēscō cōnsenēscere cōnsenuī grow old (senēō)
extrimēscō extrimēscere extimuii fear greatly (timeō)
ingemisscō ingemisscere ingemuī sigh (gemō)
adhaerēscō adhaerēscere adhaesi stick (haereō)
List of the Most Important Verbs.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>obdūrēscō</td>
<td>obdūrēscere</td>
<td>grow hard</td>
<td>(dūrus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ėvānēscō</td>
<td>ėvānescere</td>
<td>disappear</td>
<td>(vānus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>percēbrēscō</td>
<td>percēbrēscere</td>
<td>grow fresh</td>
<td>(crēber)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mātūrēscō</td>
<td>mātūrēscere</td>
<td>grow ripe</td>
<td>(mātūrus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obmūtēscō</td>
<td>obmūtēscere</td>
<td>grow dumb</td>
<td>(mūtus)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V. Deponents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fungor</td>
<td>fungī</td>
<td>function sum</td>
<td>perform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quor</td>
<td>querī</td>
<td>questus sum</td>
<td>complain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loquor</td>
<td>loquī</td>
<td>locūtus sum</td>
<td>speak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sequor</td>
<td>sequī</td>
<td>secūtus sum</td>
<td>follow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fruor</td>
<td>frūī</td>
<td>frūtūrus</td>
<td>enjoy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perfruor</td>
<td>perfrūī</td>
<td>perfrūctus sum</td>
<td>thoroughly enjoy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lābor</td>
<td>lābī</td>
<td>lāpus sum</td>
<td>glide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amplerctor</td>
<td>amplerctī</td>
<td>amplexus sum</td>
<td>embrace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nitor</td>
<td>nītī</td>
<td>nīsus sum, nīxus sum</td>
<td>strive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gradior</td>
<td>gradī</td>
<td>gressus sum</td>
<td>walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patior</td>
<td>patī</td>
<td>passus sum</td>
<td>suffer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perpetior</td>
<td>perpetī</td>
<td>perpassus sum</td>
<td>endure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūtor</td>
<td>ūtī</td>
<td>īsus sum</td>
<td>use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>morior</td>
<td>morī</td>
<td>mortuus sum</td>
<td>die</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adipiscor</td>
<td>adipiscī</td>
<td>adeptus sum</td>
<td>acquire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comminiscor</td>
<td>comminisci</td>
<td>commentus sum</td>
<td>invent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reminiscor</td>
<td>reminisci</td>
<td>——</td>
<td>remember</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nanciscor</td>
<td>nancisci</td>
<td>nactus (nactus) sum</td>
<td>acquire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nāscor</td>
<td>nāsci</td>
<td>nātus sum</td>
<td>be born</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obliviscor</td>
<td>oblivisci</td>
<td>oblitus sum</td>
<td>forget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paciscor</td>
<td>pacisci</td>
<td>pactus sum</td>
<td>covenant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>profisciscor</td>
<td>profisciści</td>
<td>profectus sum</td>
<td>set out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ulisciur</td>
<td>ulisciū</td>
<td>ulius sum</td>
<td>avenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irāscor</td>
<td>irāsci</td>
<td>(Irātus, as Adj.)</td>
<td>be angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vescor</td>
<td>vescī</td>
<td>——</td>
<td>eat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fourth Conjugation.

123. I. Perfect ends in -vī.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiō</td>
<td>audīre</td>
<td>audīvi</td>
<td>audītus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So all regular Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation.

sepellō | sepellīre | sepellìvi | sepellitus | bury |
II. Perfect ends in -uī.
aperīō aperīre aperūī apertus open
operīō operīre operūī opertus cover
saliō salīre salūī —— leap

III. Perfect ends in -sī.
saepīō saepīre saepūsī saeptus hedge in
sancīō sancīre sānxisī sanctus ratify
vincīō vincīre vīnxisī vincitus bind
amīcīō amīcīre ——— amictus envelop
fulcīō fulcīre fulxisī fultus prop up
refercīō refercīre referstī referptus fill
sarciō sarciō sarstī sartus patch
haurīō haurīre haustī haustus draw
sentiō sentīre sēnsī sēnus feel

IV. Perfect in Ī with Lengthening of Stem Vowel.
venīō venīre vēnī ventum (est) come
advenīō advenīre advēnī adventum (est) arrive
invenīō invenīre invēnī inventus find

V. Perfect with Loss of Reduplication.
reperīō reperīre repīrī repertus find
comperīō comperīre compīrī compertus learn

VI. Used Only in the Present.
ferīō ferīre ——— ——— strike
ēsurīō ēsurīre ——— ——— be hungry

VII. Deponents.
largior largīrī largītus sum bestow
expierō experīrī expertus sum try
oppierō opperīrī oppertus sum await
Īrīō ṭīrīrī ċūrsus sum begin
orīō orīrī ortus sum arise

Orior usually follows the Third Conjugation in its inflection; as, orēris, orīitur, orīmus; orēre (Imp. Subj.); orere (Imper.).
mētor mētrī mēnus sum measure
assentior assentīrī assēnsus sum assent
Irregular Verbs.

Irregular Verbs.

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>absum</th>
<th>abesse</th>
<th>āfui</th>
<th>am absent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. Partic. absēns (absentis), absent.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adsum</td>
<td>adesse</td>
<td>adfui</td>
<td>am present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>désum</td>
<td>deesse</td>
<td>defui</td>
<td>am lacking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insum</td>
<td>inesse</td>
<td>īfui</td>
<td>am in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intersum</td>
<td>interesse</td>
<td>interfui</td>
<td>am among</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praesum</td>
<td>praesesse</td>
<td>praeferiu</td>
<td>am in charge of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. Partic. praesēns (praesentis), present.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obsum</td>
<td>obesse</td>
<td>obfui</td>
<td>hinder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prósum</td>
<td>prōdesse</td>
<td>prōfui</td>
<td>am of advantage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subsum</td>
<td>subesse</td>
<td>subfui</td>
<td>am underneath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supersum</td>
<td>superesse</td>
<td>superfui</td>
<td>am left</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

Principal Parts.

possum, posse, potuī, to be able.

Indicative Mood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. possum, potes, potest; possumus, potestis, possunt.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. poteram; poterāmus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. poterō; poterimus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. potuī; potuimus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperf. potueram; potuerāmus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future P. potuerō; potuerimus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>possim, possis, possit; possimus, possitis, possint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong></td>
<td>possem; possēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>potuerim; potuerimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plup.</strong></td>
<td>potuissem; potuissemus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE.**

**Pres.** posse.

**Perf.** potuisse.

127. **Dō, I give.**

**ACTIVE VOICE.**

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>dō, dās, dat; dāmus, dātis, dant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong></td>
<td>dābam, etc.; dābāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>dābō, etc.; dābimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>dēdi; dedīmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plup.</strong></td>
<td>dēderam; dēderāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut. P.</strong></td>
<td>dēderō; dēderimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>dem; dēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong></td>
<td>dārem; dārēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>dēderim; dēderīmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plup.</strong></td>
<td>dēdissem; dēdissemus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>dā; dāte.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>dātō; dātōte.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE.**

**PARTICIPLE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>dāre. dāns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>dedisse. dētūrus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>dātūrus esse. dātūrō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GERUND.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dandi, etc.</td>
<td>dātum, dātā.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Irregular Verbs.

1. The Passive is inflected regularly with the short vowel. Thus: däri, dätur, däbätur, däätur, etc.

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

128. Edō, 1 cat.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
edō, esse, edē, ăsus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. edō edimus
ēs ēstis
ēst edunt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. ēssem ēssēmus
ēssēs ēssētis
ēsset ēssent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ēs ēste
Ist. ēstō ēstōte

INFINITIVE.

Pres. esse

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. 3d Sing. ēstur

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. 3d Sing. ēssētur

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

2. Note oomedō, commēse, comēdī, commēsus or commēstus, consume.

3. The Present Subjunctive has edim, ēs, ēt, etc., less often ēdam, ēs, etc.
**Inflections.**

### 129. Ferō, I bear.

**PRINCIPAL PARTS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>ferō, fers, fert;</th>
<th>ferintus, ferts, ferunt.¹</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>ferēbam;</td>
<td>ferebānus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>ferēm;</td>
<td>ferēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>tulī;</td>
<td>tulīmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>tuleram;</td>
<td>tulerāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P.</td>
<td>tulerō;</td>
<td>tulerimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Active Voice.**

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

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

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

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

**IMPERATIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>fer;</th>
<th>ferte.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>fertō;</td>
<td>fertōte.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fertō;</td>
<td>feruntō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>ferre.</th>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>ferēns.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>tulisse.</td>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>lāturūs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>lāturūs esse.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GERUND.**

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

**PARTICIPLE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gen.</th>
<th>lātum.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>lātū.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUPINE.**

---

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

Passive Voice.

feror, firrī, ītus sum, to be borne.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong> feror, ferris, fertur;</td>
<td>ferimur, ferimini, feruntur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong> ferēbar;</td>
<td>ferēbāmur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong> ferar;</td>
<td>ferēmur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong> ītus sum;</td>
<td>ītī sumus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plup.</strong> ītus eram;</td>
<td>ītī erāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut. P.</strong> ītus erō;</td>
<td>ītī erimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

| **Pres.** ferar; | ferāmur.           |
| **Imp.** ferrer; | ferēmur.           |
| **Perf.** ītus sim; | ītī simus.         |
| **Plup.** ītus esse; | ītī essēmus.       |

IMPERATIVE.

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

INFINITIVE.

| **Pres.** firri. |
| **Perf.** ītus esse. |
| **Fut.** ītum iri. |

PARTICIPLE.

| **Perf.** lātus. |
| **Ger.** ferendus. |

So also the Compounds —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>afferō</th>
<th>afferre</th>
<th>atuli</th>
<th>allātus</th>
<th>bring toward</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>auferō</td>
<td>auferre</td>
<td>abstuli</td>
<td>ablatus</td>
<td>take away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conferō</td>
<td>conferre</td>
<td>contuli</td>
<td>collatus</td>
<td>compare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>differō</td>
<td>differre</td>
<td>distuli</td>
<td>dilatus</td>
<td>put off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>efferō</td>
<td>efferre</td>
<td>extuli</td>
<td>ēlatus</td>
<td>carry out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inferō</td>
<td>inferre</td>
<td>intuli</td>
<td>illātus</td>
<td>bring against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>offerō</td>
<td>offerre</td>
<td>obtuli</td>
<td>oblatus</td>
<td>present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>referō</td>
<td>referre</td>
<td>retuli</td>
<td>relātus</td>
<td>bring back</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** — The forms sustulī and sublātus belong to tollō.
## Inflections.

### 130. Volô, nôlô, mâlô.

**Principal Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Volô</th>
<th>Velle</th>
<th>Voluf</th>
<th>To wish.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nôlô</td>
<td>Nôlle</td>
<td>Nôluf</td>
<td>To be unwilling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mâlô</td>
<td>Mâlle</td>
<td>Mâluf</td>
<td>To prefer.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Indicative Mood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Volô</th>
<th>Nôlô</th>
<th>Mâlô</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>vis</td>
<td>nôn vis</td>
<td>mâvis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vult;</td>
<td>nôn vult;</td>
<td>mâvult;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>volumus;</td>
<td>nôlumus;</td>
<td>mâlumus;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vultis;</td>
<td>nôn vultis;</td>
<td>mâvultis;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>volunt.</td>
<td>nôlunt.</td>
<td>mâlunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>volêbam.</td>
<td>nôlêbam.</td>
<td>mâlêbam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>volam.</td>
<td>nôlam.</td>
<td>mâlam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>volui.</td>
<td>nôlui.</td>
<td>mâlui.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>volueram.</td>
<td>nôlueram.</td>
<td>mâlueram.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P.</td>
<td>voluerô.</td>
<td>nôluerô.</td>
<td>mâluerô.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subjunctive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Volim, -is, -it, etc.</th>
<th>Nôlim.</th>
<th>mâlim.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>vellem, -ës, -et, etc.</td>
<td>Nôllem.</td>
<td>mâllem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>volucrim.</td>
<td>Nôluerim.</td>
<td>mâluerim.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Volô, Nolite.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>nôli, nolite.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>nôlitô; nôluntô.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive.

|-------|--------|--------|--------|

### Participle.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Volëns.</th>
<th>Nôlëns.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Irregular Verbs.

131.

FIō.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

fiō, fierī, factus sum, to become, be made.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

Pres. fiō, fis, fit;
Imp. fiēbum;
Fut. fiām;
Perf. factus sum;
Plup. factus erām;
Fut. P. factus erō;

PLURAL.

fīmus, fītis, fīunt.
fiēbāmus.
fiēmus.
factī sumus.
factī erāmus.
factī erimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. fīam;
Imp. fierem;
Perf. factus sim;
Plup. factus essem;

Pres. fīamus.
fierēmus.
factī simus.
factī essēmus.

IMPETATIVE.

Pres. fi;

fīte.

FINFINITIVE.

Pres. fierī.
Perf. factus esse.
Fut. factum irī.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. factus.
Perf. factus.
Ger. faciendus.

NOTE. — A few isolated forms of compounds of fiō occur; as,
dēfēt, lāckis; infet, begins.

132.

Eō.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

eō, ire, itī, itum (est), to go.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

Pres. eō, is, it;
Imp. ibām;
Fut. ibō;
Perf. īvī (ii);
Plup. īveram (ieram);
Fut. P. īverō (ierō);

PLURAL.

īmus, itis, eunt.
ibāmus.
ibimus.
īvimus (īimus).
īverāmus (ierāmus).
īverimus (ierimus).
Inflections.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.
Pres. eam; eāmus.
Imp. īrem; ĕremus.
Perf. iverim (icerim); iverimus (icerimus).
Plup. ivissem (issem, issem); ivissetum (issesum, issemus).

IMPERATIVE.
Pres. i; ite.
Fut. ītō; ītote,
iū; euntō.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.
Perf. ivisse (isse). (Gen. euntis.)

GERUND. SUPINE.
eundi, etc. itum, ītū.

i. Transitive compounds of ēō admit the full Passive inflection; as, adeor, adīris, adītur, etc.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

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

133. Used mainly in the Perfect System.

I have begun. Meminī, I remember. Īāi, I hate.

 INDICATIVE MOOD.

Perf. coepī. meminī.
Plup. coeperam. memineram.
Fut. P. coeperō. meminerō.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perf. coeperim. meminerim.
Plup. coepissem. memenissem.

IMPERATIVE.
Sing. mementō; Plur. mementōte.
Defective Verbs.

INFinitive.

Perf. coepisse. meminisce. ōdisse.
Fut. coeptūrus esse. ōsūrus esse.

Participle.

Perf. coeptus, begun. ōsus.
Fut. coeptūrus. ōsūrus.

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

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

Indicative Mood.

SingulAr. Plural.
Pres. inquam, —
inquis, —
inquit; inquiunt.
Fut. —
inquiēs, —
inquiet. —

Perf. 3d Sing. inquit.

135. Ajō, I say.

Indicative Mood.

SingulAr. Plural.
Pres. ajō, —
aīs, —
aīt; ajunt.
Imp. ajēbām, ajēbāmus,
ajēbās, ajēbātis,
ajēbat; ajēbant.

Perf. 3d Sing. aīt.

Subjunctive.

Pres. 3d Sing. aīat.

Note. — For aīsne, do you mean? aīn is common
136. Fāri, to speak.

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

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fātur.</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>fābor,</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fābītur.</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>fāre.</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inf.</td>
<td>fāri.</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. Partic.</td>
<td>fantis, fantī, etc.</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerund, G.</td>
<td>fandi; D. and Abl., fandō.</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerundive,</td>
<td>fandus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE.** — Forms of fāri are rare. More frequent are its compounds; as, — affātūr, he addresses; praefāmur, we say in advance.

137. Other Defective Forms.

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

2. Quaesō, I entreat; quaeomus, we entreat.

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

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

5. Havē (avē), havēte, 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, mē pudet hōc fāceisse, lit. it shames me to have done this; hōc decet, this is fitting. Here belong —

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

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

II. Special Verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>French</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>French</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>French</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>grandinat</td>
<td>——</td>
<td>ningit</td>
<td>ninxit</td>
<td>pluit</td>
<td>pluit</td>
<td>it hails</td>
<td>it snows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paenitet</td>
<td>paenitère</td>
<td>paenituit</td>
<td>piget</td>
<td>pigère</td>
<td>piguit</td>
<td>it repents</td>
<td>it grieves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pudet</td>
<td>pudère</td>
<td>puduit</td>
<td>taedet</td>
<td>taedere</td>
<td>taeduit</td>
<td>it disgusts</td>
<td>it causes pity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miscret</td>
<td>miserère</td>
<td>miseruit</td>
<td>libet</td>
<td>libère</td>
<td>libuit</td>
<td>it pleases</td>
<td>it is lawful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>licet</td>
<td>licère</td>
<td>licuit</td>
<td>oportet</td>
<td>oportère</td>
<td>oportuit</td>
<td>it is fitting</td>
<td>it is becoming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decet</td>
<td>decère</td>
<td>decuit</td>
<td>dédecet</td>
<td>dédecèrre</td>
<td>dédecuit</td>
<td>it is unbecoming</td>
<td>it concerns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>réfert</td>
<td>réferrer</td>
<td>rētulit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. Verbs Impersonal only in Special Senses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cōnstat</td>
<td>cōnstāre</td>
<td>cōstitit</td>
<td>praestat</td>
<td>praestāre</td>
<td>praestīt</td>
<td>juvat</td>
<td>juvāre</td>
<td>jūvit</td>
<td>it is evident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apparēt</td>
<td>appārère</td>
<td>appāruit</td>
<td>placet</td>
<td>placère</td>
<td>placuit (placitum est)</td>
<td>it appears</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accēdit</td>
<td>accēderē</td>
<td>accessit</td>
<td>accidit</td>
<td>accidere</td>
<td>accidit</td>
<td>it is added</td>
<td>it happens</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contingit</td>
<td>contingere</td>
<td>contigit</td>
<td>évēnital</td>
<td>évēnēre</td>
<td>évēnit</td>
<td>it turns out</td>
<td>it concerns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interest</td>
<td>interesse</td>
<td>interfuit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. The Passive of Intransitive Verbs; as,—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>itur</td>
<td></td>
<td>curritur</td>
<td></td>
<td>ventum est</td>
<td></td>
<td>veniendum est</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lit. it is gone</td>
<td>i.e. some one goes</td>
<td>lit. it is run</td>
<td>i.e. some one runs</td>
<td>lit. it has been come</td>
<td>i.e. some one has come</td>
<td>lit. it must be come</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PART III.

PARTICLES.

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

ADVERBS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative and Interrogative</th>
<th>Demonstrative</th>
<th>Indefinite</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ubi, where; where?</td>
<td>hic, here</td>
<td>alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alasquam, alasquam, alicubi, alas quam, someplace.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quō, whither; whither?</td>
<td>hōc, hither</td>
<td>alicuō, to some place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unde, whence; whence?</td>
<td>hinc, hence</td>
<td>alicounde, from somewhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quā, where; where?</td>
<td>hāc, by this way.</td>
<td>aliqua, by some way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oun, when.</td>
<td>nunc, now.</td>
<td>alicuandū, umquam, sometime, ever.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quandō, when?</td>
<td>tum, tunc, then.</td>
<td>aliqua, some number of times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quotiens, as often as; how often?</td>
<td>totiēns, so often.</td>
<td>aliqua, some number of times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quam, as much as; how much?</td>
<td>tam, so much.</td>
<td>aliqua, somewhat.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Prepositions.

**PREPOSITIONS.**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ad, to</td>
<td>contra, against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adversus, against</td>
<td>erga, toward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adversum, toward</td>
<td>extra, outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ante, before</td>
<td>inter, between</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apud, with, near</td>
<td>intra, within</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circum, around</td>
<td>juxta, near</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circiter, about</td>
<td>ob, on account of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circum, around</td>
<td>penes, in the hands of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cts. this side of</td>
<td>per, through</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>citra, this side of</td>
<td>pone, behind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post, after</td>
<td>praeter, past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prope, near</td>
<td>propter, on account of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secundum, after</td>
<td>subtuer, beneath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>super, over</td>
<td>suprav, above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>versus, toward</td>
<td>trans, across</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>versus, toward</td>
<td>ultrav, beyond</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

   usque ad urbem, even to the city.

2. Versus always follows its case; as,—

   Röamam versus, toward Rome.

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

   ad urbem versus, toward the city.

3. Like prope, the Comparatives proplor, propius, and the Superlatives proximus, proximē, sometimes govern the Accusative; as,—

   Ubii proximē Rhēnum incolunt, the Ubii dwell next to the Rhine; propius castra hostium, nearer the camp of the enemy.

142. The following Prepositions govern the Ablative:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ast, ab, abs, from, by</td>
<td>cum, with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>absque, without</td>
<td>de, from, concerning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōram, in the presence of</td>
<td>e, ex, from, out of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praē, before</td>
<td>tenus, up to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prō, in front of, for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sine, without</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

mēcum  nōbiscum  quōcum or cum quō
tēcum  vōbiscum  quācum or cum quā
sēcum  quībiscum or cum quibus

On quīcum, see § 89, Footnote 1.

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

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

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

144. Relation of Adverbs and Prepositions.

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

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

clam, pridiē, with the Accusative.
procul, simul, palam, with the Ablative.

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

ēf, quōs inter erat, those among whom he was.
Anastrophe occurs chiefly with disyllabic prepositions.

Conjunctions and Interjections.

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

2. Interjections express emotion. Thus:—

1. Surprise; as, ūn, ecce, ō.
2. Joy; as, iō, euoe.
3. Sorrow and Pain; as, heu, ēheu, vae, prō.
4. Calling; as, heus, eho.
PART IV.

WORD-FORMATION.

I. DERIVATIVES.

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

A. NOUNS.

1. Nouns derived from Verbs.

147. 1. The suffix -tor (-sor), Fem. -trix, denotes the agent; as,—

victor, victrix, vicit;

dēfensor, defender.

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

gladiator, gladiator (from gladius).

2. The suffix -or (originally -ōs) denotes an activity or a condition; as,—

amor, love;
timor, fear;
dolor, pain.

3. The suffixes -tīō (-tiō), Gen. -ōnis, and -tus (-tus), Gen. -ās, denote an action as in process; as,—

vēnātiō, hunting; obsesiiō, blockade; gemitus, sighing; cursus, running.

Note.—Rarer endings with the same force are:—

a) -tūra, -sūra; as,—

sepultūra, burial; mensūra, measuring.

b) -lum; as,—

gaudium, rejoice.

c) -lōs, as,—

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

lūmen (lūc-a-men), light; vocābulum, word;
ōrnāmentum, ornament; documentum, proof;
sepulcrum, grave; arātrum, plough;
vehiculum, carriage.

2. Nouns derived from Nouns.

148. 1. Diminutives end in—

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

as,—
nīdulus, little nest (nīdus);
virgula, wand (virga);
oppidulum, little town (oppidum);
fīliolus, little son (filius);
opscolum, little work (opus);
tabella, tablet (tabula);
lapillus, pebble (lapis).

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

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

agellus, field, for ager-lus;
lapillus, pebble, for lapid-lus.

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 (collēga);
sacerdōtium, priestly function (sacerdōs).

3. The suffixes -ārium, -ātum, -āle designate a place where objects are kept or are found in abundance; as,—
columbārium, dove-cote (columba);
olivātum, olive-orchard (oliva);
ovīle, sheep-fold (ovis).
Nouns. — Adjectives.

4. The suffix -átus denotes official position or honor; as,—
cônsulátus, consulship (cônsul).

5. The suffix -îna appended to nouns denoting persons designates a
vocation or the place where it is carried on; as,—
doctrîna, teaching (doctor, teacher);
medicîna, the art of healing (medicus, physician);
sûtrîna, cobbler’s shop (sûtor, cobbler).

6. Patronymics are Greek proper names denoting son of . . .,
daughter of . . . . They have the following suffixes: —
   a) Masculines: -idês, -adês, -îdês; as, Priamidês, son of
         Priam; Æneadês, son of Æneas; Pêlidês, son of Peleus.
   b) Feminines: -îs, -is, -ias; as, Nêrîs, daughter of Nereus;
         Atlantîs, daughter of Atlas; Thaumantìas, daughter of
         Thaumas.

3. Nouns derived from Adjectives.

149. The suffixes -tâs (-tâs), -tûdô (-tûdô), -îa, -îtia are used
for the formation of abstract nouns denoting qualities; as,—
bonîtâs, goodness; celerîtâs, swiftness; magnîtûdô, greatness;
audâ-
cia, boldness; amîoîtia, friendship.

B. ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives derived from Verbs.

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

2. The suffixes -âx and -ûlus denote an inclination or tendency,
mostly a faulty one; as,—
loquâx, loquacious;       orêdûlus, credulous.

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

4. The suffixes -îlis and -bîlis 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) From Common Nouns.

151. 1. The suffixes -eus and -inus are appended to names of substances or materials; as, —

aureus, of gold; ferreus, of iron; fāginus, of beech.

2. The suffixes -īus, -īcus, -īlis, -ālis, -āris, -ārius, -īnus, -īvus, -ēn̄sis signify belonging to, connected with; as, —

ōrātōrius, oratorical; legiōnārius, legionary;
bellīcus, pertaining to war; paternus, paternal;
civīlis, civil; urbānus, of the city;
regālis, regal; mariīnus, marine;
cōnsulāris, consular; aestīvus, pertaining to summer;
circēnīs, belonging to the circus.

3. The suffixes -ōsus and -entus denote fullness; as, —

periŏculōsus, full of danger; gloriōsus, glorious;
dangerous; opulentus, wealthy.

4. The suffix -tus has the force of provided with; as, —

barbātus, bearded; stellātus, set with stars.

b) From Proper Names.

152. 1. Names of persons take the suffixes: -ānus, -ānua, -īnus; as, —

Catōlānus, belonging to Cato; Plautīnus, belonging to Plautus.

2. Names of nations take the suffixes -īcus, -īlus; as, —

Germanicus, German; Thrācius, Thracian.

3. Names of places take the suffixes -ānus, -īnus, -ēn̄sia, -aeus, -īnus; as, —

Rōmānus, Roman; Athēnēn̄sia, Athenian;
Amerīnus, of America; Smyrnaeaus, of Smyrna;
Corinthius, Corinthian.

Note. — -ānus and -ēn̄sia, appended to names of countries, designate something stationed in the country or connected with it, but not indigenous; as, —

bellumĀfricānum, a war (of Romans with Romans) in Africa.
bellum Hispāniēn̄se, a war carried on in Spain.
legiōnēs Gallicānae (Roman) legions stationed in Gaul.
Adjectives. — Verbs.

3. Adjectives derived from Adjectives.

153. Diminutives in -lus sometimes occur; as,—
parvolus, little;
misellus (passer), poor little (sparrow);
pauperculus, needy.

4. Adjectives derived from Adverbs.

154. These end in -ernus, -ternus, -tinus, -tinus; as,—
hodiernus, of to-day (hodiê);
hesternus, of yesterday (hertê);
intestinus, internal (intus);
diûtinus, long-lasting (diû).

C. VERBS.

1. Verbs derived from Verbs.

155. 1. Inceptives or Inchoatives. These end in -scô, and are formed from Present Stems. They denote the beginning of an action; as,—
labôscô, begin to totter (from labô);
horrôscô, grow rough (from horrôscô);
tremôscô, begin to tremble (from tremô);
obdormôscô, fall asleep (from dormô).

2. Frequentatives or Intensives. These denote a repeated or energetic action. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in - tô or -ô. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in -itô (not -atô, as we should expect). Examples of Frequentatives are —
jactô, toss about, brandish (from jacitô, hurl);
cursô, run hither and thither (from currô, run);
vollô, flit about (from vollô, fly).

a. Some double Frequentatives occur; as,—
cantitô, sing over and over (cántô);
curaitô, keep running about (curô);
ventitô, keep coming.

b. agitô, set in motion, is formed from the Present Stem.
3. Desideratives. These denote a desire to do something. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -uriō; as, —

ēsuriō, desire to eat, am hungry (ēdō);
parturiō, want to bring forth, am in labor (parīō).

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

156. Denominatives of the First Conjugation are mostly transitive, those of the Second exclusively intransitive. Those of the Third and Fourth Conjugations are partly transitive, partly intransitive. Examples are —

a) From Nouns: —

fraudō, defraud (fraus);
vestiō, clothe (vestis);
flōreō, bloom (flōs).

b) From Adjectives: —

liberō, free (liber);
saeviō, be fierce (saevus).

D. ADVERBS.

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

certātim, enormously (certō);
cursim, in haste (currō);
statim, immediately (stō).

2. Adverbs derived from nouns and adjectives are formed: —

a) With the suffixes -tim (-sim), -ātim; as, —

gradātim, step by step;
paulātim, gradually;
virītim, man by man.

b) With the suffix -tus; as, —

antiquitus, of old;
rādīcitus, from the roots.

c) With the suffix -ter; as, —
breviter, briefly.
Compounds.

II. COMPOUNDS.

158. 1. Compounds are formed by the union of simple words. The second member usually contains the essential meaning of the compound; the first member expresses some modification of this.

2. Vowel changes often occur in the process of composition. Thus:—

   a. In the second member of compounds. (See § 7. 1.)

   b. The final vowel of the stem of the first member of the compound often appears as ι where we should expect ο or η; sometimes it is dropped altogether, and in case of consonant stems ι is often inserted; as,—

      signifer, standard-bearer;
      tubicen, trumpeter;
      magnanimus, high-minded;
      mātricida, matricide.

159. EXAMPLES OF COMPOUNDS.

1. Nouns:—

   a) Preposition + Noun; as,—

      dē-deous, disgrace;
      pro-avus, great-grandfather.

   b) Noun + Verb Stem; as,—

      agri-cola, farmer;
      frātricīda, fratricide.

2. Adjectives:—

   a) Preposition + Adjective (or Noun); as,—

      per-magnus, very great;
      sub-obscūrus, rather obscure;
      a-mēns, frantic.

   b) Adjective + Noun; as,—

      magn-animus, great-hearted;
      celeri-pēs, swift-footed.

   c) Noun + Verb Stem; as,—

      partī-ceps, sharing;
      morti-fer, death-dealing.
3. Verbs: —
The second member is always a verb. The first may be—

a) A Noun; as, —

aedí-ficō, build.

b) An Adjective; as, —

ampli-ficō, enlarge.

c) An Adverb; as, —

maele-dicō, rail at.

d) Another Verb; as, —

cale-faciō, make warm.

e) A Preposition; as, —

ab-jungō, detach;
refertō, bring back;
dis-cernō, distinguish;
exspectō, await.

NOTE. — Here belong the so-called Inseparable Prepositions:

ambi- (amb-), around;
dis- (dir-, di-), apart, asunder;
por-, forward;
red- (re-), back;
sēd- (sē-), apart from;
vē, without.

4. Adverbs: —
These are of various types; as, —

anteā, before;
flīcō (in locō), on the spot;
imprimis, especially;
obviām in the way.
PART V.

SYNTAX.

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

CHAPTER I.—Sentences.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

161. Sentences may be classified as follows:—

1. **DECLARATIVE**, which state something; as,—
   
   quae scribit, the boy is writing.

2. **INTERROGATIVE**, which ask a question; as,—
   
   quid puer scribit, what is the boy writing?

3. **EXCLAMATORY**, which are in the form of an exclamation; as,—
   
   quo librēs scribit, how many books he writes!

4. **IMPERATIVE**, which express a command or an admonition; as,—
   
   scriba, write!

FORM OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

162. Questions may be either Word-Questions or Sentence-Questions.

1. **Word-Questions.** These are introduced by the various interrogative pronouns and adverbs; such as — *quis, qui, quālis, quantus, quot, quotiēns, quō, qua*, etc. Thus: —

   *quis venit, who comes?*
   
   *quam diū manēbit, how long will he stay?*
2. Sentence-Questions. These are introduced —

a) By nonne implying the answer 'yes'; as, —
   nonne vidēs, do you not see?

b) By num implying the answer 'no'; as, —
   num exspectās, do you expect? (i.e. you don't expect, do you?)

c) By the enclitic -ne, appended to the emphatic word (which
   usually stands first), and simply asking for information;
   as, —
   vidēsne, do you see?
   A question introduced by -ne may receive a special impli-
   cation from the context; as, —
   sensistīne, did you not perceive?

d) Sometimes by no special word, particularly in expressions of
   surprise or indignation; as, —
   tū in jūdicium cōnspectum venīre audēs, do you dare to
   come into the presence of the judges?

3. Rhetorical Questions. These are questions merely in
   form, being employed to express an emphatic assertion;
   as, quis dubitat, who doubts? (= no one doubts).

4. Double Questions. Double Questions are introduced
   by the following particles: —
   utrum . . . an;
   -ne . . . . . an;
   — . . . . an.

If the second member is negative, annōn (less often neone) is used.
Examples: —

   utrum honestum est an turpe,
   honestumne est an turpe,
   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, —
   Ā rēbus gerendīs abstrahit senectūs. Quibus? An
   eīs quae juventūte geruntur et vīribus? Old age (it is
   alleged) withdras men from active pursuits. From what
   pursuits? Is it not merely from those which are carried on
   by the strength of youth?
Simple and Compound Sentences.

5. Answers.
   a. The answer Yes is expressed by ita, etiam, verò, 
sânē, or by repetition of the verb; as, —
   ‘viāne locum mūtāmus?’ ‘sânē.’ ‘Shall we change the
   place?’ ‘Certainly.’
   ‘estīsne vōs lēgāti?’ ‘sumus.’ ‘Are you envoys?’ ‘Yes.’

   b. The answer No is expressed by nōn, minimē, 
   minimē verō, or by repeating the verb with a
   negative; as, —
   ‘jam ea praeterīvit?’ ‘nōn.’ ‘Has it passed?’ ‘No.’
   ‘estne frāter intus?’ ‘nōn est.’ ‘Is your brother within?’
   ‘No.’

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

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

   The Subject is that concerning which something is said,
   asked, etc. The Predicate is that which is said, asked,
   etc., concerning the Subject.

SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

164. Sentences containing but one Subject and one
   Predicate are called Simple Sentences, those containing
   more are called Compound Sentences. Thus puer librōs
   legit, the boy reads books, is a Simple Sentence; but puer
   librōs legit et epistulās scribit, the boy reads books and
   writes letters, is a Compound Sentence. The different
   members of a Compound Sentence are called Clauses.

165. Coördinate and Subordinate Clauses. Clauses which
   stand upon an equality are called Coördinate; a Clause dependent
   upon another is called Subordinate. Thus in puer librōs legit et
   epistulās scribit the two clauses are Coördinate; but in puer librōs
   legit quōs pater scribit, the boy reads the books which his father writes,
   the second clause is Subordinate to the first.
Syntax.

CHAPTER II.—Syntax of Nouns.

SUBJECT.

166. The Subject of a Finite Verb (i.e. any form of the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative) is in the Nominative Case.

1. The Subject may be—
   a) A Noun or Pronoun; as, —
      puer scribit, the boy writes;
      hic scribit, this man writes.
   b) An Infinitive; as,—
      decōrum est prō patriā morī, to die for one's country is a noble thing.
   c) A Clause; as,—
      opportunē accidit quōd vēnisti, it happened opportune that you arrived.

2. A Personal Pronoun as Subject is usually implied in the Verb, and is not separately expressed; as,—
   scribō, I write;                     videt, he sees.
   a. But for the purpose of emphasis or contrast the Pronoun is expressed; as,—
      ego scribō et tā legis, I write, and you read.

3. The verb is sometimes omitted when it can be easily supplied from the context, especially the auxiliary sum; as,—
   rēctē ille (sc. facit), he does rightly; cōnsul profectus (sc. est), the consul set out.

PREDICATE NOUNS.

167. A Predicate Noun is one connected with the Subject by some form of the verb sum or a similar verb.

168. A Predicate Noun agrees with its Subject in Case;¹ as,—

¹ For the Predicate Genitive see §§ 198, 3; 203, 5.
**Predicate Nouns. — Appositives.**

Cicerō órātor fuit, Cicero was an orator;
Numa créatus est rēx, Numa was elected king.

1. When possible the Predicate Noun usually agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as,—
philosophia est viæ magistra, philosophy is the guide of life.

2. Besides sum the verbs most frequently accompanied by a Predicate Noun are —
   a) fīō, ēvādō, existō; manēō; videō; as,—
      Croesus nōn semper mānsit rēx, Croesus did not always remain king.
   b) Passive verbs of making, calling, regarding, etc.; as, creōr, appellet, habēōr; as,—
      Rōmulus rēx appellātus est, Romulus was called king;
      habitus est deus, he was regarded as a god.

**APPOSITIVES.**

169. 1. An Appositive is a Noun explaining or defining another Noun denoting the same person or thing; as,—
      Cicerō cōnsul, Cicero, the Consul;
      urbs Rōma, the city Rome.

2. An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case; as,—
      opera Cicerōnis órātōris, the works of Cicero, the orator;
      apud Hērodotum, patrem historiae, in the works of Herodotus, the father of history.

3. When possible the Appositive agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as,—
      assentātiō adjūtrīx vitiōrum, flattery, the promoter of evils.

4. A Locative may take in Apposition the Ablative of urbs or oppidum, with or without a preposition; as,—
      Corinthi, urbe praelārā, or in urbe praelārā, at Corinth, a famous city.

5. **Partitive Apposition.** A Noun denoting a whole is frequently followed by an Appositive denoting a part; as,—
      mīlitēs, fortissimus quisque, hostibus restītūrunt, the soldiers, all the bravest of them, resisted the enemy.
Syntax.

THE CASES.

THE NOMINATIVE.

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

THE VOCATIVE.

171. The Vocative is the Case of direct address; as,—
credite mihi, judicés, believe me, judges.

1. By a species of attraction, the Nominative is occasionally used for the Vocative, especially in poetry and formal prose; as, audi tā, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban people!

2. Similarly the Appositive of a Vocative may, in poetry, stand in the Nominative; as, nāte, mea magna potentia sōlus, 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 interfécit, he slew the consul;
legō librum, I read the book.

B. The RESULT PRODUCED by the action; as,—
librum scripsī, 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 guātum amāre, it is rumored that my son is in love.
The Accusative.

Accusative of the Person or Thing Affected.

175. 1. This is the most frequent use of the Accusative; as in —

parentēs amorvus, 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: —

1) Compounds of circum, praeter, trans; as, —
hostēs circumstāre, to surround the enemy;
urbem praerīre, to pass by the city;
mūrōs tradescendere, to climb over the walls.

2) Less frequently, compounds of ad, per, in, sub; as, —
adcre urbem, to visit the city;
peragrāre Italiam, to travel through Italy;
infrē magistrātum, to take office;
subfīre perfoulum, to undergo danger.

b) Many Verbs expressing emotions, regularly Intransitive, have also a Transitive use; as, —
quercor fātum, I lament my fate;
doleō ejus mortem, I grieve at his death;
xīdeo tuam stultitiam, I laugh at your folly.
So also lágeō, maereō, mourn; gemō, bemoan; horreō, shudder, and others.

c) The impersonals decet, it becomes; dēdecet, it is unbecoming; juvat, it pleases, take the Accusative of the Person Affected; as, —
mē decet haec dīcere, it becomes me to say this.

d) In poetry many Passive Verbs, in imitation of Greek usage, are employed as Middles (§ 256, 1; 2), and take the Accusative as Object; as, —
galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet;
olnotus tempora hederā, having bound his temples with ivy;
nōdō sindus collēsota, having gathered her dress in a knot.
Syntax.

Accusative of the Result Produced.

176. 1. The ordinary type of this Accusative is seen in such expressions as—

librum scribō, I write a book;
domum aedificō, I build a house.

2. Many Verbs usually Intransitive take a Neuter Pronoun, or Adjective, as an Accusative of Result. Thus:—

a) A Neuter Pronoun; as,—
haec gemēbat, he made these moans;
illud glōrior, I make this boast;
eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes.

b) A Neuter Adjective,—particularly Adjectives of number or amount,—multum, multa, paucō, etc.; also nihil; as,—
multa dubitō, I have many doubts;
pauca studēt, he has few interests;
multum valet, he has great strength;
nihil prōgressit, he makes no progress.

Note. — In poetry other Adjectives are freely used in this construction; as,—
multōnum vānas, making vain threats;
acerbā tuōns, giving a fierce look;
dulce loquentem, sweetly talking.

3. The adverbial use of several Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives grows out of this Accusative; as,—
multum sunt in vēnātiōne, they are much engaged in hunting.

a. So also plārinum, very greatly; plurumque, generally;
aliquid, somewhat; quīd, why? nihil, not at all; etc.

4. Sometimes an Intransitive Verb takes an Accusative of Result which is of kindred etymology with the Verb. This is called a Cognate ACCUSATIVE, and is usually modified by an Adjective; as,—

sępternam servītūtem serviat, let him serve an everlasting slavery;
vītam dūram vīxī, I have lived a hard life.

a. Sometimes 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.
The Accusative.

5. The Accusative of Result occurs also after Verbs of tasting and smelling; as,—

piscis mare sapit, the fish tastes of the sea;
ñoatioés antiquitatem redolent, the speeches smack of the past.

Two Accusatives—Direct Object and Predicate Accusative.

177. 1. Many Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Showing, and the like, take two Accusatives, one of the Person or Thing Affected, the other a Predicate Accusative; as,—

mē hērēdem fēcit, he made me heir.

Here mē is Direct Object, hērēdem Predicate Accusative.

So also—

eum jūdicem cēspēre, 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, covetousness renders men blind;
Apollō Sōcratem sapientissimum jūdicāvit, Apollo adjudged Socrates the wisest man.

a. Some Verbs, as reddō, usually admit only an Adjective as the Predicate Accusative.

3. In the Passive the Direct Object becomes the Subject, and the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nominative (§ 168. 2. δ) ; as,—

urba Rōma vocāta est, the city was called Rome.

a. Not all Verbs admit the Passive construction; reddō and efficiō, for example, never take it.

Two Accusatives—Person and Thing.

178. 1. Some Verbs take two Accusatives, one of the Person Affected, the other of the Result Produced. Thus:—

a) Verbs of requesting and demanding, as,—

ōtium dīvōs rogat, he asks the gods for rest;
mē duās ōratōnēs postulās, you demand two speeches of me.
Syntax.

So also ὀρῷ, poscō, reposcō, esposcō, flāgitō, though some of these prefer the Ablative with ab to the Accusative of the Person; as,—
opem a tē poscō, I demand aid of you.

b) Verbs of teaching (doceō and its compounds); as,—
tē litterās doceō, I teach you your letters.

c) Verbs of inquiring; as,—
tē haec rogō, I ask you this;
tē sententiam rogō, I ask you your opinion.

d) Several Special Verbs; viz. moneō, admineō, commoneō,
cōgō, accusō, arguō, and a few others. These admit only a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective as Accusative of the Thing; as,—
tē haec moneō, I give you this advice;
mē id accusās, you bring this accusation against me;
id cōgit nōs nātūra, nature compels us (to) this.

e) One Verb of concealing, cēlō; as,—
nōn tē celāvī sermōnem, I have not concealed the conversation from you.

2. In the Passive construction the Accusative of the Person becomes the Subject, and the Accusative of the Thing is retained; as,—
omnēs artēs édoctus est, he was taught all accomplishments;
rogātus sum sententiam, I was asked my opinion;
aliquid admineōmur, we are given some admonition.

a. Only a few Verbs admit the Passive construction.

Two Accusatives with Compounds.

179. 1. Transitive compounds of trāns may take two Accusatives, one dependent upon the Verb, the other upon the Preposition; as,—
militēs flūmen trāduōcit, he leads his soldiers across the river.

2. With other compounds this construction is rare.

3. In the Passive the Accusative dependent upon the preposition is retained; as,—
militēs flūmen trāduōcebantur, the soldiers were led across the river
The Accusative.

Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative.

180. 1. The Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative denotes the _part_ to which an action or quality refers; as,—

- _tremit artēs_, literally, _he trembles as to his limbs_, i.e. his limbs tremble;
- _nūda genti_, lit. _bare as to the knee_, i.e. with knee bare;
- _manēs 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. 1. _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._
- _arborēs quinquāgintā pedēs altae_, _trees fifty feet high._
- _abhinc septem annōs_, _seven years ago._

2. Emphasis is sometimes added by using the Preposition _per_; as,

   _per biennium labōrāvi_, _I toiled throughout two years._

Accusative of Limit of Motion.

182. 1 The Accusative of Limit of Motion is used —

a) With names of _Towns, Small Islands, and Peninsulas_; as,—

   - _Rōman vēnī_, _I came to Rome_; 
   - _Athisēnēs proficiscitur_, _he sets out for Athens_; 
   - _Dēlum pervēnī_, _I arrived at Delos._

b) With _domum, domōs, rūs_; as,—

   - _domum revertitur_, _he returns home_; 
   - _rūs ibō_, _I shall go to the country._

Note. — When _domus_ means _house_ (i.e. building), it takes a preposition; as,—

   _in domum veterem remigrāre_, _to move back to an old house._
Syntax.

2. Other designations of place than those above mentioned require a Preposition to denote Limit of Motion; as,—

ad Italiarm vēnit, he came to Italy.

a. The Preposition is also customary with the Accusatives urbem or oppidum when they stand in apposition with the name of a town; as,—

Cirtam in urbem, to the city Cirta;
Genavam ad oppidum, to the town Geneva.

b. The name of a town denoting limit of motion may be combined with the name of a country or other word dependent upon a preposition; as,—

Thorōs in Italiarm pervectus, carried to Thuri in Italy;
cum Aecōn ad exercitum vēnisset, when he had come to the army at Aec.

3. To denote toward, to the vicinity of, in the vicinity of, ad is used; as,—

ad Tarentum vēni, I came to the vicinity of Tarentum;
ad Cannās pugna facta est, a battle was fought near Cannae.

4. In poetry the Accusative of any noun denoting a place may be used without a preposition to express the limit of motion; as,—

Italiarm vēnīt, he came to Italy.

5. The goal notion seems to represent the original function of the Accusative Case. Traces of this primitive force are recognizable in the phrase Inītiās ire, to deny (litt. 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!
O fallācem spem, oh, deceptive hope!

Accusative as Subject of the Infinitive.

184. The Subject of the Infinitive is put in the Accusative; as,—

videō hominem abire, I see that the man is going away.
The Accusative. — The Dative.

Other Uses of the Accusative.

185. Here belong —

1. Some Accusatives which were originally Appositives; *vîs.—

   *id genus, of that kind; as, *hominês id genus, men of that kind
   (originally *hominês, *id genus hominum, men, that kind
   of men);

   *virile secus, *muliobre secus, of the male sex, of the female sex;
   meam vicem, tuam vicem, *etc., for my part, *etc.;
   bonam partem, magnam partem, in large part;
   maximam partem, for the most part.

2. Some phrases of doubtful origin; as, —

   *id temporis, at that time;   *quod sf, but if;
   *id aestatis, at that time;    *ôstera, in other respects.

THE DATIVE.

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

Dative of Indirect Object.

187. The commonest use of the Dative is to denote the person *to whom something is given, said, or done. Thus: —

I. With transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative; as, —

   *hanc pecùniam mihi dat, he gives me this money;
   haec nôbîs dîxit, he said this to us.

a. Some verbs which take this construction (particularly *dônô and *circumdônô) admit also the Accusative of the person along with the Ablative of the thing. Thus: —

   Either *Themistocôi fînema dônâvit, he presented gifts to
   *Themistocôi, or

   *Themistocôlem fîneribus dônâvit, he presented Themis-
   toclus with gifts;

   *urbi mûrês circumdat, he builds walls around the city, or
   *urbem mûrês circumdat, he surrounds the city with walls.
II. With many intransitive verbs; as,—

nūli laborī cēdit, he yields to no labor.

a. Here belong many verbs signifying favor, ¹ help, injure, please, displease, trust, distrust, command, obey, serve, resist, indulge, spare, pardon, envy, threaten, be angry, believe, persuade, and the like; as,—

Caesar populāribus favet, Caesar favors (i.e. is favorable to) the popular party;
amicīs cōnfidō, I trust (to) my friends;
Orgetorīx Helvētīs persuāsit, Orgetorix persuaded (made it acceptable to) the Helvetians;
bonis nocet qui malīs parcit, he injures (does harm to) the good, who spares the bad.

Note.—It is to be borne in mind that these verbs do not take the Dative by virtue of their apparent English equivalence, but simply because they are intransitive, and adapted to an indirect object. Some verbs of the same apparent English equivalence are transitive and govern the Accusative; as, juvō, laedō, dēlectō. Thus: audentēs deus juvāt, God helps the bold; nēminem laēsit, he injured no one.

b. Verbs of this class are used in the passive only impersonally; as,—
tibi parcitur, you are spared;
mīhi persuādētur, I am being persuaded;
eī invīdētur, he is envied.

b. Some of the foregoing verbs admit also a Direct Object in connection with the Dative; as,—
mīhi mortem minūtātur, he threatens me with death (threatens death to me).

III. With many verbs compounded with the prepositions: ad, ante, circum, com.—² in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super.

These verbs fall into two main classes,—

1. Many simple verbs which cannot take a Dative of the indirect object become capable of doing so when compounded with a preposition; as,—

affectūs succurrīt, he helps the afflicted;
exercitūs praeferiit, he was in command of the army;
terum cōnsiliīs, I share in the deliberations.

¹ Many such verbs were originally intransitive in English also, and once governed the Dative. ² This was the original form of the preposition cum.
2. Many transitive verbs which take only a direct object become capable, when compounded, of taking a Dative also as indirect object; as, —

pecūniae pudōrem antepōnit, he puts honor before money;
luicere spem amīcis, to inspire hope in one’s friends;
Labienum exercitū praefēcit, he put Labienus in charge of the army.

Dative of Reference.

188. 1. The Dative of Reference denotes the person to whom a statement refers, of whom it is true, or to whom it is of interest; as, —

mīhi ante oculōs versāris, you hover before my eyes (lit. hover before the eyes to me);
illī severītās amōrem nōn dēminuit, in his case severity did not diminish love (lit. to him severity did not diminish);
intercūdere hostibus commeātum, to cut off the supplies of the enemy.

a. Note the phrase allcū interdicere aquā et ignī, to interdict one from fire and water.

NOTE. — The Dative of Reference, unlike the Dative of Indirect Object, does not modify the verb, but rather the sentence as a whole. It is often used where, according to the English idiom, we should expect a Genitive; so in the first and third of the above examples.

2. Special varieties of the Dative of Reference are —

a) Dative of the Local Standpoint. This is regularly a participle; as, —

oppidum prīnum Thessaliāe venentibus ab Ἐπίρῳ, the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (lit. to those coming from Epirus).

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 istīs audāciām dēsēndis? tell me, do you defend that man’s audacity?
quid mihi Celsus agit? what is my Celsus doing?
quid sibi vult? what does he mean? (lit. wish for himself?)
132

Syntax.

c) Dative of Person Judging; as,—

erit ille mihi semper deus, he will always be a god to me (i.e. in my opinion);
quae ista servitūs tam clārō homini, how can that be slavery to so illustrious a man (i.e. to his mind)!

d) Dative of Separation. Some verbs of taking away, especially compounds of ab, dē, ex, ad, govern a Dative of the person, less often of the thing; as,—

honōrem dētrāxerunt homini, they took away the honor from the man;
Caesar rēgī tetrarchiam ēripuit, Caesar took the tetrarchy away from the king;
silicī scintillam excūdit, he struck a spark from the flint.

Dative of Agency.

189. The Dative is used to denote agency —

1. Regularly with the Gerundive; as, —
bæo nōbis agenda sunt, these things must be done by us;
mihi eundum est, I must go (lit. it must be gone by me).
   a. To avoid ambiguity, & with the Ablative is sometimes used with the Gerundive; as, —
   hostibus & nōbis parcendum est, the enemy must be spared by us.

2. Much less frequently with the compound tenses of the passive voice and the perfect passive participle; as, —
disputātiō quae mihi nūper habita est, the discussion which was recently conducted by me.

3. Rarely with the uncompounded tenses of the passive; as, —
honesta bonis viris quæruntur, noble ends are sought by good men.

Dative of Possession.

190. The Dative of Possession occurs with the verb esse in such expressions as: —

mihi est liber, I have a book;
mihi nōmen est Mārcus, I have the name Marcus.

1. But with nōmen est the name is more commonly attracted into the Dative; as, mihi Mārcō nōmen est.
The Dative.

133

Dative of Purpose or Tendency.

191. The Dative of Purpose or Tendency designates the end toward which an action is directed or the direction in which it tends. It is used—

1. Unaccompanied by another Dative; as,—
castris locum deligere, to choose a place for a camp;
legionibus praeididit relinquire, to leave the legions as a guard (lit. for a guard);
receptu canere, to sound the signal for a retreat.

2. Much more frequently in connection with another Dative of the person;—

a) Especially with some form of esse; as,—
fortunae tuae mihi curae sunt, your fortunes are a care to me (lit. for a care);
nobis sunt odio, they are an object of hatred to us;
cui bono? to whom is it of advantage?

b) With other verbs; as,—
hos tibi munere misit, he has sent these to you for a present;
Pausanias Atticae venit auxilio, Pausanias came to the aid of the Athenians (lit. to the Athenians for aid).

3. In connection with the Gerundive; as,—
decemviris legibus scribundis, decemvirs for codifying the laws;
mis gerendis bellis ducem crevère, me they have made leader for carrying on the war.

NOTE.—This construction with the gerundive is not common till Livy.

Dative with Adjectives.

192. The use of the Dative with Adjectives corresponds very closely to its use with verbs. Thus:—

1. Corresponding to the Dative of Indirect Object it occurs with adjectives signifying: friendly, unfriendly, similar, dissimilar, equal, near, related to, etc.; as,—
mibi inimicus, hostile to me;
sunt proximi Germani, they are next to the Germans;
noxiae poena par est, let the penalty be equal to the damage.
134

Syntax.

a. For proprius and proximus with the Accusative, see § 144, 3.

2. Corresponding to the Dative of Purpose, the Dative occurs with adjectives signifying: suitable, adapted, fit; as,—
   castrīs idūneus locus, a place fit for a camp;
   apta diēs sacrificiō, a day suitable for a sacrifice.

Note.—Adjectives of this last class often take the Accusative with ad.

Dative of Direction.

193. In the poets the Dative is occasionally used to denote the
direction of motion; as,—
   it clāmor caelō, the shout goes heavenward;
   cinerēs ῥήνθι fluentī jace, cast the ashes toward the flowing stream.

1. By an extension of this construction the poets sometimes use the
Dative to denote the limit of motion; as,—
   dum Latīō deōs Inferret, till he should bring his gods to Latium.

THE GENITIVE.

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

GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

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

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196. Genitive of Origin; as,—
   Mārci filius, the son of Marcus.

197. Genitive of Material; as,—
   talentum auri, a talent of gold;
   acervus frumentī, a pile of grain.
198. Genitive of Possession or Ownership; as,—
   domus Ciceronis, Cicero’s house.

1. Here belongs the Genitive with causā and grātiā. The Genitive always precedes; as,—
   hominum causā, for the sake of men;
   meōrum amicōrum grātiā, for the sake of my friends.

2. Instar (lit. image) also takes the Possessive Genitive; as,—
   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 rēgis, the house is the king’s;
   stultī est in errōre manēre, it is (the part) of a fool to remain in error;
   dē beliō jūdiciō imperātōris est, nōn mīlitum, the decision concerning war belongs to the general, not to the soldiers.

199. Subjective Genitive. This denotes the person who makes or produces something or who has a feeling; as,—
   dicta Platōnis, the utterances of Plato;
   timōrēs Iberōrum, the fears of the children.

200. Objective Genitive. This denotes the object of an action or feeling; as,—
   metus deōrum, the fear of the gods;
   amor libertātis, love of liberty;
   oōnaōtēō-bonōrum hominum, intercourse with good men.

1. This relation is often expressed by means of prepositions; as,—
   amor ergā parentēs, love toward one’s parents.

201. Genitive of the Whole. This designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used—

1. With Nouns, Pronouns, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Ordinal Numerals; as,—
   magna pars hominum, a great part of mankind;
   duo mīlia pedītūm, two thousand foot-soldiers;
   quis mortāliōm, who of mortals?
   major frātrim, the elder of the brothers;
   gēns maxima Germānōrum, the largest tribe of the Germans;
   prīmus omnium, the first of all.
Syntax.

a. Yet instead of the Genitive of the Whole we often find ex or de with the Ablative, regularly so with Cardinal numbers and quidam; as,—

fidissimus de servis, the most trusty of the slaves;
quidam ex amicis, certain of his friends;
minus ex militibus, one of the soldiers.

b. In English we often use of where there is no relation of whole to part.
In such cases the Latin is more exact, and does not use the Genitive; as,—

quot vos estis, how many of you are there?
trecenti conjuravimus, three hundred of us have conspired (i.e. we, three hundred in number).

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 consilii, what purpose?
tandum ciborum, so much food;
plus auctiritatis, more authority;
minus laboris, less labor;
satis pecuniae, enough money;
parum industriae, too little industry.

a. An Adjective of the second declension used substantively may be employed as a Genitive of the Whole; as, nihil boni, nothing good.

b. But Adjectives of the third declension agree directly with the noun they limit; as, nihil dulcis, nothing sweeter.

3. Occasionally we find the Genitive of the Whole dependent upon Adverbs of place; as,—

ubi terrarum? ubi gentium? where in the world?

a. By an extension of this usage the Genitive sometimes occurs in dependence upon pridie and postridie, but only in the phrases pridie ejus dies, on the day before that; postridie ejus dies, on the day after that.

202. Appositional Genitive. The Genitive sometimes has the force of an appositive; as,—

nomen regis, the name of king;
poea 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—
The Genitive.

1. To denote some internal or permanent characteristic of a person or thing; as,—

vir magnae virtutis, a man of great virtue;
rationes ejus modi, considerations of that sort.

a. Only a limited number of Adjectives occur in this construction, chiefly magnus, maximus, summus, tantus, along with ejus.

2. To denote measure (breadth, length, etc.); as,—

fossa quindecim pedum, a trench fifteen feet wide (or deep);
exsiliwm decem annorum, an exile of ten years.

3. By omission of pretf (pr1ce), or some kindred word, tantfi, quanti, parvi, magni, minores, minimi, piirini, maximi are used predicatively to denote indefinite value; as,—
nulla studia tantfi sunt, no studies are of so much value;
magni opera ejus existimata est, his assistance was highly esteemed.

a. Pluriis (not strictly an adjective) follows the same analogy.

4. By an extension of the notion of value, quanti, tantï, pluriis, and minores are also used with verbs of buying and selling, to denote indefinite price; as,—
quantt aedés émist, at how high a price did you purchase the house?

5. Any of the above varieties of the Genitive of Quality may be used predicatively; as,—
tantae molest erat Romanae condere gentem, of so great difficulty was it to found the Roman race.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

204. The Genitive is used with many Adjectives, to limit the extent of their application. Thus:—

1. With Adjectives signifying desire, knowledge, familiarity, memory, participation, power, fulness, and their opposites; as,—

studiosus discendi, desirous of learning;
peritus bellâ, skilled in war;
insuetus laboris, unused to toil;
immemor mandâti tui, unmindful of your commission;
piena periculorum est vita, life is full of dangers.

Some participles used adjectively also take the Genitive: as,—

diligens veritatis, fond of truth;
amans patris, devoted to one’s country.
2. Sometimes with *proprius* and *commūnis*; as,—

*virī propriæ est fortitudō*, bravery is characteristic of a man.

*memoria est commūnis omnium artium*, memory is common to all professions.

a. *proprius* and *commūnis* are also construed with the Dative.

3. With *similis* the Genitive is the commoner construction in Cicero, when the reference is to living objects; as,—

*filius patris simillimus est*, the son is exactly like his father.

*meī similis, like me*; *vestri similis, like you*.

When the reference is to things, both Genitive and Dative occur; as,—

*mors somnō (or somni) similis est*, death is like sleep.

4. In the poets and later prose writers the use of the Genitive with Adjectives is extended far beyond earlier limits; as, *strōx animi, fierce of temper*; *incertus consili, undecided in purpose*.

GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

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

*Memini, Reminiscor, Obliviscor.*

206. 1. When referring to persons—

a. *memini* always takes the Genitive of personal or reflexive pronouns; as,—

*meī memineris, remember me!*

*nostri meminit, he remembers us*.

With other words denoting persons *memini* takes the Accusative, rarely the Genitive; as,—

*Sullam meminī, I recall Sulla.*

*vivōrum meminī, I remember the living*.

b. *obliviscor* regularly takes the Genitive; as,—

*Epicūrī nōn licet obliviscī, we mustn’t forget Epicurus*.

2. When referring to things, *memini, reminiscor, obliviscor* take sometimes the Genitive, sometimes the Accusative, without difference of meaning; as,—

*animus praeteritōrum meminit, the mind remembers the past*;

*meministīne nōmina, do you remember the names?*

*reminiscere veteris incommodi, remember the former disaster;*

*reminiscēns acerbitātem, remembering the severity.*
The Genitive.

1. But neuter pronouns, and adjectives used substantively, regularly stand in the Accusative; as,—

haec memini, I remember this;
multa reminiscor, I remember many things.

2. The phrase mibi (tibi, etc.) in mentem venit, taking the analogy of

memini, I remember;
tibi amò, I love you,

takes the Ablative; as,—

civium mibi in mentem venit, I remember the citizens.

A'd'moneō, Commoneō, Commonefacio.

207. These verbs, in addition to an Accusative of the person, occasionally take a Genitive of the thing; as,—

tē ad'moneō amicitiæ nostræ, I remind you of our friendship.

a. But more frequently (in Cicero almost invariably) these verbs take dē with the Ablative; as,—
dē pecuniâ mó ad'moneō, you remind me of the money.

b. A neuter pronoun or adjective used substantively regularly stands in the Accusative (178. 1. d); as,—
tē hōc ad'moneō, I give you this warning.

Verbs of Judicial Action.

208. 1. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting take the Genitive of the charge; as,—

mē fürit accusat, he accuses me of theft;
Verrem avaritiæ coarguit, he convicted Verres of avarice;
impictās absolvātus est, he was acquitted of blasphemy.

2. Verbs of Condemning take —

a. The Genitive of the charge; as,—

pectūn̓iae pūblicae damnātus, condemned (on the charge) of

embezzlement (lit. public money);

capitā damnātus, condemned on a capital charge (lit. on a

charge involving his head).

b. The Ablative of the penalty; as,—
capite damnātus est, he was condemned to death;
mīliōnum damnātus est, he was condemned (to pay)
a thousand sesterces (lit. by a thousand sesterces, Abl. of

Means).
3. Note the phrases: —

\[ \text{vöö damnátus, vöö rœus, having attained one's prayer (lit. condemned on the score of one's vow);} \]
\[ \text{dē vt, (accused, convicted, etc.) of assault;} \]
\[ \text{inter scārīōs, (accused, convicted, etc.) of murder.} \]

**Genitive with Impersonal Verbs.**

209. 1. The Impersonals *pudet, paenitet, miseret, taeetat, piget* take the Accusative of the person affected, along with the Genitive of the person or thing toward whom the feeling is directed; as, —

\[ \text{pudet mē tuī, I am ashamed of you (lit. it shames me of you);} \]
\[ \text{paenitet mē hūjus factī, I repent of this act;} \]
\[ \text{eum taeetat vītae, he is weary of life;} \]
\[ \text{pauperum tē miseret, you pity the poor.} \]

\[ \text{a. Instead of the Genitive of the thing we often find an Infinitive or Neuter Pronoun used as subject of the verb. Thus: —} \]
\[ \text{mē paenitet hoc fēcisse, I repent of having done this;} \]
\[ \text{mē hoc pudet, I am ashamed of this.} \]

2. *Misereor* and *miserēscō* also govern the Genitive; as, —

\[ \text{miserēmini sociōrum, pity the allies.} \]

**Interest, Rēīert.**

210. With interest, *it concerns*, three points enter into consideration; *viz.* —

\[ \text{a) the person concerned;} \]
\[ \text{b) the thing about which he is concerned;} \]
\[ \text{c) the extent of his concern.} \]

211. 1. The person concerned is regularly denoted by the Genitive; as, —

\[ \text{patris interest, it concerns the father.} \]

\[ \text{a. But instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, mē, tuī, etc., the Latin uses the Ablative Singular Feminine of the Possessive, *viz.*: mēa, tua, etc.; as, —} \]
\[ \text{mēa interest, it concerns me.} \]
The Genitive.

2. The thing about which a person is concerned is denoted —
   
   a) by a Neuter Pronoun as subject; as, —
   hōc rél pūblicæ interest, this concerns the state.
   
   b) by an Infinitive; as, —
   omnium interest valère, it concerns all to keep well.
   
   c) by an Indirect Question; as, —
   meā interest quandō veulás, I am concerned as to when you are coming.
   
3. The degree of concern is denoted —
   
   a) by the Genitive (of Quality): magūf, parvī, etc.; as, —
   meā magnī interest, it concerns me greatly.
   
   b) by the Adverbs, magnopere, magis, maximē, etc.; as, —
   olviun minimē interest, it concerns the citizens very little.
   
   c) by the Neuters, multum, plūs, minus, etc.; as, —
   multum vestrā interest, it concerns you much.

4. Rēfert follows interest in its construction, except that it rarely takes the Genitive of the person. Thus: —
   
   meā rēfert, it concerns me;
   
   but rarely illius rēfert, it concerns him.

Genitive with Other Verbs.

212. 1. Verbs of Plenty and Want sometimes govern the Genitive; as, —
   
   pecūnias indígēs, you need money.
   
   a. These verbs more commonly take the Ablative (§ 214, 1);

   indígēs is the only verb which has a preference for the Genitive.

2. Potior, though usually followed by the Ablative, sometimes takes the Genitive, almost always so in Sallust; and regularly in the phrase:
   
   potírī rérum, to get control of affairs.

3. In poetry some verbs take the Genitive in imitation of the Greek; as, —
   
   dēsīne quereillārum, cease your complaints;

   operum solūtī, freed from their tasks.
THE ABLATIVE.

213. The Latin Ablative unites in itself three cases which were originally distinct both in form and in meaning; *vis.* —

The Ablative or from-case.
The Instrumental or with-case.
The Locative or where-case.

The uses of the Latin Ablative accordingly fall into Genuine Ablative uses, Instrumental uses, and Locative uses.

GENUINE ABLATIVE USES.

Ablative of Separation.

214. The Ablative of Separation is construed sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition.

1. The following words regularly take the Ablative without a preposition: —

a) The Verbs of freeing: *liberō, solvō, levō*;
b) The Verbs of depriving: *privō, spoliō, exulō, fraudō, nūdō*;
c) The Verbs of lacking: *ego, careō, vacō*;
d) The corresponding Adjectives, *liber, inānis, vacuus, nūdus,* and some others of similar meaning.

Thus: —
cūrīs *liberātus, freed from cāres*;
Caesar hostēs armīs exuit, *Caesar stripped the enemy of their arms*;
caret sēnsū commūnī, *he lacks common sense*;
auxilliō eget, *he needs help*;
bonōrum vītā vacuā est metā, *the life of the good is free from fear.*

**Note 1.** — Yet Adjectives and *liberō* may take the preposition *ab,* — regularly so with the Ablative of persons; as, —

urbe mē tyrannō *liberārunt, they freed the city from the tyrant.*

**Note 2.** — Indigēō usually takes the Genitive. See § 212, 1, a.
2. Of Verbs signifying to keep from, to remove, to withdraw, some take the preposition, others omit it. The same Verb often admits both constructions. Examples: —
abstinère cibo, to abstain from food;
hostēs finibus prohibuérunt, they kept the enemy from their borders;
praedōnēs ab insulā 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 sé-; as, —
dissentiō à tē, I dissent from you;
sècernantur à nobis, let them be separated from us.

4. The Preposition is freely omitted in poetry.

Ablative of Source.

215. The Ablative of Source is used with the participles nātus and ortus (in poetry also with ēditus, satus, and some others), to designate parentage or station; as, —
Jove nātus, son of Jupiter;
summō locō nātus, high-born (lit. born from a very high place);
nōbili genere ortus, born of a noble family.

1. 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 ab (ab) is used with passive verbs to denote the personal agent; as, —
ab Caesare accusātus est, he was arraigned by Caesar.

1. Collective nouns referring to persons, and abstract nouns when personified, may be construed as the personal agent. Thus: —
hostēs a fortūnā désérēbantur, the enemy were deserted by Fortune;
a multitūdine hostium mōntēs tenēbantur, the mountains were held by a multitude of the enemy.

2. Names of animals sometimes admit the same construction. Thus: —
ab canibus ianīlātus est, he was torn to pieces by dogs.
217. 1. The Ablative is often used with Comparatives in the sense of than; as,—

melle dulcior, sweeter than honey;
patria mihi vitā caerīor est, my country is dearer to me than life.

2. This construction, as a rule, occurs only as a substitute for quam (than) with the Nominative or Accusative. In other cases quam must be used; as,—

tuī studiōsior sum quam illius, I am fonder of you than of him.
Studiōsior illō would have meant, I am fonder of you than he is.

3. Plūs, minus, amplius, longius are often employed as the equivalents of plūs quam, minus quam, etc. Thus:—
amplius vigintī urbēs incessuntur, more than twenty cities are fired;
minus quīnque mēlia proecessit, he advanced less than five miles.

4. Note the use of opinōne with Comparatives; as,—
opinōne celerius venit, he comes more quickly than expected (lit. than opinion).

INSTRUMENTAL USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

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

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

There are the following special varieties of this Ablative:—

1. Ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds take the Ablative; as,—
dīvitīs ûititur, he uses his wealth (lit. he benefits himself by his wealth);
vitā fruitur, he enjoys life (lit. he enjoys himself by life);
mūnerē fungor, I perform my duty (lit. I busy myself with duty);
carne vescuntur, they eat flesh (lit. feed themselves by means of);
uurbe potitus est, he got possession of the city (lit. made himself powerful by the city).

a. Potior sometimes governs the Genitive. See § 212, a.
The Ablative.

2. With opus est (rarely ësus est), there is need; as,—
duce nóbis opus est, we need a leader.

a. A Neuter Pronoun or Adjective often stands as subject with opus as predicate. Thus:—
hóc mihi opus est, this is necessary for me.

b. An ordinary substantive rarely stands as subject. Thus dux nóbis opus est is a rare form of expression.

c. Note the occasional use of a perfect passive participle with opus est; as,—
opus est properátō, there is need of haste.

3. With ntónor, innítus, and fréitus; as,—
nítitur hastā, he rests on a spear (lit. supports himself by a spear);
fréitus virtūte, relying on virtue (lit. supported by virtue).

4. With continéři, cōnsistere, cōnstāre, consist of; as,—
nervis et ossibus continentur, they consist of sinews and bones (lit. they are held together by sinews and bones);
mortálī cōnsistit corpore mundus, the world consists of mortal substance (lit. holds together by means of, etc.).

5. In expressions of the following type:—
quid hóc homíne faciás, what can you do with this man?
quid meā Tulliā fiet, what will become of my dear Tullia? (lit. what will be done with my dear Tullia?)

6. In the following special phrases at variance with the ordinary English idiom:—
proelīō contendere, vincere, to contend, conquer in battle;
proelīō laecessere, to provoke to battle;
ourū vehī, to ride in a chariot;
pedibus īre, to go on foot;
castrīs sē tenēre, to keep in camp.

8. With Verbs of filling and Adjectives of plenty; as,—
fossās virgultīs complērunt, they filled the trenches with brush.

a. But plōnus more commonly takes the Genitive. See § 204, 1.

Under ‘Means’ belongs also the Ablative of the Way by which; as,—
vīnum Tiberī dēvectum, wine brought down (by) the Tiber.
10. The means may be a person as well as a thing. Thus: — 

milítimus á lacú Lemanna ad montem Júram mūrum perdúcit, ut
(i.e. by means of) his troops he runs a wall from Lake Geneva to Mt. Jura.

Ablative of Cause.

219. The Ablative is used to denote cause; as, — 
multa glóriae cupiditāte fecit, he did many things on account of his love of glory.

1. So especially with verbs denoting mental states; as, délector, 

haud, laetor, glórior, fidē, confidē. Also with contentus; 
as, — 

fortūnā amīci gaudeō, I rejoice at the fortune of my friend (i.e. on account of it);

victōriā suā gloriāntur, they exult over their victory;

nāturā loci confidēbant, they trusted in the character of their country 
(lit. were confident on account of the character).

a. fidē and confidē always take the Dative of the person (§ 187. II. a); 
sometimes the Dative of the thing.

2. As Ablatives of Cause are to be reckoned also such Ablatives as 

ussā, by order of; injussā, without the order, rogātā, etc.

Ablative of Manner.

220. The Ablative with omn is used to denote manner; 
as, — 

omn gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with dignity.

1. The preposition may be omitted when the Ablative is modified by an adjective; as, — 

magnā gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with great dignity.

2. The preposition is regularly omitted in the expressions jūre, 
injūriā, jocō, vi, fraudē, voluntāte, fortū, silentiā.

3. A special variety of the Ablative of Manner denotes that in ac-
cordance with which or in pursuance of which anything is or is done. 
It is generally used without a preposition. Thus: —

meā sententiā, according to my opinion;

suīs mōribus, in accordance with their custom;

suā sponte, voluntarily, of his (their) own accord;

sē condiciōne, on these terms.
The Ablative.

Ablative of Attendant Circumstance.

221. The Ablative is often used to denote an attendant circumstance of an action or an event; as,—

bonis auspiciis, under good auspices;
nulla est altercatio clamoribus umquam habita majortibus, no debate was ever held under circumstances of greater applause;
exstinguitur ingenti lacta provinciae, he dies under circumstances of great grief on the part of the province;
longo intervallo sequitur, he follows at a great distance.

Ablative of Accompaniment.

222. The Ablative with cum is used with verbs of motion to denote accompaniment; as,—

cum comitiis prefector est, he set out with his attendants;
cum febris domum reddidit, he returned home with a fever.

1. In military expressions the Ablative may stand without cum when modified by any adjective except a numeral; as,—

omnibus copiis, ingenti exercitu, magna mandi; but usually cum exercitu, cum duabus legiöribus.

Ablative of Association.

222 A. The Ablative is often used with verbs of joining, mixing, clinging, exchanging; also with asserisse, consÆsæ, assÆffiaciio, and some others to denote association; as,—
improbitas acelere juncta, badness joined with crime;
Æsæ calore admixtæ, air mixed with heat;
asseritus labore, accustomed to (lit. familiarized with) toil;
pæcem bellæ permutant, they change peace for (lit. with) war.

Ablative of Degree of Difference.

223. The Ablative is used with comparatives and words involving comparison (as post, ante, infra, supra) to denote the degree of difference; as,—
dimidiæ minor, smaller by a half;
tribus pedibus altior, three feet higher;
paulo post, a little afterwards;
quod plura habemus, cæ cupidus ampliora, 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 eximia formá, a girl of exceptional beauty;
vir singulari industria, a man of singular industry.

1. The Ablative of Quality may also be used predicatively; as,—
est magiá prudential, he is (a man) of great wisdom;
bonó animó sunt, they are of good courage.

2. In place of the Adjective we sometimes find a limiting Genitive; as,—
sunt speciès et coloré tauri, they are of the appearance and color of a bull.

3. In poetry the Ablative of Quality sometimes denotes material; as,—
scopulis pendensibus antrum, a cave of arching rocks.

Ablative of Price.

225. With verbs of buying and selling, price is designated by the Ablative; as,—

servum quinque minis émit, he bought the slave for five minae.

1. The Ablatives magni, plúrimi, parvi, minimi (by omission of prætii) are used to denote indefinite price; as,—
aedés magni vénidit, he sold the house for a high price.

2. For the Genitive of Indefinite Price, see § 203. 4.

Ablative of Specification.

226. The Ablative of Specification is used to denote that in respect to which something is or is done; as,—

Helvétii omnibus Gallis virtute praestabant, the Helvetians surpassed all the Gauls in valor;
pede claudus, lame in his foot.

1. Note the phrases:—

major nátû, older (lit. greater as to age);
minor nátû, younger.

2. Here belongs the use of the Ablative with dignus, worthy, indignus, unworthy, and dignor, deem worthy of; as,—
digni honóre, worthy of honor (i.e. in point of honor);
fidé indigni, unworthy of confidence.
mé dignor honóre, I deem myself worthy of honor.
The Ablative.

Ablative Absolute.

227. The Ablative Absolute is grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. In its commonest form it consists of a noun or pronoun limited by a participle; as,—

urbe captā, Aeneās fūgit, when the city had been captured, Aeneas fled (lit. the city having been captured).

1. Instead of a participle we often find an adjective or noun; as,—
vivō Caesare rēs pūblica salva erat, while Caesar was alive the state was safe (lit. Caesar being alive);
Tarquinō rēge, Pythagorās in Italiam vēnit, in the reign of Tarquin Pythagoras came into Italy (lit. Tarquin being king).

2. The Ablative Absolute is generally used in Latin where in English we employ subordinate clauses. Thus the Ablative Absolute may correspond to a clause denoting —

a) Time, as in the foregoing examples.

b) Condition; as,—
omnēs virtūtēs jacent, voluptāte dominante, all virtues lie prostrate, if pleasure is master.

c) Opposition; as,—
perdītā omnibus rébus, virtūs sē sustentāre potest, though everything else is lost, yet Virtue can maintain herself.

d) Cause; as,—
nōlī adversante rēgnō obtinuít, since no one opposed him, he secured the throne.

e) Attendant circumstance; as,—
passēs palmīs pācem petivērunt, with hands outstretched they sued for peace.

3. An Infinitive or clause sometimes occurs in the Ablative Absolute construction, especially in Livy and later writers; as,—
audītō eum fūglāse, when it was heard that he had fled.

4. A noun or pronoun stands in the Ablative Absolute construction only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the clause in which it stands. Exceptions to this principle are extremely rare.
LOCATIVE USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Place.

A. Place where.

228. The place where is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as,—

in urbe habitat, he dwells in the city.

i. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz.—

a) Names of towns,—except Singulares of the First and Second Declensions (see § 232. 1); as,—

Carthāgīnī, at Carthage;
Athēnīs, at Athens;
Veīs, at Veii.

b) The general words locō, locīs, parte, also many words modified by tōtus or even by other Adjectives; as,—

hōc locō, at this place;
tōtis castrīs, in the whole camp.

c) The special words: forīs, out of doors; rūtī, in the country; terrā marīque, on land and sea.

d) The poets freely omit the preposition with any word denoting place; as,—

stānt lītore puppās, the sterns rest on the beach.

B. Place from which.1

229. Place from which is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as,—

ab Italī profectus est, he set out from Italy;
ex urbe rēdit, he returned from the city.

i. 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 revertīt, he returned from Rhodes.

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1 Place from which, though strictly a Genuine Ablative use, is treated here for sake of convenience.
The Ablative.

6) domô, from home; rûre, from the country.

7) Freely in poetry; as,—

Italiâ diœcessit, he withdrew from Italy.

2. With names of towns, ab is used to mean from the vicinity of,
or to denote the point whence distance is measured; as,—

â Gergovia diœcessit, he withdrew from the vicinity of Gergovia.
â Rômâ X mília aberat, he was ten miles distant from Rome.

Urbe and oppidô, when standing in apposition with a town name,
are accompanied by a preposition; as,—

Curibus ex oppidô Sabînôrum, from Cures, a town of the Sabines.

Ablative of Time.

A. Time at which.

230. The Ablative is used to denote the time at
which; as,—

quârtâ hôrâ mortuus est, he died at the fourth hour;
annô septuâgésimô cûnsul creâtus, elected consul in his seventieth
year.

1. Any word denoting a period of time may stand in this con-
struction, particularly annus, vâr, aestâs, hiems, dîês, nox, hôra,
comitia (Election Day), lâdf (the Games), etc.

2. Words not denoting time require the preposition in, unless
accompanied by a modifier. Thus:—
in pâce, in peace; in bellô, in war;
but secondô bellô Pânlô, in the second Punic War.

3. Expressions like in cê tempore, in summâ senectûte, take the
preposition because they denote situation rather than time.

B. Time within which.

231. Time within which is denoted by the Ablative
either with or without a preposition; as,—

stella Sâturni trîgintâ annîs cursum çônsit, the planet Saturn
completes its orbit within thirty years;
ter in annô, thrice in the course of the year.

1. Occasionally the Ablative denotes duration of time; as,—
bîennîô prôsperas rês habuit, for two years he had a prosperous administration,
Syntax.

THE LOCATIVE.

232. The Locative case occurs chiefly in the following words:—

1. Regularly in the Singular of names of towns and small islands of the first and second declensions, to denote the place in which; as,—

Rōmae, at Rome; Corinthī, at Corinth; Rhodī, at Rhodes.

2. In the following special forms:—

domī, at home; humī, on the ground;
bellī, in war; militiae, in war;
vesperī, at evening; herī, yesterday.

3. Note the phrase pendēre animī, lit. to be in suspense in one’s mind.

4. For urbs and oppidum in apposition with a Locative, see § 169. 4.

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CHAPTER III. — Syntax of Adjectives.

233. 1. The word with which an Adjective agrees is called its Subject.

2. Attributive and Predicate Adjectives. An Attributive Adjective is one that limits its subject directly; as,—

vir sapiēns, a wise man.

A Predicate Adjective is one that limits its subject through the medium of a verb (usually esse); as. —

vir est sapiēns, the man is wise;
vir vidēbatur sapiēns, the man seemed wise;
vir jūdicātus est sapiēns, the man was judged wise;
haunc virum sapientem jūdicāvimus, we adjudged this man wise

3. Participles and Adjective Pronouns have the construction of Adjectives.
Agreement of Adjectives.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

234. Agreement with One Noun. When an Adjective limits one noun it agrees with it in Gender, Number, and Case.

1. Two Adjectives in the Singular may limit a noun in the Plural; as, prīma et vīcēsima legiōnis, the first and twentieth legions.
2. A Predicate Adjective may stand in the Neuter when its Subject is Masculine or Feminine and denotes a thing; as,—
   mors est miserum, death is a wretched thing.

235. Agreement with Two or More Nouns.

A. AGREEMENT AS TO NUMBER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in number with the nearest noun; as,—
   pater tuus et māter, your father and mother;
   eadem alacritās et studium, the same eagerness and zeal.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative, it is regularly Plural; as,—
   pāx et conoordia sunt pulchrae, peace and concord are glorious.

B. AGREEMENT AS TO GENDER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in gender with the nearest noun; as,—
   rēs operae multae ad laboris, a matter of much effort and labor.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative —
   a) If the nouns are of the same gender, the Adjective agrees with them in gender; as,—
      pater et filius captī sunt, father and son were captured.

      Yet with feminine abstract nouns, the Adjective is more frequently Neuter; as,—
      stultitia et timiditās fugienda sunt, folly and cowardice must be shunned.
b) If the nouns are of different gender; then,—
   a) In case they denote persons, the Adjective is Masculine; as,—
   pater et matēr mortuī sunt, the father and mother have died.
   β) In case they denote things, the Adjective is Neuter; as,—
   honōrēs et victōriae fortuita sunt, honors and victories are accidental.
   γ) In case they include both persons and things, the Adjective is,—
   αα) Sometimes Masculine; as,—
   domus, uxor, liberī inventī sunt, home, wife, and children are secured.
   ββ) Sometimes Neuter; as,—
   parentēs, liberōs, domōs vīlia habēre, to hold parents, children, houses, cheap.
   γγ) Sometimes it agrees with the nearest noun; as,—
   populi prōvincaequē liberātae 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 bēstīōs 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;
malī, the wicked; magna, great things;
Graeci, the Greeks; ūtilīa, useful things;
nostrī, our men.
Adjectives used Substantively. 155

2. Neuter Plural Adjectives thus used are confined mainly to the Nominative and Accusative cases. Such forms as magnūrum, omnīum; magnīs, omnibus, would ordinarily lead to ambiguity; yet where there is no ambiguity, they sometimes occur; as,—

parva compōnere magnīs, to compare small things with great.

Otherwise the Latin says: magnārum rērum, magnīs rēbus, etc.

237. Singular Adjectives used Substantively. Adjectives are less freely used as Substantives in the Singular than in the Plural.

1. Masculine Adjectives occur only occasionally in this use; as,—
probus invidet 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 quidam, a certain scholar.

2. Neuters are likewise infrequent; as,—
vērum, truth;
fāustum, 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,—
allquid vēri, something true;
nihil nōvī, 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,—
adversārius, opponent;    hiberna, winter quarters;
aequālia, contemporary;    propinquus, relative;
amīcus, friend;           socius, partner;
cognātus, kinsman;        sodalīs, comrade;
victimās, neighbor; etc.
ADJECTIVES WITH THE FORCE OF ADVERBS.

239. The Latin often uses an Adjective where the English idiom employs an Adverb or an adverbal phrase; as,—

senātus frequentēs convēnit, the senate assembled in great numbers;
fuit assiduus mēcum, he was constantly with me.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

240. 1. The Comparative often corresponds to the English Positive with ‘rather,’ ‘somewhat,’ ‘too’; as,—

senectūs est loquacior, old age is rather talkative.

2. So the Superlative often corresponds to the Positive with ‘very’; as,—

vir fortissimus, a very brave man.

3. Strengthening Words. Vel and quam are often used with the Superlative as strengthening particles, vel with the force of ‘very,’ and quam with the force of ‘as possible’; as,—

vel maximus, the very greatest;
quam maximae cōpiae, as great forces as possible.

4. Phrases of the type ‘more rich than brave’ regularly take the Comparative in both members; as,—

exercitus erat dītior quam fortior, the army was more rich than brave.

OTHER PECULIARITIES.

241. 1. Certain Adjectives may be used to denote a part of an object, chiefly prīmus, extrēmus, summus, medius, infimus, fūmus; as,—

summus mōns, the top of the mountain;
extrēmā hīme, in the last part of the winter.

2. Prior, prīmus, ultimus, and postrēmus are frequently equivalent to a relative clause; as,—

prīmus eam vīdī, I was the first who saw her;
ultimus dēcessit, he was the last who withdrew.

3. When multus and another adjective both limit the same noun, et is generally used; as,—

multae et magnae cōgitātiōnēs, many (and) great thoughts.
Chapter IV.—Syntax of Pronouns.

Personal Pronouns.—Possessive Pronouns.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

242. 1. The Personal Pronouns as subjects of verbs are, as a rule, not expressed except for the purpose of emphasis, contrast, or clearness. Thus ordinarily:—

videō, I see; amāt, he loves.

But ego tē videō, et tū mē videās, I see you, and you see me.

2. The Genitives mei, tuī, nostrī, vestrī are used only as Objective Genitives; nostrum and vestrum as Genitives of the Whole. Thus:—

memor tuī, mindful of you;
dēsiderium vestrī, longing for you;
nēmō vestrum, no one of you.

a. But nostrum and vosstrum are regularly used in place of the Possessive in the phrases omnium nostrum, omnium vestrum.

3. The First Plural is often used for the First Singular of Pronouns and Verbs. Compare the Eng. editorial ‘we.’

4. When two Verbs govern the same object, the Latin does not use a pronoun with the second, as is the rule in English. Thus:—
virtūs amicitias conciliat et cōnservat, virtue establishes friendships and maintains them (not eās cōnservat).

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

243. 1. The Possessive Pronouns, as a rule, are not employed except for the purpose of clearness. Thus:—

patrem amō, I love my father;
dē filī morte fīlībās, you wept for the death of your son.

But—

dē morte filī meī fīlībās, 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,—
suī manū līberās occīdit, with his own hand he slew his children;
meā quidem sententiā, in my opinion at least.
2. Sometimes the Possessive Pronouns are used with the force of an Objective Genitive; as,—

metus vester, fear of you;
dēsiderium tuum, longing for you.

3. For special emphasis, the Latin employs ipsīus or ipsōrum, in apposition with the Genitive idea implied in the Possessive; as,—

meā ipsīus operā, by my own help;
nostrā ipsōrum operā, by our own help;

v. So sometimes other Genitives; as,—

meā unīus operā, by the assistance of me alone.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

244. 1. The Reflexive Pronoun sē and the Possessive Reflexive suus have a double use:—

I. They may refer to the subject of the clause (either principal or subordinate) in which they stand, — ‘Direct Reflexives’; as,—

sē amant, they love themselves;
suōs amīcōs adjuvāt, he helps his own friends;
eum órāvit, 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,—

mē órāvit ut sē défenderem, he besought me to defend him (lit. that I defend himself);
mē órāverunt, ut fortunārum suārum défensionem susciperem, they besought me to undertake the defense of their fortunes.

a. The Indirect Reflexive is mainly restricted to those clauses which express the thought, not of the author, but of the subject of the principal clause.

2. The Genitive suī is regularly employed, like meī and tuī, as an Objective Genitive, e.g. obitus 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.

3. 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,—

sē amāre, to love one’s self;
suum gēnum propītāre, to propitiate one’s own genius.
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, —

Hannibal eum civēs e civitāte ējēcērunt, his own fellow-citizens drove out Hannibal.

a. This usage is particularly frequent in combination with quiaque: 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 dēfendītis, you defend yourselves.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

245. 1. The Latin has no special reciprocal pronoun (‘each other’), but expresses the reciprocal notion by the phrases: inter nōs, inter vōs, inter sē; as, —

Belgae obsidēs inter sē dedērunt, the Belgae gave each other hostages (lit. among themselves);

amāmus inter nōs, we love each other;

Galli inter sē cohortātī sunt, the Gauls exhorted each other.

a. Note that the Object is not expressed in sentences of this type.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Hīc, Ille, Iste.

246. 1. Where hīc and ille are used in contrast, hīc usually refers to the latter of two objects, and ille to the former.

2. Hīc and ille are often used in the sense of ‘the following’; as, —

Themistocles hīs verbīs epistulam mīsit, Themistocles sent a letter (couched) in the following words;

illud intelligō, omnium ēra in mē conversa esse, I understand this, that the faces of all are turned toward me.

3. Ille often means the famous; as, Solōn ille, the famous Solon.

4. Iste frequently involves contempt; as, īste homō, that fellow!

5. The above pronouns, along with īs, are usually attracted to the gender of a predicate noun; as, hīc est honor, meminisse officium suum, this is an honor, to be mindful of one's duty.
Syntax.

İs.

247. 1. İs often serves as the antecedent of the relative qui. Thus:

Maximum. eum qui Tarentum recēpit, dīlēxi, 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, I am not such a person as to be frightened.

b. Note the phrase id quod, where id stands in apposition with an entire clause; as, —
nōn suspicābātur (id quod nunc sentiet) satis multōs testēs nōbis 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. İs 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, —

În exercītū Sullae et posteā in Crassī fuerat, he had been in the army of Sulla and afterward in that of Crassus;
nullae mē fābulae dēlectant nisi Plautī, no plays delight me except those of Plautus.

4. Note the phrases et is, et ea, etc., in the sense: and that too; as, —
vincula, et ea sempiterna, imprisonment, and that too permanently.

İdem.

248. 1. İdem in apposition with the subject or object often has the force of also, likewise; as, —

quod İdem 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 wise.

2. For İdem atque (ac), the same as, see § 341. 1. c.
Demonstrative Pronouns. — Relative Pronouns. 161

Ipsae.

249. 1. Ipsae, literally self, acquires its special force from the context; as,—

eo ipsō die, on that very day;
ad ipsam rīpam, close to the bank;
ipsō terrōre, by mere fright;
valvae sē ipsae aperuērunt, the doors opened of their own accord;
ipsae aderat, he was present in person.

2. The reflexive pronouns are often emphasized by the addition of ipsae, but ipsae in such cases, instead of standing in apposition with the reflexive, more commonly agrees with the subject; as,—

sēcum ipsi loquuntur, they talk with themselves;
sē ipsae continentēre nōn potest, he cannot contain himself.

3. Ipsae is also used as an Indirect Reflexive for the purpose of marking a contrast or avoiding an ambiguity; as,—

Persae pertimuerunt nē Alcibiadēs ab ipsīs dēscisceret et cum suis in grātiam rediret, the Persians feared that Alcibiades would break with them and become reconciled with his countrymen.
edūae molestissimae ferre dēbent hominēs quae ipsōrum culpā contrācta sunt, men ought to chafe most over those things which have been brought about by their own fault (as opposed to the fault of others).

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

250. Agreement. 1. The Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person, but its case is determined by its construction in the clause in which it stands; as,—

mulier quam vidēbamus, the woman whom we saw;
bona quibus fruimur, the blessings which we enjoy.

2. Where the antecedent is compound, the same principles for number and gender prevail as in case of predicate adjectives under similar conditions (see § 235. B. 2). Thus:—
pater et filiūs, quī captī sunt, the father and son who were captured;
stultitia et timiditās quae fugiēnda sunt, folly and cowardice which must be shunned;
honōrēs et victōriās quae sunt fortūīta, 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,—

\textit{carcer}, quae lautumiae vocantur, \textit{the prison, which is called Lautumiae;}

\textit{Celtae, quae est tertia pars, the Celts, who are the third part.}

4. Sometimes the Relative takes its gender and number from the meaning of its antecedent; as,—

\textit{pars qui bestiis objecti sunt, a part (of the men) who were thrown to beasts.}

5. Occasionally the Relative is attracted into the case of its antecedent; as,—

\textit{natus est patre quod dixi, born of the father that I said.}

251. Antecedent. 1. The antecedent of the Relative is sometimes omitted; as,—

\textit{qui natiuram sequitur sapiens est, he who follows Nature is wise.}

2. The antecedent may be implied in a possessive pronoun (or rarely an adjective); as,—

\textit{nosta qui remansimus caедēs, the slaughter of us who remained;}

\textit{servīn tumūltū, quōs ūsus ac disciplīna sublevārunt, at the uprising of the slaves, whom experience and discipline assisted (servīn = servōrum).}

3. Sometimes the antecedent is repeated with the Relative; as,—

\textit{erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus, there were two routes, by which (routes).}

4. Incorporation of Antecedent in Relative Clause. The antecedent is often incorporated in the relative clause. Thus:—

\textit{a) When the relative clause stands first; as,—}

\textit{quam quisque nōvit artem in hāc sē exercet, let each one practice the branch which he knows.}

\textit{b) When the antecedent is an appositive; as,—}

\textit{nōn longē a Tolōsātium finibus absunt, quae cīvitās est in prōvinciā, they are not far from the borders of the Tolosates, a state which is in our province.}

\textit{c) When the logical antecedent is a superlative; as,—}

\textit{Themistocles dē servīs suīs, quem habuit fīdelissimum, mūsīt, Themistocles sent the most trusty slave he had.}
Relative Pronouns.—Indefinite Pronouns.

4) In expressions of the following type—

quōs es prūdentīā; quae tua est prūdentia, such is your
prudence (lit. of which prudence you are; which is your
prudence).

5. The Relative is never omitted in Latin as it is in English. Thus
the boy I saw must be puer quem vidēi.

6. The Relative is used freely in Latin, particularly at the beginning
of a sentence, where in English we employ a demonstrative; as,—

quō factum est, by this it happened;
quae cum ita sūt, since this is so;
quibus rēbus cognītīa, when these things became known.

7. The Relative introducing a subordinate clause may belong
grammatically to a clause which is subordinate to the one it intro-
duces; as,—

numquam dignē satis laudāri philosophia poterit, cui qui
pāreat, omne tempus aetātibus sine molestiā possit dēgere,
philosophy can never be praised enough, since he who obeys her
can pass every period of life without annoyance (lit. he who obeys
which, etc.).

Here cui introduces the subordinate clause possit and connects it
with philosophia; but cui is governed by pāreat, which is subordi-
nate to possit.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

252. 1. Quis, any one, is the weakest of the Indefinites, and stands
usually in combination with sī, nisi, nē, num; as,—

sī quis putat, if any one thinks.

2. Aliquis (adj. aliquē) is more definite than quis, and corre-
sponds usually to the English some one, somebody, some; as,—
nunc aliquēs dīcat mihi, now let somebody tell me;
ūtinam modo aḡātur aliquēd, oh that something may be done.

3. Quīdam, a certain one, is still more definite than aliquēs; as,—
homō quīdam, a certain man (i.e. one whom I have in mind).

a. Quīdam (with or without quasi, as if) is sometimes used in the
sense: a sort of, kind of; as,—

quaeād cognātiō, a sort of relationship;
mōrs est quasi quaedam migrātiō, death is a kind of transfer,
as it were.
Syntax.

4. *Quisquam*, any one, any one whoever (more general than *quis*), and its corresponding adjective *ullus*, any, occur mostly in negative and conditional sentences, in interrogative sentences implying a negative, and in clauses of comparison; as,—

*justitia numquam nocet cuiquam*, justice never harms anybody;
*si quisquam*, Cato sapientius fuit, *if* anybody was ever wise, Cato was;
*potestne quisquam sine perturbatione animi irasci*, can anybody be angry without excitement?
*si ullum modo fieri potest*, if it can be done in any way;
*taetrior hic tyrannus fuit quam quisquam superiorum*, he was a wiler tyrant than any of his predecessors.

5. *Quisque*, each one, is used especially under the following circumstances: —

a) In connection with *suus*. See § 2:4. 4. a.

b) In connection with a Relative or Interrogative Pronoun; as,—

*quod quique obtigit, id teneat*, what falls to each, that let him hold.

c) In connection with superlatives; as,—

*optimus quisque*, all the best (lit. each best one).

d) With ordinal numerals; as,—

*quintus quoque annus*, every fourth year (lit. each fifth year).

6. *Nemö*, no one. In addition to its other uses, stands regularly with adjectives used substantively; as,—

*nemö mortalis*, no mortal;
*nemö Römanus*, no Roman.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

253. 1. *Alius*, another, and *alter*, the other, are often used correlatively; as,—

*aliud loquitur, aliud sentit*, he says one thing, he thinks another;
*alius resistunt, aliis fugiunt*, some resist, others flee;
*alter exercitum perdidit, alter vendidit*, one ruined the army, the other sold it:
*alteri se in montem recerpèrunt, alteri ad impedimenta se contulerunt*, the one party retreated to the mountain, the others betook themselves to the baggage.
Agreement of Verb with Subject.

2. Where the English says one does one thing, another another, the Latin uses a more condensed form of statement; as,—

allus allud amat, one likes one thing, another another;
allud allis placet, one thing pleases some, another others.

a. So sometimes with adverbs; as,—

allī allō fuglunt, some flee in one direction, others in another.

3. The Latin also expresses the notion 'each other' by means of allus repeated; as,—

Gallī allius allum cohortātī sunt, the Gauls encouraged each other.

4. Cēterī means the rest, all the others; as,—

cēterīs praestāre, to be superior to all the others.

5. Reliquī means the others in the sense of the rest, those remaining,—hence is the regular word with numerals; as,—

reliquī sex, the six others.

6. Nescio quis forms a compound indefinite pronoun with the force of some one or other; as,—

causidicus nescio quis, some pettyfogger or other;
mīsit nescio quem, he sent some one or other;
nescio quō pactō, somehow or other.

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Chapter V. — Syntax of Verbs.

Agreement.

With One Subject.

254. 1. Agreement in Number and Person. A Finite Verb agrees with its subject in Number and Person; as,—
vōs vidētis, you see;
pater filiōs instituit, the father trains his sons.

2. Agreement in Gender. In the compound forms of the verb the participle regularly agrees with its subject in gender; as,—
sēditō repressa est, the mutiny was checked.
3. But when a predicate noun is of different gender or number from its subject, the verb usually agrees with its nearest substantive; as,—

Tarquinii materna patria erat, Tarquini was his native country on his mother's side;

nōn omnis error stultitia est dīcenda, 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,—

multitūdō hominum convenērant, a crowd of men had gathered.

b) In Gender; as,—

duo filii crucibus addīxi sunt, two thousand (men) were crucified.

With Two or More Subjects.

255. 1. Agreement in Number. With two or more subjects the verb is regularly plural; as,—

pater et fīlius mortuī sunt, the father and son died.

2. But sometimes the verb agrees with the nearest subject; viz., —

a) When the verb precedes both subjects or stands between them; as,—

mortuus est pater et filius;
pater mortuus est et filius.

b) When the subjects are connected by aut; aut . . . aut;

vel . . . vel; neque . . . neque; as,—

neque pater neque filii mortuus est, neither father nor son died.

3. When the different subjects are felt together as constituting a whole, the singular is used; as,—

temerītās ignōrātiōque vitiōsa est, rashness and ignorance are bad.

a. This is regularly the case in senātus populusque Rōmānus.
4. **Agreement in Person.** With compound subjects of different persons the verb always takes the **first** person rather than the **second**, and the **second** rather than the **third**; as,—

si tū et Tullia valētis, ego et Cicerō valēmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.

5. **Agreement in Gender.** With subjects of different genders the participle in the compound tenses follows the same principles as laid down for predicate adjectives. See § 235, B, 2.

**VOICES.**

256. 1. The Passive Voice sometimes retains traces of its original middle or reflexive meaning; as,—

ego nōn patiār eum défendī, I shall not allow him to defend himself.

2. In imitation of Greek usage many perfect passive participles are used by the poets as indirect middles, *i.e.* the subject is viewed as acting not upon himself, but as doing something *in his own interest*; as,—

velātus tempora, having veiled his temples.

a. Occasionally finite forms of the verb are thus used; as,—

tunicā indūcitur artus, he covers his limbs with a tunic.

3. Intransitive Verbs may be used impersonally in the passive; as,—

curritur, people run (lit. it is run);
veantum est, he (they, etc.) came (lit. it was come).

**TENSES.**

**TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE.**

257. 1. The Latin tenses express two distinct notions: —

a) The **period of time** to which the action belongs: Present, Past, or Future.

b) The **kind of action**: Undefined, Going on, or Completed.

The Latin with its six tenses is able to express each of the three kinds of action for each of the three periods of time (making practically nine
tenses). It does this by employing certain tenses in more than one way, as may be seen by the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KIND OF ACTION</th>
<th>UNDEFINED</th>
<th>GOING ON</th>
<th>COMPLETED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>scribō, I write.</td>
<td>scripsam, I write.</td>
<td>scripsam, I write.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical Perfect</td>
<td>scripsai, I wrote.</td>
<td>scripsam, I was writing.</td>
<td>scripsam, I shall be writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>scribō, I shall write.</td>
<td>scripsam, I shall be writing.</td>
<td>scripsam, I shall have written.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Principal and Historical Tenses.

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

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

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

Present Indicative.

259. Besides the two uses indicated in the table, the Present Indicative presents the following peculiarities:

1. It is used to denote a general truth, i.e. something true not merely in the present but at all times (‘Gnomic Present’); as, —

\[ \text{virtūs concilliat amicitias et conservat, virtue establishes ties of friendship and maintains them (i.e. always does so).} \]
Tenses.

2. It is used of an attempted action (‘Conative Present’); as,—

**dum vitant vitia, in contrāria currunt, while they try to avoid (vitant) vices, they rush into opposite ones.**

3. In lively narration the Present is often used of a past action (‘Historical Present’); as,—

**Caesar Haeduīs obсидēs imperat, Caesar demanded hostages of the Haeduī (lit. demands).**

4. In combination with jam, jam diū, jam prīdem, and similar words, the Present is frequently used of an action originating in the past and continuing in the present; as,—

**jam diū cupiō tā visere, I have long been desiring to visit you (i.e. I desire and have long desired).**

Imperfect Indicative.

260. 1. The Imperfect primarily denotes action **going on in past time**; as,—

**librum legēbam, I was reading a book.**

*a*. This force makes the Imperfect especially adapted to serve as the tense of description (as opposed to mere narration).

2. From the notion of action **going on**, there easily develops the notion of repeated or customary action; as,—

**lēgātōs interrogābat, he kept asking the envoys;**

**puer C. Duīlium vidēbam, as a boy I often used to see Gaius Duilius.**

3. The Imperfect often denotes an attempted action (‘Conative Imperfect’) or an action as beginning (‘Inceptive Imperfect’); as,—

**hostēs nostrōs intrā mūntiōnēs prōgredi prohibēbant, the enemy tried to prevent (prohibēbant) our men from advancing within the fortifications (‘Conative’);**

**ad proelium sē expediēbant, they were beginning to get ready for battle (‘Inceptive’).**

4. The Imperfect, with jam, jam diū, jam dūdum, etc., is sometimes used of an action which had been continuing some time; as,—

**domiciliōm Rōmae multōs jam annōs habēbat, he had had his residence at Rome for many years (i.e. he had it at this time and had long had it).**
Syntax.

**Future Indicative.**

261. 1. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future than is the English. We say: ‘If he comes, I shall be glad,’ where we really mean: ‘If he shall come,’ etc. In such cases the Latin rarely admits the Present, but generally employs the Future.

2. Sometimes the Future has Imperative force; as, dícēs, 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,—

nōvi, cognōvi, I know (lit. I have become acquainted with);
cōnsuevī, I am wont (lit. I have become accustomed).

\(B\). *Historical Perfect.* The Historical Perfect is the tense of narration (as opposed to the Imperfect, the tense of description); as,—

Rēgulus in senātum vēnit, mandāta exposuit, redī captīvōs negāvit esse útile, Regulus came into the Senate, set forth his commission, said it was useless for captives to be returned.

1. Occasionally the Historical Perfect is used of a general truth (‘Gnomic Perfect’).

**Pluperfect Indicative.**

263. The Latin Pluperfect, like the English Past Perfect, denotes an act completed in the past; as,—

Caesar Rhēnum trānsīre dēcrēverat, sed nāvēs deerant, Caesar had decided to cross the Rhine, but had no boats.

\(a\). In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, \(A\)), the Pluperfect has the force of an Imperfect; as,—
nōveram, I knew.

**Future Perfect Indicative.**

264. The Future Perfect denotes an action completed in future time. Thus:—

scribam 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.

\(b\). In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, \(A\)) the Future Perfect has the force of a Future; as,—
nōverō, I shall know.
Sequence of Tenses.

Epistolary Tenses.

265. In letters the writer often uses tenses which are not appropriate at the time of writing, but which will be so at the time when his letter is received; he thus employs the Imperfect and the Perfect for the Present, and the Pluperfect for the Present Perfect; as,—

nihil habēbam quod scriberem, neque enim novī quidquam audieram et ad tuās omnēs epistulās jam rescriptor, I have nothing to write, for I have heard no news and have already answered all your letters.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

266. A. In Independent Sentences. See §§ 272–280.

B. In Dependent Sentences. In dependent sentences the tenses of the subjunctive usually conform to the so-called

Sequence of Tenses.

267. 1. In the Subjunctive the Present and Perfect are Principal tenses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, Historical.

2. By the Sequence of Tenses Principal tenses are followed by Principal, Historical by Historical. Thus:—

Principal Sequence, —

videō quid faciās, I see what you are doing.
vidēbō quid faciās, I shall see what you are doing.
vidērō quid faciās, I shall have seen what you are doing.
videō quid fāceris, I see what you have done.
vidēbō quid fāceris, I shall see what you have done.
vidērō quid fāceris, I shall have seen what you have done.

Historical Sequence, —

vidēbam quid fācerēs, I saw what you were doing.
vidi quid fācerēs, I saw what you were doing.
vidēram quid fācerēs, I had seen what you were doing.
vidēbam quid fēcisses, I saw what you had done.
vidi quid fēcisses, I saw what you had done.
vidēram quid fēcisses, I had seen what you had done.

3. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive denote incomplete action, the Perfect and Pluperfect completed action, exactly as in the Indicative.
Peculiarities of Sequence.

268. 1. The Perfect Indicative is usually an historical tense (even when translated in English as a Present Perfect), and so is followed by the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive; as,—

dēmonstrāvī quārē ad causam accēderem, I have shown why I took the case (lit. I showed why, etc.).

2. A dependent Perfect Infinitive is treated as an historical tense wherever, if resolved into an equivalent Indicative, it would be historical; as,—

videor ostendisse quālēs dei essent, I seem to have shown of what nature the gods are (ostendisse here corresponds to an Indicative, ostendī, I showed).

3. The Historical Present is sometimes regarded as a principal tense, sometimes as historical. Thus:—

Sulla suōs hortātur ut fortī animō sint, Sulla exhorts his soldiers to be stout-hearted;

Gallōs hortātur ut arma caperent, he exhorted the Gauls to take arms.

4. Conditional sentences of the ‘contrary-to-fact’ type are not affected by the principles for the Sequence of Tenses; as,—

honestum tāle est ut vel sī ignōrārent id hominēs suā tamen pulchritūdine laudābile esset, virtue is such a thing that even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be worthy of praise for its own loveliness.

5. In conditional sentences of the ‘contrary-to-fact’ type the Imperfect Subjunctive is usually treated as an Historical tense; as,—

sī sōlōs eōs dīcerēs miserōs, quibus moriendum esset, nēminem tū quidem eōrum qui viverent exciperēs, if you called only those wretched who must die, you would except no one of those who live.

6. In clauses of Result and some others, the Perfect Subjunctive is sometimes used as an historical tense. Thus:—

rēx tantum mōtus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem jūdicārit, the king was so much moved that he adjudged Tissaphernes an enemy.

This construction is rare in Cicero, but frequent in Nepos and subsequent historians. The Perfect Subjunctive in this use represents a
Sequence of Tenses.

result simply as a fact without reference to the continuance of the act, and therefore corresponds to an Historical Perfect Indicative of direct statement. Thus, jūdicārit in the above example corresponds to a jūdicāvit, he adjudged. To denote a result as something continuous, all writers use the Imperfect Subjunctive after historical tenses.

7. Sometimes perspicuity demands that the ordinary principles of Sequence be abandoned altogether. Thus: —

a) We may have the Present or Perfect Subjunctive after an historical tense; as, —

Verrēs Siciliam ita perdidit ut ea restitū nōn possit,
Verrēs so ruined Sicily that it cannot be restored
(Direct statement; nōn potest restitū);

ārdēbat Hortēnsius dicendī cupiditāte sic, ut in nūllō
flagrantius studium viderim, Hortensius burned so
with eagerness to speak that I have seen in no one a
greater desire (Direct statement: nūllō vīdī, I have
seen in no one).

NOTE.—This usage is different from that cited under 6. Here, by neglect of Sequence, the Perfect is used though a principal tense; there the Perfect was used as an historical tense.

b) We may have a principal tense followed by the Perfect Subjunctive used historically; as, —

nesció quid causae fuerit cūr nūllās ad mē litterās
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: —

1. a) The Future is supplied by the Present after principal tenses, by the Imperfect after historical tenses.

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

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

Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperet, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall order;
Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperāret, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should order;
Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāverit, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall have ordered;
Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāvisset, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should have ordered.

2. Even where the context does not contain a Future tense in the main clause, Future time is often expressed in the subordinate clauses by the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. Thus:

timēō nē veniat, I am afraid he will come;
Caesar exspectābat quid cōnsilī hostēs caperent, Caesar was waiting to see what plan the enemy would adopt.

3. Where greater definiteness is necessary the periphrastic forms in -ūrus 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, brevī, statim, etc., in connection with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive; as, —
nōn dubitō quīn tē mox hūcus reī pausīteat, I do not doubt that you will soon cease of this thing;
nōn dubitābam quīn haec rēs brevī cōnsīderētur, I did not doubt that this thing would soon be finished.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

270 1. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb on which they depend. Thus:

a) The Present Infinitive represents an act as contemporaneous with the time of the verb on which it depends; as, —
vidētur honōrēs adsequī, he seems to be gaining honors;
vidēbātur honōrēs adsequī, he seemed to be gaining honors.
Tenses of the Infinitive.

6) The Perfect Infinitive represents an act as prior to the time of the verb on which it depends; as,—

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtus esse, he seems to have gained honors;
visus est honōrēs adsecūtus esse, he seemed to have gained honors.

c) The Future Infinitive represents an act as subsequent to that of the verb on which it depends; as,—

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtūrūs esse, he seems to be about to gain honors;
visus est honōrēs adsecūtūrūs esse, he seemed to be about to gain honors.

2. Where the English says 'ought to have done,' 'might have done,' etc., the Latin uses dēbui, oportuit, potui (dēbēbam, oportēbat, poteram), with the Present Infinitive; as,—

dēbuit dīcere, he ought to have said (lit. owed it to say);

oportuit venire, he ought to have come;

potuit vidēre, he might have seen.

a. Oportuit, volē, nōlē (and in poetry some other verbs), may take a Perfect Infinitive instead of the Present; as,—

hōc jam pridem factum esse oportuit, this ought long ago to have been done.

3. Periphrastic Future Infinitive. Verbs that have no Participial Stem express the Future Infinitive Active and Passive by fore ut or futūrum esse ut, with the Subjunctive; as,—

spērō fore ut tē paenitēsat levitātis, I hope you will repent of your sickness (lit. hope it will happen that you repent);

spērō futūrum esse ut hostēs arosantur, I hope that the enemy will be kept off.

a. The Periphrastic Future Infinitive is often used, especially in the Passive, even in case of verbs which have the Participial Stem; as,—

spērō fore ut hostēs vincantur, I hope the enemy will be conquered.

4. Passives and Deponents sometimes form a Future Perfect Infinitive with fore; as,—

spērō epistulam scriptam fore, I hope the letter will have been written;

putō mō omnia adeptom fore, I think that I shall have gained everything.
Syntax.

THE MOODS.

MOODS IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

The Indicative in Independent Sentences.

271. The Indicative is used for the statement of facts, the supposition of facts, or inquiry after facts.

1. Note the following idiomatic uses:

   a) With possum; as,—

      possum multa dīcere, I might say much;
poteram multa dīcere, I might have said much (§ 270, 2).

   b) In such expressions as longum est, aequum est, melius est, difficile est, utilius est, and some others; as,—

      longum est aī dīcere, 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 —

   1. As willed — Volitive Subjunctive;
   2. As desired — Optative Subjunctive;
   3. Conceived of as possible — Potential Subjunctive.

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

273. The Volitive Subjunctive represents the action as willed. It always implies authority on the part of the speaker, and has the following varieties: —

A. HORTATORY SUBJUNCTIVE.

274. The Hortatory Subjunctive expresses an exhortation. This use is confined to the first person plural, of the Present. The negative is nē. Thus: —

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

B. Jussive Subjunctive.

275. The Jussive Subjunctive expresses a command. The Jussive stands regularly in the Present Tense, and is used —

1. Most frequently in the third singular and third plural; as, —
   dicat, let him tell;
   dicant, let them tell;
   quae esse dant improbi, wherefore let the wicked depart!

2. Less frequently in the second person, often with indefinite force; as, —
   isto bone utare, use that advantage;
   modesto vivas, live temperately.

C. Prohibitive Subjunctive.

276. The Subjunctive is used in the second and third persons singular and plural, with ne, to express a prohibition. Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning; as, —

ne repugnetis, do not resist!

ta verbo istam ne reliqueris, don’t leave her!

impli ne placare audeant dea, let not the impious dare to appease the gods!

a. Neither of these constructions is frequent in classical prose.

b. A commoner method of expressing a prohibition in the second person is by the use of nolli (nolite) with a following infinitive, or by cavet or cavet ne with the Subjunctive; as, —

nolli hoc facere, don’t do this (lit. be unwilling to do)!

nolite mentiri, do not lie!

cavet ignoscas, cavet te misereat, do not forgive, do not pity!

cavet ne haec facias, 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, indignation, the impossibility of an act, obligation, or propriety. The Present is
used referring to present time, the Imperfect referring to past. The negative is non. Thus:—

quid faciam, what shall I do?
egood redeam, I go back!

hic cedamus! hujus condicioles audiamus! are we to

now to him! are we to listen to his terms?

quid facerem, what was I to do?
hunc ego non diligam, should I not cherish this man?
a. These Deliberative Questions are usually purely Rhetorical in char-
acter, 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 hoc verum, I grant that this is true (lit. let this be true);

ne sint in senectute viris, I grant there is not strength in old age.

fuerit malus civis alios; tibi quando esse coepit, I grant that he

was a bad citizen to others; when did he begin to be so toward you?

OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

279. The Optative Subjunctive occurs in expressions of

wishing. The negative is regularly ne.

1. The Present Tense, often accompanied by utinam, is used where

the wish is conceived of as possible.

di ictaec prohibeant, may the gods prevent that!

falsus utinam valet sim, oh that I may be a false prophet!

ne veniant, may they not come!

2. The Imperfect expresses, in the form of a wish, the regret that

something is not so now; the Pluperfect that something was not so in

the past. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are regularly accompanied by

utinam; as,—

utinam istud ex animo diceret, would that you were saying that in

earnest, (i.e. I regret that you are not saying it in earnest);

Pelleus utinam vitasset Apollinis arcus, would that Achilles had

escaped the bow of Apollo;
utinam ne natus esset, would that I had not been born.
The Potential Subjunctive.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

280. The Potential Subjunctive expresses a possibility. The negative is non. The following uses are to be noted:—

1. The 'May' Potential. — The Potential Subjunctive may designate a mere possibility (English auxiliary may). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—
   
dicat 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.

2. ‘Should’-'Would' Potential. — The Potential Subjunctive may represent something as depending upon a condition expressed or understood (English auxiliary should, would). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—
   fortunam citius reperiäs quam retineäs, one would more quickly find Fortune than keep it (i.e. if one should make the trial);
   crediderim, I should believe.

   a. Here belongs the use of velim, mälím, nólím, as softened forms of statement for volô, mälo, nólō. Thus:—
   velim mihi ignóscäs, I wish you would forgive me;
   nólím putês 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,—
   dīäs dēfectāt, si cóner enumerāre causās, time would fail if I should attempt to enumerate the reasons.

3. ‘Can’-'Could' Potential. — In the Present and Imperfect the Potential occurs in the second person singular (with indefinite force; § 356, 3) of a few verbs of perceiving, seeing, thinking, and the like; as,—
   videäs, cernäs, one can see, one can perceive;
   crēderäs, one could believe;
   vidēräs, cerneräs, one could see, perceive;
   putāräs, one could imagine.

4. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of the contrary-to-fact type (see § 304) are also Potential in character. By omission of the Protasis, such an Apodosis sometimes stands alone, particularly velim, nóllem, mällem; as,—
   velim id quidem, I should wish that (i.e. were I bold
The Imperative.

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

ēgredere ex urbe, depart from the city;
miliē 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 vōbis 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 mortuum in urbe nē sepellītō, no one shall bury a dead body in the city;
amicitia rēgī Antiochō cum populō Rōmānō hīs lēgibus et condiciōnibus estō, let there be friendship between Antiochus 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);
ignōscatō 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, b.

3. Questions in the Indicative introduced by quīn (why not?) are often equivalent to an Imperative or to the Horatary 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 cōnsendimus, let us mount our horses (lit. why do we not mount our horses?).
Clauses of Purpose.

MOODS IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Clauses of Purpose.

282. 1. Clauses of Purpose are introduced most commonly by ut (utī), quō (that, in order that), nē (in order that not, lest), and stand in the Subjunctive; as,—

edimus, ut vivāmus, we eat that we may live;
adjūtā mē quō hoc fiat facilius, help me, in order that this may be done more easily;
portās clāsiit, nē quam oppidānī injūriam accipereant, 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 abstinerant, they are doing this in order to frighten Chremes.

b. Ut nē is sometimes found instead of nē. Thus:—

ut nē quid neglegenter agāmus, in order that we may not do anything carelessly.

c. Ut nōn (not nē) is used where the negation belongs to some single word, instead of to the purpose clause as a whole. Thus:—

ut nōn ejactus ad alīēnōs, sed invitātus ad tuōs videāre, that you may seem not driven out among strangers, but invited to your own friends.

d. To say 'and that not' or 'or that not,' the Latin regularly uses nēve (neu); as,—

ut éārum rērum vis minuerētur, neu pontif nocērent, that the violence of these things might be lessened, and that they might not harm the bridge;
profugit, nē caperētur nēve interficētur, he fled, that he might not be captured or killed.

e. But neque (for nēve) is sometimes used in a second Purpose Clause when ut stands in the first, and, after the Augustan era, even when the first clause is introduced by nē.

f. Purpose Clauses sometimes stand in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun; as,—

bāc causā, ut pācem habērent, on this account, that they might have peace.
2. A Relative Pronoun (qui) or Adverb (ubi, unde, quō) is frequently used to introduce a Purpose Clause; as,—

Helvētīi lēgātōs mittunt, qui dīcerent, the Helvetii sent envoys to say (lit. who should say);
haec habuī, dē senectūte quae dīcerem, I had these things to say about old age;
nōn habēbat quō fugeret, he had no place to which to flee (lit. whither he might flee).

a. Quī in such clauses is equivalent to ut ści, ut ęgo, etc.; ubi to ut ibi; unde to ut inde; quō to ut eō.

3. Relative clauses of purpose follow dignus, indignus, and idōneus; as,—
idōneus fuit nēmō quem imitārēre, there was no one suitable for you to imitate (cf. nēmō fuit quem imitārēre, there was no one for you to imitate);
dignus est quī alīquandō imperet, he is worthy to rule sometime.

4. Purpose Clauses often depend upon something to be supplied from the context instead of upon the principal verb of their own sentences; as,—

ut haec omnīa omittam, abiimus, to pass over all this, (I will say that) we departed.

Clauses of Characteristic.

283. 1. A relative clause used to express a quality or characteristic of a general or indefinite antecedent is called a Clause of Characteristic, and usually stands in the Subjunctive; as,—

multa sunt, quae mentem acuant, there are many things which sharpen the wits.

Clauses of Characteristic are opposed to those relative clauses which are used merely to state some fact about a definite antecedent, and which therefore take the Indicative; as,—

Catō, senex jūcundus, qui Sapiēns appellātus est, Cato, a delight-

ful old man, who was called 'The Wise.'

The Clause of Characteristic implies 'a person of the sort that does something'; the Indicative relative clause implies 'a particular person who does something.'
2. Clauses of Characteristic are used especially after such expressions as, est qui; sunt qui; nemo est qui; nulsus est qui; unus est qui; solus est qui; quia est qui; is qui; etc. Thus:—

sunt qui dicant, there are (some) who say;
nemo est qui putet, there is nobody who thinks;
sapienitia est una quae maestitiam pellat, philosophy is the only thing that drives away sorrow;
quae civitas est quae non evert possit, what state is there that cannot be overthrown?
non is non qui improb laudem, I am not the sort of man that praises the wicked.

a. Sometimes (very rarely in Cicero and Caesar) the clause of characteristic is used after comparatives; as,—
non longius hostes aberrant quam quod talum adig possit, the enemy were not too far off for a dart to reach them (lit. further off than [a point] to which a dart could be cast).

3. The Clause of Characteristic often conveys an accessory notion of cause (since) or opposition (although). Thus:—

a) Cause. The relative is then frequently accompanied by ut quippe, utpote; as,—

ο fortunate adullescens, qui tuae virtutis hominum praecolum inveneris, O fortunate man, since you have found a Homer as the herald of your valor;
ut qui optimo jure eam provinciam obtinuerit, since he held that province by excellent right.

b) Opposition:—

egomet qui aordo Graecas litteras attigisseem, tamen compluris diis Athenis commoratus sum, I, although I had taken up Greek literature late in life, nevertheless tarried several days at Athens.

4. Clauses of Characteristic may also be introduced by quin = qui (quae, quod) non; as,—
nemo est quin saepu audierit, there is no one who has not often heard;
nemoe fuit militem quin vulnerarietur, there was not one of the soldiers who was not wounded.

5. Related to Clauses of Characteristic are also phrases of the type: quod sciam, so far as I know; quod audierim, so far as I have heard.
Syntax.

284. 1. 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, tālis, tot, is (= tālis), tam, ita, sic, adeō, or some similar word. Thus:—

quis tam dēmēns est ut suā voluntāte maereat, who is so senseless as to mourn of his own volition?

Siciliam ita vāstāvit ut restituit in antiquum statum nōn possit, he has so ravaged Sicily that it cannot be restored to its former condition;

mōns altissimus impendēbat, ut facile perpaucō probāre posse
tsent, a very high mountain overhung, so that a very few could easily stop them;

nōn is es ut tē pudor umquam ā turpitūdine āvocārit, you are not so constituted that shame ever called you back from baseness.

2. A Result Clause is often introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb, quī (= ut is), quō (= ut eō), cē. ; as,—

nēmō est tam senex quī sē annum nōn putet posse vīvere, nobody
is so old as not to think he will live a year;

habetis eum cōnsulem quī pārēre vestris dēcrētīs nōn dubitet,
you have a consul such as does not hesitate to obey your decrees.

a. These Relative Clauses of Result are closely related to the Clause of Characteristic, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish the two constructions. It is best to class the relative clause as one of Characteristic, unless the result idea is clear and unmistakable.

3. Result clauses may also be introduced by quīn = ut nōn; as,—
nihil tam difficilē est quīn quaerendō īnvestīgāri possit, nothing
is so difficult that it cannot be discovered by searching;

nēmō est tam fortis quīn ref novitāte perturbaētur, no one is so steadfast as not to be thrown into confusion by a strange occurrence.

4. Note the use of quam ut (sometimes quam alone) to denote Result after comparatives; as,—

urbe erat mūniōr quam ut prīmō imperā capī posset, the city was too
strongly fortified to be taken at the first attack (it more strongly fortified
than [so] that it could be taken, etc.).
Causal Clauses.

285. Causal clauses are introduced chiefly by the following particles:—

1. Quod, quia, quoniam.
2. Cum.
3. Quandō.

286. The use of moods is as follows:—

1. Quod, quia, quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is that of the writer or speaker; they take the Subjunctive when the reason is viewed as that of another. Thus:—

Parthōs timeō quod diffidō cōpiās nostrīs, I fear the Parthians, because I distrust our troops.

Themistocles, quia nōn tūtus erat, Coreyram dēmigrāvit, Themistocles, since he was not safe, moved to Corcyra.

neque mō vīxisse paenitēt, quoniam bene vīxi, I do not regret having lived, since I have lived well.

Sōcratēs accusātus 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.)

Haeduī Caesarī grātiās dēgurunt, quod sē periculō liberāvissent, the Haeduī thanked Caesar because he had delivered them from danger. (The reason of the Haeduī.)

quoniam Miltiadēs dīcere nōn posset, verba prō eō fēcit Tisagorās, since Miltiades could not speak, Tisagoras spoke for him. (The reason of Tisagoras.)

noctū ambulābat Themistocles, quod somnum capere nōn posset, Themistocles used to walk at night because (as he said) he couldn’t sleep.

a. Verbs of thinking and saying often stand in the Subjunctive in causal clauses as though the act of thinking or saying, and not the contents of the thought or language, constituted the reason. Thus:—

Bellovacī suum numerum nōn complēvērunt, quod sē suō nōmine cum Rōmānīs bellum gestūrōs dīce- rent, the Bellovaci did not furnish their complement,
because they said they were going to wage war with the Romans on their own account.

6. Nōn quod, nōn quō (by attraction for nōn eō quod), nōn quia, not that, not because; and nōn quod nōn, nōn quō nōn, nōn quin, not that . . . not; not because . . . not; not but that, are usually employed merely to introduce a hypothetical reason, and hence take the Subjunctive; as,—

id fēci, nōn quod vōs hanc dēfēnsiōnem dēsiderāre arbitrārē, sed ut omnēs intellegent, this I did, not because I thought you needed this defense, but that all might perceive;

Crassō commendātiōnem nōn sum pollicitus, nōn quin eam valūram apud tē arbitrārē, sed egō mihi commendātiōne nōn vidēbātur, I did not promise a recommendation to Crassus, not that I did not think it would have weight with you, but because he did not seem to me to need recommendation.

7. 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,—

bōc ita sentiō, nōn quia sum ipse augur, sed quia aś exīstimāre nōs est necesse, this I think, not because I am myself an augur (which I really am), but because it is necessary for us to think so.

2. Cum causal regularly takes the Subjunctive; as,—

quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
cum sē mortālis, quae mortālia sunt, cūrā, since you are mortal, care for what is mortal.

7. Note the phrase cum praesertim (praesertim cum), especially since; as,—

Haeduōs accusat, praesertim cum eōrum precibus ad-
ductus bellum suscepit, he blamed the Haedu, especially since he had undertaken the war at their entreaties.

3. Quandō (less frequent than the other causal particles) governs the Indicative; as,—

id omittō, quandō vōbis ita placet, I pass over that, since you so wish.
Temporal Clauses introduced by Postquam, Ut, Ubi, Simul ac, etc.

287. 1. Postquam (posteaquam), after; ut, ubi, when; cum primum, simul, simul ac (simul atque), as soon as, when used to refer to a single past act regularly take the Perfect Indicative; as,—

Epaminondas postquam audīvit vicisse Boeōtōs, 'Satis' inquit 'vīxi,' Epaminondas, after he heard that the Boetians had conquered, said, 'I have lived enough;'

id ut audīvit, Corēram dēmigrāvit, when he heard this, he moved to Corcyra;

Caesar cum primum potuit, ad exercitum contendit, Caesar, as soon as he could, hurried to the army;

ubi dē Caesaris adventū certōrēs factī 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.

2. To denote the repeated occurrence of an act, ut, ubi, simul atque, as often as, when following an historical tense, take the Pluperfect Indicative (compare §§ 288, 3; 302, 3); as,—

ut quāisque Verris animum offenerat, in lautomīs statim consciēbātur, whenever anybody had offended Verres's feelings, he was forthwith put in the stone-quarry;

hostēs, ubi aliquōs ēgregiēsō conspecerant, adorēbantur, whenever the enemy had seen any men disembarking, they attacked them.

a. In Livy and succeeding historians the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used to denote this repeated occurrence of an act ('Indefinite Frequency'); as,—

id ubi dixerat, hastam mittēbat, whenever he had said that, he hurled a spear.

3. Occasionally the above conjunctions are followed by the Pluperfect Indicative of a single occurrence. This is regularly the case with postquam in expressions denoting a definite interval of time (days, months, years, etc.), such as post tertium annum quam, triennīō postquam. Thus:—
quīnque post diēbus quam Lūcā discesserat, ad Sardiniam vēnit, five days after he had departed from Luca he came to Sardinia;
postquam occupātāe Syrācūsae erant, profectus est Carthāginem, after Syracuse had been seized, he set out for Carthage.

4. The Imperfect Indicative also sometimes occurs to denote a continued state; as, —
postquam Rōmam adventābant, senātus consūlūs est, after they were on the march towards Rome, the Senate was consulted;
postquam stūēti utrimque stābant, after they had been drawn up on both sides and were in position.

5. Rarely postquam, posteāquam, following the analogy of cum, take the Subjunctive, but only in the historical tenses; as, —
posteāquam sāmptūās fieri funera coepissent, lēge subītā sunt, after funerals had begun to be elaborate, they were done away with by law.

Temporal Clauses introduced by Cum.

A. Cum referring to the past.

288. 1. Cum, when referring to the past, takes —

A. The Indicative (Imperfect, Historical Perfect, or Pluperfect) to denote the point of time at which something occurs.

B. The Subjunctive (Imperfect or Pluperfect) to denote the situation or circumstances under which something occurs.

Examples: —

INDICATIVE.
an tum erās cōnsul, cum in Palātiō mea domus ārdēbat, or were you consul at the time when my house burned up on the Palatine?
crēdō tum cum Sicilia flōrēbat opibus et cōpīlis magna artīficia fuisse in ea Insula, 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 passed.
**Cum-Clauses.**

Lysander, cum vellet Lycūrgi lēgēs committāre, prohibitus est, when Lysander desired to change the laws of Lycurgus, he was prevented;

Pythagoras, cum in geōmetriā quiddam novī invēnisset, Mūsās bovem immolāssē dīcitur, when Pythagoras had discovered something new in geometry, he is said to have sacrificed an ox to the Muses.

a. Note that the Indicative is much less frequent in such clauses than the Subjunctive, and is regularly confined to those cases where the main clause has tūm, eō diē, eō aūtē, 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, vīx, aegrē, nōndum; as,—

jam Gallī ex oppidō fugere apparābant, cum mātrēs familiae repente prōcūrrērunt, 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 Labīnērum adōrītī parābant, cum duās legiōnēs vēnisse cognōscunt, the Treveri were preparing to attack, when (suddenly) they learned that two legions had arrived.

3. To denote a recurring action in the past, cum is followed by the Indicative, particularly of the Pluperfect (compare §§ 287, 2; 302, 3); as,—

cum ad alīquod oppidum vēnerat, eādem lectā ad cubiculum dēfērēbatur, whenever he had arrived at some town, he was (always) carried in the same litter to his room;

cum equitātus noster sē in agrōs ājēcerat, essēdāriōs ex silvīs ēmītēbat, whenever our cavalry had advanced into the fields, he would send his charioeters out from the woods.

a. Sometimes the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is thus used; as,—

sepe cum alīquem vīdēret minus bene vestītum, suum amiculum dedit, often, whenever he saw some one more poorly clothed, he gave him his own mantle;

cum prōcūcursēsent, Numidae offugiēbant, as often as they had advanced, the Numidians ran away.

This construction is frequent in Livy and subsequent historians.
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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 réa agitur, paríeás cum proximus árdet, your own interests are at stake when your neighbor's house is burning;*

*cum vidébis, tum sciés, when you see, then you will know.*

*a. The Indicative of the Present or Future may denote also a recurring action; as,—*

*stabilítás amicitiae cónfìrmári potest, cum hominés cupídínibus imperábunt, firm friendship can be established whenever men shall control their desires.*

C. Other Uses of *Cum.*

290. 1. *Cum Explicative.* *Cum,* with the Indicative, is sometimes used to indicate the identity of one act with another; as,—

*cum tacent, clámant, their silence is a shout (lit. when they are silent, they shout).*

2. *Cum . . . tum.* When *cum . . . tum* mean both . . . and, the *cum*-clause is in the Indicative; but when *cum* has the force of *while, though,* it may take the Subjunctive; as,—

*cum té semper díléxerim, tum tuús factís incénsus sum, while I have always loved you, at the same time I am incensed at your conduct.*

Clauses introduced by *Antequam* and *Priusquam.*

A. With the Indicative.

291. *Antequam* and *priusquam* (often written *ante . . . quam, prius . . . quam*) take the Indicative to denote an actual fact.

1. Sometimes the Present or Future Perfect; as,—

*prius respondás quam rogás, you answer before I ask;
 nihil contrá disputábó priusquam dícerit, I will say nothing in opposition, before he speaks.*

2. Sometimes the Perfect, especially after negative clauses; as,—

*nón prius jugiandí finis fuit, quam Sulla omnes suós dívitíás explévit, there was no end of murder until Sulla satisfied all his henchmen with wealth.*
Clauses with Dum, Dōne, etc.

D. With the Subjunctive.

292. Antequam and priusquam take the Subjunctive to denote an act as anticipated.

1. Thus the Subjunctive may denote —

a) An act in preparation for which the main act takes place; as, —

priusquam dīmicārent, foedus fēctum 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, —

tempesta minūtār antequam surgat, the tempest threatens before it rises.

b) An act anticipated and forestalled; as, —

priusquam tēlum adiōt posset, omnis acēs terga vertit,

before a spear could be hurled, the whole army fled.

c) An act anticipated and deprecated; as, —

animum ommittunt priusquam locō dēmigrent, they die rather than quit their post.

2. After historical tenses the Imperfect Subjunctive is used, especially by post-Augustan writers, where the notion of anticipation has practically vanished; as, —

āōl antequam sē abderet fugientem vīdit Antōniun, the sun before it set saw Antony fleeing.

Clauses introduced by Dum, Dōne, Quoad.

293. I. Dum, while, regularly takes the Indicative of the Historical Present; as, —

Alexander, dum inter prīmōrēs pugnat, sagittā lēctus est, Alexander, while he was fighting in the van, was struck by an arrow;
dum haec geruntur, in finēs Venellōrum pervēnit, while these things were being done, he arrived in the territory of the Venelli.

II. Dum, dōne, 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 Lycūrgi lēgēs vigēbant, the race of the Lacedaemonians was powerful, as long as the laws of Lycurgus were in force;
Catō, quoad vīxit, virtūtum laude crēvit, Cato, as long as he lived, increased in the fame of his virtues.
III. Dum, dōnec, and quoad, until, take:—

1. The Indicative, to denote an actual event; as,—
dōnec relict, fuit silentium, there was silence till he came;
ferrum in corpore retinuit, quod renuntiatun est Boeōtīōs
vicissent, he kept the iron in his body until word was brought that
the Boeotians had conquered.

a. In Livy and subsequent historians dūm and dōnec in this sense often
take the Subjunctive instead of the Indicative; as, —
trepidātionis aliquidum ëdōbant dōnec timor quīlēánt
fēcissent, they showed some trepidation, until fear produced quiet.

2. The Subjunctive, to denote anticipation or expectancy; as,—
exspectāvit Caesar dūm nāvēs convenīrent, Caesar waited for the
ships to assemble;
dūm hostēs veniant, morābor, I shall wait for the enemy to come.

Substantive Clauses.

294. A Substantive Clause is one which as a whole serves as the Subject or Object of a verb, or stands in some other case relation.

A. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Volitive.

295. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Volitive are used with the following classes of verbs:—

. X. With verbs signifying to admonish, request, command, urge, persuade, induce, etc. (conjunctions ut, nē, or ut nē); as,—
postulō ut fiat, I demand that it be done (dependent form of the
Jussive fiat, let it be done!);
ōrat, nē abēs, he begs that you will not go away;
militēs cohortātus est ut hostium impetum sustinērent, he ex-
horted his soldiers to withstand the attack of the enemy;
Helvētīōs persuāsīt ut exīrent, he persuaded the Helvetii to march
forth.

a. Jubeō, command, order, regularly takes the Infinitive.

1 Especially: moneō, admonēō; rogō, orō, petō, postulō, precursor,
flāgitō; mandō, imperō, praecipīō; suādeo, hortor, cohortor; persuādeo, impellō.
Substantive Clauses.

2. With verbs signifying to grant, concede, permit, allow, etc. (conjunction ut); as, —

_huo_ concédō _ut ea praetereat, I allow him to pass that by_ (dependent form of the jussive _ea praetereat, let him pass that by!_);

_consulī permissum est ut duās legiōnēs scriberet, the consul was permitted to enroll two legions._

3. With verbs of hindering, preventing, etc. (conjunctions _nē, quamīminus, quīn_); as, —

_nē lāstrum perfiicet, mora prohibuit, death prevented him from finishing the lustrum_ (dependent form after past tense of _nē lāstrum perfiicat, let him not finish, etc._);

_prohibuit quamīminus in ūnum cohaeret, he prevented them from coming together;

_nec quīn ūrumperet, prohibērī poterat, nor could he be prevented from rushing forth._

_a. Quīn_ is used only when the verb of hindering is accompanied by a negative, or stands in a question implying a negative; it is not necessarily used even then.

4. With verbs of deciding, resolving, etc. (conjunctions _ut, nē, or ut nē_); as, —

_cōnstitueram ut prīdīs Īdūs Aquīnī manērem, I had decided to remain at Aquinum on the 12th;

dēcēvit senātus ut Ópīminus vidēret, the Senate decreed that Ópīminus should see to it;

_convēnit ut ūnīs castrīs misērentur, it was agreed that they should be united in one camp._

5. With verbs of striving, etc. (conjunctions _ut, nē, or ut nē_); as, —

_fac ut eum exōrēs, see to it that you prevail upon him_!

cūrā ut vir sīs, see to it that you are a man!

_labōrābat ut reliquās cīvītātēs adjungēret, he was striving to join the remaining states to him._

_a. Cōnor, try, always takes the Infinitive._

**Note.** — Verbs of all the above classes also admit the Infinitive, especially in poetry.

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1 Specifically: _permittō, concédō, nōn patior._
2 Specifically: _prohibēs, impedīs, dēterreō._
3 Specifically: _cōnetitūs, dēcerōs, cānāsō, placēt, convenit, paclsoor._
4 Specifically: _labōrō, dō operam, īd agō, contēndo, impetrō._
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 redeäs, you may return;
oportet loquámur, we must speak.

On the absence of ut with licet and oportet, see paragraph 8.

7. Here also belong phrases of the type: nulla causa est cür, quīn; non est cür, etc.; nihil est cür, etc.; as,—
nulla causa est cür timeam, there is no reason why I should fear (originally Deliberative: why should I fear? There's no reason);
nihil est quīn dícēam, 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 moneō désinánt, I warn them to stop;

huic imperat adeat civitātēs, he orders him to visit the states.

B. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative.

296. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative occur:—

1. With verbs of wishing, desiring, especially cupiō, optō, volō, mālō (conjunctions ut, nē, ut nē); as,—

optō ut in hōc jūdicēō 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. reperiātur, may no bad man be found!);

cupiō nē veniat, I desire that he may not come.

   a. The simple Subjunctive (without ut) sometimes occurs with verbs of this class. (See § 295, 8.) Examples are: velim scribās, I wish you would write; velim scripsisset, I wish he had written.

2. With expressions of fearing (timeō, metuō, vereor, etc.). Here nē means that, lest, and ut means that not; as,—

timeō nē veniat, I fear that he will not come (originally: may he not come! I'm afraid [he won't]);
timeō ut veniat, I fear that he will not come (originally: may he come! I'm afraid [he will]).
Substantive Clauses.

a. Nē nōn sometimes occur 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 verbor nē hōc nōn fiat, I am not afraid that this will not happen;
veror nē exercitum firmum habēre nōn possit, I fear 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: —

1. As object clauses after verbs of doing, accomplishing (especially faciō, efficiō, omnificō). Thus: —
gravitās morbī facit ut medicīna egeāmus, the severity of disease makes us need medicine.

2. As the subject of several impersonal verbs, particularly fit, efficītur, accidit, ēvenit, contingit, accīdit, fieri potest, fore, sequitur, relinquitur. Thus: —
ex quō efficītur, 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;
accīdēbat ut nāvēs dēessent, another thing was the lack of ships (lit. it was added that ships were lacking).

3. As predicate or appositive after expressions like jūs est, mōs est, cōnsūtūdō est; also after neuter pronouns, hōc, illud, etc. Thus: —
est mōs hominum ut nōlint cundem pluribus rēbus excellere, it is the way of men not to wish the same person to excel in many things.

D. Substantive Clauses Introduced by Quīn.

298. Substantive Clauses introduced by quīn (used sometimes as subject, sometimes as object) occur after negative and interrogative expressions of doubt, omission, and the like, particularly after nōn dubītō, I do not doubt; quis
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dubitatis, who doubts?; non (haud) dubium est, there is no doubt. The mood is the Subjunctive. Examples:—

quis dubitat quin in virtute divitiae sint, who doubts that in virtue there are riches?
non dubium erat quin venturus esset, there was no doubt that he was about to come.

a. In Nepos, Livy, and post-Augustan writers an Infinitive sometimes takes the place of the quin-clause after non dubitò; as,—

non dubitamus inventos esse, we do not doubt that men were found.

b. Non dubitò, I do not hesitate, is regularly followed by the Infinitive, though sometimes by a quin-clause.

E. Substantive Clauses Introduced by Quod.

299. 1. Quod, the fact that, that, introduces Substantive Clauses in the Indicative. This construction occurs especially —

a) In apposition with a preceding demonstrative, as hoc, id, illud, illa, ex eò, inde, etc. Thus:—

illud est admiratione dignum, quod captivos retinens docebat, ovisuit, this is especially worthy of admiration, that he thought the prisoners ought to be kept;

hoc unò praestatmus vel maximè feria, quod colloquimur inter nos, in this one respect we are especially superior to the beasts, that we talk with each other.

b) After bene fit, bene accidit, malè fit, bene facere, mìror, etc.; as,—

bene mihi accidit, quod mittor ad mortem, it is well for me that I am sent to death;
bene facisti quod mänisset, you did well in remaining.

2. Quod at the beginning of the sentence sometimes has the force of as regards the fact that. Thus:—

quod multitudinem Germanorum in Galliam traducò, id mel muniendi causa faciò, as regards the fact that I am transporting a multitude of Germans into Gaul, I am doing it for the sake of strengthening myself;

quod me Agamemnona aemulari putas, falleris, as regards your thinking that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken.
Substantive Clauses.

F. Indirect Questions.

300. 1. Indirect Questions are Substantive Clauses used after verbs of asking, inquiring, telling, and the like. They take their verb in the Subjunctive. Like Direct Questions (see § 162) they may be introduced —

a) By Interrogative Pronouns or Adverbs; as, —
   dūo mihi ubi fueris, quid ēcērīs, tell me where you were, what you did;
   oculās īūdiōrī nōn potest in utram partem fluat Arar, it cannot be determined by the eye in which direction the Arar flows;
   bis bīna quot essent, nesciēbat, he did not know how many two times two were.

Note. — Care should be taken to distinguish Indirect Questions from Relative Clauses. The difference between the two appears clearly in the following: —

effugere nēmō id potest quod futūrum est, no one can escape what is destined to come to pass; but
saepe autem ne útile 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,—

Epamīnōndas quassīvit num salvus esset clipesus, or salvuusne esset clipesus, Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe;
   disputātur num interfēre virtūs in homine possit, the question is raised whether virtue can die in a man;
   ex Sōcrate quaeātum est nōnne Archelaum beātum putaret, the question was 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 do. (Direct: quid faciam, what shall I do!)

1 Exclamations, also, upon becoming indirect, take the Subjunctive, as obserērō quam variae sint hominum cupidinēs, consider how varied are the desires of men. (Direct: quam variae sunt hominum cupidinēs!)
3. After verbs of *expectation* and *endeavor* (exspectō, oūnor, experior, temptō) we sometimes find an Indirect Question introduced by *si*; as,—

*ōnuntur si perrumpere possint, they try whether they can break through.*

*ā.* Sometimes the governing verb is omitted; as,—

*pergit ad proximam speluncam si forte ēō 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); *via.*:

\[
\text{utraum . . . an;}
\]

\[
\text{-ne . . . . . an;}
\]

\[
\text{—— . . . . . an;}
\]

\[
\text{—— . . . . . ne.}
\]

**Examples:**

*quaerō utram vērum an falsum sit,*

*quaerō vērumne an falsum sit,*

*quaerō vērum an falsum sit,*

*quaerō vērum falsumne sit,*

*I ask whether it is true or false?*

*a.* *Or not* in the second member of the double question is ordinarily expressed by *necne,* less frequently by *an non;* as,—

*di utram sint necne, quaeritur, it is asked whether there are gods 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 hoc vērum sit, I am inclined to think this is true.*

6. In early Latin and in poetry the Indicative is sometimes used in Indirect Questions.

**CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.**

301. Conditional Sentences are compound sentences (§ 164) consisting of two parts, the Protasis (or *condition*), usually introduced by *si, nisi,* or *sin,* and the Apodosis (or *conclusion*). There are the following types of Conditional Sentences:—
Conditional Sentences.

First Type.—Nothing Implied as to the Reality of the Supposed Case.

302. 1. Here we regularly have the Indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis. Any tense may be used; as,—

si hōc crēdis, errās, if you believe this, you are mistaken;
nātūram si sequēmur, numquam aberrābimus, if we follow
Nature, we shall never go astray;
si hōc dīxisti, errāsti, 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 is impaired unless you exercise it.

3. Here belong also those conditional sentences in which the Protasis denotes a repeated action (compare §§ 287, 2; 288, 3); as,—

si quis equītum dēciderat, peditās circumstābant, if any one of the horsemen fell, the foot-soldiers gathered about him.

a. Instead of the Indicative, Livy and subsequent writers employ the Subjunctive of the Historical tenses in the Protasis to denote repeated action; as,—

si dīcāndo quīs diem exīmeret, if (ever) anybody consumed a day in pleading; si quandō adādīrot, 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 hōc crēditis, tacēte, if you believe this, be silent;
si hōc crēdimus, taceāmus, if we believe this, let us keep silent.

Second Type.—'Should'-'Would' Conditions.

303. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive (of the Present or Perfect tense) in both Protasis and Apodosis; as,—

si hōc dīcās, errās, } if you should say this, you would be mis-
si hōc dīxēris, errāveris, } taken.
si velim Hannibālis proelīa omnia dēscrībere, diēs mē dēsciāt.
if I should wish to describe all the battles of Hannibal, time would fail me;
mentiar, sī negem, I should lie, if I should deny it;
haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nōnne impetrāre dēbeat, 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 accomplishment of
a result more positively; as,—
alter sī faciat, nūliam habet auctōritātem, if he should do
otherwise, he has no authority.

Third Type.—Supposed Case Represented as Contrary to
Fact.

304. 1. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive in both
Protasis and Apodosis, the Imperfect referring to present
time, and the Pluperfect referring to past; as,—
sī amīci meī adessent, opis nōn indigērem, if my friends were here,
I should not lack assistance;
sī hōc dīxissēs, errāssēs, if you had said this, you would have
erred;
sapiēntia nōn expeterētur, sī nihil efficēret, philosophy would not
be desired, if it accomplished nothing;
consilium, ratiō, sententia nisi essent in senibus, nōn summum
consilium majōrēs nostrī appellāssent senātum, unless de-
liberation, reason, and wisdom existed in old men, our ances-
tors would not have called their highest deliberative body a
senate.

2. Sometimes the Imperfect Subjunctive is found referring to the
past, especially to denote a continued act, or a state of things still exist-
ing; as,—
Laelius, Furius, Catō, sī nihil litterās 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 sī ad centēsimum annum vīxisset, senectūtā sēm
suæ paenitēret, if he had lived to his hundredth year,
would he have regretted (and now be regretting) his old
age?
3. The Apodosis in conditional sentences of this type sometimes stands in the Indicative (Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect), viz. —

a) Frequently in expressions of ability, obligation, or necessity; as,—

nisi felicitās in sōcordiam vertisset, exuere jugum potuērunt, unless their prosperity had turned to folly, they could have thrown off the yoke;

NOTE. — In sentences of this type, however, it is not the possibility that is represented as contrary-to-fact, but something to be supplied in thought from the context. Thus in the foregoing sentence the logical apodosis is et exulserant understood (and they would have shaken it off). When the possibility itself is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used.

eum patris locō colere dēbēbās, si sīla in tē pietās esset, you ought to revere him as a father, if you had any sense of devotion.

b) With both the Periphrastic Conjugations; as,—

si Pompeius occīsus esset, fuiatne ad arma itūrī, if Pompey had been slain, would you proceed to arms?

si ānum diem morātī essētis, moriendum omnibus fuit, if you had delayed one day, you would all have had to die.

Protasis expressed without Si.

305. 1. The Protasis is not always expressed by a clause with si, but may be implied in a word, a phrase, or merely by the context; as,—

aliōquī haec nōn scriberentur, otherwise (i.e. if matters were otherwise) these things would not be written;

nōn potestis, voluptāte omnia dirigentās, retinēre virtūtem, you cannot retain virtue, if you direct everything with reference to pleasure.

2. Sometimes an Imperative, or a Jussive Subjunctive, serves as Protasis. Thus:—

crās petitō, dabitur, if you ask to-morrow, it shall be given you (lit. ask to-morrow, etc.)

haec reputent, vidēbunt, if they consider this, they will see (lit. let them consider, etc.)

rogēs Aristōnem, respondent, if you should ask Aristo, he would answer.
Syntax.

Use of Nisi, Sì Nòn, Sìn.

308. 1. Nisi, unless, negatives the entire protasis; sì nòn negatives a single word; as,—
ferreus essem, nisi tè amàrem, I should be hard-hearted unless I loved you; but —
ferreus essem, sì tè nòn amàrem, 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. Sì nòn (sì minus) is regularly employed: —
   a) When an apodosis with at, tamen, certè follows; as,—
dolorem sì nòn potuerò frangere, tamen occultabò, if I cannot crush my sorrow, yet I will hide it.
   b) When an affirmative protasis is repeated in negative form; as,—
sì feceris, magnam habebò gratiam; sì nòn feceris, ignóscam, 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 sì minus or sìn minus is admissible; as,—
hóc sì ascóctus sum, gaudeò; sì minus, nè cónèdior, if I have attained this, I am glad; if not, I console myself.

3. Sìn. Where one protasis is followed by another opposed in meaning, but affirmative in form, the second is introduced by sìn; as,—
hunc mìhi timòrem èripe; sì vèrus est, nè opprimar, sìn falsus, ut timère dèsinam, relieve me of this fear; if it is well founded, that I may not be destroyed; but if it is groundless, that I may cease to fear.

4. Nisi has a fondness for combining with negatives (nòn, nèmò, nihil); as,—
nihil cogitavìt nisi caedem, he had no thought but murder.

   a. Nòn and nisi are always separated in the best Latinity.

5. Nisi forte, nisi vèrò, nisi sì, unless perchance, unless indeed (often with ironical force), take the Indicative; as,—
nisi vèrò, quia perfecta res nòn est, nòn vidètur pànienda, unless indeed, because an act is not consummated, it does not seem to merit punishment.
Clauses of Comparison.—Adversative Clauses. 203

Conditional Clauses of Comparison.

307. 1. Conditional Clauses of Comparison are introduced by the particles, ac si, ut si, quasi, quam si, tamquam si, velut si, or simply by velut or tamquam. They stand in the Subjunctive mood and regularly involve an ellipsis (see § 374, 1), as indicated in the following examples:

tantus patrēs metus cēpit, velut si jam ad portās hostīs esset, as great fear seized the senators as (would have seized them) if the enemy were already at the gates;

sed quid ego hīs testibus ēlor quasi rēs dubia aut obsōleta sit, but why do I use these witnesses, as (I should do) if the matter were doubtful or obscure;

servīam tibi tamquam si ēmerīs mē argentō, I will serve you as though you had bought me for money.

2. Note that in sentences of this kind the Latin observes the regular principles for the Sequence of Tenses. Thus after principal tenses the Latin uses the Present and Perfect (as in the second and third examples), where the English uses the Past and the Past Perfect.

Concessive Clauses.

308. The term ‘Concessive’ is best restricted to those clauses developed from the Jussive Subjunctive which have the force of granted that, etc.; as,—

sit fūr, sit saorilegus, 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.

Adversative Clauses with Quamvis, Quamquam, etc.

309. Clauses introduced by quamvis, quamquam, etc., tametūr, cum, although, while often classed as ‘Concessive,’ are yet essentially different from genuine Concessive clauses. As a rule, they do not grant or concede anything, but rather state that something is true in spite of
something else. They accordingly emphasize the adversative idea, and are properly Subordinate Adversative Clauses. The different particles used to introduce these clauses have different meanings and take different constructions, as follows:—

1. Quamvis, however much, although, does not introduce a statement of fact, but represents an act merely as conceived. It is followed by the Subjunctive, usually of the present tense; as,—

hominēs quamvis in turbidīs rēbus sint, tamen interdum animīs relaxantur, in however stirring events men may engage, yet at times they relax their energies;

nōn est potestās opitulandī rei pūblicae quamvis ea premātur periculis, there is no opportunity to succor the state, though it be beset by dangers.

2. Quamquam, etsī, tametsī, although, introduce a statement of fact, and are followed by the Indicative (of any tense); as,—

quamquam omnīs virtūs nōs allicet, tamen jūstitia id maximō efficit, although all virtue attracts us, yet justice does so especially;

Caesar, etsī nōndum cōnsilium hostium cognōverat, tamen id quod accidit suspicābātur, Caesar, though he did not yet know the plans of the enemy, yet was suspecting what actually occurred

a. etsī, although, must be distinguished from etsī, even if. The latter is a conditional particle and takes any of the constructions admissible for etsī. (See §§ 302-304.)

3. Cum, although, is followed by the Subjunctive; as,—

Attībus honorēs nōn petīt, cum eī patērent, Atticus did not seek honors, though they were open to him.

4. Licet sometimes loses its verbal force (see § 295, 6) and sinks to the level of a conjunction with the force of although. It takes the Subjunctive, Present or Perfect; as,—

licet omnēs terrōrēs impendeant, succurram, though all terrors hang over me, (yet) I will lend aid.

5. Quamquam, with the force and yet, is often used to introduce principal clauses; as,—

quamquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak?
Clauses of Proviso.—Relative Clauses.

6. In post-Augustan writers quamquam is freely construed with the Subjunctive, while quamvis is often used to introduce statements of fact, and takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Thus:

quamquam moveretur his vōcibus, although he was moved by these words;
quamvis multō opinārēntur, though many thought;
quamvis infestō 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 nē) and have two distinct uses:

I. They are used to introduce clauses embodying a wish entertained by the subject of the leading verb; as,

multī honesta negligunt dummodo potentiam cōnsequantur, many neglect honor in their desire to obtain power (if only they may attain);
omnia postposuī, dum praeceptīs patris pārērem, I made everything else secondary, in my desire to obey the injunctions of my father;
nīl obstat tibi, dum nē sit dītor alter, nothing hinders you in your desire that your neighbor may not be richer than you.

II. They are used to express a proviso (‘provided that’); as,

ōderint, dum metuant, let them hate, provided they fear;
manent ingeniā senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria, old men retain their faculties, provided only they retain their interest and vigor;
nūbant, dum nē dōs fiat comes, let them marry, provided no dowry goes with it.

Relative Clauses.

311. Relative Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns, Adjectives, or Adverbs.

312. 1. Relative clauses usually stand in the Indicative Mood, especially clauses introduced by those General Relatives which are doubled or have the suffix -cuncte; as,
quinquid quid est, timeō Danaōs et dōna ferentēs, whatever it is, I fear the Greeks even when they offer gifts;
quidquid oritur, quâlecunque est, causâm à nātūrā habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever sort it is, has its primal cause in Nature.

2. Any simple Relative may introduce a conditional sentence of any of the three types mentioned in §§ 302-304; as,—
quī hōc dīcit, errat, he who says this is mistaken (First Type);
quī hōc dīcat, erret, he would be mistaken who should say this (Second Type);
quī hōc dīxisset, errāset, the man who had said this would have been mistaken.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE (ŌRĀTIŌ OBLĪQUA).

313. When the language or thought of any person is reproduced without change, that is called Direct Discourse (Ōrātiō Recta); as, Caesar said, 'The die is cast.' When, on the other hand, one's language or thought is made to depend upon a verb of saying, thinking, etc., that is called Indirect Discourse (Ōrātiō Obliqua); as, Caesar said that the die was cast; Caesar thought that his troops were victorious.

a. For the verbs most frequently employed to introduce Indirect Discourse, see § 331.

MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Declarative Sentences.

314. 1. Declarative Sentences upon becoming Indirect change their main clause to the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, while all subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive; as,—

Rēgulus dīxit quām dīdī jūre jūrandō hostium tenērētur nōn esse sē senātōrem, Regulus said that as long as he was held by his pledge to the enemy he was not a senator. (Direct: quām dīdī teneor nōn sum senātōr.)
Indirect Discourse.

2. The verb of saying, thinking, etc., is sometimes to be inferred from the context; as,—

tum Rōmulus lēgātōs cīrca vicīnās gentēs misit qui societātem
cōnābiumque pēterent: urbēs quoque, ut cētera, ex
īnīmō nāscī, then Rōmulus sent envoys around among the
neighboring tribes, to ask for alliance and the right of inter-
marrage, (saying that) cities, like everything else, start from a
modest beginning.

3. Subordinate clauses which contain an explanatory statement of
the writer and so are not properly a part of the Indirect Discourse, or
which emphasize the fact stated, take the Indicative; as,—
nūntiātum est Ariovistum ad occupandum Vēsontiōnem, quod
est oppidum maximum Sēquanōrum, contendere, it was re-
ported that Ariovistus was hastening to seize Vēsontio, which is
the largest town of the Sequani.

4. Sometimes a subordinate clause is such only in its external form,
and in sense is principal. It then takes the Infinitive with Subject
Accusative. This occurs especially in case of relative clauses, where
qui is equivalent to et hic, nam hic, etc.; as,—
dīcit urbem Athēniēnium prōpugnāculum oppositum esse bar-
barīs, apud quam jam bis classēs rāgiās fēcisse naufrag-
gium, he said the city of the Athenians had been set against the
barbarians like a bulwark, near which (= and near it) the fleets
of the King had twice met disaster.

5. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is sometimes omitted
when it refers to the same person as the subject of the leading
verb, or can easily be supplied from the context; as,—
cum id nescire Māgō dīceret, when Mago said he did not know
this (for sē nescire).

Interrogative Sentences.

315. 1. Real questions of the Direct Discourse, upon
becoming indirect, are regularly put in the Subjunc-
tive; as,—

Ariovistus Cæsarī respondit: sē prius in Galliam vēnisse quam
populum Rōmānum. Quid sībī vellet? Cūr in suis pos-
sessionēs venīret, Ariovistus replied to Cæsar that he
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Syntax.

had come into Gaul before the Roman people. What did he
(Cæsar) mean? Why did he come into his domain? (Direct:
quid tibi vis? cūr in meās possessiōnēs venīs? )

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 Dis-
course. Thus: —

quid est levius (lit. what is more trivial, = nothing is more trivial)
of the Direct Discourse becomes quid esse levius in the In-
direct.

3. Deliberative Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse remain un-
changed in mood in the Indirect; as, —

quid faceret, what was he to do? (Direct: quid faciat?)

Imperative Sentences.

316. All Imperatives or Jussive Subjunctives of the
Direct Discourse appear as Subjunctives in the In-
direct; as, —

militēs certiorēs fēcit paulisper intermitterent proelium, he
told the soldiers to stop the battle for a little. (Direct:
intermittēte )

a. The Negative in such sentences is nē; as, —

nē suae virtūtī tribueret, let him not attribute it to his own
valor!

TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

A. Tenses of the Infinitive.

317. These are used in accordance with the regular
principles for the use of the Infinitive as given in § 270.

a. The Perfect Infinitive may represent any past tense of the
Indicative of Direct Discourse. Thus: —

sciō tē haec ēgisse may mean —
I know you were doing this. (Direct: haec ēgēbās.)
I know you did this. (Direct: haec ēgīstĪ.)
I know you had done this. (Direct: haec ēgerās.)
Indirect Discourse.

B. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

318. These follow the regular principle for the Sequence of Tenses, being Principal if the verb of *saying* is Principal; Historical if it is Historical. Yet for the sake of vividness, we often find the Present Subjunctive used after an historical tense (*Repraesentātūm*); as,—

Caesar respondit, si obsidēs dentur, sēsē pācem esse factūrum,

_Caesar replied that, if hostages be given, he would make peace._

*a.* For the sequence after the Perfect Infinitive, see §268, 2.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Conditional Sentences of the First Type.

319. _A. The Apodosis._ Any tense of the Indicative is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive (§§270; 317, *a*).

_B. The Protasis._ The protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive which are required by the Sequence of Tenses.

_Examples:_

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Indirect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sī hōc crēdis, errās,</td>
<td>{dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errāre;}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dīxī, sī hōc crēderās, tē errāre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sī hōc crēdēs, errābis,</td>
<td>{dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errātūrum esse;}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dīxī, sī hōc crēderās, tē errātūrum esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sī hōc crēdideris, errābis,</td>
<td>{dīcō, sī hōc crēdidēris, tē errātūrum esse;}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dīxī, sī hōc crēdidēssēs, tē errātūrum esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sī hōc crēdēbās, errāvisti,</td>
<td>{dīcō, sī hōc crēderās, tē errāvisse;}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dīxī, sī hōc crēderās, tē errāvisse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a.* Note that a Future Perfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse regularly appears in the Indirect as a Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and as a Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense.
Conditional Sentences of the Second Type.


**B. The Protasis.** The Protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive demanded by the sequence of tenses.

Examples: —

\[ \text{si hoc crēdās, errās, dīcō, si hoc crēdās, tē errātūrum esse;} \]
\[ \text{dīxi, si hoc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse.} \]

Conditional Sentences of the Third Type.

321. **A. The Apodosis.**

1. The Imperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes the Future Infinitive.

\[ a. \] But this construction is rare, being represented in the classical Latinity by a single example (Caesar, V. 29. 2). Some scholars question the correctness of this passage.

2. The Pluperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes: —

\[ a) \] In the Active Voice the Infinitive in -ārus fuisse.

\[ b) \] In the Passive Voice it takes the form futūrum fuisse ut with the Imperfect Subjunctive.

**B. The Protasis.** The protasis in Conditional Sentences of this type always remains unchanged.

Examples: —

\[ \text{si hoc crēderēs, errārēs, dīcō (dīxi), si hoc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse;} \]
\[ \text{si hoc crēdīdissēs, errāvissēs, dīcō (dīxi), si hoc crēdīdissēs, tē errātūrum fuisse;} \]
\[ \text{si hoc dīxissēs, pūnītus essēs, dīcō (dīxi), si hoc dīxissēs futūrum fuisse ut pūnīrēris.} \]

322. When an apodosis of a conditional sentence of the Third Type referring to the past is at the same time a Result clause, or a
Indirect Discourse.

quīn-clause (after nōn dubitō, etc.), it stands in the Perfect Sub-
jugative in the form -fūrus fuerim; as,—

ita territī sunt, ut arma trāditūrī fuerint, nīsi Caesar subitō
advēnisset, they were so frightened that they would have given
up their arms, had not Caesar suddenly arrived;
nōn dubitō quīn, sī hōc dīxissēs, errātūrus fuerīs, I do not doubt
that, if you had said this, you would have made a mistake.

a. This peculiarity is confined to the Active Voice. In the
Passive, such sentences, when they become dependent,
remain unchanged; as,—
nōn dubitō quīn, sī hōc dīxissēs, vituperātus essēs, I
do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have
been blamed.

b. When an Indirect Question becomes an apodosis in a con-
ditional sentence of the Third Type, -fūrus fuerim (rarely
-fūrus fuissem) is used; as,—
quaeō, num, sī hōc dīxissēs, errātūrus fuerīs (or
fuissem).

c. Potui, when it becomes a dependent apodosis in sentences of this
Type, usually changes to the Perfect Subjunctive; as,—
concūrērunt tōtius civitātis dēfēnē sunt, ut frigīdissimōs
quoque dēfāctos populi studia excitāre potuerint,
they were defended before a gathering of all the citizens, so that the
interest of the people would have been enough to excite even the
most apathetic orators.

IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

323. The Subjunctive is often used in subordinate clauses whose
Indirect character is merely implied by the context; as,—
dēmōnstrābantur mihi praeterea, quae Socratēs dē immortāl-
tūte animōrum disseruisset, there were explained to me be-
sides, the arguments which Socrates had set forth concerning the
immortality of the soul (i.e. the arguments which, it was said,
Socrates had set forth);

Paetus omnēs librōs quōs pater suus reliquisset mihi dōnāvit,
Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said) his father had left.

---

1 Trāditūrī fuerint and errātūrus fuerīs are to be regarded as repre-
senting trāditūrī fuērunt and errātūrus fuēsti of Direct Discourse. (See
§ 304. 3. b.)
SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION.

324. 1. Subordinate clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive are frequently attracted into the same mood, especially when they do not express a fact, but constitute an essential part of one complex idea; as,—

nēmō avārus adhūc inventus est, cui, quod habēret, esset satis,
no miser has yet been found who was satisfied with what he had;
cum diversās causās afferrent, dum fōrmam sūl quisque et
animī et ingenī redderent, as they brought forward different
arguments, while each mirrored his own individual type of
mind and natural bent;
quod ego fætar, pudeat? should I be ashamed of a thing which I
admit?

2. Similarly a subordinate clause dependent upon an Infinitive is put in the Subjunctive when the two form one closely united whole; as,—

mōs est Athēnis quotannis in comitia laudāri eōs qui sint in
proelīs interfecit. it is the custom at Athens every year for
those to be publicly eulogized who have been killed in battle.
(Here the notion of ‘praising those who fell in battle’ forms
an inseparable whole.)

NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

325. These are the Infinitive, Participle, Gerund, and Supine. All of these partake of the nature of the Verb, on the one hand, and of the Noun or Adjective, on the other. Thus:—

As Verbs, —

a) They may be limited by adverbs;
b) They admit an object;
c) They have the properties of voice and tense.

As Nouns or Adjectives, —

a) They are declined:
b) They take Noun or Adjective constructions.
Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb. 213

THE INFINITIVE.

**Infinitive without Subject Accusative.**

326. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also as Predicate or Appositive.

**Note.** — The Infinitive was originally a Dative, and traces of this are still to be seen in the poetical use of the Infinitive to express *purpose*; as, *nec dulcēs occurrent ōscula nātī praeripere, and no sweet children will run to snatch kisses.*

**A. As Subject.**

327. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Subject of *esse* and various impersonal verbs, particularly *opus est, necesse est, oportet, juvat, dēlectat, placet, libet, liceat, praestat, decet, pudet, interest,* etc.; as, —

*dulce et decōrum est prō patriā morī, it is sweet and noble to die for one's country;*

*virōrum est fortium toleranter dolōrem patī, it is the part of brave men to endure pain with patience;*

*senātōrum placuit lēgātōs mittere, the Senate decided (lit. it pleased the Senate) to send envoys.*

2. Even though the Infinitive itself appears without Subject, it may take a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the Accusative; as, —

*aliud est Irācundum esse, aliud frātum, it is one thing to be irascible, another to be angry;*

*impāne quaelibet facere, id est rēgem esse, to do whatever you please with impunity, that is to be a king.*

*a. But when *licet* is followed by a Dative of the person, a Predicate Noun or Adjective with *esse* is attracted into the same case; as, *licuit esse ōtiōsō Themistoclī, lit. it was permitted to Themistocles to be at leisure.* So sometimes with other Impersonals.*

**B. As Object.**

328. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Object of many verbs, to denote another action of the same subject, particularly after —

*volē, cupiō, māliō, nōliō; cōgitō, meditor, purpose, intend;*

*dēbeō, ought; negligō, neglect;*

*statuō, cōstituō, decide; vereor, timeō, fear;*
Syntax.

auđēs, dare;
studeō, contendō, strive;
parō, prepare (so parātus);
incipiō, coepi, instituō, begin;
pergō, continue;
dēsīnō, dēsistō, cease;
possum, can;
cōnor, try;
mātūrō, festīnō, properō, contendō, hasten;
assuēscō, oēnauēscō, accustom myself (so assētus, insētus, assēfactus);
discō, learn;
sciō, know how;
soleō, am wont; as,—
tū hōs intuēri auđēs, do you dare to look on these men?
Dēmosthenēs ad flūctūs maris dēclāmāre solēbat, Demosthenes used to declaim by the waves of the sea.

2. A Predicate Noun or Adjective with these Infinitives is attracted into the Nominative; as,—

beātus esse sine virtūte nēmō potest, no one can be happy without virtue;

Cato esse quam vidēri bonus mālēbat, Cato preferred to be good rather than to seem so.

Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

329. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also as Predicate or Appositive.

A. As Subject.

330. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative (like the simple Infinitive) is used as Subject with esse and Impersonal verbs, particularly with aequum est, utile est, turpe est, fāma est, spēs est, fās est, nefās est, opus est, necessē est, oportet, cōnstat, praestat, licet, etc.; as,—
nihil in bēlō oportet contemnī, nothing ought to be despised in war; apertum est sibi quemque nātūrā esse carūm, it is manifest that by nature everybody is dear to himself.

B. As Object.

331. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used as Object after the following classes of verbs:

I. Most frequently after verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, perceiving, and the like (Verba Sentiendī et Dēclārandī). This is the
Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb.

regular construction of Principal Clauses of Indirect Discourse. Verbs that take this construction are, among others, the following: sentio, audiō, videō, cognoscō; putō, jūdicō, spērō, confidō; scio, memini; dīcō, affirmō, negō (say that . . . not), trādō, nārrō, fatores, respondēō, scribō, prōmittō, gloriō. Also the phrases: certiorēm faciō (inform), memorīa teneō (remember), etc.

Examples:

Epicūrēi putant cum corporibus simul animās interfīre, the Epicureans think that the soul perishes with the body;

Thalēs dīxit aquam esse initium rērum, Thales said that water was the first principle of the universe;

Dēmocritus negat quicquid esse sempiternum, Democritus says nothing is everlasting;

spērō cum ventūrum esse, I hope that he will come.

II. With jubeō, order, and vetō, forbid; as,—

Caesar mūltēs pontem facere jussit, Caesar ordered the soldiers to make a bridge.

a. When the name of the person who is ordered or forbidden to do something is omitted, the Infinitive with jubeō and vetō is put in the Passive; as, Caesar pontem fieri jussit.

III. With patior and sinō, permit, allow; as,—

nūllō sē implicāri negōtiō passus est, he did not permit himself to be involved in any difficulty.

IV. With volō, nōlō, mālō, cupīō, when the Subject of the Infinitive is different from that of the governing verb; as,—

nec mihi hunc errōrem extorquērī volō, nor do I wish this error to be wrested from me;

eās rēs jactāri nōlēbat, he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed;

tē tuīs divitiās fruī cupimus, we desire that you enjoy your wealth.

a. When the Subject of both verbs is the same, the simple Infinitive is regularly used in accordance with § 328. 1. But exceptions occur, especially in case of esse and Passive Infinitives; as,—

cupō mē esse clēmentem, I desire to be lenient;

Timoleōn māluit sē diligē quam metui, Timoleon preferred to be loved rather than feared.

b. Volō also admits the Subjunctive, with or without ut; nōlō the Subjunctive alone. (See § 336. 1. a.)
V. With Verbs of emotion (joy, sorrow, regret, etc.), especially gaudeō, laetor, dolore; aegreg ferō, molestē ferō, graviter ferō, am annoyed, distressed; miror, queror, indignor; as,—

gaudeō tē salvum advenire, I rejoice that you arrive safely;
nōn molestē ferunt sē libidinum vinculis laxātōs esse, they are not troubled at being released from the bonds of passion;
miror tē ad mē nihil scribere, I wonder that you write me nothing.

a. Instead of an Infinitive these verbs also sometimes admit a quod-clause as Object. (See § 293.) 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, 1), 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, I taught you to be content (cf. tē modulus 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 and of some others:—

a) jubeor, vetor, sinor; as,—

militēs pontem facere jussī sunt, the soldiers were ordered to build a bridge;
pōns fierī jussus est, a bridge was ordered built;
militēs castrīs exīre vetītī sunt, the troops were forbidden to go out of the camp;
Sestius Clodiōm 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, existimor, jūdicor (in all persons); as,—

dīcitur in Italiām vēnisse, he is said to have come into Italy;

Rōmulus prīmus rōx 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, traditur, traduntur (only in the third person); as,—

fertur Homērus caecus fuisse, Homer is said to have been blind;
carmīna Archilochi contumēlīs referta esse traduntur, Archilochus’s poems are reported to have been full of abuse.

Note.—In compound tenses and periphrastic forms, the last two classes of verbs, e), d), more commonly take the impersonal construction; as,—

traditum est Homērum caecum fuisse, the story goes that Homer was blind.

Infinitive with Adjectives.

333. The Infinitive with Adjectives (except parātus, assuētus, etc.; see § 328, 1) occurs only in poetry and post-Augustan prose writers; as,—

contentus dēmōnstrāse, contented to have proved;
audāx omnia perpetī, bold for enduring everything.

Infinitive in Exclamations.

334. The Infinitive is used in Exclamations implying scorn, indignation, or regret. An intensive -me is often attached to some word in the clause. Examples:—
huncīne sōlem tam nigrum surrexē mihi, to think that to-day’s sun rose with such evil omen for me!
sedēre tōtōs dīēs in villā, to stay whole days at the villa!

Historical Infinitive.

335. The Infinitive is often used in historical narrative instead of the Imperfect Indicative. The Subject stands in the Nominative; as,—

interim cotūdīē Caesār Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, meanwhile Caesar was daily demanding grain of the Haeduī.

PARTICLES.

Tenses of the Participle.

336. 1. The tenses of the Participle, like those of the Infinitive (see § 270), express time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb upon which the Participle depends.
2. The Present Participle denotes action contemporary with that of the verb. Thus:—

_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 resupīnat, as the king was trying to rise, he threw him down._

3. The Perfect Passive Participle denotes action prior to that of the verb. Thus:—

_locūtus taceō = I have spoken and am silent;
_locūtus tacui = I had spoken and then was silent;
_locūtus tacēbō = I shall speak and then shall be silent._

4. The absolute time of the action of a participle, therefore, is determined entirely by the finite verb with which it is connected.

5. Certain Perfect Passive Participles of Deponent and Semi-Deponent Verbs are used as Presents, _viz._ _arbitrāitus, ausus, ratus,_ _gāvīsus, solitus, usus, cōnsīsus, diffīsus, secūtus, veritus._

**Use of Participles.**

337. As an Adjective the Participle may be used either as an attributive or predicative modifier of a Substantive.

1. 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 Līsandrō dīrutōs reficēt, Conon restored the walls destroyed by Lysander._

2. Predicate Use. Here the Participle is often equivalent to a subordinate clause. Thus the Participle may denote:—

a) Time; as,—

_omne malum nāscētur facile opprimitur, every evil is easily crushed at birth._

b) A Condition; as,—

_mente ātī nōn poa sumus cibō et pōtīōne complētī, if gorged with food and drink, we cannot use our intellects._
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c) Manner; as,—
Solōn senēscere sē dīcēbat multa in dīēs addisoentem,
Solon said he grew old learning many new things daily.

d) Means; as,—
sōl orīēns diēm cōnificīt, the sun, by its rising, makes the
day.

e) Opposition (‘though’); as,—
mendācī hominē nē vērum quidem dīcentē crēdimus,
we do not believe a liar, though he speaks the truth.

f) Cause; as,—
perfidiām veritūs ad suōs recessīt, since he feared
treachery, he returned to his own troops.

3. Videō and audiō, besides the Infinitive, take the Present Par-
ticiple in the Predicate use; as,—

videō tē fugientem, I see you fleeing.

a. So frequently facīō, fīgō, indūco, etc.; as,—

ēs Cato nōm respondentem facīmus, we represent Calo reply-
ing to them;

Homērūs Laērtēm colentem agrum facit, Homer represents
Laërtes tilling the field.

4. The Future Active Participle (except futūrūs) is regularly con-
ﬁned to its use in the Periphrastic Conjugation, but in poets and later
writers it is used independently, especially to denote purpose; as,—

vēnērunt castra oppugnātūrī, they came to assault the camp.

5. The Perfect Passive Participle is often equivalent to a coordi-
nate clause; as,—

urbem captam dīruit, he captured and destroyed the city (lit. he de-
stroyed the city captured).

6. The Perfect Passive Participle in combination with a noun is
sometimes equivalent to an abstract noun with a dependent Genitive;
as,—

post urbem conditam, after the founding of the city;
Quinotius dēfānsus, the defense of Quinctius;
quibus animus occupātus, the preoccupation of the mind with which.

7. Habeō sometimes takes a Perfect Passive Participle in the Predi-
cate construction with a force not far removed from that of the Perfect
or Pluperfect Indicative; as,—

cōpiās quās coāctās habēbat, the forces which he had collected.
8. The Gerundive denotes obligation, necessity, etc. Like other Participles it may be used either as Attributive or Predicate.

a) Less frequently as Attributive. Thus:
   * liber legendus, a book worth reading;
   * légés observanda, laws deserving of observance.

b) More frequently as Predicate.

1) In the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (amandus est, etc.). In this use Intransitive Verbs can be used only impersonally, but admit their ordinary case-construction (Gen., Dat., Abl.); as,—
   * veniendum est, it is necessary to come;
   * obifiöscendum est injuriörum, one must forget injuries;
   * numquam pröditörf cröödendum est, you must never trust a traitor;
   * suö cuique utöendum est jöödiciö, every man must use his own judgment.

2) After cürö, provide for; dö, tràdö, give over; relinquö, leave; concëddö, hand over; and some other verbs, instead of an object clause or to denote purpose; as,—
   * Caesar pöötem in Ararö faciëödem cüröövit, Caesar provided for the construction of a bridge over the Arar;
   * imperatór urööbem miliööbus dööriöödendam concessit, the general handed over the city to the soldiers to plunder.

9. For the Gerundive as the equivalent of the Gerund, see § 339, 1.

THE GERUND.

338. As a verbal noun the Gerund admits noun constructions as follows:—

1. **Genitive.** The Genitive of the Gerund is used—

a) With Nouns, as Objective or Appositional Genitive (see §§ 200, 202); as,—
   * cupiditäs dominandä, desire of ruling;
   * ars scribendi, the art of writing.

b) With Adjectives; as,—
   * cupidus audlendi, desirous of hearing.

c) With causäs, grätäs; as,—
   * discendi causäs, for the sake of learning.
Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb.

2. Dative. The Dative of the Gerund is used —

a) With Adjectives; as,—
   *aqua útilis est bibendō, water is useful for drinking.*

b) With Verbs (rarely); as,—
   *adfuī scribendō, I was present at the writing.*

3. Accusative. The Accusative of the Gerund is used only with Prepositions, chiefly *ad* and *in* to denote purpose; as,—
   *homō ad agendum nātus est, man is born for action.*

4. Ablative. The Ablative of the Gerund is used —

a) Without a Preposition, as an Ablative of Means, Cause, etc. (see §§ 218, 219); as,—
   *mēns discendō altur et cogitandō, the mind is nourished by learning and reflection.*
   *Themistoclēs maritimōs praedōnēs conspectandō mare tātum reddidit, Themistocles made the sea safe by following up the pirates.*

b) After the prepositions *ā, dē, ex, in*; as,—
   *summa voluptās ex discendō capitur, the keenest pleasure is derived from learning;*
   *multa dē bene beātēque vivendō ā Platōne disputāta sunt, there was much discussion by Plato on the subject of living well and happily.*

5. As a rule, only the Genitive of the Gerund and the Ablative (without a preposition) admit a Direct Object.

Gerundive Construction instead of the Gerund.

339. 1. Instead of the Genitive or Ablative of the Gerund with a Direct Object, another construction *may be, and very often is, used.* This consists in putting the Direct Object in the case of the Gerund (Gen. or Abl.) and using the Gerundive in agreement with it. This is called the Gerundive Construction. Thus: —

Gerund Construction. | Gerundive Construction.
---|---
*cupidus urbem videndī, desirous of seeing the city.* | *cupidus urbīs videndae;*
*dēlector ōrātōrēs legendō, I am charmed with reading the orators.* | *dēlector ōrātōribus 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 castrís munieundi aptus, a place adapted to fortifying a camp; ad pācem petendum vēnerunt, they came to ask peace; multum temporis consumdō in legendis poētīs, 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 cupīdī sunt vērum invēstīgandi, philosophers are eager for discovering truth (rarely vēri invēstīgandi); studium plūra cognōscendi, a desire of knowing more (not plūrium cognōscendōrum).

4. From the nature of the case only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Gerundive Construction; but tītor, fruor, 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, nostīr, vestīr, 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 auēgit, the woman fled for the sake of saving herself; lēgātī in castra vēnerunt suī pūrgandi causā, the envoys came into camp for the purpose of clearing themselves. 
So nostīr servandī causā, for the sake of saving ourselves.

6. Occasionally the Genitive of the Gerundive Construction is used to denote purpose; as,—

quae ille cēpit lēgum ac libertātēs subvertundae, which he undertook for the purpose of overthrowing the laws and liberty.

7. The Dative of the Gerundive Construction occurs in some expressions which have the character of formulas; as,—

decemvīrī lēgibus scribundīs, decemvirs for codifying the laws; quīndecimvīrī sacrīs faciundīs, quindecimvirs for performing the sacrifices.
Coördinate Conjunctions.

THE SUPINE.

340. 1. The Supine in -um is used after Verbs of motion to express purpose; as,—

lēgātī ad Cæsarem grātulātum convēnērunt, envoys came to Cæsar to congratulate him.

a. The Supine in -um may take an Object; as,—
pācem pētitum ōrātōrēs Rōmam mittunt, they send envoys to Rome to ask for peace.

b. Note the phrase: —
dō (collocō) filiam nūptum, I give my daughter in marriage.

2. The Supine in -ā is used as an Ablative of Specification with facēs, difficilīs, incrēdībīlis, fācundus, optimus, etc.; also with fās est, nefās est, opus est; as,—

haec rēs est facēlis cognitā, this thing is easy to learn;
hōo est optimum factū, this is best to do.

a. Only a few Supines in -ā are in common use, chiefly audītā, cognitā, dīctū, factū, vīsū.

b. The Supine in -ā never takes an Object.

—––

Chapter VI.—Particles.

Coördinate Conjunctions.

341. Copulative Conjunctions. These join one word, phrase, or clause to another.

1. a) et simply connects.

b) -que joins more closely than et, and is used especially where the two members have an internal connection with each other; as,—

parentēs līberīque, parents and children;
cum hominēs aēstū fēbrīque jactantur, when people are tossed about with heat and fever.
c) *atque* (ac) usually emphasizes the second of the two things connected, — and also, and indeed, and in fact. After words of likeness and difference *atque* (ac) has the force of 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.

2. a) -que is an éclitic, and is appended always to the second of two words connected. Where it connects phrases or clauses it is appended to the first word of the second clause; but when the first word of the second clause is a Preposition, -que is regularly appended to the next following word; as, —

*ob eamque rem, and on account of that thing.*

d) *atque* is used before vowels and consonants; ac never before vowels, and seldom before c, g, qu.

c) *et nōn* is used for *neque* when the emphasis of the negative rests upon a special word; as,—

*vetus et nōn ignōbilis grātor, an old and not ignoble orator.*

d) For *and nowhere, and never, and none*, the Latin regularly said *nec ūquam, nec umquam, nec ullus, etc.*

3. **Correlatives.** Copulative Conjunctions are frequently used correlative; as,—

*et . . . et, both . . . and; neque (nec) . . . neque (nec), neither . . . nor; oum . . . tum, while . . . at the same time; tum . . . tum, not only . . . but also.*

Less frequently: —

*et . . . neque; neque . . . et.*

a. Note that the Latin, with its tendency to emphasize antithetical relations, often uses correlatives, especially *et . . . et, et . . . neque, neque . . . et*, where the English employs but a single connective.

4. **In enumerations —**

a) The different members of a series may follow one another without connectives (Asyndeton; see § 346). Thus: —

*ex cupiditātibus odiā, discidia, disordīae, sōditiōnēs, bella nāscuntur, from covetous desires spring up hatred, dissensions, discord, sedition, wars.*
Coördinate Conjunctions.

b) The different members may severally be connected by et (Polysyndeton). Thus:—

bōrae cādunt et dīs et mānsēs et annī, hours and days and years and months pass away.

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 Turōnēsque legiōnēs dēdūcit, Caesar leads his legions into the territory of the Carnutes, Andes, and Turones.

342. Disjunctive Conjunctions indicate an alternative.

1. 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 aether vel caelum nōminātur, which is called aether or heaven.

2. Correlatives. Disjunctive Conjunctions are often used correlatively; as,—

aut . . . aut, either . . . or;
vel . . . vel, either . . . or;
śive . . . śive, if . . . . . or if.

343. Adversative Conjunctions. These denote opposition.

1. a) sed, but, merely denotes opposition.

b) vērum, but, is stronger than sed, but is less frequently used.

c) autem, but on the other hand, however, marks a transition. It is always post-positive.

Definition. A post-positive word is one that cannot begin a sentence, but is placed after one or more words.

d) at, but, is used especially in disputation, to introduce an opposing argument.

e) atquē 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.
2. Note the correlative expressions: —
non solum (non modo) ... sed etiam, not only ... but also;
non modo non ... sed ne ... quidem, not only not, but not even; as,—

non modo tibi non frarscor, sed ne reprehendo quidem factum tuum, I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even blame your action.

a. But when the sentence has but one verb, and this stands with the second member, non modo may be used for non modo non; as,—
    adscientia non modo amicis sed ne liberis quidem digna est, flattery is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man.

344. Illative Conjunctions. These represent the statement which they introduce as following from or as in conformity with what has preceded.

1. a) itaque = and so, accordingly.
b) ergo = therefore, accordingly.
c) igitur (regularly post-positive) = therefore, accordingly.

2. Igitur is never combined with et, atque, -que, or neque.

345. Causal Conjunctions. These denote cause, or give an explanation. They are nam, namque, enim (post-positive), etenim, for.

346. Asyndeton. The conjunction is sometimes omitted between coordinate members, particularly in lively or impassioned narration. Thus: —

a) A Copulative Conjunction is omitted; as,—
    avaritia Infinita insatiabilis est, avarice is boundless (and) insatiable;
    The conjunction is regularly omitted between the names of consuls when the praenomen (Marcus, Gaius, etc.) is expressed.

b) An Adversative Conjunction may be omitted; as,—
    rationes defecturus, ubertatis orationis non defuit, arguments were lacking, (but) abundance of words was not.

1 Except in Sallust and Silver Latin.
Adverbs. — Word-Order.

ADVERBS.

347. 1. The following particles, sometimes classed as Conjunctions, are more properly Adverbs: —
etiam, also, even.
quoque (always post-positive), also.
quidem (always post-positive) lays stress upon the preceding word. It is sometimes equivalent to the English indeed, in fact, but more frequently cannot be rendered, except by vocal emphasis.
nē . . . quidem means not even; the emphatic word or phrase always stands between; as, nē ille quidem, not even he.
tamen and vērō, in addition to their use as Conjunctions, are often employed as Adverbs.

2. Negatives. Two Negatives are regularly equivalent to an affirmative as in English, as nōn nūllī, some; but when nōn, nāmō, nīhil, numquam, etc., are accompanied by neque . . . neque, nōn . . . nōn, nōn modo, or nē . . . quidem, the latter particles simply take up the negation and emphasize it; as,—
habeō hic nāminem neque amīcum neque cognātum, I have here no one, neither friend nor relative.
nōn enim 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 Adjectives and Adverbs, and in the phrase haud scīō an. Later writers use it freely with verbs.

CHAPTER VII. — Word-Order and Sentence-Structure.

A. WORD-ORDER.

348. In the normal arrangement of the Latin sentence the Subject stands at the beginning of the sentence, the Predicate at the end; as, —

Dārius classem quīngentārum nāvium comparāvit, Darius got ready a fleet of five hundred ships.
349. But for the sake of emphasis the normal arrangement is often abandoned, and the emphatic word is put at the beginning, less frequently at the end of the sentence; as, —

magnus in hoc bello Themistocles fuit, great was Themistocles in this war;
allud iter habemus nullo, other course we have none.

SPECIAL PRINCIPLES.

350. 1. Nouns. A Genitive or other oblique case regularly follows the word upon which it depends. Thus: —

a) Depending upon a Noun: —
tribunus plebis, tribune of the plebs;
filius regis, son of the king;
vir magni animi, a man of noble spirit.
Yet always senatus consultum, plebis solutum.

b) Depending upon an Adjective: —
ignarus rerum, ignorant of affairs;
digni amici, worthy of friendship;
plius aequo, more than (what is) fair.

2. Appositives. An Appositive regularly follows its Subject; as, —
Philippus, rex Macedonum, Philip, king of the Macedonians;
adsentati, vitiorum adjutor, flattery, promoter of evils.
Yct flumen Rhenum, the River Rhine; and always in good prose urbs Roma, the city Rome.

3. The Vocative usually follows one or more words; as, —
audi, Caesar, hear, Caesar!

4. Adjectives. No general law can be laid down for the position of Adjectives. On the whole they precede the noun often rather than they follow it.

a. Adjectives of quantity (including numerals) regularly precede their noun; as, —
omnia hominum, all men;
septingentae nauis, seven hundred vessels.
b. Note the force of position in the following:—
media urbs, the middle of the city;
urbs media, the middle city;
extrēmum bellum, the end of the war;
bellum extrēmum, the last war.
c. Rōmānus and Latinus regularly follow; as,—
seuēs populusque Rōmānus, the Roman Senate and
People;
ēsī Rōmānī, the Roman games;
fēriae Latīnae, the Latin holidays.
d. When a Noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Geni-
tive, a favorite order is: Adjective, Genitive, Noun; as,—
summa omnium rērum abundantia, the greatest abun-
dance of all things.

5. Pronouns.
a. The Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns
regularly precede the Noun; as,—
hīc homō, this man;
ille homō, that man;
erant duo itinerā, quibus itineribus, etc., there were two
routes, by which, etc.
quī homō? what sort of a man?
b. But ille in the sense of 'that well known,' 'that famous,'
usually stands after its Noun; as,—
testula illa, that well-known custom of ostracism;
Mēdēa illa, that famous Medea.
c. Possessive and Indefinite Pronouns usually follow their
Noun; as,—
pater meus, my father;
homō quīdam, a certain man;
mulīr alīqua, some woman.
But for purposes of contrast the Possessive often precedes
its Noun; as,—
meus pater, my father (i.e. as opposed to yours, his, etc.).
d. Where two or more Pronouns occur in the same sentence,
the Latin is fond of putting them in close proximity; as,—
nisi forte ego vōbis cessāre videor, unless perchance I
seem to you to be doing nothing.
6. Adverbs and Adverbial phrases regularly precede the word they modify; as,—

*valdé diligēns*, extremely diligent;
saepe dīxi, I have often said;
tē jam diū hortāmur, we have long been urging you;
paulō post, a little after.

7. *Prepositions* regularly precede the words they govern.

*a*. But limiting words often intervene between the Preposition and its case; as,—

dē communī hominum memoriā, concerning the common memory of men;
ad beātē vivēndum, for living happily.

*b*. When a noun is modified by an Adjective, the Adjective is often placed before the preposition; as,—

magnō in dolōre, in great grief;
summā cum laude, with the highest credit;
quā dē causā, for which cause;
hanc ob rem, on account of this thing.

*c*. For Anastrophe, by which a Preposition is put after its case, see § 144. 3.

8. *Conjunctions*. *Autem, enim*, and *igitur* regularly stand in the second place in the sentence, but when combined with *est* or *sunt* they often stand third; as,—

*ita est enim*, for so it is.

9. Words or Phrases referring to the preceding sentence or to some part of it, regularly stand first; as,—

id ut audīvit, Corīyram dēmigrāvit, when he heard that (referring to the contents of the preceding sentence), he moved to Corcyra;
eō cum Caesar vēnisset, timentēs cōnfīrmāt, when Caesar had come thither (i.e. to the place just mentioned), he encouraged the timid.

10. The Latin has a fondness for putting side by side words which are etymologically related; as,—

ut ad senem senex dē senectūtē, sīc hōc librō ad amicīum amicissimus dē amicitīa scrīpiā, as I, an old man, wrote to an old man, on old age, so in this book, as a fond friend, I have written to a friend concerning friendship.
II. Special rhetorical devices for indicating emphasis are the following:—

a) **Hypérbaton**, which consists in the separation of words that regularly stand together; as,—

_ septime mihi Orínum liber est in manibus, the seventh book of my 'Ordines' is under way;_  
_recepto Caesar Óricó proficiscitur, 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 pléni omnés sunt libri, plénae sapientium voces, pléna exemplórum vetustá, 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,—

_multós défendi, laesi néninem, many have I defended, I have injured no one;_  
_horríblem illum diós álta, nóbís faustum, that day dreadful to others, for us fortunate._

d') **Sýnchysis**, or the interlocked arrangement. This is mostly confined to poetry, yet occurs in rhetorical prose, especially that of the Imperial Period; as,—

_simulátam Pompejánárüm grátiam 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.

_ _ _ _ _ _ ; as, **esse vidéitur** (close of hexameter)._  
_ _ _ _ _ ; as, **esse poteat** (close of pentameter)._  

b) Cadences frequently employed.

_ _ _ _ _ ; as, **auxerant._  
_ _ _ _ _ ; as, **comprobavit._  
_ _ _ _ _ _ _ ; as, **esse vidéat._  
_ _ _ _ _ _ _ ; as, **rogásti tuó._

¹ So named from a fancied analogy to the strokes of the Greek letter Χ (chi). Thus:—

_multós laesi_  
_X_  
_défendi néninem_
B. SENTENCE-STRUCTURE.

351. 1. Unity of Subject.—In complex sentences the Latin regularly holds to unity of Subject in the different members; as,—

Caesar primum suō, deinde omnium ex conspectū remotus equis, ut aequitā rēfoulō aperm fugae tolleret, ochor-tātus suōs proelium commītīt, Caesar having first removed his own horse from sight, then the horses of all, in order, by making the danger equal, to take away hope of flight, encouraged his men and joined battle.

2. A word serving as the common Subject or Object of the main clause and a subordinate one, stands before both; as,—

Haeduī cum sē defendere nōn possent, lēgātōs ad Caesarem mittunt, since the Haeduī could not defend themselves, they sent envoys to Caesar;

ille et alī flagrābat bellandī cupiditāte, tamen pācī serviendum putāvit, although he was burning with a desire to fight, yet he thought he ought to aim at peace.

a. The same is true also

1) When the Subject of the main clause is Object (Direct or Indirect) of a subordinate clause; as,—

Caesar, cum hōc ei nūntiatum esset, mātūrat ab urbe proficiāciō, 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. Māniōs, cum dīctātor fuissest, M. Pompeius tribūnus plābs diem dixit, M. Pompeius, tribune of the people, instituted proceedings against Lucius Manliōs though he had been dictator.

3. Of subordinate clauses, temporal, conditional, and adversative clauses more commonly precede the main clause; indirect questions and clauses of purpose or result more commonly follow; as,—

postquam haecl dixit, praefectus est, after he said this, he set out;

si quis ita agat, imprudēns sit, if any one should act so, he would be devoid of foresight;

accidit ut ēnā nocte omnēs Hermēs dēlcerentūr, it happened that in a single night all the Hermēs were thrown down.
4. Sometimes in Latin the main verb is placed within the subordinate clause; as,—

śī quīd est in mé ingenī, quōd 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,—

Caesār ētās intellegēbat quā dē causā ea dīcērēntur, tamen, aēstātem in Trōverīs cōnsāmēre cōgerētur, Indutiōmarum ad sē venīre jussīt, though Caesar perceived why this was said, yet, lest he should be forced to spend the summer among the Treveri, he ordered Indutiōmarus 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 misissent, quī, quae in castrīs gererentur, cognōscerent, ubi sē dexterōs intellexerunt, omnibus cōpis subsecūt ad fīmen contendērunt, but the enemy when they had sent men to learn what was going on in camp, after discovering that they had been outwitted, followed with all their forces and hurried to the river.

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**Chapter VIII. — Hints on Latin Style.**

352. In this chapter brief consideration is given to a few features of Latin diction which belong rather to style than to formal grammar.

**Nouns.**

353. 1. Where a distinct reference to several persons or things is involved, the Latin is frequently much more exact in the use of the **Plural** than is the English; as,—
domōs sunt, they go home (i.e. to their homes);
Germānī corpora cūrant, the Germans care for the body;
animōs mīlitum recreat, he renews the courage of the soldiers;
dīēs noctēsque tīmēre, to be in a state of fear day and night.

2. In case of Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively
the Latin often employs the Plural where the English uses the Singular; as,—
onnia sunt perdita, everything is lost;
quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
haec omnibus perversā sunt, this is very well known to all.

3. The Latin is usually more concrete than the English, and especially
less bold in the personification of abstract qualities. Thus:—
ā puerō, ā puerā, from boyhood;
Sullā dictātōre, in Sulla’s dictatorship;
mē dūce, under my leadership;
Rōmānī cum Carthāgīniēnsibus pācem fācērunt = Rome made
peace with Carthage;
liber doctrīnās plēnus = a learned book;
prūdentīā Themistoclis Graecia servāta est = Themistocles’s fore-
sight saved Greece.

4. The Nouns of Agency in -tōr and -sōr (see § 147. 1) denote a
permanent or characteristic activity; as,—
aeusātōrēs (professional) accusers;
ōrātōrēs, pleaders;
cantārēs, singers;
Arminius, Germāniae līberātor, Arminius, liberator of Germany.

   a. To denote single instances of an action, other expressions are
      commonly employed; as,—
      Numa, qui Rōmulō successit, Numa, successor of Romulus;
      quī mea legunt, my readers;
      quī mē audīunt, my auditors.

5. The Latin avoids the use of prepositional phrases as modifiers of
a Noun. In English we say: ‘The war against Carthage’; ‘a journey
through Gaul’; ‘cities on the sea’; ‘the book in my hands’; ‘the fight
at Salamis’; etc. The Latin in such cases usually employs another
mode of expression. Thus:—

   a) A Genitive; as,—
dolor īnfectūrārum, resentment at injuries.
Hints on Style.

b) An Adjective; as,—

urbēs maritimae, cities on the sea;
pugna Salamīnia, the fight at Salamis.

c) A Participle; as,—
pugna ad Caennās facta, the battle at Caneae.

d) A Relative clause; as,—
liber qui in meās 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: —

transitus in Britanniam, the passage to Britain;
excessus e vitā, departure from life;
odium ergā Rōmānōs, hatred of the Romans;
liber dē senectūte, the book on old age;
amor in patriam, love for one's country.

ADJECTIVES.

354. 1. Special Latin Equivalents for English Adjectives are —

a) A Genitive; as,—
virtūtēs animī = moral virtues;
dolōrēs corporis = bodily ills.

b) An Abstract Noun; as,—
novitās reī = the strange circumstance;
asperitās viārum = rough roads.

c) Hendiadys (see § 374, 4); as,—
ratiō et ordō = systematic order;
ārdor et impetus = eager onset.

d) Sometimes an Adverb; as,—
omnia circa populī, all the surrounding tribes;
浚ā semper hostēs, their perpetual foes.

2. Often a Latin Noun is equivalent to an English Noun modified by an Adjective; as,—
dōctrina, theoretical knowledge; prūdentia, practical knowledge;
oppīdum, walled town; libellus, little book.
3. Adjectives are not used in immediate agreement with proper names; but an Adjective may limit vir, homō, iles, or some other word used as an Appositive of a proper name; as,—

Sōcratēs, homō sapiēns = the wise Socrates;
Scipio, vir fortissimus = the doughty Scipio;
Syraclīssae, urbs praecelēssima = famous Syracuse.

4. An Adjective may be equivalent to a Possessive or Subjective Genitive; as —

pāstor rēgīus, the shepherd of the king;
tumultus servīlia, 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,—

a quō cum quaeōretur, quid maximē expedīret, respondit, when it was asked of him what was best, he replied. (Less commonly, quī, cum ab eō quaerētur, respondit.)

2. Uterque, ambō. Uterque means each of two; ambō means both; as,—

uterque frāter abīvit, each of the two brothers departed (i.e. separately);
ambō frātēs abīrunt, 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 utēsque castrīs, in each camp.

2) Where there is a distinct reference to two groups of persons or things; as,—
utēsque duces clārēs fuērunt, the generals on each side (several in number) were famous.

**VERBS.**

356. 1. In case of Defective and Deponent Verbs, a Passive is supplied; —

a) By the corresponding verbal Nouns in combination with esse, etc.; as,—

in odiō sumus, we are hated;
in invidiā sum, I am envied;
Hints on Style.

admíratióf est, he is admired;
oblivióne obruitur, he is forgotten (lit. is overwhelmed by oblivion);
in ûns esse, to be used.

b) By the Passive of Verbs of related meaning. Thus: —
agitári as Passive of persequí;
temptári as Passive of adorfr.

2. The lack of the Perfect Active Participle in Latin is supplied —
a) Sometimes by the Perfect Passive Participle of the Depo-
ment; as,—
adhortátus, having exhorted;
veritus, having feared.
b) By the Ablative Absolute; as,—
hostium agrís vástátís Caesar exercítiúm reddíxit, hav-
ing ravaged the country of the enemy, Caesar led back his army.
c) By subordinate clauses; as,—
eó cum advénisset, castra posuit, having arrived there, 
he pitched a camp;
hostés qui in urbem irruitórent, the enemy having burst 
into the city.

3. The Latin agrees with English in the stylistic employment of 
the Second Person Singular in an indefinite sense (= 'one'). Cf. 
the English 'You can drive a horse to water, but you can't make him 
drink.' But in Latin this use is mainly confined to certain varieties of 
the Subjunctive, especially the Potential (§ 280), Jussive (§ 275), De-
liberative (§ 277), and the Subjunctive in conditional sentences of the 
sort included under § 302, 2, and 303. Examples: —
vidéris, you could see;
útare víribus, use your strength;
quid hóc hominé faciás, what are you to do with this man?
mêns quoque et animus, nisi tamquam láminí oleum instillés, 
extingúuntur senectúte, the intellect and mind too are ex-
tinguished by old age, unless, so to speak, you keep pouring oil 
into the lamp;
tantó amóre possessiónes suás amplexí tenábant, ut ab eis 
membra divellí citius posse dicérés, they clung to their pos-
sessions with such an affectionate embrace, that you would have 
said their limbs could sooner be torn from their bodies.
PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.

357. 1. To denote 'so many years, etc., afterwards or before' the Latin employs not merely the Ablative of Degree of Difference with post and ante (see § 223), but has other forms of expression. Thus:—

post quinque annōs, five years afterward;
paucōs ante diēs, a few days before;
ante quadiēnnium, four years before;
post diem quartum quam ab urbe discesserāmus, four days after we had left the city;
ante tertium annum quam dēcesserat, three years before he had died.

2. The Latin seldom combines both Subject and Object with the same Infinitive; as,—

Rōmānōs Hannibalem vīcisse 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,—

Rōmānōs ab Hannibale vīctōs esse cōnstat, it is well established that the Romans were defeated by Hannibal.

PECULIARITIES IN CONNECTION WITH THE USE OF THE DATIVE.

358. 1. The English for does not always correspond to a Dative notion in Latin, but is often the equivalent of prō with the Ablative, viz. in the senses —

a) In defense of; as,—
prō patriā morī, to die for one’s country.

b) Instead of, in behalf of; as,—
ānus prō omnibus dixit, one spoke for all;
haec prō lēge dīcta sunt, these things were said for the law.

c) In proportion to; as,—
prō multitūdine hominum eōrum finēs erant angustī, for the population, their territory was small.
Hints on Style.

2. Similarly, English to when it indicates motion is rendered in Latin by ad.

   a. Note, however, that the Latin may say either scribere ad aliquem, or scribere aliqui, according as the idea of motion is or is not predominant. So in several similar expressions.

3. In the poets, verbs of mingling with, contending with, joining, clinging to, etc., sometimes take the Dative. This construction is a Grecism. Thus:

   sé miscet viris, he mingles with the men;
   contendis Homérō, you contend with Homer;
   dextreae dextram jungere, to clasp hand with hand.

peculiarities in the use of the genitive.

359. 1. The Possessive Genitive gives emphasis to the possessor, the Dative of Possessor emphasizes the fact of possession; as, —

   hortus patris est, the garden is my father’s;
   mihi hortus est, I possess a garden.

2. The Latin can say either stultī or stultum est dicere, it is foolish to say; but Adjectives of one ending permit only the Genitive; as, —

   sapientia est haec sēcum reputāre, it is the part of a wise man to consider this.
PART VI.

PROSODY.

360. Prosody treats of metres and versification.

361. Latin Verse. Latin Poetry was essentially different in character from English. In our own language, poetry is based upon accent, and poetical form consists essentially in a certain succession of accented and unaccented syllables. Latin poetry, on the other hand, was based not upon accent, but upon quantity, so that with the Romans poetical form consisted in a certain succession of long and short syllables, i.e. of long and short intervals of time.

This fundamental difference in the character of English and Latin poetry is a natural result of the difference in character of the two languages. English is a strongly accented language, in which quantity is relatively subordinate. Latin, on the other hand, was a quantitative language, in which accent was relatively subordinate.

QUANTITY OF VOCALS AND SYLLABLES.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

362. The general principles for the quantity of vowels and syllables have been given above in § 5. The following peculiarities are to be noted here: —

1. A vowel is usually short when followed by another vowel (§ 5. a. 2), but the following exceptions occur: —
Quantity of Vowels and Syllables.

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1. In the Genitive termination -ius (except alterius); as, illius, totius. Yet the i may be short in poetry; as, illius, totius.

2. In the Dative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diēs, aciēs. But sicēs, rēs, spēs (§ 52, 1).

3. In filē, excepting fit and forms where i is followed by er. Thus: fiēbam, fiat, fiunt; but fierē, fierēm.

4. In a few other words, especially words derived from the Greek; as, diōs, Aeneās, Darius, hērōes, etc.

2. A diphthong is usually long (§ 5. B. 2), but the preposition prae in composition is often shortened before a vowel; as, praecātus.

3. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants (§ 5. B. 2) is long, even when one of the consonants is in the following word; as, terret populum. Occasionally the syllable is long when both consonants are in the following word; as, prō segete spicās.

4. Compounds of jaciō, though written incitē, adlocitē, etc., have the first syllable long, as though written inj-, adj-

5. Before j, ā and ē made a long syllable, e.g. in major, pejor, ejus, ejusdem, Pompeius, rejēcit, etc. These were pronounced, mai-jor, pei-jor, ei-jus, Pompei-jus, rei-jēcit, etc. So also sometimes before i, e.g. Pompeī, pronounced Pompei-i; re-i-ciō, pronounced re-i-ciō.

Quantity of Final Syllables.

A. Final Syllables ending in a Vowel.

363. 1. Final a is mostly short, but is long:

a) In the Ablative Singular of the First Declension; as, portā.

b) In the Imperative; as, laudā.

c) In indeclinable words (except itā, quiā); as, trīgintā, contrā, postēā, interēā, etc.

2. Final e is usually short, but is long—

a) In the Ablative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diēs, rēs; hence hodiēs, quārēs. Here belongs also famē (§ 59. 2. b).

b) In the Imperative of the Second Conjugation; as, monē, habē, etc.; yet occasionally cavē, valē.

c) In Adverbs derived from Adjectives of the Second Declension, along with ferē and fermē. Bene, malē, temerē, saēpē have e.

d) In ē, dē, mē, tē, sē, nē (not, lest), nē (verily).
3. Final i is usually long, but is short in nisi and quasi. Mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi, have regularly i, but sometimes ì; yet always ifdém, ibique, ubique.

4. Final o is regularly long, but is short —
   a) In ego, duò, modò (only), citò.
   b) Rarely in the First Person Singular of the Verb, and in Nominatives of the Third Declension; as, amò, leò.
   c) In a few compounds beginning with the Preposition pro, especially before f; as pròfundere, pròficisci, pròfugere.

5. Final u is always long.

B. Final Syllables ending in a Consonant.

364. 1. Final syllables ending in any other consonant than s are short. The following words, however, have a long vowel: sal, sól, Lar, pár, vér, fär, dic, dúc, én, nóin, quín, sin, sic, cüf, hic (this). Also adverbs in c; as, hic, hüc, istíc, illíc, etc.

2. Final syllables in -as are long; as, terrás, amás.

3. Final syllables in -es are regularly long, but are short —
   a) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of dental stems (§ 33) of the Third Declension which have a short penult in the Genitive; as, segés (segetis), obsés (obsidis), mlés, dívés. But a few have -ēs; víz. pés, ariés, abíés, pariés.
   b) In és (thou art), penēs.

4. Final -os is usually long, but short in òs (ossis), compós.

5. Final -is is usually short, but is long —
   a) In Plurals; as, portís, hortís, nóbís, vóbís, núbís (Acc.).
   b) In the Second Person Singular Perfect Subjunctive Active, as amáverís, monuéris, audíverís, etc. Yet occasional exceptions occur.
   c) In the Second Person Singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation; as, audíis.
   d) In víis, force; ìs, thou goest; sīs; sīs; velís; nōlis; víis, thou wilt (māvis, quamvīs, quīvīs, etc.).

6. Final -us is usually short, but is long —
   a) In the Genitive Singular and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural of the Fourth Declension; as, fructūs.

1 Rarely hic.
Verse-Structure.

2) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of those nouns of the Third Declension in which the u belongs to the stem; as, pallās (-ūdās), servitūs (-ūtīs), tellūs (-ūūs).

385. Greek Nouns retain in Latin their original quantity; as, Ἀενῶ, ἐπὶτόμα, Δήλος, Πάλλα, Σίμος, Σαλάμις, Παιρίδι, Ἐχθρός, ὁρφάρης. Yet Greek nouns in -ωρ regularly shorten the vowel of the final syllable; as, Ῥῆτόρ, ἩΕκτόρ.

VERSE-STRUCTURE.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

386. 1. The metrical unit in versification is a short syllable, technically called a mora (☉). A long syllable (☉) is regarded as equivalent to two morae.

2. A Foot is a group of syllables. The following are the most important kinds of fundamental feet:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEET OF THREE MORAE</th>
<th>FEET OF FOUR MORAE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>❄ ☁ Trochee.</td>
<td>❄ ☁ ☁ Dactyl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>❄ ☁ Iambus.</td>
<td>❄ ☁ ☁ Anapaest.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. A Verse is a succession of feet.

4. The different kinds of verses are named Trochaic, Iambic, Dactylic, Anapaestic, according to the foot which forms the basis of their structure.

5 Ictus. In every fundamental foot the long syllable naturally receives the greater prominence. This prominence is called ictus. It is denoted thus: ☁ ❄ ☁ ☁ ; ☁ ☁ ☁ ☁ .

6. Thesis and Aresis. The syllable which receives the ictus is called the thesis; the rest of the foot is called the aresis.

7. Ellision. Final syllables ending in a vowel, a diphthong, or -m are regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or h. In reading, we ordinarily omit the elided syllable entirely. Probably the ancients slurred the words together in some way. This may be indicated as follows: corpore in únō; multum ille et; mōnstrum horrendum; causae irārum.

a. Omission of elision is called Hiatus. It occurs especially before and after monosyllabic Interjections; as, Ο et praesidium.

---

1 Ictus was not accent,—neither stress accent nor musical accent,—but was simply the quantitative prominence inherent in a long syllable.
8. The ending of a word within a foot is called a Caesura (cutting). Every verse usually has one prominent caesura. The ending of a word and foot together within the verse is called a diaeresis.

9. Verses are distinguished as Catalectic or Acatalectic. A Catalectic verse is one in which the last foot is not complete, but lacks one or more syllables; an Acatalectic verse has its last foot complete.

10. At the end of a verse a slight pause occurred. Hence the final syllable may be either long or short (syllaba anceps), and may terminate in a vowel or m, even though the next verse begins with a vowel.

11. 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.

387. 1. Synizesis (Synaeresis). Two successive vowels in the interior of a word are often united into a long syllable; as,—

   aeīs, deīnde, aneīre, deesse.

2. Diastole. A syllable usually short is sometimes long; as,—

   vidēt, audīt.

3. Systole. A syllable usually long is sometimes short; as,—

   stetērunt.

   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.

4. After a consonant, i and u sometimes become j and v. The preceding syllable then becomes long; as,—

   abjete for abiete; genua for genua.

5. Sometimes v becomes u; as,—

   silua for silva; dissolvō for dissolvē.

6. Sometimes a verse has an extra syllable. Such a verse is called an Hypermeter. The extra syllable ends in a vowel or -m, and is united with the initial vowel or h of the next verse by Synaphoia. Thus:—

   ........... iūnāriī hominumque locōrumque errāmus.
7. **Tmesis** (*cutting*). Compound words are occasionally separated into their elements; as,—

quō mē cunque rapit tempestās, for quōcunque, etc.

8. **Sýncope**. A short vowel is sometimes dropped between two consonants; as,—

repositorus for repositus.

THE DACTYLC HEXAMETER.

368. 1. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. But in all the feet except the fifth, a spondee (− −) may take the place of the dactyl. The sixth foot may be either a spondee or a trochee, since the final syllable of a verse may be either long or short (*syllaba ances*). The following represents the scheme of the verse:

<, <, <, <, <, <, <.

2. Sometimes we find a spondee in the fifth foot. Such verses are called Spondaic. A dactyl usually stands in the fourth place, and the fifth and sixth feet are generally made up of a quadrisyllable; as,—

arma virumque canō circumplicet Òrtōna cāra déum subolēs, magnum Jovis ino-rēmentum.

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 qui prīmus ab Òrlēs.

b) Less frequently the caesura occurs after the thesis of the fourth foot, usually accompanied by another in the second foot; as,—

inde torō pater Æneas sīc ōrēus ab altō cēt.

c) Sometimes the caesura occurs between the two short syllables of the third foot; as,—

Ō passī graviōra dabit deus hīs quoque finem.

This caesura is called Feminine, as opposed to the caesura after a long syllable, which is called Masculine (as under a and b).
Prosody.

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 Greeks. Thus: —

sōlstitium pecorī défendite; || jam venit aestās.

DACTYLIC PENTAMETER.

369. 1. The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts, each of which contains two dactyli, 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 Eleastic Distich. Thus: —

Vergilium vidī tantum, nec amāra Tibullī
Tempus amicītiae fāta dedēre meae.

IAMBIC MEASURES.

370. 1. The most important Iambic verse is the Iambic Trimeter (§ 366. 11), called also Senarius. This is an acatalectic verse. It consists of six Iambi. Its pure form is: —

\[ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \]

Beātus ille qui procul negōtīs.

The Caesura usually occurs in the third foot; less frequently in the fourth.

2. In place of the Iambus, a Tribrach (○ ○ ○) may stand in any foot but the last. In the odd feet (first, third, and fifth) may stand a Spondee, Dactyl, or Anapaest, though the last two are less frequent. Sometimes a Procelesmatic (○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○) occurs.

3. In the Latin comic writers, Plautus and Terence, great freedom is permitted, and the various equivalents of the Iambus, viās. the Dactyl, Anapaest, Spondee, Tribrach, Procelesmatic, are freely admitted in any foot except the last.
SUPPLEMENTS TO THE GRAMMAR.

I. JULIAN CALENDAR.

371. 1. The names of the Roman months are: Jānuārius, Februārius, Mārtiūs, Āprīliūs, Majus, Jūnius, Jūliūs (Quintīliūs 1 prior to 46 B.C.), Augustus (Sextīliūs 1 before the Empire), Septembru, Octōber, Novembru, December. These words are properly Adjectives in agreement with mēnsis 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 points dates were reckoned backward; consequently all days after the Ides of any month were reckoned as so many days before the Calends of the month next following.

4. The day before the Calends, Nones, or Ides of any month is designated as prīdiē Kalendās, Nōnās, Īdūs. The second day before was designated as diē tertīō ante Kalendās, Nōnās, etc. Similarly the third day before was designated as diē quartō, and so on. These designations are arithmetically inaccurate, but the Romans reckoned both ends of the series. The Roman numeral indicating the date is therefore always larger by one than the actual number of days before Nones, Ides, or Calends.

5. In indicating dates, the name of the month is added in the form of an Adjective agreeing with Kalendās, Nōnās, Īdūs. Various forms of expression occur, of which that given under d) is most common: —

a) diē quintō ante Īdūs Mārtiās;

b) quintō ante Īdūs Mārtiās;

c) quīntō (V) Īdūs Mārtiās;

d) ante diem quintum Īdūs Mārtiās.

1 Originally the Roman year began with March. This explains the names Quintīliūs, Sextīliūs, Septembru, etc.; fifth month, sixth month, etc.
Supplements to the Grammar.

6. These designations may be treated as nouns and combined with the prepositions in, ad, ex; as,—

*ad ante diem IV Kalendās Octōbrēs, up to the 28th of September.*

*ex ante diem quintum Īdūs Octōbrēs, from the 11th of October.*

7. In leap year the 25th was reckoned as the extra day in February. The 24th was designated as *ante diem VI Kalendās Mārtiās,* and the 25th as *ante diem bis VI Kal. Mārt.*

---

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### CALENDAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days of the Month</th>
<th>March, May, July, October</th>
<th>January, August, December</th>
<th>April, June, September, November</th>
<th>February</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Kalendīs</td>
<td>Kalendīs</td>
<td>Kalendīs</td>
<td>Kalendīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>VI. Nōnās.</td>
<td>IV. Nōnās.</td>
<td>IV. Nōnās.</td>
<td>III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>Pridē Nōnās.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>Nōnīs.</td>
<td>Nōnīs.</td>
<td>VII. Īdūs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Pridē Nōnās.</td>
<td>VIII. Īdūs.</td>
<td>VIII. Īdūs.</td>
<td>VII.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Nōnīs.</td>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>VI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>VIII. Īdūs.</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>IV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>Īdūbus.</td>
<td>Īdūbus.</td>
<td>XVIII. Kalend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>XVII. Īdūbus.</td>
<td>XVII. Kalend.</td>
<td>XVII.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Pridē Īdūs.</td>
<td>XVI. Īdūbus.</td>
<td>XVI.</td>
<td>XVI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Idūbus.</td>
<td>XV.</td>
<td>XV.</td>
<td>XV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>XVII. Kalend.</td>
<td>XIV.</td>
<td>XIV.</td>
<td>XIII.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>XVI.</td>
<td>XIII.</td>
<td>XIII.</td>
<td>XI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>XV.</td>
<td>XII.</td>
<td>XII.</td>
<td>X.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>XIV.</td>
<td>XI.</td>
<td>XI.</td>
<td>IX.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>XIII.</td>
<td>X.</td>
<td>X.</td>
<td>VIII.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>XII.</td>
<td>IX.</td>
<td>IX.</td>
<td>V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>XI.</td>
<td>VIII.</td>
<td>VIII.</td>
<td>VII.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>X.</td>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>VI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>IX.</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>V. (VI.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>VIII.</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>IV. (V.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>III. (IV.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>Pridē Kalend.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>Pridē Kalend.</td>
<td>Pridē Kalend.</td>
<td>(Enclosed forms are for leap-year.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>IV.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Pridē Kalend.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figures of Syntax.

II. PROPER NAMES.

373. 1. The name of a Roman citizen regularly consisted of three parts: the praenomen (or given name), the nomen (name of the gens or clan), and the cognomen (family name). Such a typical name is exemplified by Marcus Tullius Cicero, in which Marcus is the praenomen, Tullius the nomen, and Cicero the cognomen. Sometimes a second cognomen (in later Latin called an agnomen) is added—especially in honor of military achievements; as,—

Gaius Cornelius Scipio Africanus.

2. Abbreviations of Proper Names.

A. = Aulus.
App. = Appius.
C. = Gaius.
Cn. = Gnaeus.
D. = Decimus.
K. = Caesius.
L. = Lucius.
M. = Marcus.
M. = Manius.
M. = Mamertus.
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. 1. Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words; as,—

quid multa, why (should I say) much?

2. Brachylogy is a brief or condensed form of expression; as,—

ut agrer sine culturâ fructuosus esse non potest, sic sine doctrinâ animus, as a field cannot be productive without cultivation, so the mind (cannot be productive) without learning.

Special varieties of Brachylogy are—

a) Zeugma, in which one verb is made to stand for two; as,—

minis aut blandimentis corrupta = (terrified) by threats or corrupted by flattery.

b) Comparidary Comparison, by which a modifier of an object is mentioned instead of the object itself; as,—

dissimilis erat Charâs eorum et factis et moribus, lit. Chares was different from their conduct and character. i.e. Chares’s conduct and character were different, etc.
3. Pléonasme is an unnecessary fullness of expression; as, —
   prius praedicam, lit. I will first say in advance.

4. Hendados (ἐν διὰ δύον, one through two) is the use of two
   nouns joined by a conjunction, in the sense of a noun modified by a
   Genitive or an Adjective; as, —
   febris et aequus, the heat of fever;
   celeritate cursique, by swift running.

5. Prolépsis, or Anticipation, is the introduction of an epithet
   in advance of the action which makes it appropriate; as, —
   submersas obrue puppes, lit. overwhelm their submerged ships,
   i.e. overwhelm and sink their ships.
   a. The name Prolépsis is also applied to the introduction of a noun
      or pronoun as object of the main clause where we should expect
      it to stand as subject of a subordinate clause. Thus: —
      nōstī Mārcellum quam tardus sit, you know how slow
      Mārcillus is (lit. you know Mārcellus, how slow he is).
      Both varieties of Prolépsis are chiefly confined to poetry.

6. Anacoluthon is a lack of grammatical consistency in the con-
   struction of the sentence; as, —
   tum Anci filii . . . impēnsius eis indignitās crēscere, then the sons
   of Anci . . . their indignation increased all the more.

7. Hysteron Prōteron consists in the inversion of the natural
   order of two words or phrases; as, —
   moriamur et in media arma ruamus = let us rush into the midst of
   arms and die.

B. Figures of Rhetoric.

375. 1. Litotes (literally softening) is the expression of an idea
   by the denial of its opposite; as, —
   haud parum laboris, no little toil (i.e. much toil);
   nōn ignōrō, I am not ignorant (i.e. I am well aware).

2. Oxymoron is the combination of contradictory conceptions;
   as, —
   sapiēns insānia, wise folly.

3. Alliteration is the employment of a succession of words
   presenting frequent repetition of the same letter (mostly initial);
   as, sēnsim sīne sēnsū aetās senēscit.

4. Onomatopoeia is the suiting of sound to sense; as, —
   quadrupedante putrem sonitū quattuor ungula campum, 'And shake
   with horned hoofs the solid ground.'
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MOST IMPORTANT VERBS.

Note. — Compounds are not given unless they present some special irregularity. The 
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ABBREVIATIONS. -- Abl., ablative; acc., accusative; adj., adjective; adv., adverb, adverbial, or adverbially; cf., compare; comp., comparison or comparative; conj., conjunction or conjunction; const., construct; construction; dat., dative; decl., declension; gen., genitive; ind., indicative; indo, discourse; loc., locative; n., note; nom., nominative; plu., plural; prep., preposition; pr.p., pronom or pronunciation; sing., singular; subj., subject; subj.t., subjunctive; voc., vocative; w., with.

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