# **New Latin Grammar**

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#### NEW LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

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\_Quicquid praecipies, esto brevis, ut cito dicta\_\_Percipiant animi dociles teneantque fideles:\_\_Omne supervacuum pleno de pectore manat.\_ --HORACE, *Ars Poetica*.

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#### PREFACE.

The present work is a revision of that published in 1908. No radical alterations have been introduced, although a number of minor changes will be noted. I have added an Introduction on the origin and development of the Latin language, which it is hoped will prove interesting and instructive to the more ambitious pupil. At the end of the book will be found an Index to the Sources of the Illustrative Examples cited in the Syntax.

C.E.B.

ITHACA, NEW YORK, May 4, 1918

\* \* \* \* \*

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

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 \_–Ä«s\_, \_–Ä«mus\_, \_–Ä«tis\_ are now marked long. The theory of vowel length before the suffixes –gnus, –gna, –gnum, and also before j, has been discarded. In the Syntax I have recognized a special category of Ablative of Association, and have abandoned the original doctrine as to the force of tenses in the Prohibitive.

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

ITHACA, NEW YORK, October 16, 1907.

\* \* \* \* \*

#### FROM THE PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

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

The experience of foreign 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. Within the past decade, several grammars of this scope have appeared abroad which have amply met the most exacting demands.

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

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

ITHACA, NEW YORK, December 15, 1894.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

Introduction--The Latin language

# PART I.

SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY, ETC.

The Alphabet § 1 Classification of Sounds § 2 Sounds of the Letters § 3 Syllables § 4 Quantity § 5 Accent § 6 Vowel Changes § 7 Consonant Changes § 8 Peculiarities of Orthography § 9

# PART II.

INFLECTIONS.

# **CHAPTER I.**

--\_Declension.\_

A. NOUNS. § 10

Gender of Nouns § 13 Number § 16 Cases § 17 The Five Declensions § 18 First Declension § 20 Second Declension § 23 Third Declension § 28 Fourth Declension § 48 Fifth Declension § 51 Defective Nouns § 54

B. ADJECTIVES. § 62

Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions § 63 Adjectives of the Third Declension § 67 Comparison of Adjectives § 71 Formation and Comparison of Adverbs § 76 Numerals § 78

C. PRONOUNS. § 82

Personal Pronouns § 84 Reflexive Pronouns § 85 Possessive Pronouns § 86 Demonstrative Pronouns § 87 The Intensive Pronoun § 88 The Relative Pronoun § 89 Interrogative Pronouns § 90 Indefinite Pronouns § 91 Pronominal Adjectives § 92

# **CHAPTER II.**

--\_Conjugation. § 93\_

Verb Stems § 97 The Four Conjugations § 98 Conjugation of *Sum* § 100 First Conjugation § 101 Second Conjugation § 103 Third Conjugation § 105 Fourth Conjugation § 107 Verbs in \_-iÅ \_ of the Third Conjugation § 109 Deponent Verbs § 112 Semi–Deponents § 114 Periphrastic Conjugation § 115 Peculiarities of Conjugation § 116 Formation of the Verb Stems § 117 List of the Most Important Verbs with Principal Parts § 120 Irregular Verbs § 124 Defective Verbs § 133 Impersonal Verbs § 138

# PART III.

PARTICLES. § 139

Adverbs § 140 Prepositions § 141 Interjections § 145

# PART IV.

WORD FORMATION.

I. DERIVATIVES. § 146

PART V.

Nouns § 147 Adjectives § 150 Verbs § 155 Adverbs § 157

II. COMPOUNDS. § 158

Examples of Compounds § 159

# PART V.

SYNTAX.

### **CHAPTER I.**

--\_Sentences.\_

Classification of Sentences § 161 Form of Interrogative Sentences § 162 Subject and Predicate § 163 Simple and Compound Sentences § 164

## CHAPTER II.

--\_Syntax of Nouns.\_

Subject § 166 Predicate Nouns § 167 Appositives § 169 The Nominative § 170 The Accusative § 172 The Dative § 186 The Genitive § 194 The Ablative § 213 The Locative § 232

### CHAPTER III.

--\_Syntax of Adjectives.\_

Agreement of Adjectives § 234 Adjectives used Substantively § 236 Adjectives with the Force of Adverbs § 239 Comparatives and Superlatives § 240 Other Peculiarities § 241

### **CHAPTER IV.**

--\_Syntax of Pronouns.\_

Personal Pronouns § 242 Possessive Pronouns § 243 Reflexive Pronouns § 244 Reciprocal Pronouns § 245 Demonstrative Pronouns § 246 Relative Pronouns § 250 Indefinite Pronouns § 252 Pronominal Adjectives § 253

### CHAPTER V.

--\_Syntax of Verbs.\_

Agreement of Verbs § 254 Voices § 256 Tenses -- Of the Indicative § 257 -- Of the Subjunctive §

## CHAPTER VI.

--\_Particles.\_

Coördinate Conjunctions § 341 Adverbs § 347

### **CHAPTER VII.**

--\_Word-Order and Sentence-Structure.\_

Word–Order § 348 Sentence–Structure § 351

# CHAPTER VIII.

--\_Hints on Latin Style. § 352\_

Nouns § 353 Adjectives § 354 Pronouns § 355 Verbs § 356 The Cases § 357

# PART VI.

PROSODY. § 360

Quantity of Vowels and Syllables § 362 Verse–Structure § 366 The Dactylic Hexameter § 368 The Dactylic Pentameter § 369 Iambic Measures § 370

#### SUPPLEMENTS TO THE GRAMMAR.

I. Roman Calendar § 371 II. Roman Names § 373 III. Figures of Syntax and Rhetoric § 374

\* \* \* \* \*

Index to the Illustrative Examples Cited in the Syntax Index to the Principal Parts of Latin Verbs General Index Footnotes

\* \* \* \* \*

#### INTRODUCTION.

#### THE LATIN LANGUAGE.

1. The Indo-European Family of Languages.—Latin belongs to one group of a large family of languages, known as \_Indo-European\_.[1] This Indo-European family of languages embraces the following groups:

#### ASIATIC MEMBERS OF THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY.

a. *The Sanskrit*, spoken in ancient India. Of this there were several stages, the oldest of which is the Vedic, or language of the Vedic Hymns. These Hymns are the oldest literary productions known to us among all the branches of the Indo–European family. A conservative estimate places them as far back as 1500 B.C. Some scholars have even set them more than a thousand years earlier than this, i.e. anterior to 2500 B.C.

The Sanskrit, in modified form, has always continued to be spoken in India, and is represented to-day by a large number of dialects descended from the ancient Sanskrit, and spoken by millions of people.

b. *The Iranian*, spoken in ancient Persia, and closely related to the Sanskrit. There were two main branches of the Iranian group, viz. the Old Persian and the Avestan. The Old Persian was the official language of the court, and appears in a number of so-called cuneiform[2] inscriptions, the earliest of which date from the time of Darius I (sixth century B.C.). The other branch of the Iranian, the Avestan,[3] is the language of the Avesta or sacred books of the Parsees, the followers of Zoroaster, founder of the religion of the fire–worshippers. Portions of these sacred books may have been composed as early as 1000 B.C.

Modern Persian is a living representative of the old Iranian speech. It has naturally been much modified by time, particularly through the introduction of many words from the Arabic.

c. *The Armenian*, spoken in Armenia, the district near the Black Sea and Caucasus Mountains. This is closely related to the Iranian, and was formerly classified under that group. It is now recognized as entitled to independent rank. The earliest literary productions of the Armenian language date from the fourth and fifth centuries of the Christian era. To this period belong the translation of the Scriptures and the old Armenian Chronicle. The Armenian is still a living language, though spoken in widely separated districts, owing to the scattered locations in which the Armenians are found to–day.

d. *The Tokharian*. This language, only recently discovered and identified as Indo–European, was spoken in the districts east of the Caspian Sea (modern Turkestan). While in some respects closely related to the three Asiatic branches of the Indo–European family already considered, in others it shows close relationship to the European members of the family. The literature of the Tokharian, so far as it has been brought to light, consists mainly of translations from the Sanskrit sacred writings, and dates from the seventh century of our era.

#### EUROPEAN MEMBERS OF THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY.

e. *The Greek*. The Greeks had apparently long been settled in Greece and Asia Minor as far back as 1500 B.C. Probably they arrived in these districts much earlier. The earliest literary productions are the Iliad and the Odyssey of Homer, which very likely go back to the ninth century B.C. From the sixth century B.C. on, Greek literature is continuous. Modern Greek, when we consider its distance in time from antiquity, is remarkably

similar to the classical Greek of the fourth and fifth centuries B.C.

f. \_The Italic Group.\_ The Italic Group embraces the Umbrian, spoken in the northern part of the Italian peninsula (in ancient Umbria); the Latin, spoken in the central part (in Latium); the Oscan, spoken in the southern part (in Samnium, Campania, Lucania, etc.). Besides these, there were a number of minor dialects, such as the Marsian, Volscian, etc. Of all these (barring the Latin), there are no remains except a few scanty inscriptions. Latin literature begins shortly after 250 B.C. in the works of Livius Andronicus, Naevius, and Plautus, although a few brief inscriptions are found belonging to a much earlier period.

g. \_The Celtic.\_ In the earliest historical times of which we have any record, the Celts occupied extensive portions of northern Italy, as well as certain areas in central Europe; but after the second century B.C., they are found only in Gaul and the British Isles. Among the chief languages belonging to the Celtic group are the Gallic, spoken in ancient Gaul; the Breton, still spoken in the modern French province of Brittany; the Irish, which is still extensively spoken in Ireland among the common people, the Welsh; and the Gaelic of the Scotch Highlanders.

h. \_The Teutonic.\_ The Teutonic group is very extensive. Its earliest representative is the Gothic, preserved for us in the translation of the scriptures by the Gothic Bishop Ulfilas (about 375 A.D.). Other languages belonging to this group are the Old Norse, once spoken in Scandinavia, and from which are descended the modern Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish, Danish; German; Dutch; Anglo–Saxon, from which is descended the modern English.

i. \_The Balto-Slavic.\_ The languages of this group belong to eastern Europe. The Baltic division of the group embraces the Lithuanian and Lettic, spoken to-day by the people living on the eastern shores of the Baltic Sea. The earliest literary productions of these languages date from the sixteenth century. The Slavic division comprises a large number of languages, the most important of which are the Russian, the Bulgarian, the Serbian, the Bohemian, the Polish. All of these were late in developing a literature, the earliest to do so being the Old Bulgarian, in which we find a translation of the Bible dating from the ninth century.

j. *The Albanian*, spoken in Albania and parts of Greece, Italy, and Sicily. This is most nearly related to the Balto–Slavic group, and is characterized by the very large proportion of words borrowed from Latin, Turkish, Greek, and Slavic. Its literature does not begin till the seventeenth century.

2. Home of the Indo-European Family.—Despite the many outward differences of the various languages of the foregoing groups, a careful examination of their structure and vocabulary demonstrates their intimate relationship and proves overwhelmingly their descent from a common parent. We must believe, therefore, that at one time there existed a homogeneous clan or tribe of people speaking a language from which all the above enumerated languages are descended. The precise location of the home of this ancient tribe cannot be determined. For a long time it was assumed that it was in central Asia north of the Himalaya Mountains, but this view has long been rejected as untenable. It arose from the exaggerated importance attached for a long while to Sanskrit. The great antiquity of the earliest literary remains of the Sanskrit (the Vedic Hymns) suggested that the inhabitants of India were geographically close to the original seat of the Indo–European Family. Hence the home was sought in the elevated plateau to the north. To–day it is thought that central or southeastern Europe is much more likely to have been the cradle of the Indo–European parent–speech, though anything like a logical demonstration of so difficult a problem can hardly be expected.

As to the size and extent of the original tribe whence the Indo–European languages have sprung, we can only speculate. It probably was not large, and very likely formed a compact racial and linguistic unit for centuries, possibly for thousands of years.

The time at which Indo–European unity ceased and the various individual languages began their separate existence, is likewise shrouded in obscurity. When we consider that the separate existence of the Sanskrit may

antedate 2500 B.C., it may well be believed that people speaking the Indo-European parent-speech belonged to a period as far back as 5000 B.C., or possibly earlier.

3. Stages in the Development of the Latin Language.—The earliest remains of the Latin language are found in certain very archaic inscriptions. The oldest of these belong to the sixth and seventh centuries B.C. Roman literature does not begin till several centuries later, viz. shortly after the middle of the third century B.C. We may recognize the following clearly marked periods of the language and literature:

a. *The Preliterary Period*, from the earliest times down to 240 B.C., when Livius Andronicus brought out his first play. For this period our knowledge of Latin depends almost exclusively upon the scanty inscriptions that have survived from this remote time. Few of these are of any length.

b. *The Archaic Period*, from Livius Andronicus (240 B.C.) to Cicero (81 B.C.). Even in this age the language had already become highly developed as a medium of expression. In the hands of certain gifted writers it had even become a vehicle of power and beauty. In its simplicity, however, it naturally marks a contrast with the more finished diction of later days. To this period belong:

Livius Andronicus, about 275–204 B.C. (Translation of Homer's Odyssey; Tragedies). Plautus, about 250–184 B.C. (Comedies). Naevius, about 270–199 B.C. ("Punic War"; Comedies). Ennius, 239–169 B.C. ("Annals"; Tragedies). Terence, about 190–159 B.C. (Comedies). Lucilius, 180–103 B.C. (Satires). Pacuvius, 220–about 130 B.C. (Tragedies). Accius, 170–about 85 B.C. (Tragedies).

c. *The Golden Age*, from Cicero (81 B.C.) to the death of Augustus (14 A.D.). In this period the language, especially in the hands of Cicero, reaches a high degree of stylistic perfection. Its vocabulary, however, has not yet attained its greatest fullness and range. Traces of the diction of the Archaic Period are often noticed, especially in the poets, who naturally sought their effects by reverting to the speech of olden times. Literature reached its culmination in this epoch, especially in the great poets of the Augustan Age. The following writers belong here:

Lucretius, about 95–55 B.C. (Poem on Epicurean Philosophy). Catullus, 87–about 54 B.C. (Poet). Cicero, 106–43 B.C. (Orations; Rhetorical Works; Philosophical Works; Letters). Caesar, 102–44 B.C. (Commentaries on Gallic and Civil Wars), Sallust, 86–36 B.C. (Historian). Nepos, about 100–about 30 B.C. (Historian). Virgil, 70–19 B.C. ("Aeneid"; "Georgics"; "Bucolics"). Horace, 65–8 B.C. (Odes; Satires, Epistles). Tibullus, about 54–19 B.C. (Poet). Propertius, about 50–about 15 B.C. (Poet). Ovid, 43 B.C.–17 A.D. ("Metamorphoses" and other poems). Livy. 59 B.C.–17 A.D. (Historian).

d. *The Silver Latinity*, from the death of Augustus (14 A.D.) to the death of Marcus Aurelius (180 A.D.), This period is marked by a certain reaction against the excessive precision of the previous age. It had become the practice to pay too much attention to standardized forms of expression, and to leave too little play to the individual writer. In the healthy reaction against this formalism, greater freedom of expression now manifests itself. We note also the introduction of idioms from the colloquial language, along with many poetical words and usages. The following authors deserve mention:

Phaedrus, flourished about 40 A.D. (Fables in Verse) Velleius Paterculus, flourished about 30 A.D. (Historian). Lucan, 39–65 A.D. (Poem on the Civil War). Seneca, about 1–65 A.D. (Tragedies; Philosophical Works). Pliny the Elder, 23–79 A.D. ("Natural History"). Pliny the Younger, 62–about 115 A.D. ("Letters"). Martial, about 45–about 104 A.D. (Epigrams). Quintilian, about 35–about 100 A.D. (Treatise on Oratory and Education). Tacitus, about 55–about 118 A.D. (Historian). Juvenal, about 55–about 135 A.D. (Satirist). Suetonius, about 73–about 118 A.D. ("Lives of the Twelve Caesars"). Minucius Felix, flourished about 160 A.D. (First Christian Apologist). Apuleius, 125–about 200 A.D. ("Metamorphoses," or "Golden Ass").

e. \_The Archaizing Period.\_ This period is characterized by a conscious imitation of the Archaic Period of the

second and first centuries B.C.; it overlaps the preceding period, and is of importance from a linguistic rather than from a literary point of view. Of writers who manifest the archaizing tendency most conspicuously may be mentioned Fronto, from whose hand we have a collection of letters addressed to the Emperors Antoninus Pius and Marcus Aurelius; also Aulus Gellius, author of the "Attic Nights." Both of these writers flourished in the second half of the second century A.D.

f. *The Period of the Decline*, from 180 to the close of literary activity in the sixth century A.D. This period is characterized by rapid and radical alterations in the language. The features of the conversational idiom of the lower strata of society invade the literature, while in the remote provinces, such as Gaul, Spain, Africa, the language suffers from the incorporation of local peculiarities. Representative writers of this period are:

Tertullian, about 160–about 240 A.D. (Christian Writer). Cyprian, about 200–258 A.D. (Christian Writer). Lactantius, flourished about 300 A.D. (Defense of Christianity). Ausonius, about 310–about 395 A.D. (Poet). Jerome, 340–420 A.D. (Translator of the Scriptures). Ambrose, about 340–397 (Christian Father). Augustine, 354–430 (Christian Father–"City of God"). Prudentius, flourished 400 A.D. (Christian Poet). Claudian, flourished 400 A.D. (Poet). Boëthius, about 480–524 A.D. ("Consolation of Philosophy ").

4. Subsequent History of the Latin Language.—After the sixth century A.D. Latin divides into two entirely different streams. One of these is the literary language maintained in courts, in the Church, and among scholars. This was no longer the language of people in general, and as time went on, became more and more artificial. The other stream is the colloquial idiom of the common people, which developed ultimately in the provinces into the modern so–called Romance idioms. These are the Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Provençal (spoken in Provence, i.e. southeastern France), the Rhaeto–Romance (spoken in the Canton of the Grisons in Switzerland), and the Roumanian, spoken in modern Roumania and adjacent districts. All these Romance languages bear the same relation to the Latin as the different groups of the Indo–European family of languages bear to the parent speech.

\* \* \* \* \*

# PART I.

\* \* \* \* \*

SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY.

\* \* \* \* \*

#### THE ALPHABET.

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

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

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

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS.

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

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

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

a) p, t, c, k, q are voiceless,[4] i.e. sounded *without* voice or vibration of the vocal cords.

b) b, d, g are voiced,[5] i.e. sounded *with* vibration of the vocal cords.

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\_adulterÄ«num\_; 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  $\hat{A}$  § 3, 3.

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

VOICELESS. VOICED. ASPIRATES. p, b, ph, (Labials). Mutes, t, d, th, (Dentals). c, k, q, g, ch, (Gutturals). Liquids, l, r, Nasals, m, n, f, (Labial). Spirants, s, (Dental). h, (Guttural). Semivowels, j, v.

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

#### SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

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

1. Vowels.

Ä as in \_father\_; Ä*f* as in the first syllable \_ah $\tilde{A}_{i}$ ; Ä" as in \_they\_; Ä• as in \_met\_; Ä« as in \_machine\_; Ä- as in \_pin\_; Å as in \_note\_; Å as in *obey*, \_melody\_; Å« as in \_rude\_; Å- as in \_put\_; y like French *u*, German \_ $\tilde{A}^{1/4}$ \_.

2. Diphthongs.

ae like ai in eu with its two elements,  $\ddot{A} \cdot$  and  $\dot{A}$ -, \_aisle\_; pronounced in rapid succession; oe like oi in \_oil\_; ui occurs almost exclusively in ei as in \_rein\_; cui and huic. These words may au like ow in \_how\_; be pronounced as though written *kwee* and *wheek*.

3. Consonants.

b, d, f, h, k, l, m, n, p, qu are pronounced as in English, except that bs, bt are pronounced *ps*, *pt*.

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 ngu precedes a vowel, gu has the sound of gw, as in anguis, languidus.

j has the sound of y as in yet.

r was probably slightly trilled with the tip of the tongue.

s always voiceless as in \_sin\_; in suÄ deÅ , suÄ vis, suÄ"scÅ , and in compounds and derivatives of these words, su has the sound of *sw*.

v like w.

x always like \_ks\_; never like Eng. *gz* or *z*.

z uncertain in sound; possibly like Eng. zd, possibly like z. The latter sound is recommended.

The aspirates ph, ch, th were pronounced very nearly like our stressed Eng. p, c, \_t\_--so nearly so, that, for practical purposes, the latter sounds suffice.

Doubled letters, like 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–trÄ«, dig–nus, mÅ n–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–grÄ«, vo–lu–cris, pa–tris, mÄ–tris. Yet if the 1 or r introduces the second part of a compound, the two consonants are separated; as, ab–rumpÅ, ad–lÄ tus.

5. The double consonant x is joined to the preceding vowel; as, ax-is, tēx-Ä«.

### 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,[6]--

a) before nf or ns; as, īnfÄ ns, Ä«nferior, cÅ nsÅ«mÅ , cÄ"nseÅ , Ä«nsum.

b) when the result of contraction; as, nīlum 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, nÅ ndum (nÅ n dum).

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

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,[7]--

a) if it contains a long vowel; as, mÄ ter, rÄ"gnum, dÄ«us.

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, restÅ .

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

3. Sometimes a syllable varies in quantity, *viz*. when its vowel is short and is followed by a mute with 1 or r, i.e. by pl, cl, tl; pr, cr, tr, etc.; as,  $\ddot{A}fgr\ddot{A}$ «, volÅ-cris.[8] Such syllables are called *common*. In prose they were regularly short, but in verse they might be treated as long at the option of the poet.

NOTE.—These distinctions of *long* and *short* are not arbitrary and artificial, but are purely natural. Thus, a syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants, as ng, is long, because such a syllable requires *more time* for its pronunciation; while a syllable containing a short vowel followed by one consonant is short, because it takes *less time* to pronounce it. In case of the common syllables, the mute and the liquid blend so easily as to produce a combination which takes no more time than a single consonant. Yet by separating the two elements (as ag–rÄ«) the poets were able to use such syllables as long.

#### ACCENT.

6. 1. Words of two syllables are accented upon the first; as,  $t\tilde{A}$  ©git, mÅ Å ´rem.

2. Words of more than two syllables are accented upon the penult (next to the last) if that is a long syllable, otherwise upon the antepenult (second from the last); as, amÄ  $\hat{A}$  vī, amÃ<sub>i</sub>ntis, mÃ-serum.

3. When the enclitics –que, –ne, –ve, –ce, –met, –dum are appended to words, if the syllable preceding the enclitic is long (either originally or as a result of adding the enclitic) it is accented; as, miserÅ  $\hat{A}$  (que, homin $\tilde{A}$ -sque. 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,  $p\tilde{A}^3$ rtaque; but m $\tilde{A}$ -ser $\tilde{A}_i$ que.

4. Sometimes the final –e of –ne and –ce disappears, but without affecting the accent; as, tantÅ  $\hat{A}$ 'n, ist $\ddot{A}$ « $\hat{A}$ 'c, illū $\hat{A}$ 'c.

5. In utr $\ddot{A}f\dot{A}$ 'que, *each*, and pl $\ddot{A}$ "r $\ddot{A}f\dot{A}$ 'que, *most*, –que is not properly an enclitic; yet these words accent the penult, owing to the influence of their other cases,––ut $\tilde{A}$ ©rque, utr $\tilde{A}$ °mque, pl $\ddot{A}$ "r $\tilde{A}$ °mque.

VOWEL CHANGES.[9]

7..1. In Compounds,

a) Ä• before a single consonant becomes Ä-; as,--

colligÅ for con-legÅ.

b)  $\ddot{A}f$  before a single consonant becomes  $\ddot{A}$ -: as,--

adigÅ for ad-agÅ.

c)  $\ddot{A}f$  before two consonants becomes  $\ddot{A}$ "; as,--

expers for ex-pars.

d) ae becomes Ä«; as,---

conquīrÅ for con-quaerÅ.

e) au becomes Å«, sometimes Å ; as,--

 $concl {\baselined} {\baseline$ 

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

trēs for tre–es; cÅ pia for co–opia; mÄ lÅ for ma(v)elÅ ; cÅ gÅ for co–agÅ ; amÄ stÄ« for amÄ (v)istÄ«; cÅ mÅ for co–emÅ ; dÄ"beÅ for dÄ"(h)abeÅ ; jÅ«nior for ju(v)enior. nÄ«l for nihil;

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

vinculum for earlier vinclum.

So perīculum, saeculum.

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

Ä rdor for Ä ridor (compare \_Ä ridus\_); valdÄ" for validÄ" (compare \_validus\_).

CONSONANT CHANGES[10]

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

arbÅ s, Gen. arboris (for arbosis); genus, Gen. generis (for genesis); dirimÅ (for dis-emÅ).

2. dt, tt, ts each give s or ss; as,--

pēnsum for pend-tum; versum for vert-tum; mÄ«les for mÄ«let-s; sessus for sedtus; passus for pattus.

3. Final consonants were often omitted; as,--

cor for cord; lac for lact.

4. Assimilation of Consonants. Consonants are often assimilated to a following sound. Thus: accurrÅ (adc-); aggerÅ (adg-); asserÅ (ads-); allÄ tus (adl-); apportÅ (adp-); attulÄ« (adt-); arrÄ«deÅ (adr-); afferÅ (adf-); occurrÅ (obc-); suppÅ nÅ (subp-); offerÅ (obf-); corruÅ (comr-); collÄ tus (coml-); etc.

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

a) b before s or t becomes p; as,--

scrīpsÄ« (scrÄ«b-sÄ«), scrÄ«ptum (scrÄ«b-tum).

b) g before s or t becomes c; as,--

Ä ctus (Ä g-tus).

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

eundem (eum-dem); prīnceps (prÄ«m-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, volnus, volt, etc., were the prevailing forms almost down to the Augustan age; after that, cum, vultus, vulnus, vult, etc. So optumus, maxumus, lubet, lubīdÅ, etc. down to about the same era; later, optimus, maximus, libet, libÄ«dÅ, etc.

2. In some words the orthography varies at one and the same period of the language. Examples are exspectÅ, expectÅ; exsistÅ, existÅ; epistula, epistola; adulÄ"scÄ"ns, adolÄ"scÄ"ns; paulus, paullus; cottÄ«diÄ", cotÄ«diÄ"; and, particularly, prepositional compounds, which often made a concession to the etymology in the spelling; as,—

ad-gerÅ or aggerÅ; ad-serÅ or asserÅ; ad-liciÅ or alliciÅ; in-lÄ tus or illÄ tus; ad-rogÄ ns or arrogÄ ns; sub-moveÅ or summoveÅ; and many others.

3. Compounds of jaciÅ were usually written Ä"iciÅ, dÄ"iciÅ, adiciÅ, obiciÅ, etc., but were probably pronounced as though written adjiciÅ, objiciÅ, 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, antÄ«quos, antÄ«quom; 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; vÄ«vont, metuont.

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

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# 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\_; RŠma, \_Rome\_; penna, \_feather\_; virtūs, *courage*.

1. Nouns are either Proper or Common. Proper nouns are permanent names of persons or places; as, Caesar, RŠma. 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, mŠns, \_mountain\_; pēs, \_foot\_; diÄ"s, \_day\_; mÄ"ns, *mind*.

Under concrete nouns are included, also, collective nouns; as, legiÅ, \_legion\_; comitÄ tus, retinue.

b) Abstract nouns designate qualities; as, cÅ nstantia, \_steadfastness\_; paupertÄ s, 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,---

mÄ ter, \_mother\_; rÄ"gÄ«na, 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 Months are Masculine; as,---

SÄ"quana, \_Seine\_; Eurus, \_east wind\_; AprÄ«lis, April.

2. Names of Trees, and such names of Towns and Islands as end in -us, are Feminine; as,--

quercus, \_oak\_; Corinthus, \_Corinth\_; Rhodus, *Rhodes*.

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

Delphī, n.; Leuctra, n.; TÄ«bur, n.; CarthÄ gÅ, f.

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

nihil, \_nothing\_; nefÄ s, \_wrong\_; amÄ re, 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.[11]

NOTE 1.—\_Common Gender.\_ Certain nouns are sometimes Masculine, sometimes Feminine. Thus, sacerdÅ s may mean either *priest* or *priestess*, and is Masculine or Feminine accordingly. So also cīvis, \_citizen\_; parÄ"ns, \_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, Ä nser, m., *goose* or *gander*. So vulpēs, f., \_fox\_; aquÄ«la, f., *eagle*.

#### NUMBER.

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

#### CASES.

17. There are six Cases in Latin:---

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

1. 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.[12] 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:—

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DECLENSION. FINAL LETTER OF STEM. GEN. TERMINATION. First \ddot{A} –ae Second \dot{A} –\ddot{A}« Third \ddot{A}- / Some consonant –\ddot{A}«s Fourth \dot{A}- –\dot{A}«s Fifth \ddot{A}" –\ddot{A}"\ddot{A}« / –\ddot{A}•\ddot{A}«
```

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  $-\ddot{A}f$ .

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

\* \* \* \* \*

#### FIRST DECLENSION.

Ä-Stems.

20. Pure Latin nouns of the First Declension regularly end, in the Nominative Singular, in  $-\ddot{A}f$ , weakened from  $-\ddot{A}$ , and are of the Feminine Gender. They are declined as follows:--

Porta, \_gate\_; stem, portÄ -.

SINGULAR. CASES. MEANINGS. TERMINATIONS. \_Nom.\_ porta *a gate* (as subject)  $-\ddot{A}f$  \_Gen.\_ portae *of a gate* -ae \_Dat.\_ portae *to* or *for a gate* -ae \_Acc.\_ portam *a gate* (as object) -am \_Voc.\_ porta \_O gate!\_  $-\ddot{A}f$  \_Abl.\_ port $\ddot{A}$  \_with, by, from, in a gate\_  $-\ddot{A}$ 

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ portae *gates* (as subject) –ae \_Gen.\_ portÄ rum *of gates* –Ä rum \_Dat.\_ portÄ«s *to* or *for gates* –Ä«s \_Acc.\_ portÄ s *gates* (as object) –Ä s \_Voc.\_ portae \_O gates!\_ –ae \_Abl.\_ portÄ«s \_with, by, from, in gates\_ –Ä«s

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

Peculiarities of Nouns of the First Declension.

21. 1. EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER. Nouns denoting males are Masculine; as, nauta, \_sailor\_; agricola, \_farmer\_; also, Hadria, *Adriatic Sea*.

2. Rare Case–Endings,––

a) An old form of the Genitive Singular in  $-\ddot{A}$  s is preserved in the combination pater famili $\ddot{A}$  s, \_father of a family\_; also in m $\ddot{A}$  ter famili $\ddot{A}$  s, f $\ddot{A}$ «lius famili $\ddot{A}$  s, f $\ddot{A}$ «lia famili $\ddot{A}$  s. But the regular form of the Genitive in –ae is also admissible in these expressions; as, pater familiae.

b) In poetry a Genitive in -Ä Ä« also occurs; as, aulÄ Ä«.

c) The Locative Singular ends in -ae; as, RÅ mae, at Rome.

d) A Genitive Plural in –um instead of –Ä rum sometimes occurs; as, Dardanidum instead of DardanidÄ rum. This termination –um is not a contraction of –Ä rum, but represents an entirely different case–ending.

e) Instead of the regular ending –Ä«s, we usually find –Ä bus in the Dative and Ablative Plural of dea, *goddess*, and fīlia, *daughter*, especially when it is important to distinguish these nouns from the corresponding forms of deus, *god*, and fīlius, *son*. A few other words sometimes have the same peculiarity; as, lībertÄ bus (from lÄ«berta, \_freedwoman\_), equÄ bus (\_mares\_), to avoid confusion with lÄ«bertÄ«s (from lÄ«bertus, \_freedman\_) and equÄ«s (from equus, \_horse\_).

Greek Nouns.

22. These end in  $-\ddot{A}$ " (Feminine);  $-\ddot{A}$  s and  $-\ddot{A}$ "s (Masculine). In the Plural they are declined like regular Latin nouns of the First Declension. In the Singular they are declined as follows:—

ArchiÄ s, EpitomÄ", ComÄ"tÄ"s, *comet. Archias. epitome*. \_Nom.\_ ArchiÄ s epitomÄ" comÄ"tÄ"s \_Gen.\_ Archiae epitomÄ"s comÄ"tae \_Dat.\_ Archiae epitomae comÄ"tae \_Acc.\_ Archiam (or -Ä n) epitomÄ"n comÄ"tÄ"n \_Voc.\_ ArchiÄ epitomÄ" comÄ"tÄ" (or -Äf) \_Abl.\_ ArchiÄ epitomÄ" comÄ"tÄ" (or -Ä )

1. But most Greek nouns in -Ä" become regular Latin nouns in -a, and are declined like porta; as,

grammatica, \_grammar\_; mūsica, \_music\_; rhÄ"torica, *rhetoric*.

2. Some other peculiarities occur, especially in poetry.

\* \* \* \* \*

SECOND DECLENSION.

Å –Stems.

23. Pure Latin nouns of the Second Declension end in –us, –er, –ir, Masculine; –um, Neuter. Originally –us in the Nominative of the Masculine was –os; and –um of the Neuters –om. So also in the Accusative.

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

Hortus, \_garden\_; Bellum, \_war\_; stem, hortÅ –. stem, bellÅ –. SINGULAR. TERMINATION. TERMINATION. \_Nom.\_ hortus –us bellum –um \_Gen.\_ hortÄ« –Ä« bellÄ« –Ä« \_Dat.\_ hortÅ –Å bellÅ –Å \_Acc.\_ hortum –um bellum –um \_Voc.\_ horte –e bellum –um \_Abl.\_ hortÅ –Å bellÅ –Å

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ hortī –Ä« bella –a \_Gen.\_ hortÅ rum –Å rum bellÅ rum –Å rum \_Dat.\_ hortÄ«s –Ä«s bellÄ«s –Ä«s \_Acc.\_ hortÅ s –Å s bella –a \_Voc.\_ hortÄ« –Ä« bella –a \_Abl.\_ hortÄ«s –Ä«s bellÄ«s –Ä«s

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

Puer, \_boy\_; Ager, \_field\_; Vir, \_man\_; stem, puerÅ – stem, agrÅ – stem, virÅ – SINGULAR. TERMINATION. \_Nom.\_ puer ager vir Wanting \_Gen.\_ puerī agrÄ« virÄ« –Ä« \_Dat.\_ puerÅ agrÅ virÅ –Å \_Acc.\_ puerum agrum virum –um \_Voc.\_ puer ager vir Wanting \_Abl.\_ puerÅ agrÅ virÅ –Å

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ puerī agrÄ« virÄ« –Ä« \_Gen.\_ puerÅ rum agrÅ rum virÅ rum –Å rum \_Dat.\_ puerÄ«s agrÄ«s virÄ«s –Ä«s \_Acc.\_ puerÅ s agrÅ s virÅ s –Å s \_Voc.\_ puerÄ« agrÄ« virÄ« –Ä« \_Abl.\_ puerÄ«s agrÄ«s virÄ«s –Ä«s

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

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

2. The following nouns in –er are declined like puer: adulter, \_adulterer\_; gener, \_son–in–law\_; LÄ«ber, \_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., Aevom, n., Equos, m., *slave. age. horse.* SINGULAR. \_Nom.\_ servos aevom equos \_Gen.\_ servī aevÄ« equÄ« \_Dat.\_ servÅ aevÅ equÅ \_Acc.\_ servom aevom equom \_Voc.\_ serve aevom eque \_Abl.\_ servÅ aevÅ equÅ

\_Later inflection (after Cicero).\_ SINGULAR. \_Nom.\_ servus aevum equus \_Gen.\_ servī aevÄ« equÄ« \_Dat.\_ servÅ aevÅ equÅ \_Act.\_ servum aevum equum \_Voc.\_ serve aevum eque \_Abl.\_ servÅ aevÅ equÅ

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  $-\ddot{A}$ « (instead of  $-i\ddot{A}$ «), and the Vocative Singular in  $-\ddot{A}$ « (for –ie); as VergÃ-lÄ«, *of Virgil*, or *O Virgil* (instead of Vergiliī, Vergilie). In such words the accent stands upon the penult, even though that be short. Nouns in –ajus, –ejus form the Gen. in –aÄ«, –eÄ«, as Pompejus, PompeÄ«.

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  $-i\ddot{A}$ «); as,--

\_Nom.\_ ingenium fīlius \_Gen.\_ ingénÄ« fÄ«lÄ«

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

3. Fīlius forms the Vocative Singular in -Ä« (for -ie); viz. fÄ«lÄ«, \_O son!\_

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

\_Nom.\_ dī (deÄ«) \_Gen.\_ deÅ rum (deum) \_Dat.\_ dÄ«s (deÄ«s) \_Acc.\_ deÅ s \_Voc.\_ dÄ« (deÄ«) \_Abl.\_ dÄ«s (deÄ«s)

5. The Locative Singular ends in -ī; as, Corinthī, at Corinth.

6. The Genitive Plural has -um, instead of -Å rum,--

a) in words denoting money and measure; as, talentum, \_of talents\_; modium, \_of pecks\_; sēstertium, *of sesterces*.

b) in duumvir, triumvir, decemvir; as, duumvirum.

c) sometimes in other words; as, līberum, \_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  $\hat{A}$  § 15, 2; also some names of countries; as Aegyptus, *Egypt*.

b) Five special words,---

alvus, \_belly\_; carbasus, \_flax\_; colus, \_distaff\_; humus, \_ground\_; vannus, \_winnowing-fan\_.

c) A few Greek Feminines; as,--

atomus, \_atom\_; diphthongus, diphthong.

2. The following nouns in -us are Neuter:--

pelagus, \_sea\_; vīrus, \_poison\_; vulgus, crowd.

Greek Nouns of the Second Declension.

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

Barbitos, m. AndrogeÅ s, m., Ä<sup>a</sup>lion, n., and f., \_Androgeos.\_ \_Troy.\_ \_lyre.\_ \_Nom.\_ barbitos AndrogeÅ s Ä<sup>a</sup>lion \_Gen.\_ barbitÄ« AndrogeÅ , –Ä« Ä<sup>a</sup>liÄ« \_Dat.\_ barbitÅ AndrogeÅ Ä<sup>a</sup>liÅ \_Acc.\_ barbiton AndrogeÅ , –Å n Ä<sup>a</sup>lion \_Voc.\_ barbite AndrogeÅ s Ä<sup>a</sup>lion \_Abl.\_ barbitÅ AndrogeÅ Ä<sup>a</sup>liÅ

1. Nouns in -os sometimes form the Accusative Singular in -um instead of -on; as, DÄ"lum, Delos.

2. The Plural of Greek nouns, when it occurs, is usually regular.

3. For other rare forms of Greek nouns the lexicon may be consulted.

\* \* \* \* \*

#### THIRD DECLENSION.

28. Nouns of the Third Declension end in -a, -e,  $-\ddot{A}$ «,  $-\dot{A}$ , -y, -c, -l, -n, -r, -s, -t, -x. The Third Declension includes several distinct classes of Stems,—

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

I. Consonant–Stems.

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

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

\_A. Mute-Stems.\_

- 30. Mute-Stems may end,--
- 1. In a Labial (p); as, prīncep-s.
- 2. In a Guttural (g or c); as, rēmex (rÄ"meg–s); dux (duc–s).
- 3. In a Dental (d or t); as, lapis (lapid–s); mÄ«les (mÄ«let–s).

1. STEMS IN A LABIAL MUTE (p).

31. Prīnceps, m., chief.

SINGULAR. TERMINATION. \_Nom.\_ prīnceps -s \_Gen.\_ prÄ«ncipis -is \_Dat.\_ prÄ«ncipÄ« -Ä«

\_Acc.\_ prīncipem -em \_Voc.\_ prÄ«nceps -s \_Abl.\_ prÄ«ncipe -e

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ prīncipÄ"s –Ä"s \_Gen.\_ prÄ«ncipum –um \_Dat.\_ prÄ«ncipibus –ibus \_Acc.\_ prÄ«ncipÄ"s –Ä"s \_Voc.\_ prÄ«ncipÄ"s –Ä"s \_Abl.\_ prÄ«ncipibus –ibus

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

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

RÄ"mex, m., *rower*. Dux, c., *leader*. SINGULAR. PLURAL. SINGULAR. PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ rēmex rÄ"migÄ"s dux ducÄ"s \_Gen.\_ rÄ"migis rÄ"migum ducis ducum \_Dat.\_ rÄ"migÄ« rÄ"migibus ducÄ« ducibus \_Acc.\_ rÄ"migem rÄ"migÄ"s ducem ducÄ"s \_Voc.\_ rÄ"mex rÄ"migÄ"s dux ducÄ"s \_Abl.\_ rÄ"mige rÄ"migibus duce ducibus

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

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

Lapis, m., *stone*. Mīles, m., *soldier*. SINGULAR. PLURAL. SINGULAR. PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ lapis lapidēs mÄ«les mÄ«litÄ"s \_Gen.\_ lapidis lapidum mÄ«litis mÄ«litum \_Dat.\_ lapidÄ« lapidibus mÄ«litÄ« mīlitibus \_Acc.\_ lapidem lapidÄ"s mÄ«litem mÄ«litÄ"s \_Voc.\_ lapis lapidÄ"s mÄ«les mÄ«litÄ"s \_Abl.\_ lapide lapidibus mīlite mÄ«litibus

\_B. Liquid Stems.\_

34. These end in -1 or -r.

Vigil, m., Victor, m., Aequor, n., watchman. conqueror. sea.

SINGULAR. \_Nom.\_ vigil victor aequor \_Gen.\_ vigilis victŠris aequoris \_Dat.\_ vigilī victÅ rÄ« aequorÄ« \_Acc.\_ vigilem victÅ rem aequor \_Voc.\_ vigil victor aequor \_Abl.\_ vigile victÅ re aequore

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ vigilēs victÅ rÄ"s aequora \_Gen.\_ vigilum victÅ rum aequorum \_Dat.\_ vigilibus victÅ ribus aequoribus \_Acc.\_ vigilÄ"s victÅ rÄ"s aequora \_Voc.\_ vigilÄ"s victÅ rÄ"s aequora \_Abl.\_ vigilibus victÅ ribus aequoribus

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

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

\_C. Nasal Stems.\_

35. These end in -n,[13] which often disappears in the Nom. Sing.

LeÅ, m., *lion*. NÅ men, n., *name* SINGULAR. PLURAL. SINGULAR. PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ leŠleŠnēs nÅ men nÅ mina \_Gen.\_ leÅ nis leÅ num nÅ minis nÅ minum \_Dat.\_ leÅ nÄ« leÅ nibus nÅ minÄ« nÅ minibus \_Acc.\_ leÅ nem leÅ nÄ"s nÅ men nÅ mina \_Voc.\_ leÅ leÅ nÄ"s nÅ men nÅ mina \_Abl.\_ leÅ ne leÅ nibus nÅ mine nÅ minibus

\_D. s-Stems.\_

36. MÅ s, m. Genus, n., Honor, m., custom. race. honor.

SINGULAR. \_Nom.\_ mŠs genus honor \_Gen.\_ mŠris generis honŠris \_Dat.\_ mŠrī generÄ« honÅ rÄ« \_Acc.\_ mÅ rem genus honÅ rem \_Voc.\_ mÅ s genus honor \_Abl.\_ mÅ re genere honÅ re

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ mŠrēs genera honÅ rÄ"s \_Gen.\_ mÅ rum generum honÅ rum \_Dat.\_ mÅ ribus generibus honÅ ribus \_Acc.\_ mÅ rÄ"s genera honÅ rÄ"s \_Voc.\_ mÅ rÄ"s genera honÅ rÄ"s \_Abl.\_ mÅ ribus generibus honÅ ribus

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

II. Ä-–Stems.

\_A. Masculine and Feminine Ä-–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  $-\ddot{A}$ «, and the Accusative Plural in  $-\ddot{A}$ «s; but these endings have been largely displaced by –em, –e, and  $-\ddot{A}$ "s, the endings of Consonant–Stems.

38. Tussis, f., Ä<sup>a</sup>gnis, m., Hostis, c., \_cough\_; stem, \_fire\_; stem, \_enemy\_; stem, tussi-. Ä«gni-. hosti-.

SINGULAR. TERMINATION. \_Nom.\_ tussis īgnis hostis –is \_Gen.\_ tussis Ä«gnis hostis –is \_Dat.\_ tussÄ« Ä«gnÄ« hostÄ« –Ä« \_Acc.\_ tussim Ä«gnem hostem –im, –em \_Voc.\_ tussis Ä«gnis hostis –is \_Abl.\_ tussÄ« Ä«gnÄ« or e hoste –Ä«, –e

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ tussēs Ä«gnÄ"s hostÄ"s –Ä"s \_Gen.\_ tussium Ä«gnium hostium –ium \_Dat.\_ tussibus Ä«gnibus hostibus –ibus \_Acc.\_ tussÄ«s or –Ä"s Ä«gnÄ«s or –Ä"s hostÄ«s or –Ä"s –Ä«s, –Ä"s \_Voc.\_ tussÄ"s Ä«gnÄ"s hostÄ"s –Ä"s \_Abl.\_ tussibus Ä«gnibus hostibus –ibus

1. To the same class belong—

apis, *bee*. crÄ tis, *hurdle*.  $\hat{a} \in *$ secūris, *axe*. auris, *ear*. \*febris, *fever*. sēmentis, *sowing*. avis, *bird*. orbis, *circle*.  $\hat{a} \in *$ sitis, *thirst*. axis, *axle*. ovis, *sheep*. torris, *brand*. \*būris, \_plough–beam\_. pelvis, *basin*.  $\hat{a} \in *$ turris, *tower*. clÄ vis, *key*. puppis, *stern*. trudis, *pole*. collis, *hill*. restis, *rope*. vectis, *lever*. and many others.

Words marked with a star regularly have Acc. –im; those marked with a  $\hat{a} \in$  regularly have Abl. – $\ddot{A}$ «. Of the others, many at times show –im and – $\ddot{A}$ «. Town and river names in –is regularly have –im, – $\ddot{A}$ «.

2. Not all nouns in –is are Ä-–Stems. Some are genuine consonant–stems, and have the regular consonant terminations throughout, notably, canis, \_dog\_; juvenis, *youth*.[14]

3. Some genuine Ä-–Stems have become disguised in the Nominative Singular; as, pars, *part*, for par(ti)s; anas, *duck*, for ana(ti)s; so also mors, \_death\_; dŠs, \_dowry\_; nox, \_night\_; sors, \_lot\_; mēns, \_mind\_; ars, \_art\_; gÄ"ns, \_tribe\_; and some others.

\_B. Neuter Ä--Stems.\_

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

Sedile, Animal, Calcar, \_seat\_; \_animal\_; \_spur\_; stem, sedīli-. stem, stem, animÄ li-. calcÄ ri-.

SINGULAR. TERMINATION. \_Nom.\_ sedīle animal calcar –e or wanting \_Gen.\_ sedÄ«lis animÄ lis calcÄ ris –is \_Dat.\_ sedÄ«lÄ« animÄ lÄ« calcÄ rÄ« –Ä« \_Acc.\_ sedÄ«le animal calcar –e or wanting \_Voc.\_ sedÄ«le animal calcar –e or wanting \_Abl.\_ sedÄ«lÄ« animÄ lÄ« calcÄ rÄ« –Ä«

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ sedīlia animÄ lia calcÄ ria –ia \_Gen.\_ sedÄ«lium animÄ lium calcÄ rium –ium \_Dat.\_ sedÄ«libus animÄ libus calcÄ ribus –ibus \_Acc.\_ sedÄ«lia animÄ lia calcÄ ria –ia \_Voc.\_ sedÄ«lia animÄ lia calcÄ ria –ia \_Abl.\_ sedÄ«libus animÄ libus calcÄ ribus –ibus

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

2. Proper names in –e form the Ablative Singular in –e; as, SÅ racte, \_Mt. Soracte\_; so also sometimes mare, *sea*.

III. Consonant–Stems that have partially adapted themselves to the Inflection of \_Ä-\_-Stems.

40. Many Consonant–Stems have so far adapted themselves to the inflection of  $\ddot{A}$ --stems as to take –ium in the Genitive Plural, and  $-\ddot{A}$ «s 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  $-\ddot{A}$ « in the Ablative Singular. The following words are examples of this class:--

Caedēs, f., Arx, f., Linter, f., \_slaughter\_; \_citadel\_; \_skiff\_; stem, caed-. stem, arc-. stem, lintr-.

SINGULAR. \_Nom.\_ caedēs arx linter \_Gen.\_ caedis arcis lintris \_Dat.\_ caedÄ« arcÄ« lintrÄ« \_Acc.\_ caedem arcem lintrem \_Voc.\_ caedÄ"s arx linter \_Abl.\_ caede arce lintre

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ caedēs arcÄ"s lintrÄ"s \_Gen.\_ caedium arcium lintrium \_Dat.\_ caedibus arcibus lintribus \_Acc.\_ caedÄ"s, -Ä«s arcÄ"s, -Ä«s lintrÄ"s, -Ä«s \_Voc.\_ caedÄ"s arcÄ"s lintrÄ"s \_Abl.\_ caedibus arcibus lintribus

1. The following classes of nouns belong here:---

a) Nouns in -Ä"s, with Genitive in -is; as, nÅ«bÄ"s, aedÄ"s, clÄ dÄ"s, etc.

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

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

d) Å<sup>a</sup>ter, venter; fÅ«r, lÄ«s, mÄ s, mÅ«s, nix; and the Plurals faucÄ"s, penÄ tÄ"s, OptimÄ tÄ"s, SamnitÄ"s, QuirÄ«tÄ"s.

e) Sometimes nouns in –tÄ s with Genitive –tÄ tis; as, cÄ«vitÄ s, aetÄ s. CÄ«vitÄ s *usually* has cīvitÄ tium.

IV. Stems in \_-ī\_, \_-Å«\_, and Diphthongs.

41. Vis, f., Sūs, c., BÅ s, c., *ox*, Juppiter, m., \_force\_; \_swine\_; \_cow\_; \_Jupiter\_; stem, vī–. stem, sÅ«–. stem, bou–. stem, Jou–.

SINGULAR. \_Nom.\_ vīs sÅ«s bÅ s Juppiter \_Gen.\_ ---- suis bovis Jovis \_Dat.\_ ---- suÄ« bovÄ«

Jovī \_Acc.\_ vim suem bovem Jovem \_Voc.\_ vÄ«s sÅ«s bÅ s Juppiter \_Abl.\_ vÄ« sue bove Jove

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ vīrÄ"s suÄ"s bovÄ"s \_Gen.\_ vÄ«rium suum bovum, boum \_Dat.\_ vÄ«ribus suibus, subus bÅ bus, bÅ«bus \_Acc.\_ vÄ«rÄ"s suÄ"s bovÄ"s \_Voc.\_ vÄ«rÄ"s suÄ"s bovÄ"s \_Abl.\_ vÄ«ribus suibus, subus bÅ bus, bÅ«bus

1. Notice that the oblique cases of sūs have Å- in the root syllable.

2. Grūs is declined like sÅ«s, except that the Dative and Ablative Plural are always gruibus.

3. Juppiter is for Jou-pater, and therefore contains the same stem as in Jov-is, Jov-Ä«, etc.

NÄ vis was originally a diphthong stem ending in au–, but it has passed over to the  $\ddot{A}$ -stems ( $\hat{A}$ § 37). Its ablative often ends in  $-\ddot{A}$ «.

V. Irregular Nouns.

42. Senex, m., CarÅ, f., Os, n., old man. flesh. bone.

SINGULAR. \_Nom.\_ senex carŠos \_Gen.\_ senis carnis ossis \_Dat.\_ senī carnÄ« ossÄ« \_Acc.\_ senem carnem os \_Voc.\_ senex carÅ os \_Abl.\_ sene carne osse

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ senēs carnÄ"s ossa \_Gen.\_ senum carnium ossium \_Dat.\_ senibus carnibus ossibus \_Acc.\_ senÄ"s carnÄ"s ossa \_Voc.\_ senÄ"s carnÄ"s ossa \_Abl.\_ senibus carnibus ossibus

1. Iter, itineris, n., way, is inflected regularly throughout from the stem itiner-.

2. Supellex, supellectilis, f., *furniture*, is confined to the Singular. The oblique cases are formed from the stem supellectil–. The ablative has both  $-\ddot{A}$ « and -e.

3. Jecur, n., *liver*, forms its oblique cases from two stems, --jecor- and jecinor-. Thus, Gen. jecoris or jecinoris.

4. Femur, n., *thigh*, usually forms its oblique cases from the stem femor–, but sometimes from the stem femin–. Thus, Gen. femoris or feminis.

General Principles of Gender in the Third Declension.

43. 1. Nouns in -Å, -or, -Å s, -er, -Ä•s are Masculine.

2. Nouns in  $-\ddot{A}$  s,  $-\ddot{A}$ "s, -is, -ys, -x, -s (preceded by a consonant);  $-d\mathring{A}$ ,  $-g\mathring{A}$  (Genitive -inis);  $-i\mathring{A}$  (abstract and collective),  $-\mathring{A}$ «s (Genitive  $-\ddot{A}$  tis or  $-\mathring{A}$ «dis) are Feminine.

3. Nouns ending in –a, –e, –i, –y, –o, –l, –n, –t, –ar, –ur, –Å-s are Neuter.

Chief Exceptions to Gender in the Third Declension.

44. Exceptions to the Rule for Masculines.

1. Nouns in -Å.

a. Feminine: carÅ, flesh.

2. Nouns in -or.

a. Feminine: arbor, tree.

b. Neuter: aequor, \_sea\_; cor, \_heart\_; marmor, *marble*.

3. Nouns in -Å s.

a. Feminine: dÅ s, dowry.

b. Neuter: Å s (Å ris), mouth.

4. Nouns in -er.

a. Feminine: linter, skiff.

b. Neuter: cadÄ ver, \_corpse\_; iter, \_way\_; tÅ«ber, \_tumor\_; Å«ber, *udder*. Also botanical names in -er; as, acer, *maple*.

5. Nouns in –Ä•s.

a. Feminine: seges, crop.

45. Exceptions to the Rule for Feminines.

1. Nouns in -Ä s.

a. Masculine: vÄ s, bondsman.

b. Neuter: vÄ s, vessel.

2. Nouns in -Ä"s.

a. Masculine: ariēs, \_ram\_; pariÄ"s, \_wall\_; pÄ"s, foot.

3. Nouns in -is.

a. Masculine: all nouns in –nis and –guis; as, amnis, \_river\_; Ä«gnis, \_fire\_; pÄ nis, \_bread\_; sanguis, \_blood\_; unguis, *nail*.

Also--

axis, axle. piscis, fish. collis, hill. postis, post. fascis, bundle. pulvis, dust. lapis, stone. orbis, circle. mēnsis, month. sentis, brier.

4. Nouns in -x.

a. Masculine: apex, \_peak\_; cÅ dex, \_tree-trunk\_; grex, \_flock\_; imbrex, \_tile\_; pollex, \_thumb\_; vertex, \_summit\_; calix, *cup*.

5. Nouns in -s preceded by a consonant.

- a. Masculine: dēns, \_tooth\_; fÅ ns, \_fountain\_; mÅ ns, \_mountain\_; pÅ ns, bridge.
- 6. Nouns in –dÅ.
- a. Masculine: cardÅ , \_hinge\_; Å rdÅ , order.
- 46. Exceptions to the Rule for Neuters.
- 1. Nouns in -l.
- a. Masculine: sÅ l, \_sun\_; sÄ l, *salt*.
- 2. Nouns in –n.
- a. Masculine: pecten, comb.
- 3. Nouns in –ur.
- a. Masculine: vultur, vulture.
- 4. Nouns in –Å-s.
- a. Masculine: lepus, hare.

Greek Nouns of the Third Declension.

- 47. The following are the chief peculiarities of these:---
- 1. The ending –Äf in the Accusative Singular; as, aetherÄf, \_aether\_; SalamÄ«nÄf, Salamis.
- 2. The ending –Ä•s in the Nominative Plural; as, PhrygÄ•s, *Phrygians*.
- 3. The ending –Äfs in the Accusative Plural; as, PhrygÄfs, *Phrygians*.

4. Proper names in  $-\ddot{A}$  s (Genitive –antis) have  $-\ddot{A}$  in the Vocative Singular; as, Atl $\ddot{A}$  s (Atlantis), Vocative Atl $\ddot{A}$ , *Atlas*.

5. Neuters in -ma (Genitive -matis) have -īs instead of -ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural; as, poÄ"matÄ«s, *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, OrpheÄ«, OrpheÄ, etc.

7. Proper names in –Ä"s, like PericlÄ"s, form the Genitive Singular sometimes in –is, sometimes in –Ä«, as, Periclis or PericlÄ«.

8. Feminine proper names in -Šhave -ūs in the Genitive, but -Å in the other oblique cases; as,--

\_Nom.\_ DidŠ\_Acc.\_ DidŠ\_Gen.\_ Didūs \_Voc.\_ DidÅ \_Dat.\_ DidÅ \_Abl.\_ DidÅ

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

\* \* \* \* \*

#### FOURTH DECLENSION.

\_Å-\_-Stems.

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

Frūctus, m., *fruit*. Cornū, n., *horn*. SINGULAR. PLURAL. SINGULAR. PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ frūctus frÅ«ctå«s cornå« cornua \_Gen.\_ frÅ«ctå«s frÅ«ctuum cornå«s cornuum \_Dat.\_ frå«ctuä« frå«ctibus cornå« cornibus \_Acc.\_ frå«ctum frå«ctå«s cornå« cornua \_Voc.\_ frå«ctus frå«ctå«s cornå« cornua \_Abl.\_ frå«ctå« frå«ctibus cornå« cornibus

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fourth Declension.

49. 1. Nouns in –us, particularly in early Latin, often form the Genitive Singular in  $-\ddot{A}$ «, following the analogy of nouns in –us of the Second Declension; as, senÄ tÄ«, Å rnÄ tÄ«. This is usually the case in Plautus and Terence.

2. Nouns in -us sometimes have -ū in the Dative Singular, instead of -uī; as, frÅ«ctÅ« (for frÅ«ctuÄ«).

3. The ending –ubus, instead of –ibus, occurs in the Dative and Ablative Plural of artÅ«s (Plural), \_limbs\_; tribus, \_tribe\_; and in dis–syllables in –cus; as, artubus, tribubus, arcubus, lacubus. But with the exception of tribus, all these words admit the forms in –ibus as well as those in –ubus.

4. Domus, *house*, is declined according to the Fourth Declension, but has also the following forms of the Second:---

domī (locative), \_at home\_; domÅ , \_from home\_; domum, *homewards*, \_to one's home\_; domÅ s, *homewards*, *to their* (etc.) *homes* 5. The only Neuters of this declension in common use are: cornū, \_horn\_; genÅ«, \_knee\_; and verÅ«, *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\_; Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s (Plural), \_Ides\_; also names of trees (§ 15, 2).

\* \* \* \* \*

### FIFTH DECLENSION.

Ä"-Stems.

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

Diēs, m., *day*. RÄ"s, f., *thing*. SINGULAR. PLURAL. SINGULAR. PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ diēs diÄ"s rÄ"s rÄ"s \_Gen.\_ diÄ"Ä« diÄ"rum rĕī rÄ"rum \_Dat.\_ diÄ"Ä« diÄ"bus rĕī rÄ"bus \_Acc.\_ diem diÄ"s rem rÄ"s \_Voc.\_ diÄ"s diÄ"s rÄ"s rÄ"s \_Abl.\_ diÄ" diÄ"bus rÄ" rÄ"bus

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fifth Declension.

52. 1. The ending of the Genitive and Dative Singular is -ĕī, instead of -Ä"Ä«, when a consonant

precedes; as, spĕÄ«, rĕī, fidĕī.

2. A Genitive ending  $-\ddot{A} \ll (\text{for } -\ddot{A} \cdot \ddot{A} \ll)$  is found in plēbÄ« (from plÄ"bÄ"s = plÄ"bs) in the expressions tribÅ«nus plÄ"bÄ«, *tribune of the people*, and plēbÄ« scÄ«tum, \_decree of the people\_; sometimes also in other words.

3. A Genitive and Dative form in -Ä" sometimes occurs; as, aciÄ".

4. With the exception of diēs and rÄ"s, most nouns of the Fifth Declension are not declined in the Plural. But aciÄ"s, seriÄ"s, speciÄ"s, spÄ"s, and a few others are used in the Nominative and Accusative Plural.

Gender in the Fifth Declension.

53. Nouns of the Fifth Declension are regularly Feminine, except diēs, *day*, and merīdiÄ"s, \_mid–day\_. But diÄ"s 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, CicerÅ, \_Cicero\_; Italia, Italy.
- 2. Nouns denoting material; as, aes, \_copper\_; lac, milk.
- 3. Abstract nouns; as, ignÅ rantia, \_ignorance\_; bonitÄ s, 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, CicerÅ nÄ"s, \_the Ciceros\_; CatÅ nÄ"s, *men like Cato*.

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

c) Abstract nouns,--to denote instances of the quality; as, ignÅ rantiae, cases of ignorance.

Nouns used in the Plural only.

56. Here belong--

1. Many geographical names; as, Thēbae, \_Thebes\_; Leuctra, \_Leuctra\_; PompejÄ«, 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*. mÄ nÄ"s, \_spirits of the arma, *weapons*. dead\_. dēliciae, *delight*. moenia, *city walls*. dīvitiae, *riches*. minae, *threats*. Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s, *Ides*. nūptiae, *marriage*. indūtiae, *truce*. posterī, *descendants*. īnsidiae, *ambush*. reliquiae, *remainder*. majŠrēs, *ancestors*. tenebrae, *darkness*. verbera, *blows*.

Also in classical prose regularly--

cervīcÄ"s, neck. nÄ rÄ"s, nose. fidÄ"s, lyre. vÄ«scerÄ, 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\_; injussÅ«, \_without the order\_; nÄ tÅ«, *by birth*.

2. Used in Two Cases.

a. Fors (\_chance\_), Nom. Sing.; forte, Abl. Sing.

b. Spontis (\_free-will\_), Gen. Sing.; sponte, Abl. Sing.

3. Used in Three Cases. NÄ"mÅ, *no one* (Nom.), has also the Dat. nēminÄ« and the Acc. nÄ"minem. The Gen. and Abl. are supplied by the corresponding cases of nÅ«llus; viz. nÅ«llÄ«us and nÅ«llÅ.

4. Impetus has the Nom., Acc., and Abl. Sing., and the Nom. and Acc. Plu.; viz. impetus, impetū, impetÅ«s.

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, sÅ l, aes, Å s (Å ris), rÅ«s, sÄ l, tÅ«s.

Indeclinable Nouns.

58. Here belong--

fÄ s, n., right. nefÄ s, n., impiety. Ä«nstar, n., likeness. nihil, n., nothing. mÄ ne, n., morning. secus, n., sex.

1. With the exception of mÄ ne (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,--

vÄ s, vÄ sis (\_vessel\_); Plu., vÄ sa, vÄ sorÅ um, vÄ sÄ«s, etc. jÅ«gerum, jÅ«gerÄ« (\_acre\_); Plu., jÅ«gera, jÅ«gerum, jÅ«geribus, 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, mÄ teriÄ"s, mÄ teriem, *material*, as well as mÄ teria, mÄ teriam.

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

c) Requiēs, requiÄ"tis, *rest*, regularly of the Third Declension, takes an Acc. of the Fifth, requiem, in addition to requiētem.

d) Besides plēbs, plÄ"bis, *common people*, of the Third Declension, we find plēbÄ"s, plÄ"bĕī (also plÄ"bÄ«, 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, clipeus, clipeum, \_shield\_; carrus, carrum, *cart*.

2. Other nouns have one gender in the Singular, another in the Plural; as,---

SINGULAR. PLURAL. balneum, n., \_bath\_; balneae, f., \_bath-house\_. epulum, n., \_feast\_; epulae, f., *feast*. frēnum, n., \_bridle\_; frÄ"nÄ«, m.(rarely frÄ"na, n.), *bridle*. jocus, m., \_jest\_; joca, n. (also jocī, m.), *jests*. locus, m., \_place\_; loca, n., \_places\_; locī, m., *passages or topics in an author*. rÄ strum, n., \_rake\_; rÄ strÄ«, m.; rÄ stra, n., *rakes*.

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

Plurals with Change of Meaning.

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

SINGULAR. PLURAL. aedēs, \_temple\_; aedÄ"s, *house*. auxilium, \_help\_; auxilia, *auxiliary troops*. carcer, \_prison\_; carcerēs, \_stalls for racing-chariot\_. castrum, \_fort\_; castra, *camp*. cÅ pia, \_abundance\_; cÅ piae, *troops, resources*. fīnis, \_end\_; fÄ«nÄ"s, *borders, territory*. fortūna, \_fortune\_; fortÅ«nae, *possessions, wealth*. grÄ tia, *favor*, grÄ tiae, *thanks*. \_gratitude\_; impedīmentum, impedÄ«menta, *baggage*. \_hindrance\_; littera, *letter* (of the litterae, \_epistle; literature\_. alphabet); mÅ s, *habit*, \_custom\_; mŠrēs, *character*. opera, *help*, \_service\_; operae, *laborers*. (ops) opis, \_help\_; opēs, *resources*. pars, \_part\_; partēs, \_party\_; \_rÃ~le\_. sÄ l, \_salt\_; sÄflÄ"s, *wit*.

B. ADJECTIVES.

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

1. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions.

2. Adjectives of the Third Declension.

\* \* \* \* \*

#### ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS.

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

Bonus, good.

SINGULAR. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. \_Nom.\_ bonus bona bonum \_Gen.\_ bonī bonae bonÄ« \_Dat.\_ bonÅ bonae bonÅ \_Acc.\_ bonum bonam bonum \_Voc.\_ bone bona bonum \_Abl.\_ bonÅ bonÄ bonÅ

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ bonī bonae bona \_Gen.\_ bonÅ rum bonÄ rum bonÅ rum \_Dat.\_ bonÄ«s bonÄ«s bonÄ«s \_Acc.\_ bonÅ s bonä s bona \_Voc.\_ bonÄ« bonae bona \_Abl.\_ bonÄ«s bonÄ«s bonÄ«s

1. The Gen. Sing. Masc. and Neut. of Adjectives in –ius ends in  $-i\ddot{A}$ « (not in  $-\ddot{A}$ « as in case of Nouns; see § 25, 1; 2). So also the Voc. Sing. of such Adjectives ends in –ie, not in  $\ddot{A}$ «. Thus eximius forms Gen. eximi $\ddot{A}$ «; Voc. eximie.

2. Distributives (see § 78, 1, c) regularly form the Gen. Plu. Masc. and Neut. in –um instead of –Å rum (compare § 25, 6); as, dÄ"num centÄ"num; but always singulÅ rum.

64. Masculine like puer:---

Tener, tender.

SINGULAR. MASCULINE. FEMININE NEUTER. \_Nom.\_ tener tenera tenerum \_Gen.\_ tenerī tenera tenerÄ« \_Dat.\_ tenerÅ tenera tenerÅ \_Acc.\_ tenerum teneram tenerum \_Voc.\_ tener tenera tenerum \_Abl.\_ tenerÅ tenerÅ

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ tenerī tenerae tenera \_Gen.\_ tenerÅ rum tenerÄ rum tenerÅ rum \_Dat.\_ tenerÄ«s tenerÄ«s \_Acc.\_ tenerÅ s tenerÄ s tenerÄ voc.\_ tenerÄ« tenerae tenera \_Abl.\_ tenerÄ«s tenerÄ«s tenerÄ«s tenerÄ«s

65. Masculine like ager:---

Sacer, sacred.

SINGULAR. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. \_Nom.\_ sacer sacra sacrum \_Gen.\_ sacrī sacrae sacrÄ« \_Dat.\_ sacrÅ sacrae sacrÅ \_Acc.\_ sacrum sacram sacrum \_Voc.\_ sacer sacra sacrum \_Abl.\_ sacrÅ sacrÄ sacrÅ

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ sacrä« sacrae sacra \_Gen.\_ sacrå rum sacrå rum sacrå rum \_Dat.\_ sacrä«s sacrä«s

sacrä«s \_Acc.\_ sacrå s sacrä s sacra \_Voc.\_ sacrä« sacra e sacra \_Abl.\_ sacrä«s sacrä«s sacrä»

1. Most adjectives in –er are declined like sacer. The following however, are declined like tener: asper, \_rough\_; lacer, \_torn\_; lÄ«ber, \_free\_; miser, \_wretched\_; prÅ sper, \_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\_; ūllus, \_any\_; nÅ«llus, \_none\_; uter, \_which?\_ (of two); neuter, \_neither\_; sÅ lus, \_alone\_; tÅ tus, \_whole\_; Å«nus, *one*, *alone*.

They are declined as follows:---

SINGULAR. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. \_Nom.\_ alius alia aliud \_Gen.\_ alterÄ-us alterÄ-us alterÄ-us[15] \_Dat.\_ aliÄ« aliÄ« aliÄ« \_Acc.\_ alium aliam aliud \_Voc.\_ ---- \_\_\_\_ \_Abl.\_ aliÅ aliÄ aliÅ

\_Nom.\_ alter altera alterum \_Gen.\_ alterÄ-us alterÄ-us alterÄ-us \_Dat.\_ alterÄ« alterÄ«[16] alterÄ« \_Acc.\_ alterum alterum \_Voc.\_ ---- \_Abl.\_ alterÅ alterÅ alterÅ

\_Nom.\_ uter utra utrum \_Gen.\_ utrīus utrÄ«us utrÄ«us \_Dat.\_ utrÄ« utrÄ« utrÄ« \_Acc.\_ utrum utram utrum \_Voc.\_ ---- \_Abl.\_ utrÅ utrÅ utrÅ

\_Nom.\_ tŠtus tŠta tŠtum \_Gen.\_ tŠtīus tÅ tÄ«us tÅ tÄ«us \_Dat.\_ tÅ tÄ« tÅ tÄ« tÅ tÄ« \_Acc.\_ tÅ tum tÅ tam tÅ tum \_Voc.\_ ---- ---- \_Abl.\_ tÅ tÅ tÅ tÅ tÅ tÅ

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.

a. With the exception of Comparatives, and a few other words mentioned below in  $\hat{A}$  70, 1, all Adjectives of the Third Declension follow the inflection of  $\ddot{A}$ --stems; i.e. they have the Ablative Singular in  $-\ddot{A}$ «, the Genitive Plural in –ium, the Accusative Plural in  $-\ddot{A}$ «s (as well as  $-\ddot{A}$ "s) 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:---

Ä€cer, sharp.

SINGULAR. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. \_Nom.\_ Ä cer Ä cris Ä cre \_Gen.\_ Ä cris Ä cris Ä cris \_Dat.\_ Ä crÄ« Ä crÄ« Ä crÄ« Acc.\_ Ä crem Ä crem Ä cre \_Voc.\_ Ä cer Ä cris Ä cre \_Abl.\_ Ä crÄ« Ä crÄ« Ä crÄ«

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ Ä crÄ"s Ä crÄ"s Ä cria \_Gen.\_ Ä crium Ä crium Ä crium *Dat*, Ä cribus Ä cribus Ä cribus \_Acc.\_ Ä crÄ"s, –Ä«s Ä crÄ"s, –Ä«s Ä cria \_Voc.\_ Ä crÄ"s Ä crÄ"s Ä cria \_Abl.\_ Ä cribus Ä cribus Ä cribus Ä cribus

1. Like Ä cer are declined alacer, \_lively\_; campester, \_level\_; celeber, \_famous\_; equester, \_equestrian\_; palÅ«ster, \_marshy\_; pedester, \_pedestrian\_; puter, \_rotten\_; salÅ«ber, \_wholesome\_; silvester, \_woody\_; terrester, \_terrestrial\_; volucer, \_winged\_; also names of months in –ber, as September.

2. Celer, celeris, celere, *swift*, retains the e before r, but lacks the Genitive Plural.

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

Adjectives of Two Terminations.

69. These are declined as follows:---

Fortis, \_strong.\_ Fortior, \_stronger.\_ SINGULAR. M. AND F. NEUT. M. AND F. NEUT. \_Nom.\_ fortis forte fortior fortius \_Gen.\_ fortis fortiŠris fortiŠris \_Dat.\_ fortī fortÄ« fortiÅ rÄ« fortiÅ rÄ« \_Acc.\_ fortem forte fortiÅ rem fortius \_Voc.\_ fortis forte fortior fortius \_Abl.\_ fortÄ« fortÄ« fortÅ re fortiÅ re

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ fortä"s fortia fortiÅ rÄ"s fortiÅ ra \_Gen.\_ fortium fortiům fortiÅ rum fortiÅ rum \_Dat.\_ fortibus fortiÅ ribus fortiÅ ribus \_Acc.\_ fortÄ"s, –Ä«s fortia fortiÅ rÄ"s, –Ä«s fortiÅ ra \_Voc.\_ fortÄ"s fortiå fortiÅ rÄ"s fortiÅ ra \_Abl.\_ fortibus fortiÅ ribus fortiÅ ribus

1. Fortior is the Comparative of fortis. All Comparatives are regularly declined in the same way. The Acc. Plu. in  $-\ddot{A}$ «s is rare.

Adjectives of One Termination.

70. FÄ"lÄ«x, \_happy.\_. PrÅ«dÄ"ns, \_prudent.\_

SINGULAR. M. AND F. NEUT. M. AND F. NEUT. \_Nom.\_ fēlÄ«x fÄ"lÄ«x prÅ«dÄ"ns prÅ«dÄ"ns \_Gen.\_ fÄ"lÄ«cÄ«s fÄ"lÄ«cis prÅ«dentis prÅ«dentis \_Dat.\_ fÄ"lÄ«cÄ« fÄ"lÄ«cÄ« prÅ«dentÄ« prÅ«dentÄ« \_Acc.\_ fÄ"lÄ«cem fÄ"lÄ«x prÅ«dentem prÅ«dÄ"ns \_Voc.\_ fÄ"lÄ«x fÄ"lÄ«x prÅ«dÄ"ns prÅ«dÄ"ns \_Abl.\_ fÄ"lÄ«cÄ« fÄ"lÄ«cÄ« fÄ"lÄ«cÄ« prÅ«dentÄ«

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ fēlÄ«cÄ"s fÄ"lÄ«cia prÅ«dentÄ"s prÅ«dentia \_Gen.\_ fÄ"lÄ«cium fÄ"lÄ«cium prÅ«dentium prÅ«dentium \_Dat.\_ fÄ"lÄ«cibus fÄ"lÄ«cibus prÅ«dentibus prÅ«dentibus \_Acc.\_ fÄ"lÄ«cÄ"s, –Ä«s fÄ"lÄ«cia prÅ«dentÄ"s, –Ä«s prÅ«dentia \_Voc.\_ fÄ"lÄ«cÄ"s fÄ"lÄ«cia prÅ«dentÄ"s prÅ«dentia \_Abl.\_ fÄ"lÄ«cibus fÄ"lÄ«cibus prÅ«dentibus prÅ«dentibus prÅ»dentibus prÅ

Vetus, old. Plūs, more.

SINGULAR. M. AND F. NEUT. M. AND F. NEUT. \_Nom.\_ vetus vetus ----- plūs \_Gen.\_ veteris veteris ----- plÅ«ris \_Dat.\_ veterÄ« veterÄ« ----- \_Acc.\_ veterem vetus ----- plÅ«s \_Voc.\_ vetus vetus ----- \_Abl.\_ vetere vetere ----- plÅ«re

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ veterēs vetera plÅ«rÄ"s plÅ«ra \_Gen.\_ veterum veterum plÅ«rium plÅ«rium \_Dat.\_ veteribus veteribus plÅ«ribus plÅ«ribus \_Acc.\_ veterÄ"s vetera plÅ«rÄ"s, –Ä«s plÅ«ra \_Voc.\_ veterÄ"s vetera ----- \_Abl.\_ veteribus veteribus plÅ«ribus plÅ«ribus

1. It will be observed that vetus is declined as a pure Consonant–Stem; i.e. Ablative Singular in –e, Genitive Plural in –um, Nominative Plural Neuter in –a, and Accusative Plural Masculine and Feminine in –Ä"s only. In the same way are declined compos, \_controlling\_; dÄ«ves, \_rich\_; particeps, \_sharing\_; pauper, \_poor\_; prÄ«nceps, \_chief\_; sÅ spes, \_safe\_; superstes, *surviving*. Yet dīves always has Neut. Plu. dÄ«tia.

2. Inops, *needy*, and memor, *mindful*, have Ablative Singular inopī, memorÄ«, but Genitive Plural inopum, memorum.

3. Participles in  $-\ddot{A}$  ns and  $-\ddot{A}$ "ns follow the declension of  $\ddot{A}$ «-stems. But they do not have  $-\ddot{A}$ « the Ablative, except when employed as adjectives; when used as participles or as substantives, they have -e; as,--

Ä sapientÄ« virÅ, \_by a wise man\_; but Ä sapiente, \_by a philosopher.\_ TarquiniÅ rÄ"gnante, \_under the reign of Tarquin.\_

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

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

a) usually retain the adjective declension; as,--

aequÄ lis, contemporary, Abl. aequÄ lÄ«. cÅ nsulÄ ris, \_ex-consul\_, Abl. cÅ nsulÄ rÄ«

So names of Months; as, AprīlÄ«, \_April\_; DecembrÄ«, December.

b) But adjectives used as proper names have –e in the Ablative Singular; as, Celere, Celer; JuvenÄ le, *Juvenal*.

c) Patrials in –Ä s, –Ä tis and –Ä«s, –Ä«tis, when designating places regularly have –Ä«; as, in ArpÄ«nÄ tÄ«, *on the estate at Arpinum*, yet –e, when used of persons; as, ab ArpÄ«nÄ te, *by an Arpinatian*.

6. A very few indeclinable adjectives occur, the chief of which are frūgÄ«, \_frugal\_; nÄ"quam, *worthless*.

7. In poetry, adjectives and participles in –ns sometimes form the Gen. Plu. in –um instead of –ium; 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. fēlÄ«x, *fortunate*, fēlÄ«cior, fÄ"lÄ«cissimus.

So also Participles, when used as Adjectives; as,--

doctus, *learned*, doctior, doctissimus. egēns, *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. Ä cer, *sharp*, Ä crior, Ä cerrimus. celer, *swift*, celerior, celerrimus.

a. Notice mÄ tÅ«rus, mÄ tÅ«rior, mÄ tÅ«rissimus or mÄ tÅ«rrimus.

4. Five Adjectives in –ilis form the Superlative by adding –limus to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel. The Comparative is regular. Thus:––

facilis, *easy*, facilior, facillimus. difficilis, *diffcult*, difficilior, difficillimus. similis, *like*, similior, simillimus. dissimilis, *unlike*, dissimilior, dissimilimus. humilis, *low*, humilior, humillimus.

5. Adjectives in –dicus, –ficus, and –volus form the Comparative and Superlative as though from forms in  $-d\ddot{A} \ll \ddot{A}$ "ns, –fic $\ddot{A}$ "ns, –vol $\ddot{A}$ "ns. Thus:––

maledicus, *slanderous*, maledīcentior, maledÄ«centissimus. magnificus, *magnificent*, magnificentior, magnificentissimus. benevolus, *kindly*, benevolentior, benevolentissimus.

a. Positives in –dÄ«cÄ"ns and –volÄ"ns occur in early Latin; as maledÄ«cÄ"ns, benevolÄ"ns.

6. Dīves has the Comparative dÄ«vitior or dÄ«tior; Superlative dÄ«vitissimus or dÄ«tissimus.

Irregular Comparison.

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

bonus, *good*, melior, optimus. malus, *bad*, pejor, pessimus. parvus, *small*, minor, minimus. magnus, *large*, major, maximus. multus, *much*, plūs, plÅ«rimus, frÅ«gÄ«, *thrifty*, frūgÄ lior, frÅ«gÄ lissimus, nÄ"quam, *worthless*, nēquior, nÄ"quissimus.

Defective Comparison.

73. 1. Positive lacking entirely,--

(Cf. prae, \_in front prior, *former*, prīmus, *first* of\_.) (Cf. citrÄ, \_this side citerior, \_on this citimus, *near*. of\_.) side\_, (Cf. ultrÄ, *beyond*.) ulterior, *farther*, ultimus, *farthest*. (Cf. intrÄ, *within*.) interior, *inner*, intimus, *inmost* (Cf. prope, *near*.) propior, *nearer*, proximus, *nearest*. (Cf. dē, *down*.) dēterior, *inferior*, dēterrimus, *worst*. (Cf. archaic potis, potior, *preferable*, potissimus, *chiefest possible*.)

2. Positive occurring only in special cases,---

posterŠdiē, annÅ, posterior, *later*, postrēmus, *latest*, etc. \_the following *last*. day\_, etc., postumus, \_late-born\_, posterī, *posthumous*. *descendants*, exteri, exterior, *outer* extrēmus, extimus, *foreigners*, *outermost*. nÄ tiÅ nÄ"s exterae, *foreign nations*, inferī, \_gods of the Ä«nferior, *lower*, īnfimus, Ä«mus, lower world\_, *lowest*. Mare Inferum, *Mediterranean Sea*, superī, \_gods superior, *higher*, suprēmus, *last*. above\_, summus, *highest*. Mare Superum, *Adriatic Sea*,

3. Comparative lacking.

vetus, *old*, ----[17] veterrimus. fīdus, *faithful*, ---- fīdissimus. novus, *new*, ----[18] novissimus,[19] *last*. sacer, *sacred*, ---- sacerrimus. falsus, *false*, ---- falsissimus.

Also in some other words less frequently used.

4. Superlative lacking.

alacer, *lively*, alacrior, ---- ingēns, *great*, ingentior, ---- salūtÄ ris, *wholesome*, salūtÄ rior, ---- juvenis, *young*, jūnior, -----[20] senex, *old*, senior. -----[21]

a. The Superlative is lacking also in many adjectives in -Ä lis, -Ä-lis, -Bilis, 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 -Ä lis, -Ä ris, -idus, -Ä«lis, -icus, imus, Ä«nus, -Å rus.

2. Adjectives in –us, preceded by a vowel; as, idÅ neus, \_adapted\_; arduus, \_steep\_; necessÄ rius, *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.

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\_; mortÄ lis, *mortal*.

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

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# 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  $-\ddot{A}$ « of the Genitive Singular to  $-\ddot{A}$ "; those derived from adjectives of the Third Declension, by changing –is of the Genitive Singular to –iter; as,––

cÄ rus, cÄ rÄ", \_dearly\_; pulcher, pulchrÄ", \_beautifully\_; Ä cer, Ä criter, \_fiercely\_; levis, leviter, *lightly*.

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

sapiēns, sapienter, \_wisely\_; sollers, sollerter, *skillfully*.

Note audÄ x, audÄ cter, *boldly*.

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  $-\ddot{A}$ « of the Genitive Singular of the Superlative of the Adjective to  $-\ddot{A}$ ". Thus--

(cÄ rus) cÄ rÄ", *dearly*, cÄ rius, cÄ rissimÄ". (pulcher) pulchrÄ", *beautifully*, pulchrius, pulcherrimē. (Ä cer) Ä criter, *fiercely*, Ä crius, Ä cerrimÄ". (levis) leviter, *lightly*, levius, levissimē. (sapiÄ"ns) sapienter, *wisely*, sapientius, sapientissimē. (audÄ x) audÄ cter, *boldly*, audÄ cius, audÄ cissimÄ".

Adverbs Peculiar in Comparison and Formation.

77. 1., well, melius, optimē. malÄ•, *ill*, pejus, pessimē. magnopere, *greatly*, magis, maximē. multum, *much*, plūs, plÅ«rimum. nÅ n multum, *little*, minus, minimē. parum, diÅ«, *long*, diūtius, diÅ«tissimÄ". nÄ"quiter, *worthlessly*, nēquius, nÄ"quissimÄ". saepe, *often*, saepius, saepissimē. mÄ tÅ«rÄ", *betimes*, mÄ tÅ«rius, mÄ tÅ«rrimÄ". mÄ tÅ«rissimÄ". prope, *near*, propius, proximē. nÅ«per, *recently*, ----- nūperrimÄ". ---- potius, *rather*, potissimum, *especially*. ---- prius, *previously*, prīmum, *first. before*, secus, *otherwise*, sētius, *less*.

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

crēbrÅ, \_frequently\_; falsÅ, \_falsely\_; continuÅ, subitÅ, \_suddenly\_; \_immediately\_; rÄ rÅ, *rarely*, and a few others.

a. cito, quickly, has -Å.

3. A few adjectives employ the Accusative Singular Neuter as the Positive of the Adverb; as,---

multum, \_much\_; paulum, facile, \_little\_; easily.

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

fīrmus, fÄ«rmiter, \_firmly\_; hÅ«mÄ nus, hÅ«mÄ niter, \_humanly\_; largus, 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, antīquitus, \_anciently\_; paulÄ tim, *gradually*.

\* \* \* \* \*

NUMERALS.

78. Numerals may be divided into---

- I. Numeral Adjectives, comprising--
- a. \_Cardinals\_; as, ūnus, \_one\_; duo, \_two\_; etc.
- b. \_Ordinals\_; as, prīmus, \_first\_; secundus, \_second\_; etc.
- c. \_Distributives\_; as, singulī, \_one by one\_; bÄ«nÄ«, \_two by two\_; etc.

II. Numeral Adverbs; as, semel, \_once\_; bis, \_twice\_; etc.

# 79. TABLE OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

CARDINALS. ORDINALS. 1. ūnus, Å«na, Å«num prÄ«mus, *first* 2. duo, duae, duo secundus, *second* 3. trēs, tria tertius, *third* 4. quattuor quÄ rtus, *fourth* 5. quīnque quÄ«ntus, *fifth* 6. sex sextus 7. septem septimus 8. octo octÄ vus 9. novem nÅ nus 10. decem decimus 11. Å«ndecim Å«ndecimus 12. duodecim duodecimus 13. tredecim tertius decimus 14. quattuordecim quÄ rtus decimus 15. quÄ«ndecim quÄ«ntus decimus 16. sēdecim, sextus decimus sexdecim 17. septendecim septimus decimus 18. duodÄ"vÄ«gintÄ« duodēvÄ«cÄ"simus 19. Å«ndÄ"vÄ«gintÄ« Å«ndÄ"vÄ«cÄ"simus 20. vÄ«gintÄ« vÄ«cÄ"simus 21. vīgintÄ« Å«nus, vÄ«cÄ"simus prÄ«mus, Å«nus et vÄ«gintÄ« Å«nus et vÄ«cÄ"simus 22. vÄ«gintÄ« duo, vīcÄ"simus secundus, duo et vÄ«gintÄ« alter et vÄ«cÄ"simus 30. trÄ«gintÄ trÄ«cÄ"simus 40. quadrÄ gintÄ quadrÄ gÄ"simus 50. quÄ«nquÄ gintÄ quÄ«nquÄ gÄ"simus 60. sexÄ gintÄ sexÄ gÄ"simus 70. septuÄ gintÄ septuÄ gÄ"simus 80. octÅ gintÄ octÅ gÄ"simus 90. nÅ nÄ gintÄ nÅ nÄ gÄ"simus 100. centum centÄ"simus 101. centum Å«nus, centÄ"simus prÄ«mus, centum et ūnus centÄ"simus et prÄ«mus 200. ducentÄ«, -ae, -a ducentÄ"simus 300. trecentÄ« trecentēsimus 400. quadringentÄ« quadringentÄ"simus 500. quÄ«ngentÄ« quÄ«ngentÄ"simus 600. sescentī sescentÄ"simus 700. septingentÄ« septingentÄ"simus 800. octingentÄ« octingentÄ"simus 900. nŠngentī nÅ ngentÄ"simus 1,000. mÄ«lle mÄ«llÄ"simus 2,000. duo mÄ«lia bis mÄ«llÄ"simus 100,000. centum mä«lia centiä"s mä«llä"simus 1,000,000. deciä"s centä"na mä«lia deciä"s centiä"s mīllÄ"simus

DISTRIBUTIVES. ADVERBS. 1. singuli, *one by one* semel, *once* 2. bīnÄ«, *two by two* bis 3. ternī (trÄ«nÄ«) ter 4. quaternÄ« quater 5. quÄ«nÄ« quÄ«nquiÄ"s 6. sÄ"nÄ« sexiÄ"s 7. septÄ"nÄ« septiÄ"s 8. octÅ nÄ« octiÄ"s 9. novÄ"nÄ« noviÄ"s 10. dÄ"nÄ« deciÄ"s 11. Å«ndÄ"nÄ« Å«ndeciÄ"s 12. duodÄ"nÄ« duodeciÄ"s 13. ternÄ« denÄ« terdeciÄ"s 14. quaternÄ« denÄ« quaterdeciÄ"s 15. quÄ«nÄ« dÄ"nÄ« quÄ«nquiÄ"s deciÄ"s 16. sÄ"nÄ« dÄ"nÄ« sexiÄ"s deciÄ"s 17. septÄ"nÄ« dÄ"nÄ« septiÄ"s deciÄ"s 18. duodÄ"vicÄ"nÄ« octiÄ"s deciÄ"s 19. Å«ndÄ"vÄ«cÄ"nÄ« noviÄ"s deciÄ"s 20. vÄ«cÄ"nÄ« vÄ«ciÄ"s 21. vÄ«cÄ"nÄ« singulÄ«, vÄ«ciÄ"s semel singulÄ« et vÄ«cÄ"nÄ« 22. vÄ«cÄ"ni bÄ«nÄ«, vÄ«ciÄ"s bis bÄ«nÄ« et vÄ«cÄ"nÄ« adä"nÄ« quä rrä« singulÄ«, vä«ciÄ"s 60. sexä gÄ"nÄ« sexä giÄ"s 70. septuÄ gä"nÄ« septuÄ giÄ"s 80. octÅ gÄ"nÄ« octÅ giÄ"s 90. nÅ nÄ gÄ"nÄ« nÅ nÄ giÄ"s 100. centÄ"nÄ« ducentiÄ"s 101. centÄ"nÄ« singulÄ«, centiÄ"s semel centÄ"nÄ« et singulÄ« 200. ducÄ"nÄ« ducentiÄ"s 101. centÄ"nÄ« singulÄ«, centiÄ"s semel centÄ"nÄ« s 850. quÄ«nä« adä"nÄ« ducentiÄ"s 100. sescÄ"nÄ« septingentiÄ"s 400. quadringentiÄ"s 500. quÄ«ngÄ"nÄ« septingentiÄ"s 100. ducÄ"nÄ« nÄ nÄ giÄ"s 100. sescÄ"nÄ« septingentiÄ"s 100. sentÄ"nÄ« septingentiÄ"s 100. octingÄ"nÄ« settä"s 100. sescÄ"nÄ« septingentiÄ"s 100. ducÄ"nÄ« settä"s 100. sentÄ"nÄ« settä"s 100. sentÄ"nÄ« septingentiÄ"s 100. ducÄ"nÄ« settä"s 100. nÅ ngä"nÄ« settä"s 100. ducÄ"nÄ« settä"s 100. settä"nä« settä"s 100. sett

NOTE.---Ä"nsimus and -iÄ"ns are often written in the numerals instead of -Ä"simus and -iÄ"s.

Declension of the Cardinals.

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

2. Duo is declined as follows:---

\_Nom.\_ duo duae duo \_Gen.\_ duÅ rum duÄ rum duÅ rum \_Dat.\_ duÅ bus duÄ bus duÅ bus \_Acc.\_ duÅ s, duo duÄ s duo \_Abl.\_ duÅ bus duÄ bus duÅ bus

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

3. Trēs is declined,---

\_Nom.\_ trēs tria \_Gen.\_ trium trium \_Dat.\_ tribus tribus \_Acc.\_ trÄ"s (trÄ«s) tria \_Abl.\_ tribus tribus

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

5. Mīlle 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.\_ mīlia \_Acc.\_ mÄ«lia \_Gen.\_ mÄ«lium \_Voc.\_ mÄ«lia \_Dat.\_ mÄ«libus \_Abl.\_ mÄ«libus

Thus mīlle hominÄ"s, \_a thousand men\_; but duo mÄ«lia hominum, *two thousand men*, literally *two thousands of men*.

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

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

Peculiarities in the Use of Numerals.

81. 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:--

trīgintÄ sex or sex et trÄ«gintÄ, \_thirty-six\_.

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

duodēvÄ«gintÄ«, eighteen (but also octÅ decim);

ūndÄ"quadrÄ gintÄ, \_thirty-nine\_ (but also trÄ«gintÄ novem or novem et trÄ«gintÄ ).

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

centum vīgintÄ« septem, \_one hundred and twenty-seven\_.

annŠoctingentēsimÅ octÅ gÄ"simÅ secundÅ, \_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 quadrÄ gintÄ, one hundred and forty.

4. The Distributives are used---

a) To denote so much each, \_so many apiece\_; as,--

bīna talenta eÄ«s 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, ūnÄ« (not singulÄ«) is regularly employed for *one*, and trīnÄ« (not ternÄ«) for three; as,--

ūnae litterae, \_one epistle\_; trÄ«nae litterae, *three epistles*.

c) In multiplication; as,---

bis bīna sunt quattuor, twice two are four.

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

bīna hastÄ«lia, 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:---

First Person. Second Person. Third Person.

SINGULAR. \_Nom.\_ ego, *I* tū, *thou* is, \_he\_; ea, \_she\_; id, *it* \_Gen.\_ meī tuÄ« (For declension see § 87.) \_Dat.\_ mihi[22] tibi[22] \_Acc.\_ mÄ" tÄ" \_Voc.\_ ---- tÅ« \_Abl.\_ mÄ" tÄ"

PLURAL. \_Nom.\_ nÅ s, *we* vÅ s, *you* \_Gen.\_ nostrum, nostrī vestrum, vestrÄ« \_Dat.\_ nÅ bÄ«s vÅ bÄ«s \_Acc.\_ nÅ s vÅ s \_Voc.\_ ---- vÅ s \_Abl.\_ nÅ bÄ«s vÅ bÄ«s

1. A Dative Singular mī occurs in poetry.

2. Emphatic forms in -met are occasionally found; as, egomet, \_I myself\_; tibimet, \_to you yourself\_; tū has tÅ«te and tÅ«temet (written also tÅ«timet).

3. In early Latin, mēd and tÄ"d 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:--

\_First Person.\_\_Second Person.\_\_Third Person.\_ Supplied by oblique Supplied by oblique cases of ego. cases of tū. \_Gen.\_ meÄ«, *of myself* tuī, *of thyself* suī \_Dat.\_ mihi, *to myself* tibi, *to thyself* sibi[22] \_Acc.\_ mē, *myself* tē, *thyself* sē or sÄ"sÄ" \_Voc.\_ ---- \_Abl.\_ mÄ", *with myself*, tē, *with thyself*, sē or sÄ"sÄ" etc. etc.

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 pugnant, they fight with each other.

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

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## III. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

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

\_First Person.\_ \_Second Person.\_ meus, -a, -um, \_my\_; tuus, -a, -um, \_thy\_; noster, nostra, nostrum, vester, vestra, vestrum, \_our\_; \_your\_;

\_Third Person.\_ suus, -a, -um, *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*.

1. Suus is exclusively Reflexive; as,--

pater līberÅ s suÅ s amat, the father loves his children.

Otherwise, *his*, *her*, *its* are regularly expressed by the Genitive Singular of is, viz. ejus; and *their* by the Genitive Plural, eÅ rum, eÄ rum.

2. The Vocative Singular Masculine of meus is mī.

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 suÅ , suÄ ; as, suÅ pte, suÄ pte.

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#### IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

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

hīc, *this* (where I am); iste, *that* (where you are); ille, *that* (something distinct from the speaker); is, *that* (weaker than ille); īdem, *the same*.

Hīc, iste, and ille are accordingly the Demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons respectively.

Hīc, *this*. SINGULAR PLURAL. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. \_Nom.\_ hīc haec hÅ c hÄ« hae haec \_Gen.\_ hÅ«jus[23] hÅ«jus hÅ«jus hÅ rum hÅ rum hÅ rum \_Dat.\_ huic huic huic hÄ«s hÄ«s hÄ«s \_Acc.\_ hunc hanc hÅ c hÅ s hÄ s haec \_Abl.\_ hÅ c hÄ c hÅ c hÄ«s hÄ«s hÄ«s

Iste, *that*, \_that of yours.\_ SINGULAR. PLURAL. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. \_Nom.\_ iste ista istud[24] istī istae ista[24] \_Gen.\_ istÄ«us istÄ«us istÄ sistÅ rum istÅ rum \_Dat.\_ istÄ« istÄ« istÄ« istÄ« istÄ« istÄ« istÄ« istÄ« istÄ sistÄ sistÄ sistÄ sistÄ sistÄ sistÄ sistÄ sistÅ istÅ istÅ istÅ istÄ sistÄ sistÄ«sistÄ«sistÄ» sistÄ» sistÄ» sistÄ sis

Ille (archaic olle), that, that one, he, is declined like iste.[25]

Is, *he*, *this*, *that*. SINGULAR PLURAL. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. Nom. is ea id eī, iÄ«, eae ea (Ä«) \_Gen.\_ ejus ejus ejus eÅ rum eÄ rum eÅ rum \_Dat.\_ eÄ« eÄ« eÄ« eÄ« eÄ« s, iÄ«s eÄ«s, iÄ«s eÄ«s, iÄ«s \_Acc.\_ eum eam id eÅ s eÄ s ea \_Abl.\_ eÅ eÄ eÅ eÄ «s, iÄ«s eÄ«s, iÄ«s eÄ«s, iÄ«s

Ä<sup>a</sup>dem, *the same*. SINGULAR. PLURAL. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. *Nom*. īdem eadem idem eÄ«dem, eaedem eadem iÄ«dem \_Gen.\_ ejusdem ejusdem ejusdem eŠrundem eŠrundem \_Dat.\_ eīdem eÄ«dem eÄ«dem eÄ«sdem eÄ«sdem eīsdem \_Acc.\_ eundem eandem idem eÅ sdem eÄ sdem eadem \_Abl.\_ eÅ dem eÄ dem eÅ dem eīsdem eÄ«sdem

The Nom. Plu. Masc. also has īdem, and the Dat. Abl. Plu. Ä«sdem or iÄ«sdem

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V. THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN.

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

SINGULAR PLURAL. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. \_Nom.\_ ipse ipsa ipsum ipsī ipsa \_Gen.\_ ipsÄ«us ipsÄ«us ipsÄ«us ipsÅ rum ipsÅ rum ipsÅ rum \_Dat.\_ ipsÄ« ipsÄ« ipsÄ« ipsÄ« ipsÄ«s ipsÄ«s ipsÄ«s \_Acc.\_ ipsum ipsam ipsum ipsÅ s ipsÄ s ipsä s ipsÄ ipsÅ ipsÅ ipsÄ s ipsÄ«s ipsÄ«s

\* \* \* \* \*

VI. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

89. The Relative Pronoun is quī, who. It is declined:---

SINGULAR PLURAL. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. MASCULINE. FEMININE. NEUTER. \_Nom.\_ quī quae quod quÄ« quae quae \_Gen.\_ cÅ«jus cÅ«jus cÅ«jus quÅ rum quÄ rum quÅ rum \_Dat.\_ cui cui quibus[26] quibus quibus \_Acc.\_ quem quam quod quÅ s quÄ s quae \_Abl.\_ quÅ [27] quÄ [27] quÅ quibus[26] quibus quibus

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VII. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

90. The Interrogative Pronouns are quis, \_who?\_ (substantive) and quī, \_what? what kind of?\_ (adjective).

1. Quis, \_who\_?

SINGULAR. PLURAL. MASC. AND FEM. NEUTER \_Nom.\_ quis quid The rare Plural \_Gen.\_ cūjus cÅ«jus follows the declension \_Dat.\_ cui cui of the Relative Pronoun. \_Acc.\_ quem quid \_Abl.\_ quÅ quÅ

2. Quī, \_what? what kind of?\_ is declined precisely like the Relative Pronoun; viz. quÄ«, quae, quod, etc.

a. An old Ablative quī occurs, in the sense of \_how? why?\_

b. Quī is sometimes used for quis in Indirect Questions.

c. Quis, when limiting words denoting persons, is sometimes an adjective. But in such cases quis hom $Å = what man?_whereas qu\ddot{A} \ll hom \dot{A} = what sort of man?_$ 

d. Quis and quī may be strengthened by adding -nam. Thus:---

Substantive: quisnam, \_who, pray?\_ quidnam, \_what, pray?\_ Adjective: quīnam, quaenam, quodnam, \_of what kind, pray?\_

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## VIII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

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

SUBSTANTIVES. ADJECTIVES. M. AND F. NEUT. MASC. FEM. NEUT. quis, quid, quī, quae, qua, quod, *any one, anything. any.* aliquis, aliquid, aliquī, aliqua, aliquod, *some one, any. something.* quisquam, quidquam, quidquam, *any one, anything. any* (rare) quispiam, quidpiam, quispiam, quaepiam, quodpiam, *any one, anything. any.* quisque, quidque, quisque, quaeque, quodque, *each. each.* quīvÄ«s, quaevÄ«s, quidvÄ«s, quÄ«vis, quaevÄ«s, quodvis, quÄ«libet, quaelibet, quidlibet quilibet, quaelibet, quodlibet, *any one* (\_anything\_) *any you wish you wish* quīdam, quaedam, quiddam, quÄ«dam, quaedam, quoddam, *a certain person*, or *a certain thing.* 

1. In the Indefinite Pronouns, only the pronominal part is declined. Thus: Genitive Singular alicūjus, cÅ«juslibet, etc.

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

3. Quīdam forms Accusative Singular quendam, quandam; Genitive Plural quÅ rundam, quÄ rundam; the m being assimilated to n before d.

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

5. In combination with nē, sÄ«, nisi, num, either quis or quÄ« may stand as a Substantive. Thus: sÄ« quis or sÄ« quÄ«.

6. Ecquis, any one, though strictly an Indefinite, generally has interrogative force. It has both substantive and

adjective forms,--substantive, ecquis, ecquid; adjective, ecquī, ecquae and ecqua, ecquod.

7. Quisquam is not used in the Plural.

8. There are two Indefinite Relatives,—quÄ«cumque and quisquis, *whoever*. Quīcumque declines only the first part; quisquis declines both but has only quisquis, quidquid, quÅ quÅ , in common use.

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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.); ūnus, \_one\_; nÅ«llus, *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;\_ utervīs, utravÄ«s, utrumvÄ«s, \_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 utrīus, etc.

\* \* \* \* \*

# CHAPTER II.

--\_Conjugation.\_

93. A Verb is a word which asserts something; as, est, \_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,---

Active. Passive. *Sing*. 1. –Å; –m; –Ä« (Perf. Ind.); –r. 2. –s; –stÄ« (Perf Ind.); –rÄ«s, –re; –tÅ or wanting (Impv.); –re, –tor (Impv.). 3. –t; –tÅ (Impv.); –tur; –tor (Impv.). *Plu*. 1. –mus; –mur. 2. –tis; –stis (Perf. Ind.); –minÄ«. –te, –tÅ te (Impv.); 3. –nt; –Ä"runt (Perf Ind.); –ntur; –ntor (Impv.). –ntÅ (Impv.);

## VERB STEMS.

97. Conjugation consists in appending certain endings to the Stem. We distinguish three different stems in a fully inflected verb,—

I. Present Stem, from which are formed— 1. Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative, 2. Present and Imperfect Subjunctive, 3. The Imperative, 4. The Present Infinitive, – (Active and Passive.) 5. The Present Active Participle, the Gerund, and Gerundive. II. Perfect Stem, from which are formed— 1. Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative, 2. Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, 3. Perfect Infinitive, – (Active.) III. Participial Stem, from which are formed— 1. Perfect Participle, 2. Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative, 3. Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, 4. Perfect Infinitive, – (Passive.)

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:--

INFINITIVE DISTINGUISHING CONJUGATION. TERMINATION. VOWEL. I. –Ä re Ä II. –Ä"re Ä" III. –Ä•re Ä• IV. –Ä«re Ä«

99. PRINCIPAL PARTS. The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and the Perfect Participle[28] 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.

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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.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. FUT. PARTIC.[29] sum esse fuī futÅ«rus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. SINGULAR. PLURAL. sum, *I am*, sumus, *we are*, es, *thou art*, estis, *you are*, est, \_he is\_; sunt, *they are*.

IMPERFECT. eram, *I was*, erÄ mus, *we were*, erÄ s, *thou wast*, erÄ tis, *you were*, erat, \_he was\_; erant, *they were*.

FUTURE. erÅ, *I shall be*, erimus, *we shall be*, eris, *thou wilt be*, eritis, *you will be*, erit, \_he will be\_; erunt, *they will be*.

PERFECT. fuī, *I have been*, *I was*, fuimus, *we have been*, *we were*, fuistī, *thou hast been*, \_thou fuistis, *you have been*, *you wast*, were\_, fuit, *he has been*, \_he was\_; fuērunt, fuÄ"re, *they have been*, *they were*.

PLUPERFECT. fueram, *I had been*, fuerÄ mus, *we had been*, fuerÄ s, *thou hadst been*, fuerÄ tis, *you had been*, fuerat, \_he had been\_; fuerant, *they had been*.

FUTURE PERFECT. fuerÅ, *I shall have been*, fuerimus, *we shall have been*, fueris, *thou wilt have been*, fueritis, *you will have been*, fuerit, \_he will have been\_; fuerint, *they will have been*.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.[30]

PRESENT. SINGULAR. PLURAL. sim, may I be, sīmus, let us be, sÄ«s, mayst thou be, sÄ«tis, be ye, may you be, sit, let him be, \_may he be\_; sint, let them be.

IMPERFECT. essem,[31] *I should be*, essēmus, *we should be*, essēs,[31] *thou wouldst be*, essētis, *you would be*, esset,[31] \_he would be\_; essent,[31] *they would be*.

PERFECT. fuerim, *I may have been*, fuerīmus, *we may have been*, fuerīs, *thou mayst have been*, fuerītis, *you may have been*, fuerit, \_he may have been\_; fuerint, *they may have been*.

PLUPERFECT. fuissem, I should have been, fuissēmus, we should have been. fuissÄ"s, thou wouldst have been, fuissÄ"tis, you would have been, fuisset, \_he would have been\_; fuissent, they would have been.

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ es, \_be thou\_; este, *be ye*, \_Fut.\_ estÅ , *thou shalt be*, estÅ te, *ye shall be*, estÅ , \_he shall be\_; suntÅ , *they shall be*.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ esse, *to be*. \_Perf.\_ fuisse, *to have been*. \_Fut.\_ futūrus esse,[32] \_to be \_Fut.\_ futÅ«rus,[33] *about to be*. about to be\_.

\* \* \* \* \*

FIRST (OR Ā–) CONJUGATION.

101. Active Voice.--AmÅ, I love.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. PERF. PASS. PARTIC. amÅ amÄ re amÄ vÄ« amÄ tus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. SINGULAR. PLURAL. amÅ, *I love*, amÄ mus, *we love*, amÄ s, *you love*, amÄ tis, *you love*, amat, \_he loves\_; amant, *they love*.

IMPERFECT. amÄ bam, *I was loving*,[34] amÄ bÄ mus, *we were loving*, amÄ bÄ s, *you were loving*, amÄ bÄ tis, *you were loving*, amÄ bat, \_he was loving\_; amÄ bant, *they were loving* FUTURE. amÄ bÅ, *I shall love*, amÄ bimus, *we shall love*, amÄ bis, *you will love*, amÄ bitis, *you will love*, amÄ bit, \_he will love\_; amÄ bunt, *they will love*.

PERFECT. amÄ vÄ«, *I have loved*, *I loved*, amÄ vimus, *we have loved*, *we loved*, amÄ vistÄ«, *you have loved*, \_you amÄ vistis, *you have loved*, *you loved* loved\_, amÄ vit, *he has loved*, \_he loved\_; amÄ vÄ"runt, –Ä"re, *they have loved*, *they loved*.

PLUPERFECT. amÄ veram, *I had loved*, amÄ verÄ mus, *we had loved*, amÄ verÄ s, *you had loved*, amÄ verÄ tis, *you had loved*, amÄ verat, \_he had loved\_; amÄ verant, *they had loved*.

FUTURE PERFECT. amÄ verÅ, *I shall have loved*, amÄ verimus, *we shall have loved*, amÄ veris, *you will have loved*, amÄ verit, \_he will have loved\_; amÄ verint, *they will have loved*.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. amem, may I love, amēmus, let us love, amÄ"s, may you love, amÄ"tis, may you love, amet, \_let him love\_; ament, let them love.

IMPERFECT. amÄ rem, *I should love*, amÄ rÄ"mus, *we should love*, amÄ rÄ"s, *you would love*, amÄ rÄ"tis, *you would love*, amÄ ret, \_he would love\_; amÄ rent, *they would love*.

PERFECT. amÄ verim, *I may have loved*, amÄ verÄ«mus, *we may have loved*, amÄ verÄ«s, *you may have loved*, amÄ verÄ«tis, *you may have loved*, amÄ verit, \_he may have loved\_; amÄ verint, *they may have loved*.

PLUPERFECT. amÄ vissem, *I should have loved*, amÄ vÄ«ssÄ"mus, *we should have loved*, amÄ vissÄ"s, *you would have loved*, amÄ vissÄ"tis, *you would have loved*, amÄ visset, \_he would have loved\_; amÄ vissent, *they would have loved*.

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ amÄ , \_love thou\_; amÄ te, *love ye*. \_Fut.\_ amÄ tÅ , *thou shalt love*, amÄ tÅ te, *ye shall love*, amÄ tÅ , \_he shall love\_; amantÅ , *they shall love*.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ amÄ re, *to love*. \_Pres.\_ amÄ ns,[35] *loving*. \_Perf.\_ amÄ visse, *to have loved*. (Gen. amantis.) \_Fut.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus esse, \_to be \_Fut.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus, *about to love*. about to love\_

GERUND. SUPINE. \_Gen.\_ amandī, *of loving*, \_Dat.\_ amandÅ , *for loving*, \_Acc.\_ amandum, *loving*, \_Acc.\_ amÄ tum, *to love*, \_Abl.\_ amandÅ , *by loving*. \_Abl.\_ amÄ tÅ«, *to love*, *be loved*.

102. Passive Voice.--Amor, I am loved.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. amÅ r amÄ rÄ« amÄ tus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. \_I am loved.\_ SINGULAR. PLURAL. amor amÄ mur amÄ ris amÄ minÄ« amÄ tur amantur

IMPERFECT \_I was loved.\_ amÄ bar amÄ bÄ mur amÄ bÄ ris, or -re amÄ bÄ mini amÄ bÄ tur

## amÄ bantur

FUTURE. \_I shall be loved.\_ amÄ bor amÄ bimur amÄ beris, *or* –re amÄ biminÄ« amÄ bitur amÄ buntur

PERFECT *I have been loved*, or \_I was loved.\_ amÄ tus (-a, -um) sum[36] amÄ tÄ« (-ae, -a) sumus amÄ tus es amÄ tÄ« estis amÄ tus est amÄ tÄ« sunt

PLUPERFECT. \_I had been loved.\_ amÄ tus eram[36] amÄ tÄ« erÄ mus amÄ tus erÄ s amÄ tÄ« erÄ tis amÄ tus erat amÄ tÄ« erant

FUTURE PERFECT. \_I shall have been loved.\_ amÄ tus erÅ [36] amÄ tÄ« erimus amÄ tus eris amÄ tÄ« eritis amÄ tus erit amÄ tÄ« erunt

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. May I be loved, \_let him be loved.\_ amer amēmur amÄ"ris, or -re amÄ"mini amÄ"tur amentur

#### IMPERFECT.

*I should be loved*, \_he would be loved.\_ amÄ rer amÄ rÄ"mur amÄ rÄ"ris, *or* –re amÄ rÄ"minÄ« amÄ rÄ"tur amÄ rentur

#### PERFECT.

\_I may have been loved.\_ amÄ tus sim[37] amÄ tÄ« sÄ«mus amÄ tus sÄ«s amÄ ti sÄ«tis amÄ tus sit amÄ ti sint

#### PLUPERFECT.

*I should have been loved*, \_he would have been loved.\_ amÄ tus essem[37] amÄ tÄ« essÄ"mus amÄ tus essÄ"s amÄ tÄ« essÄ"tis amÄ tus esset amÄ ti essent

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ amÄ re,[38] \_be thou amÄ minÄ«, \_be ye loved.\_ loved\_; \_Fut.\_ amÄ tor, *thou shalt be loved*, amÄ tor, \_he shall be amantor, *they shall be loved*. loved\_;

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ amÄ rÄ«, *to be loved*. \_Perf.\_ amÄ tus esse, \_to have been \_Perfect.\_ amÄ tus, *loved*, loved\_. *having been loved*. \_Fut.\_ amÄ tum Ä«rÄ«, \_to be about \_Gerundive.\_ amandus, *to be to be loved*. loved\_. loved\_. \_deserving to be loved.\_

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SECOND (OR Ä'-) CONJUGATION.

103. Active voice.--MoneÅ, \_I advise.\_

PRINCIPAL PARTS. PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. PERF. PASS. PARTIC. moneŠmonēre monuÄ« monitus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. \_I advise.\_

SINGULAR. PLURAL. moneŠmonēmus monÄ"s monÄ"tis monet monent

IMPERFECT. *I was advising*, or \_I advised.\_ monēbam monÄ"bÄ mus monÄ"bÄ s monÄ"bÄ tis monÄ"bat monÄ"bant

FUTURE. \_I shall advise.\_ monēbÅ monÄ"bimus monÄ"bis monÄ"bitis monÄ"bit monÄ"bunt

PERFECT. *I have advised*, or \_I advised.\_ monuī monuimus monuistÄ« monuistis monuit monuÄ"runt, *or* –Ä"re

PLUPERFECT. \_I had advised.\_ monueram monuerÄ mus monuerÄ s monuerÄ tis monuerat monuerant

FUTURE PERFECT. \_I shall have advised.\_ monuerÅ monuerimus monuerits monuerit monuerint

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PRESENT.

May I advise, \_let him advise.\_ moneam moneÄ mus moneÄ s moneÄ tis moneat moneant

IMPERFECT. *I should advise*, \_he would advise.\_ monērem monÄ"rÄ"mus monÄ"rÄ"s monÄ"rÄ"tis monÄ"ret monÄ"rent

PERFECT. \_I may have advised.\_ monuerim monuerīmus monuerÄ«s monuerÄ«tis monuerit monuerint

PLUPERFECT. *I should have advised*, \_he would have advised.\_ monuissēmus monuissÄ"s monuissÄ"tis monuissent

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ monē, \_advise thou\_; monÄ"te, *advise ye*. \_Fut.\_ monētÅ , \_thou shall monÄ"tÅ te, *ye shall advise*, advise\_, monētÅ , \_he shall advise\_; monentÅ , \_they shall advise.\_

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ monēre, *to advise*. \_Pres.\_ monēns, *advising*. \_Perf.\_ monuisse, \_to have (Gen. monentis.) advised\_. \_Fut.\_ monitūrus esse, \_to be \_Fut.\_ monitÅ«rus, *about to advise*. advise\_.

GERUND. SUPINE. \_Gen.\_ monendī, *of advising*, \_Dat.\_ monendÅ , *for advising*, \_Acc.\_ monendum, *advising*, \_Acc.\_ monitum, *to advise*, \_Abl.\_ monendÅ , *by advising*. \_Abl.\_ monitū, *to advise*, *be advised*.

104. Passive voice.--Moneor, I am advised.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. moneor monērÄ« monitus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. \_I am advised.\_

SINGULAR. PLURAL. moneor monēmur monÄ"ris monÄ"minÄ« monÄ"tur monentur

IMPERFECT. \_I was advised.\_ monēbä monÄ"bä mur monÄ"bä ris, *or* -re monēbä minÄ« monÄ"bä tur monÄ"bantur

FUTURE. \_I shall be advised.\_ monēbor monÄ"bimur monÄ"beris, *or* -re monēbiminÄ« monÄ"bitur monÄ"buntur

PERFECT. *I have been advised*, \_I was advised.\_ monitus sum monitī sumus monitUs est monitÄ« estis monitus est monitÄ« sunt

PLUPERFECT. \_I had been advised.\_ monitus eram monitī erÄ mus monitus erÄ s monitÄ« erÄ tis monitus erat monitÄ« erant

FUTURE PERFECT. \_I shall have been advised.\_ monitus erŠmonitī erimus monitus eris monitÄ« eritis monitus erit monitÄ« erunt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. *May I be advised*, \_let him be advised.\_ monear moneÄ mur moneÄ ris, *or* -re moneÄ minÄ« moneÄ tur moneantur

IMPERFECT. *I should be advised*, \_he would be advised.\_ monērer monÄ"rÄ"mur monÄ"rÄ"ris, *or* –re monÄ"rÄ"minÄ« monÄ"rÄ"tur monÄ"rentur

PERFECT. \_I may have been advised.\_ monitus sim monitī sÄ«mus monitus sÄ«s monitÄ« sÄ«tis monitus sit monitÄ« sint

PLUPERFECT. *I should have been advised*, \_he would have been advised.\_ monitus essem monitī essÄ"mus monitus essÄ"s monitÄ« essÄ"tis monitus esset monitÄ« essent

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ monēre, \_be thou advised\_; monÄ"minÄ«, *be ye advised*. \_Fut.\_ monētor, *thou shalt be advised*, monētor, \_he shall be monentor, *they shall be advised*. advised\_.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ monērÄ«, *to be advised*. \_Perfect.\_ monitus, *advised*, *having been advised*. \_Perf.\_ monitus esse, *to have been advised* \_Fut.\_ monitum īrÄ«, \_to be about \_Gerundive.\_ monendus, \_to be to be advised.\_ advised\_, \_deserving to be advised.\_

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THIRD (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION.

105. Active Voice.--RegÅ, I rule.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. PERF. PASS. PARTIC. regå regere rÄ"xÄ« rÄ"ctus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. I rule SINGULAR. PLURAL. regÅ regimus regis regitis regit regunt

IMPERFECT. *I was ruling*, or *I ruled*. regēbam regÄ"bÄ mus regÄ"bÄ s regÄ"bÄ tis regÄ"bat regÄ"bant

FUTURE. I shall rule. regam regēmus regÄ"s regÄ"tis reget regent

PERFECT. I have ruled, or I ruled rēxÄ« rÄ"ximus rÄ"xistÄ« rÄ"xistis rÄ"xit rÄ"xÄ"runt, or -Ä"re

PLUPERFECT. I had ruled. rēxeram rÄ"xerÄ mus rÄ"xerÄ s rÄ"xerÄ tis rÄ"xerat rÄ"xerant

FUTURE PERFECT. I shall have ruled. rēxerÅ rÄ"xerimus rÄ"xeris rÄ"xeritis rÄ"xerit rÄ"xerint

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. May I rule, \_let him rule.\_ regam regÄ mus regÄ s regÄ tis regat regant

IMPERFECT. I should rule, \_he would rule.\_ regerem regerēmus regerÄ"s regerÄ"tis regeret regerent

PERFECT. \_I may have ruled.\_ rēxerim rÄ"xerÄ«mus rÄ"xerÄ«s rÄ"xerÄ«tis rÄ"xerit rÄ"xerint

PLUPERFECT. *I should have ruled*, \_he would have ruled.\_ rēxissem rÄ"xissÄ"mus rÄ"xissÄ"s rÄ"xissÄ"tis rÄ"xisset rÄ"xissent

IMPERATIVE. rege, \_rule thou\_; regite, *rule ye*. regitÅ , *thou shall rule*, regitÅ te, *ye shall rule*, regitÅ , \_he shall rule\_; reguntÅ , *they shall rule*.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. regere, *to rule*. \_Pres.\_ regēns, *ruling*. rēxisse, *to have ruled*. (Gen. regentis.) rēctÅ«rus esse, \_to be about to \_Fut.\_ rÄ"ctÅ«rus, *about to rule* rule\_.

GERUND. SUPINE. regendī, *of ruling*, regendÅ, *for ruling*, regendum, *ruling*, \_Acc.\_ rēctum, *to rule*, regendÅ, *by ruling*. \_Abl.\_ rēctÅ«, *to rule*, *be ruled*.

106. Passive Voice.--Regor, I am ruled.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. regor regī rÄ"ctus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. \_I am ruled.\_

SINGULAR. PLURAL. regor regimur regeris regiminī regitur reguntur

IMPERFECT. \_I was ruled.\_ regēbä mur regÄ"bÄ ris, *or* -re regēbÄ minÄ« regÄ"bÄ tur regÄ"bantur

FUTURE. \_I shall be ruled.\_ regar regēmur regÄ"ris, or -re regÄ"minÄ« regÄ"tur regentur

PERFECT. I have been ruled, or I was ruled. rēctus sum rÄ"ctÄ« sumus rÄ"ctus es rÄ"ctÄ« estis rÄ"ctus est rÄ"ctÄ« sunt

PLUPERFECT. \_I had been ruled.\_ rēctus eram rÄ"ctÄ« erÄ mus rÄ"ctus erÄ s rÄ"ctÄ« erÄ tis rÄ"ctus erat rÄ"ctÄ« erant

FUTURE PERFECT. *I shall have been ruled* rēctus erÅ rÄ"ctÄ« erimus rÄ"ctus eris rÄ"ctÄ« eritis rÄ"ctä« erunt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. *May I be ruled*, \_let him be ruled.\_ regar regÄ mur regÄ ris, *or* –re regÄ minÄ« regÄ tur regantur

IMPERFECT. *I should be ruled*, \_he would be ruled.\_ regerer regerēmur regerÄ"ris, *or* –re regerÄ"minÄ« regerÄ"tur regerentur

PERFECT. \_I may have been ruled.\_ rēctus sim rÄ"ctÄ« sÄ«mus rÄ"ctus sÄ«s rÄ"ctÄ« sÄ«tis rÄ"ctus sit rÄ"ctÄ« sint

PLUPERFECT. *I should have been ruled*, \_he would have been ruled.\_ rēctus essem rÄ"ctÄ« essÄ"mus rÄ"ctus essÄ"s rectÄ« essÄ"tis rÄ"ctus esset rectÄ« essent

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ regere, \_be thou ruled\_; regiminī, *be ye ruled*. \_Fut.\_ regitor, *thou shalt be ruled*, regitor, \_he shall be reguntor, *they shall be ruled*. ruled\_;

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ regī, *to be ruled*. \_Perfect.\_ rēctus, *ruled*, *having been ruled*. \_Perf.\_ rēctus esse, \_to have been \_Gerundive.\_ regendus, *to be ruled*. ruled\_, *deserving to be ruled*. \_Fut.\_ rēctum Ä«rÄ«, *to be about to be ruled*.

\* \* \* \* \*

# FOURTH (OR Ä<sup>a</sup>–) CONJUGATION.

107. Active voice.--AudiÅ, I hear.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. PERF. PASS. PARTIC. audiŠaudīre audÄ«vÄ« audÄ«tus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. \_I hear.\_

SINGULAR. PLURAL. audiŠaudīmus audÄ«s audÄ«tis audit audiunt

IMPERFECT. I was hearing, or \_I heard.\_ audiēbam audiÄ"bÄ mus audiÄ"bÄ s audiÄ"bÄ tis audiÄ"bat audiÄ"bant

FUTURE. \_I shall hear.\_ audiam audiēmus audiÄ"s audiÄ"tis audiet audient

PERFECT. *I have heard*, or \_I heard.\_ audīvÄ« audÄ«vimus audÄ«vistÄ« audÄ«vistis audÄ«vit audÄ«vÄ" runt, \_or \_-Ä"re

PLUPERFECT. \_I had heard.\_ audīveram audÄ«verÄ mus audÄ«verÄ s audÄ«verÄ tis audÄ«verat audÄ«verant

FUTURE PERFECT. \_I shall have heard.\_ audīverÅ audÄ«verimus audÄ«veris audÄ«veritis audÄ«verit audÄ«verint

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. May I hear, \_let him hear.\_ audiam audiÄ mus audiÄ s audiÄ tis audiat audiant

IMPERFECT. I should hear, \_he would hear.\_ audīrem audÄ«rÄ"mus audÄ«rÄ"s audÄ«rÄ"tis audÄ«ret audÄ«rent

PERFECT. \_I may have heard.\_ audīverim audÄ«verÄ«mus audÄ«verÄ«s audÄ«verÄ«tis audÄ«verit audÄ«verint

PLUPERFECT. *I should have heard*, \_he would have heard.\_ audīvissem audÄ«vissÄ"mus audÄ«vissÄ"s audÄ«vissÄ"tis audÄ«visset audÄ«vissent

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ audī, \_hear thou\_; audÄ«te, *hear ye*. \_Fut.\_ audītÅ , *thou shalt hear*, audītÅ te, *ye shall hear*, audītÅ , \_he shall hear\_; audiuntÅ , *they shall hear*.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ audīre, *to hear*. \_Pres.\_ audēns, *hearing*. \_Perf.\_ audīvisse, \_to have (Gen. audientis.) heard\_. \_Fut.\_ audÄ«tÅ«rus esse, \_to be \_Fut.\_ audÄ«tÅ«rus, *about to about to hear*. hear\_.

GERUND. SUPINE \_Gen.\_ audiendī, of hearing, \_Dat.\_ audiendÅ , for hearing, \_Acc.\_ audiendum, hearing, \_Acc.\_ audÄ«tum, to hear, \_Abl.\_ audiendÅ , by hearing. \_Abl.\_ audÄ«tÅ«, \_to hear, be heard\_.

108. Passive Voice.--Audior, I am heard.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. audior audīrÄ« audÄ«tus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. I am heard.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. audior audīmur audÄ«ris audÄ«minÄ« audÄ«tur audiuntur

IMPERFECT. *I was heard*. audiēbar audiÄ"bÄ mur audiÄ"bÄ ris, *or* –re audiÄ"bÄ minÄ« audiÄ"bÄ tur audiÄ"bA tur audiÄ

FUTURE. I shall be heard. audiar audiä"mur audiä"ris, or -re audiä"minä« audiä"tur audientur

PERFECT. I have been heard, or I was heard. audītus sum audÄ«tÄ« sumus audÄ«tus es audÄ«tÄ« estis audÄ«tus est audÄ«tÄ« sunt

PLUPERFECT. *I had been heard*. audītus eram audÄ«tÄ« erÄ mus audÄ«tus erÄ s audÄ«tÄ« erÄ tis audÄ«tus erat audÄ«tÄ« erant

FUTURE PERFECT. *I shall have been heard*. audītus erÅ audÄ«tÄ« erimus audÄ«tus eris audÄ«tÄ« erintis audÄ«tä« erintis audÄ«tä» erint

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard. audiar audiÄ mur audiÄ ris, or -re audiÄ minÄ« audiÄ tur audiantur

IMPERFECT. *I should be heard*, *he would be heard*. audīrer audÄ«rÄ"mur audÄ«rÄ"ris, *or* –re audirÄ"minÄ« audÄ«rÄ"tur audÄ«rentur

PERFECT. I may have been heard. audītus sim audÄ«tÄ« sÄ«mus audÄ«tus sÄ«s audÄ«tÄ« sÄ«tis audÄ«tus sit audÄ«tÄ« sint

#### PLUPERFECT.

*I should have been heard, he would have been heard.* audītus essem audÄ«tÄ« essÄ"mus audÄ«tus essÄ"s audÄ«tÄ« essÄ"tis audÄ«tus esset audÄ«tÄ« essent

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ audīre, \_be thou heard\_; audÄ«minÄ«, be ye heard. \_Fut.\_ audÄ«tor, *thou shalt be heard*, audītor, \_he shall be audiuntor, *they shall be heard*. heard\_;

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ audīrÄ«, *to be heard*. \_Perfect.\_ audītus, *heard*, *having been heard* \_Perf.\_ audītus esse, \_to have \_Gerundive.\_ audiendus, *to be been heard*. heard\_, *deserving to be heard* \_Fut.\_ audītum Ä«rÄ«, *to be about to be heard*.

\* \* \* \* \*

VERBS IN -IŌ OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

109. 1. Verbs in -iÅ 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) capiÅ, \_to take\_; cupiÅ, \_to desire\_; faciÅ, \_to make\_; fodiÅ, \_to dig\_; fugiÅ, \_to flee\_; jaciÅ, \_to throw\_; pariÅ, \_to bear\_; quatiÅ, \_to shake\_; rapiÅ, \_to seize\_; sapiÅ, *to taste*.

b) Compounds of laciÅ and speciÅ (both ante-classical); as, alliciÅ, \_entice\_; cÅ nspiciÅ, behold.

c) The deponents gradior, \_to go\_; morior, to die, patior, to suffer.

110. Active voice.--CapiÅ, I take.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. PERF. PASS. PARTIC. capiÅ, capere, cÄ"pÄ«, captus.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. capiÅ, capis, capit; capimus, capitis, capiunt.

IMPERFECT. capiēbam, -iÄ"bÄ s, -iÄ"bat; capiÄ"bÄ mus, -iÄ"bÄ tis, -iÄ"bant.

FUTURE. capiam, -iēs, -iet; capiÄ"mus, -iÄ"tis, -ient.

PERFECT. cēpÄ«, -istÄ«, -it; cÄ"pimus, -istis, -Ä"runt or -Ä"re.

PLUPERFECT. cēperam, -erÄ s, -erat; cÄ"perÄ mus, -erÄ tis, -erant.

FUTURE PERFECT. cēperÅ, -eris, -erit; cÄ"perimus, -eritis, -erint.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. capiam, -iÄ s, -iat; capiÄ mus, -iÄ tis, -iant.

IMPERFECT. caperem, -erēs, -eret; caperÄ"mus, -erÄ"tis, -erent.

PERFECT. cēperim, -eris, -erit; cÄ"perÄ«mus, -erÄ«tis, -erint.

PLUPERFECT. cēpissem, -issÄ"s, -isset; cÄ"pissÄ"mus, -issÄ"tis, -issent.

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ cape; capite. \_Fut.\_ capitÅ , capitÅ te, capitÅ ; capiuntÅ .

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ capere \_Pres.\_ capiēns. \_Perf.\_ cÄ"pisse. \_Fut.\_ captÅ«rus esse. \_Fut.\_ captÅ«rus.

GERUND. SUPINE. \_Gen.\_ capiendī, \_Dat.\_ capiendÅ , \_Acc.\_ capiendum, \_Acc.\_ captum, \_Abl.\_ capiendÅ . \_Abl.\_ captÅ«.

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

PRINCIPAL PARTS. PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. capior, capī, captus sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. capior, caperis, capitur; capimur, capiminī, capiuntur.

IMPERFECT. capiēbar, -iÄ"bÄ ris, -iÄ"bÄ tur; capiÄ"bÄ mur, -iÄ"bÄ minÄ«, -iÄ"bantur.

FUTURE. capiar, -iēris, -iÄ"tur; capiÄ"mur, -iÄ"minÄ«, -ientur.

PERFECT. captus sum, es, est; captī sumus, estis, sunt.

PLUPERFECT. captus eram, erÄ s, erat; captÄ« erÄ mus, erÄ tis, erant.

FUTURE PERFECT. captus erÅ, eris, erit; captÄ« erimus, eritis, erunt.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. capiar, -iÄ ris, -iÄ tur; capiÄ mur, -iÄ minÄ«, -iantur.

IMPERFECT. caperer, -erēris, -erÄ"tur; caperÄ"mur, -erÄ"minÄ«, -erentur.

PERFECT. captus sim, sīs, sit; captÄ« sÄ«mus, sÄ«tis, sint.

PLUPERFECT. captus essem, essēs, esset; captÄ« essÄ"mus, essÄ"tis, essent.

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ capere; capiminī. \_Fut.\_ capitor, capitor; capiuntor.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ capī. \_Perf.\_ captus esse. \_Perfect.\_ captus. \_Fut.\_ captum Ä«rÄ«. \_Gerundive.\_ capiendus.

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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.

113. Paradigms of Deponent Verbs are--

I. Conj. mīror, mÄ«rÄ rÄ«, mÄ«rÄ tus sum, *admire*. II. Conj. vereor, vererī, veritus sum, *fear*. III. Conj. sequar, sequä«, secÅ«tus sum, *follow*. IV. Conj. largior, largä«rÄ«, largä«tus sum, *give*. III. (in –ior) patior, patÄ«, passus sum, *suffer*.

INDICATIVE MOOD. I. II. III. IV. III (in –ior) \_Pres.\_ mÄ«ror vereor sequor largior patior mÄ«rÄ ris verÄ"ris sequeris largiris pateris mÄ«rÄ tur verÄ"tur sequitur largÄ«tur patitur mÄ«ramur verÄ"mur sequimur largÄ«mur patimur mÄ«rÄ minÄ« verÄ"minÄ« sequiminÄ« largÄ«minÄ« patiminÄ« mÄ«rantur verentur sequuntur largiuntur patiuntur \_Impf.\_ mÄ«rÄ bar verÄ"bar sequÄ"bar largiÄ"bar patiÄ"bar \_Fut.\_ mÄ«rÄ bor verÄ"bor sequar largiar patiar \_Perf.\_ mirÄ tus sum veritus sum secÅ«tus sum largÄ«tus sum passus sum \_Plup.\_ mÄ«rÄ tus veritus secÅ«tus largÄ«tus passus eram eram eram eram \_F.P.\_ mÄ«rÄ tus erÅ veritus erÅ largÄ«tus erÅ passus erÅ

SUBJUNCTIVE. \_Pres.\_ mīrer verear sequar largiar patiar \_Impf.\_ mÄ«rÄ rer verÄ"rer sequerer largÄ«rer paterer \_Perf.\_ mÄ«rÄ tus sim veritus sim secÅ«tus sim largÄ«tus sim passus sim \_Plup.\_ mÄ«rÄ tus veritus sectÅ«tus largÄ«tus passus essem essem essem essem

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ mīrÄ re, verÄ"re, sequere, largÄ«re, patere, etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. \_Fut.\_ mÄ«rÄ tor, verÄ"tor, sequitor, largÄ«tor, patitor, etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

INFINITIVE. \_Pres.\_ mīrÄ ri verÄ"rÄ« sequÄ« largÄ«rÄ« patÄ« \_Perf.\_ mÄ«rÄ tus veritus secÅ«tus largÄ«tus passus esse esse esse esse \_Fut.\_ mÄ«rÄ tÅ«rus veritÅ«rus secÅ«tÅ«rus largÄ«tÅ«rus passÅ«rus esse esse esse esse esse

PARTICIPLES. \_Pres.\_ mīrÄ ns verÄ"ns sequÄ"ns largiÄ"ns patiÄ"ns \_Fut.\_ mÄ«rÄ tÅ«rus veritÅ«rus secÅ«tÅ«rus largitÅ«rus passÅ«rus \_Perf.\_ mÄ«rÄ tus veritus secÅ«tus largitus passus \_Ger.\_ mÄ«randus verendus sequendus largiendus patiendus

GERUND. mīrandÄ« verendÄ« sequendÄ« largiendÄ« patiendÄ« mirandÅ, verendÅ, sequendÅ, largiendÅ, patiendÅ, etc. etc. etc. etc.

SUPINE. mīrÄ tum, veritum, secÅ«tum, largÄ«tum, passum, -tÅ« -tÅ« -tÅ« -tÅ« -sÅ«

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#### 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—

audeÅ, audÄ"re, ausus sum, to dare. gaudeÅ, gaudÄ"re, gÄ vÄ«sus sum, to rejoice. soleÅ, solÄ"re,

solitus sum, to be wont. fīdÅ, fÄ«dere, fÄ«sus sum, to trust.

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

adolēscÅ, \_grow up\_; adultus, *having grown up*, cēnÄ re, \_dine\_; cÄ"nÄ tus, *having dined*. placēre, \_please\_; placitus, *having pleased*, *agreeable*. prandēre, \_lunch\_; prÄ nsus, *having lunched*. pÅ tÄ re, \_drink\_; pÅ tus, *having drunk*. jūrÄ re, \_swear\_; jÅ«rÄ tus, *having sworn*.

a. JūrÄ tus is used in a passive sense also.

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

revertor, revertī (Inf.), revertÄ« (Perf.), to return. dÄ"vertor, dÄ"vertÄ« (Inf.), dÄ"vertÄ« (Perf.), to turn aside.

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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.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus (-a, -um) sum, *I am about to love*. \_Inf.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus eram, *I was about to love*. \_Fut.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus erÅ, *I shall be about to love*. \_Perf.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus fuÄ«, \_I have been (was) about to love\_. \_Plup.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus fueram, *I had been about to love*. \_Fut. P.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus fuerÅ, *I shall have been about to love*.

SUBJUNCTIVE. \_Pres.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus sim, may I be about to love. \_Imp.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus essem, I should be about to love. \_Perf.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus fuerim, I may have been about to love. \_Plup.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus fuissem, I should have been about to love.

INFINITIVE. \_Pres.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus esse, to be about to love. \_Perf.\_ amÄ tÅ«rus fuisse, to have been about to love.

Passive Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE. \_Pres.\_ amandus (-a, -um) sum, *I am to be loved, must be loved*. \_Imp.\_ amandus eram, *I was to be loved*. \_Fut.\_ amandus erÅ , *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 fuerÅ , *I shall have deserved to be loved*.

SUBJUNCTIVE. \_Pres.\_ amandus sim, *may I deserve to be loved*. \_Imp.\_ amandus essem, *I should deserve to be loved*. \_Perf.\_ amandus fuerim, *I may have deserved to be loved*. \_Plup.\_ amendus fuissem, *I should have deserved to be loved*.

INFINITIVE. \_Pres.\_ amandus esse, to deserve to be loved. \_Perf.\_ amantus fuisse, to have deserved to be loved.

58

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## PECULIARITIES OF CONJUGATION.

116. 1. Perfects in  $-\ddot{A} v\ddot{A}$ «,  $-\ddot{A}$ "v $\ddot{A}$ «, and  $-\ddot{A}$ «v $\ddot{A}$ «, with the forms derived from them, often drop the ve or vi before endings beginning with r or s. So also nÅ v $\ddot{A}$ « (from nÅ scÅ ) and the compounds of mÅ v $\ddot{A}$ « (from moveÅ ). Thus:---

amÄ vistÄ« amÄ stÄ« dÄ"lÄ"vistÄ« dÄ"lÄ"stÄ« amÄ visse amÄ sse dÄ"lÄ"visse dÄ"lÄ"sse amÄ vÄ"runt amÄ runt dÄ"lÄ"vÄ"runt dÄ"lÄ"runt amÄ verim amÄ rim dÄ"lÄ"verim dÄ"lÄ"rim amÄ veram amÄ ram dÄ"lÄ"veram dÄ"lÄ"ram amÄ verÅ amÄ rÅ dÄ"lÄ"verÅ dÄ"lÄ"rÅ nŠvistī nÅ stÄ« nÅ verim nÅ rim nÅ visse nÅ sse nÅ veram nÅ ram audÄ«vistÄ« audÄ«stÄ« audīvisse audÄ«sse

2. In the Gerund and Gerundive of the Third and Fourth Conjugations, the endings –undus, –undÄ«, often occur instead of –endus and –endÄ«, as faciundus, faciundÄ«.

3. DīcÅ, dÅ«cÅ, faciÅ, form the Imperatives, dÄ«c, dÅ«c, fac. But compounds of faciÅ form the Imperative in –fice, as cÅ nfice. Compounds of dÄ«cÅ, dÅ«cÅ, accent the ultima; as, Ä"dÅ«Â′c, Ä"dÄ«Â′c.

4. Archaic and Poetic forms:---

a. The ending –ier in the Present Infinitive Passive; as, amÄ rier, monÄ"rier, dÄ«cier, for amÄ rÄ«, monÄ"rÄ«, dÄ«cÄ«.

b. The ending  $-\ddot{A}$ «bam for  $-i\ddot{A}$ "bam in Imperfects of the Fourth Conjugation, and  $-\ddot{A}$ «bÅ for -iam in Futures; as, scībam, scÄ«bÅ, for sciÄ"bam, sciam.

c. Instead of the fuller forms, in such words as dīxistÄ«, scrÄ«psistis, surrÄ"xisse, we sometimes find dÄ«xtÄ«, scrÄ«pstis, surrÄ"xe, etc.

d. The endings –im, –Ä«s, etc. (for –am, –Ä s, etc.) occur in a few Subjunctive forms; as, edim (\_eat\_), duint, perduint.

5. In the Future Active and Perfect Passive Infinitive, the auxiliary esse is often omitted; as, Ä ctÅ«rum for Ä cturum esse; Ä"jectus for Ä"jectus esse.

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# FORMATION OF THE VERB STEMS.

Formation of the Present Stem.

117. Many verbs employ the simple Verb Stem for the Present Stem;[39] as, dīcere, amÄ re, monÄ"re, audÄ«re. Others modify the Verb Stem to form the Present, as follows:--

1. By appending the vowels, Ä, Ä", Ä«; as,---

Present Stem Verb Stem juvÄ re, juvÄ – juv–. augÄ"re, augÄ"– aug–. vincÄ«re, vincÄ«– vinc–.

2. By adding i, as capiÅ, 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, fundÅ

(Stem fud–), rumpÅ (Stem rup–).

4. By appending -n to the Verb Stem; as,--

cern-Å pell-Å (for pel-nÅ).

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

flect-Å.

6. By appending sc to the Verb Stem; as,--

crēsc-Å. scÄ«sc-Å.

7. By Reduplication, that is, by prefixing the initial consonant of the Verb Stem with i; as,--

gi-gn-Å (root gen-), si-st-Å (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,---

amÄ v-Ä«, dÄ"lÄ"v-Ä«, audÄ«v-Ä«.

2. By adding u (in case of some Consonant Stems); as,--

strepu-Ä«, genu-Ä«, alu-Ä«.

3. By adding s (in case of most Consonant Stems); as,--

carp-Å, Perfect carps-Ä«. scrÄ«b-Å, " scrÄ«ps-Ä« (for scrÄ«b-sÄ«). rÄ«d-eÅ, " rÄ«s-Ä« (for rÄ«d-sÄ«). sent-iÅ, " sÄ"ns-Ä« (for sent-sÄ«). dÄ«c-Å, " dÄ«x-Ä« (i.e. dÄ«c-sÄ«).

a. Note that before the ending  $-s\ddot{A}$ « a Dental Mute (t, d) is lost; a Guttural Mute (c, g) unites with s 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 consonant with the following vowel or e; as,--

currÅ, Perfect cu-currÄ«. poscÅ, "po-poscÄ«. pellÅ, "pe-pulÄ«.

NOTE 1.––Compounds, with the exception of dÅ, stÅ, sistÅ, discÅ, poscÅ, omit the reduplication. Thus: com–pulÄ«, but re–poposcÄ«.

NOTE 2.—Verbs beginning with sp or st retain both consonants in the reduplication, but drop s from the stem; as, spondeÅ, spo-pondÄ«; stÅ, stetÄ«.

b) The short vowel of the Verb Stem is lengthened; as, legŠ, lēgÄ«; agÅ , Ä"gÄ«. Note that Äf by this process becomes Ä".

c) The vowel of the Verb Stem is unchanged; as, vertŠ, vertī; minuÅ , minuÄ«.

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,--

amÄ –re, Participle amÄ –tus. dÄ"lÄ"–re, " dÄ"lÄ"–tus, audÄ«–re, " audÄ«–tus, leg–ere, " lÄ"c–tus, scrÄ«b–ere, " scrÄ«p–tus, sentÄ«–re, " sÄ"n–sus (for sent–tus). caed–ere, " cae–sus (for caed–tus).

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

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

lÄ b-Ä«, Participle lÄ p-sus. fÄ«g-ere, " fÄ«-xus.

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

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

domÄ -re, dom-Ä-tus. monÄ"-re, mon-Ä-tus.

4. The Future Active Participle is usually identical in its stem with the Perfect Passive Participle; as, amÄ –tus, amÄ tÅ«rus; moni–tus, monitÅ«rus. But––

juvÄ –re, Perf. Partic. jÅ«tus, has Fut. Act. Partic. juvÄ tÅ«rus.[40] lavÄ –re, " " lautus, " " " lavÄ tÅ«rus. par–ere, " " partus, " " " paritÅ«rus. ru–ere, " " rutus, " " " ruitÅ«rus. secÄ*f*–re, " " sectus, " " secÄ tÅ«rus. fru–Ä-, " " frÅ«ctus, " " " fruitÅ«rus. mor–Ä«, " " mortuus, " " " moritÅ«rus. orÄ«–rÄ«, " " ortus, " " " ortuš, " " "

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# LIST OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS, WITH PRINCIPAL PARTS.

First (\_Ä€\_–) Conjugation.

120. I. PERFECT IN -VÄ<sup>a</sup>.

amÅ amÄ re amÄ vÄ« amÄ tus love All regular verbs of the First Conjugation follow this model.

pÅ tÅ pÅ tÄ re pÅ tÄ vÄ« pÅ tus (§ 114, drink 2)

II. PERFECT IN –UÄ<sup>a</sup>.

crepÅ crepÄ re crepuÄ« crepitÅ«rus *rattle* cubÅ cubÄ re cubuÄ« cubitÅ«rus *lie down* domÅ domÄ re domuÄ« domitus *tame* fricÅ fricÄ re fricuÄ« frictus *and rub* fricÄ tus micÅ micÄ re micuÄ« ----- *glitter* dīmicÅ dÄ«micÄ re dÄ«micÄ vÄ« dÄ«micÄ tum *fight* (est)[41] ex–plicÅ explicÄ re explicÄ vÄ« explicÄ tus *unfold* (–uÄ«) (–itus) im–plicÅ implicÄ re implicÄ vÄ« implicÄ tus *entwine* 

(-uī) (-itus) secÅ secÄ re secuÄ« sectus *cut* sonÅ sonÄ re sonuÄ« sonÄ tÅ«rus *sound* tonÅ tonÄ re tonuÄ« ----- *thunder* vetÅ vetÄ re vetuÄ« vetitus *forbid* III. PERFECT IN -Ä<sup>a</sup> WITH LENGTHENING OF THE STEM VOWEL.

juvÅ juvÄ re jÅ«vÄ« jÅ«tus help lavÅ lavÄ re lÄ vÄ« lautus wash IV. PERFECT REDUPLICATED.

stÅ stÄ re stetÄ« stÄ tÅ«rus

V. DEPONENTS.

These are all regular, and follow \_mīror\_, \_mÄ«rÄ rÄ«\_, \_mÄ«rÄ tus sum\_.

Second (\_Ä'\_-) Conjugation.

121. I. PERFECT IN -VÄ<sup>a</sup>.

dēleÅ dÄ"lÄ"re dÄ"lÄ"vÄ« dÄ"lÄ"tus *destroy* fleŠflēre flÄ"vÄ« flÄ"tus *weep*, *lament* com–pleÅ [42] complÄ"re complÄ"vÄ« complÄ"tus *fill up* aboleŠabolēre abolÄ"vÄ« abolitus *destroy* cieŠ[43] ciēre cÄ«vÄ« citus *set in motion* II. PERFECT IN –UÄ<sup>a</sup>.

a. Type –eÅ , –Ä"re, –uÄ«, –itus.

arceŠarcēre arcuÄ« *keep off* coerceŠcoercēre coercuÄ« coercitus *hold in check* exerceŠexercēre exercuÄ« exercitus *practise* caleŠcalēre caluÄ« calitÅ«rus *be warm* careŠcarēre caruÄ« caritÅ«rus *be without* doleŠdolēre doluÄ« dolitÅ«rus *grieve* habeŠhabēre habuÄ« habitus *have* dēbeÅ dÄ"bÄ"re dÄ"buÄ« dÄ"bitus *owe* praebeÅ praebÄ"re praebuÄ« praebitus *offer* jaceŠjacēre jacuÄ« jacitÅ«rus *lie* mereŠmerēre meruÄ« meritus *earn*, *deserve* moneŠmonēre monuÄ« monitus *advise* noceŠnocēre nocuÄ« nocitum (est) *injure* pÄ reÅ pÄ rÄ"re pÄ ruÄ« pÄ ritÅ«rus *obey* placeŠplacēre tacuÄ« tacitÅ«rus *be silent* terreŠterrēre terruÄ« territus *frighten* valeŠvalēre valuÄ« valitÅ«rus *be strong* NOTE 1.—The following lack the Participial Stem:— egeÅ egÄ"re eguÄ« ----- *want* Ä"mineÅ Ä"minÄ"re Ä"minuÄ« ---- *stand forth* flŠreŠflŠrēre flÅ ruÄ« ----- *bloom* horreŠhorrēre horruÄ« ----- *bristle* lateŠlatēre palluÄ« ----- *be pale* pateŠpatēre patuÄ« splendÄ"re splenduÄ« ----- *gleam* studeŠstudēre studÄ« ----- *be amazed* timeŠtimēre timuÄ« ----- *be green* and others.

NOTE 2.—The following are used only in the Present System:— aveÅ avÄ"re ——— *wish* frīgeÅ frÄ«gÄ"re ——— *be cold* immineŠimminēre ——— *overhang* maereŠmaerēre ——— *mourn* polleŠpollēre ——— *be strong* and others.

b. Type –eÅ , –Ä"re, –uÄ«, –tus (–sus).

cēnseÅ cÄ"nsä"re cÄ"nsuä« cÄ"nsus *estimate* doceÅ docä"re docuÄ« doctus *teach* misceÅ miscä"re miscuÄ« mixtus *mix* teneÅ tenä"re tenuÄ« ---- *hold* So \_contineŠ\_ and \_sustineŠ\_; but-- retineŠretinēre retinuÄ« retentus *retain* obtineŠobtinēre obtinuÄ« obtentus *maintain* torreŠtorrēre torruÄ« tostus *bake* III. PERFECT IN –SÄ<sup>a</sup>.

augeŠaugēre auxÄ« auctus *increase* torqueŠtorquēre torsÄ« tortus *twist* indulgeŠindulgēre indulsÄ« –––– *indulge* lūceÅ lÅ«cÄ"re lÅ«xÄ« –––– *be light* lūgeÅ lÅ«gÄ"re lÅ«xÄ« –––– *mourn* jubeŠjubēre jussÄ« jussus *order* per–mulceÅ permulcÄ"re permulsÄ« permulsus *soothe* rīdeÅ

rīdÄ"re rÄ«sÄ« rÄ«sum (est) *laugh* suÄ deÅ suÄ dÄ"re suÄ sÄ« suÄ sum (est) *advise* abs–tergeÅ abstergÄ"re abstersÄ« abstersus *wipe off* Ä rdeÅ Ä rdÄ"re Ä rsÄ« Ä rsÅ«rus *burn* haereŠhaerēre haesÄ« naesÅ«rus *stick* maneŠmanēre mÄ nsÄ« mÄ nsÅ«rus *stay* algeŠalgēre alsÄ« –––– *be cold* fulgeŠfulgēre fulsÄ« –––– *gleam* urgeŠurgēre ursÄ« –––– *press* IV. PERFECT IN –Ä<sup>a</sup> WITH REDUPLICATION.

mordeŠmordēre momordÄ« morsus *bite* spondeŠspondēre spopondÄ« spÅ nsus *promise* tondeŠtondēre totondÄ« tÅ nsus *shear* pendeŠpendēre pependÄ« ---- *hang* V. PERFECT IN -Ä<sup>a</sup> WITH LENGTHENING OF STEM VOWEL.

caveŠcavēre cÄ vÄ« cautÅ«rus *take care* faveŠfavēre fÄ vÄ« fautÅ«rus *favor* foveŠfovēre fÅ vÄ« fÅ tus *cherish* moveŠmovēre mÅ vÄ« mÅ tus *move* paveŠpavēre pÄ vÄ« –––– *fear* sedeŠsedēre sÄ"dÄ« sessÅ«rus *sit* videŠvidēre vÄ«dÄ« vÄ«sus *see* voveŠvovēre vÅ vÄ« vÅ tus *vow* VI. PERFECT IN –Ä<sup>a</sup> WITHOUT EITHER REDUPLICATION OR LENGTHENING OF STEM VOWEL.

ferveŠfervēre (fervÄ«, ---- *boil* ferbuī) prandeÅ prandÄ"re prandÄ« prÄ nsus (§ 114, *lunch* 2) strīdeÅ strÄ«dÄ"re strÄ«dÄ« ---- *creak* VII. DEPONENTS.

liceor licērÄ« licitus sum *bid* polliceor pollicērÄ« pollicitus sum *promise* mereor merērÄ« meritus sum *earn* misereor miserērÄ« miseritus sum *pity* vereor verērÄ« veritus sum *fear* fateor fatērÄ« fassus sum *confess* cŠnfiteor cŠnfitērÄ« cÅ nfessus sum *confess* reor rērÄ« ratus sum *think* medeor medērÄ« ----- *heal* tueor tuērÄ« ----- *protect* Third (Consonant) Conjugation.

# 122. I. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN A CONSONANT.

1. Perfect in -sī.

a. Type -Å, -Ä•re, -sÄ«, -tus.

carpå carpere carpsÄ« carptus *pluck* sculpå sculpere sculpsÄ« sculptus *chisel* rēpå rÄ"pere rÄ"psÄ« ---- *creep* serpå serpere serpsÄ« ---- *crawl* scribå scribere scrÄ«psÄ« scrÄ«ptus *write* nūbå nå«bere nå«psÄ« nå«pta (woman *marry* only) regå regere rÄ"xÄ« rä"ctus *govern* tegå tegere tä"xÄ« tä"ctus *cover* af–flÄ«gå afflÄ«gere afflÄ«xÄ« afflÄ«ctus *shatter* dīcå dÄ«cere dÄ«xÄ« dictus *say* då«cå då«cere då«xÄ« ductus *lead* coquå coquere coxÄ« coctus *cook* trahå trahere trÄ xÄ« trÄ ctus *draw* vehå vehere vexÄ« vectus *carry* cingå cingere cÄ«nxÄ« cÄ«nctus *gird* tingå tingere tīnxÄ« tÄ«nctus *dip* jungå jungere jå«nxÄ« jå«nctus *join* fingå fingere fÄ«nxÄ« fÄ«ctus *would* pingå pingere pÄ«nxÄ« pÄ«ctus *paint* stringå stringere strÄ«nxÄ« å«nctus *anoint* vīvå vÄ«vere vīxÄ« vÄ«ctum (est) *live* gerå gerere gessÄ« gestus *carry* urå å«rere ussÄ« å«stus *burn* temnå temnere con–tempsÄ« con–temptus *despise* b. Type –Å, –Ä•re, –sÄ«, –sus.

fīgÅ fÄ«gere fÄ«xÄ« fÄ«xus *fasten* mergŠmergere mersī mersus *sink* spargŠspargere sparsī sparsus *scatter* flectŠflectere flexī flexus *bend* nectŠnectere nexuī nexus *twine* (nexī) mittÅ mittere mÄ«sÄ« missus *send* rÄ dÅ rÄ dere rÄ sÄ« rÄ sus *shave* rŠdŠrŠdere rŠsī rÅ sus *gnaw* vÄ dÅ vÄ dere –vÄ sÄ«[45] –vÄ sum *march*, *walk* (est)[45] lūdÅ lÅ«dere lÅ«sÄ« lÅ«sum (est) *play* trūdÅ trÅ«dere trÅ«sÄ« trÅ«sus *push* laedŠlaedere laesī laesus *injure*, *hurt* claudŠclaudere clausī clausus *close* plaudŠplaudere plausī plausum (est) *clap* explÅ dÅ explÅ dëre explÅ sÄ« explÅ sus *hoot off* cēdÅ cÄ"dere cessÄ« cessum (est) *withdraw* dīvidÅ dÄ«videre dÄ«vÄ«sÄ« dÄ«vÄ«sä« dÄ«vÄ«sus *divide* premŠpremere pressī pressus *press* 2. Perfect in –Ä« with Reduplication.

ab-dŠabdere abdidī abditus conceal red-dÅ red-dere reddidÄ« redditus return So \_addÅ \_,

\_condŠ\_, \_dēdÅ \_, \_perdÅ \_, \_prÅ dÅ \_, \_trÄ dÅ \_, etc. cÅ n-sistÅ cÅ nsistere cÅ nstitÄ« \_\_\_\_\_\_\_take one's stand\_ resistŠresistere restitī \_\_\_\_\_ *resist* circumsistŠcircumsistere circumstetī \_\_\_\_\_\_ *surround* cadŠcadere cecidī cÄ sÅ«rus *fall* caedŠcaedere cecīdÄ« caesus *kill* pendÅ pendere pependī pÄ"nsus *weigh*, *pay* tendŠtendere tetendī tentus *stretch* tundŠtundere tutudī tūsus, tÅ«nsus *beat* fallŠfallere fefellī (falsus, as *deceive* Adj.) pellŠpellere pepulī pulsus *drive out* currŠcurrere cucurrī cursum (est) *run* parcŠparcere pepercī parsÅ«rus *spare* canŠcanere cecinī *\_\_\_\_\_ sing* tangŠtangere tetigī tÄ ctus *touch* pungŠpungere pupugī pÅ«nctus *prick* NOTE.—In the following verbs the perfects were originally reduplicated, but have lost the reduplicating syllable:\_\_\_ per\_cellŠpercellere perculī perculsus *strike down* findŠfindere fidī fissus *split* scindÅ scindere scidī scissus *tear apart* tollÅ tollere sus–tulÄ« sublÄ tus *remove* 3. Perfect in –Ä« with Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

agÅ agere Ä"gÄ« Ä ctus *drive*, *do* peragŠperagere perēgÄ« perÄ ctus *finish* subigŠsubigere subēgÄ« subÄ ctus *subdue* cŠgŠcŠgere coēgÄ« coÄ ctus *force*, *gather* frangŠfrangere frēgÄ« frÄ ctus *break* perfringŠperfringere perfrēgÄ« perfrÄ ctus *break down* legŠlegere lēgÄ« lÄ"ctus *gather*, *read* perlegŠperlegere perlēgÄ« perlÄ"ctus *read through* colligŠcolligere collēgÄ« collÄ"ctus *collect* dēligÅ dÄ"ligere dÄ"lÄ"gÄ« dÄ"lÄ"ctus *choose* dīligÅ dÄ«ligere dÄ«lÄ"xÄ« dÄ«lÄ"ctus *love* intellegŠintellegere intellēxÄ« intellÄ"ctus *understand* neglegŠneglegere neglēxÄ« neglÄ"ctus *neglect* emÅ emere Ä"mÄ« Ä"mptus *buy* coëmÅ coëmere coÄ"mÄ« coÄ"mptus *buy up* redimÅ redä"mä« redä"mptus *buy back* dirimŠdirimere dirēmÄ« dirÄ"mptus *destroy* dēmÅ dÄ"mere dÄ"mpsÄ« dÄ"mptus, as *take out* Adj.) vincŠvincere vīcÄ« victus *conquer* re–linquÅ relinquere relÄ«quÄ« relÄ«ctus *leave* rumpŠrumpere rūpÄ« ruptus *break* edÅ Ä"sse (§ Ä"dÄ« Ä"sus *eat* 128) fundŠfundere fūdÄ« fÅ«sus *four* 4. Perfect in –Ä« without either Reduplication or Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

excūdÅ excÅ«dere excÅ«dÄ« excÅ«sus *hammer* cŠnsīdÅ cÅ nsÄ«dere cÅ nsÄ"dÄ« –––– \_take one's seat\_ possīdÅ possÄ«dere possÄ"dÄ« possessus *take possession* accendŠaccendere accendī accēnsus *kindle* a–scendÅ ascendere ascendÄ« ascÄ"nsum (est) *climb* dē–fendÅ dÄ"fendere dēfendÄ« dÄ"fÄ"nsus *defend* pre–hendÅ prehendere prehendÄ« prehÄ"nsus *seize* īcÅ Ä«cere Ä«cÄ« ictus *strike* vellŠvellere vellī vulsus *pluck* vertŠvertere vertī versus *turn* pandŠpandere pandī passus *spread* solvŠsolvere solvī solÅ«tus *loose* vīsÅ vÄ«sere vÄ«sÄ« vÄ«sus *visit* volvÅ volvere volvī volÅ«tus *roll* verrŠverrere verrī versus *sweep* 5. Perfect in –uÄ«.

in-cumbŠincumbere incubuī incubitÅ«rus *lean on* gignŠgignere genuī genitus *bring forth* molŠmolere moluī molitus *grind* vomŠvomere vomuī vomitus *vomit* fremŠfremere fremuī ----- *snort* gemŠgemere gemuī ----- *sigh* metŠmetere messuī messus *reap* tremŠtremere tremuī ----- *tremble* strepŠstrepere strepuī ----- *rattle* alŠalete aluī altus (alitus) *nourish* colŠcolere coluī cultus *cultivate* incolŠincolere incoluī ----- *inhabit* excolŠexcolere excoluī excultus *perfect* cŠnsulŠcŠnsulere cŠnsuluī cÅ nsultus *consult* cŠnserŠcŠnserere cŠnseruī cÅ nsertus *join* dēserÅ dÄ"serere dÄ"seruÄ« dÄ"sertus *desert* disserŠdisserere disseruī ----- *discourse* texŠtexere texuī textus *weave* 6. Perfect in -vī.

sinŠsinere sīvÄ« situs *allow* desinŠdēsinere dÄ"siÄ« dÄ"situs *cease* ponŠpŠnere posuī positus *place* ob–linÅ oblinere oblÄ"vÄ« oblitus *smear* serŠserere sēvÄ« satus *sow* cŠnserŠcŠnserere cŠnsēvÄ« cÅ nsitus *plant* cernÅ cernere –––– *separate* discernŠdiscernere discrēvÄ« discrÄ"tus *distinguish* dēcernÅ dÄ"cernere dÄ"crÄ"vÄ« dÄ"crÄ"tus *decide* spernŠspernere sprēvÄ« sprÄ"tus *scorn* sternÅ sternere strÄ vÄ« strÄ tus *spread* prÅ –sternÅ prÅ sternere prÅ strÄ vÄ« prÅ strÄ tus *overthrow* petŠpetere petīvÄ« petÄ«tus *seek* (petiī) appetÅ appetere appetÄ«vÄ« appetÄ«tus *long for* terŠterere trīvÄ« acquÄ«sÄ«tus *acquire* arcessŠarcessere arcessūvÄ« arcessÅ«tus *summon* capessŠcapessere capessīvÄ« capessÄ«tus *seize* lacessÅ lacessere

lacessīvÄ« lacessÄ«tus provoke 7. Used only in Present System.

angÅ angere ---- *choke* lambÅ lambere ---- *lick* claudÅ claudere ---- *be lame* furÅ furere ---- *rave* vergÅ vergere ---- *bend* and a few others.

# II. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN -U.

induŠinduere induī indÅ«tus *put on* imbuŠimbuere imbuī imbÅ«tus *moisten* luŠluere luī ----*wash* polluŠpolluere polluī pollÅ«tus *defile* minuŠminuere minuī minÅ«tus *lessen* statuÅ statuere statuī statÅ«tus *set up* cŠnstituŠcŠnstituere cŠnstituī cÅ nstithÅ«tus *determine* suŠsuere suī sūtus *sew* tribuŠtribuere tribuī tribÅ«tus *allot* ruŠruere ruī ruitÅ«rus *fall* dīruÅ dÄ«ruere dīruÄ« dÄ«rutus *destroy* obruŠobruere obruī obrutus *overwhelm* acuŠacuere acuī ----- *sharpen* arguŠarguere arguī ----- *accuse* congruŠcongruere congruī ----- *agree* metuŠmetuere metuī ----- *fear* ab-nuŠabnuere abnuī ----- *decline* re-spuŠrespuere respuī ----- *reject* struÅ struere strūxÄ« strÅ«ctus *build* fluŠfluere flūxus, as *flow* Adj.)

## III. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN -I.

capiŠcupere cupīvÄ« cupÄ«tus *wish* sapiŠsapere sapīvÄ« ----- *taste* rapiŠrapere rapuī raptus *snatch* dīripiÅ dÄ«ripere dÄ«ripuÄ« dÄ«reptus *plunder* cŠnspiciŠcŠnspicere cŠnspexī cÅ nspectus *gaze at* aspiciŠaspicere aspexī aspectus *behold* illiciŠillicere illexī illectus *allure* pelliciŠpellicere pellexī pellectus *allure* Ä"liciÅ Ä"licere Ä"licuÄ« Ä"licitus *elicit* quatiÅ quatere ----- quassus *shake* concutiŠconcutere concussī concussus *shake* pariŠparere peperī partus *bring forth* capiŠcapere cēpÄ« captus *take* accipiŠaccipere accēpÄ« acceptus *accept* incipiŠincipere incēpÄ« inceptus *begin* faciŠfacere fēcÄ« factus *make* afficiŠafficere affēcÄ« affectus *affect Passive*, afficior, afficī, affectus sum. So other prepositional compounds, \_perficiÅ \_, \_perficior\_; \_interficiÅ \_, \_interficior\_; etc. But-- assuÄ"faciÅ assuÄ"facere assuÄ"fÄ"cÄ« assuÄ"faciÅ assuÄ"factus sum. So also \_patefaciÅ \_, \_patefīŠ\_; \_calefaciÅ \_, \_calefīŠ\_; and all non-prepositional compounds. jaciÅ jacere jÄ"cÄ« jactus *hurl* abiciŠabicere abjēcÄ« abjectus *throw away* fodiŠfodere fŠdī fossus *dig* fugiŠfugere fūgÄ« fugitÅ«rus *flee* effugiŠeffugere effūgÄ« ----- *escape* IV. VERBS IN -SCŌ.

1. Verbs in -scÅ from Simple Roots.

poscå poscere poposcä« ---- demand discå discere didicä« ---- learn pä scå pä scere pä vä« pä stus feed pä scor pä scä« pä stus sum graze crä"scå crä"scere crä"vä« crä"tus grow cå nsuä"scå cå nsuä"scere cå nsuä"vä« cå nsuä"tus \_accustom one's self\_ quiä"scå quiä"scere quiä"vä« quiä"tå«rus be still adolä"scå adolä"scere adolä"vi adultus grow up obsolä"scå obsolä"scerä" obsolä"vä« ---- grow old nå scå nå scere nå vä« ---- become acquainted with ignå scå ignå scere ignå vä« ignå tå«rus pardon agnå scå agnå scere agnå vä« agnitus recognize cognå scå cognå scere cognå vä« cognitus get acquainted with 2. Verbs in -scå formed from other Verbs.

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

flŠrēscÅ flÅ rÄ"scere flÅ ruÄ« \_begin to (flÅ reÅ ) bloom\_ scÄ«scÅ scÄ«scere scÄ«vÄ« enact (scÄ«o) Ä rÄ"scÅ Ä rÄ"scere Ä ruÄ« become dry (Ä reÅ ) calÄ"scÅ calÄ"scere caluÄ« become hot (caleÅ ) cÅ nsenÄ"scÅ cÅ nsenÄ"scere cÅ nsenuÄ« grow old (seneÅ ) extimÄ"scÅ extimÄ"scere extimuÄ« fear greatly (timeÅ ) ingemÄ«scÅ ingemÄ«scere ingemuÄ« sigh (gemÅ ) adhaerÄ"scÅ adhaerÄ"scere adhaesÄ« stick (haereÅ )

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

obdūrÄ"scÅ obdÅ«rÄ"scere obdÅ«ruÄ« grow hard (dÅ«rus) Ä"vanÄ"scÅ Ä"vanÄ"scere Ä"vinuÄ« disappear (vÄ nus) percrÄ"brÄ"sco percrÄ"brÄ"scere percrÄ"bruÄ« grow fresh (crÄ"ber) mÄ tÅ«rescÅ mÄ tÅ«rÄ"scere mÄ tÅ«ruÄ« grow ripe (mÄ tÅ«rus) obmÅ«tÄ"scÅ obmÅ«tÄ"scere obmÅ«tuÄ« grow dumb (mÅ«tus)

# V. DEPONENTS.

fungor fungi fūnctus sum *perform* queror querī questus sum *complain* loquor loquī locÅ«tus sum *speak* sequor sequī secÅ«tus sum *follow* fruor fruī fruitÅ«rus *enjoy* perfruor perfruī perfrÅ«ctus sum *thoroughly enjoy* lÄ bor lÄ bi lÄ psus sum *glide* amplector amplectī amplexus sum *embrace* nītor nÄ«tÄ« nÄ«sus sum, *strive* nīxus sum gradior gradÄ« gressus sum *walk* patior patī passus sum *suffer* perpetior perpetī perpessus sum *endure* ūtor Å«tÄ« Å«sus sum *use* morior morī mortuus sum *die* adipīscor adipÄ«scÄ« adeptus sum *acquire* comminīscor comminÄ«scÄ« commentus sum *invent* reminīscor reminÄ«scÄ« ——— *remember* nancīscör nancÄ«scÄ« nanctus *acquire* (nactus) sum nÄ scor nÄ scÄ« nÄ tus sum *be born* oblīvÄ«scör oblÄ«vÄ«scÄ« oblÄ«tus sum *forget* pacīscör autus sum *avenge* īrÄ scor Ä«rÄ scÄ« (Ä«rÄ tus, as *be angry* Adj.) vescor vescī ——— *eat* Fourth Conjugation.

# 123. I. PERFECT ENDS IN -VÄ<sup>a</sup>.

audiŠaudīre audÄ«vÄ« audÄ«tus *hear* So all regular Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. sepeliŠsepelīre sepelÄ«vÄ« sepultus *bury* II. PERFECT ENDS IN –UÄ<sup>a</sup>.

aperiŠaperīre aperuÄ« apertus *open* operiŠoperīre operuÄ« opertus *cover* saliŠsalīre saluÄ« *---- leap* III. PERFECT ENDS IN -SÄ<sup>a</sup>.

saepiŠsaepīre saepsÄ« saeptus *hedge in* sanciŠsancīre sÄ nxÄ« sÄ nctus *ratify* vinciŠvincīre vinxÄ« vinctus *bind* amiciŠamicīre ——— amictus *envelop* fulciŠfulcīre fulsÄ« fultus *prop up* referciŠrefercīre refersÄ« refertus *fill* sarciŠsarcīre sarsÄ« sartus *patch* hauriŠhaurīre hausÄ« haustus *draw* sentiŠsentīre sÄ"nsÄ« sÄ"nsus *feel* IV. PERFECT IN –Ä<sup>a</sup> WITH LENGTHENING OF STEM VOWEL.

veniŠvenīre vÄ"nÄ« ventum (est) *come* adveniŠadvenīre advÄ"nÄ« adventum (est) *arrive* inveniŠinvenīre invÄ"nÄ« inventus *find* V. PERFECT WITH LOSS OF REDUPLICATION.

reperiŠreperīre repperÄ« repertus *find* comperiŠcomperīre comperÄ« compertus *learn* VI. USED ONLY IN THE PRESENT.

feriŠferīre ---- strike Ä"suriÅ Ä"surÄ«re ---- be hungry VII. DEPONENTS.

largior largīrÄ« largÄ«tus sum *bestow* So many others. experior experīrÄ« expertus sum *try* opperior opperīrÄ« oppertus sum *await* Šrdior ŠrdīrÄ« Å rsus sum *begin* orior orīrÄ« ortus sum *arise Orior* usually follows the Third Conjugation in its inflection; as *oreris*, \_orÄ-tur\_, \_orÄ-mur\_; *orerer* (Imp. Subj.); *orere* (Imper.). mētior mÄ"tÄ«rÄ« mÄ"nsus sum *measure* assentior assentīrÄ« assÄ"nsus sum *assent* \* \* \* \*

# IRREGULAR VERBS.

124. A number of Verbs are called Irregular. The most important are sum, dÅ, edÅ, ferÅ, volÅ, nÅ lÅ,  $m\ddot{A}$  lÅ, eÅ,  $f\ddot{A}$ «Å. 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–Å), instead of fer–i–s. 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--

absum abesse Ä fuÄ« *am absent* \_Pres. Partic\_. absēns (absentis), *absent*. adsum adesse adfuī *am present* dēsum deesse dÄ"fuÄ« *am lacking* insum inesse īnfuÄ« *am in* intersum interesse interfuī *am among* praesum praeesse praefuī *am in charge of* \_Pres. Partic\_. praesēns (praesentis), *present* obsum obesse obfuī *hinder* prŠsum prŠdesse prŠfuī *am of advantage* subsum subesse subfuī *am underneath* supersum superesse superfuī *am left* NOTE.—PrÅ sum is compounded of prÅ d (earlier form of prÅ ) and sum; the d disappears before consonants, as prÅ sumus; but prÅ destis.

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

PRINCIPAL PARTS. possum, posse, potuī, to be able.

INDICATIVE MOOD. SINGULAR. PLURAL. \_Pres.\_ possum, potes, potest; possumus, potestis, possunt. \_Imp.\_ poteram; poterÄ mus. \_Fut.\_ poterÅ ; poterimus. \_Perf.\_ potuÄ«; potuimus. \_Plup.\_ potueram; potuerÄ mus. \_Fut. P.\_ potuerÅ ; potuerimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE. SINGULAR. PLURAL. \_Pres.\_ possim, possīs, possit; possÄ«mus, possÄ«tis, possint. \_Imp.\_ possem; possÄ"mus. \_Perf.\_ potuerim; potuerÄ«mus. \_Plup.\_ potuissem; potuissÄ"mus.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres. \_ posse. \_Pres. \_ potēns (\_as an adjective\_). \_Perf. \_ potuisse.

127. DÅ , I give.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. dÅ, dÄfre, dedÄ«, dÄftus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD. SINGULAR. PLURAL. \_Pres.\_ dÅ, dÄ s, dat; dÄfmus, dÄftis, dant. \_Imp.\_ dÄfbam, etc.; dÄfbÄ mus. \_Fut.\_ dÄfbÅ, etc.; dÄfbimus. \_Perf.\_ dedÄ«; dedimus. \_Plup.\_ dederam; dederÄ mus. \_Fut. P.\_ dederÅ ; dederimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE \_Pres.\_ dem; dēmus. \_Imp.\_ dÄfrem; dÄfrÄ"mus. \_Perf.\_ dederim; dederÄ«mus. \_Plup.\_ dedissem; dedissÄ"mus.

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ dÄ ; dÄfte. \_Fut.\_ dÄftÅ ; dÄftÅ te. dÄftÅ . dantÅ .

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ dÄfre. dÄ ns. \_Perf.\_ dedisse. \_Fut.\_ dÄftÅ«rus esse. dÄftÅ«rus.

GERUND. SUPINE. dandī, etc. dÄftum, dÄftÅ«.

1. The passive is inflected regularly with the short vowel. Thus: dÄfrÄ«, dÄftur, dÄfrÄ"tur, etc.

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

128. EdÅ, I eat.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. edÅ, Ä"sse, Ä"dÄ«, Ä"sus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD. \_Pres.\_ edÅ , edimus, Ä"s, Ä"stis, Ä"st; edunt.

SUBJUNCTIVE. \_Imp.\_ Ä"ssem, Ä"ssÄ"mus, Ä"ssÄ"s, Ä"ssÄ"tis, Ä"sset; Ä"ssent.

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ Ä"s; Ä"ste. \_Fut.\_ Ä"stÅ ; Ä"stÅ te. Ä"stÅ ; eduntÅ .

INFINITIVE. \_Pres.\_ Ä"sse.

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD. \_Pres. 3d Sing\_. Ä"stur.

SUBJUNCTIVE. \_Imp. 3d Sing\_. Ä"ssÄ"tur.

1. Observe the long vowel of the forms in Ä"s–, which alone distinguishes them from the corresponding forms of esse, *to be*.

2. Note comedÅ, comÄ"sse, comÄ"dÄ«, comÄ"sus or comÄ"stus, consume.

3. The Present Subjunctive has edim, -īs, -it, etc., less often edam, -Ä s, etc.

129. FerÅ , *I bear*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. ferÅ, ferre, tulÄ«, lÄ tus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD. PLURAL. SINGULAR. \_Pres.\_ ferŠ, fers, fert; ferimus, fertis, ferunt.[46] \_Imp.\_ ferēbam; ferÄ"bÄ mus. \_Fut.\_ feram; ferÄ"mus. \_Perf.\_ tulÄ«; tulimus. \_Plup.\_ tuleram; tulerÄ mus. \_Fut. P.\_ tulerÅ ; tulerimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE. \_Pres.\_ feram; ferÄ mus. \_Imp.\_ ferrem; ferrÄ"mus. \_Perf.\_ tulerim; tulerÄ«mus. \_Plup.\_ tulissem; tulissÄ"mus.

IMPERATIVE \_Pres.\_ fer; ferte. \_Fut.\_ fertÅ ; fertÅ te. fertÅ ; feruntÅ .

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ ferre. \_Pres.\_ ferēns. \_Perf.\_ tulisse. \_Fut.\_ lÄ tÅ«rus esse. \_Fut.\_ lÄ tÅ«rus.

GERUND. SUPINE. \_Gen.\_ ferendī. \_Dat.\_ ferendÅ . \_Acc.\_ ferendum. \_Acc.\_ lÄ tum. \_Abl.\_ ferendÅ . \_Abl.\_ lÄ tÅ«.

Passive Voice. feror, ferrī, lÄ tus sum, to be borne.

INDICATIVE MOOD. PLURAL. SINGULAR. \_Pres.\_ feror, ferris, fertur; ferimur, feriminī, feruntur. \_Imp.\_ ferÄ"bar; ferÄ"bä mur. \_Fut.\_ ferar; ferÄ"mur. \_Perf.\_ lÄ tus sum; lÄ tÄ« sumus. \_Plup.\_ lÄ tus eram; lÄ tÄ« erÄ mus. \_Fut. P.\_ lÄ tus erÅ ; lÄ tÄ« erimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE. \_Pres.\_ ferar; ferÄ mur. \_Imp.\_ ferrer; ferrÄ"mur. \_Perf.\_ lÄ tus sim; lÄ tÄ« sÄ«mus. \_Plup.\_ lÄ tus essem; lÄ tÄ« essÄ"mus.

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ ferre; ferimimī. \_Fut.\_ fertor; ---- fertor; feruntor.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ ferrī. \_Perf.\_ lÄ tus esse. \_Perf.\_ lÄ tus. \_Fut.\_ lÄ tum Ä«rÄ«. \_Fut.\_ ferendus.

So also the Compounds--

afferŠafferre attulī allÄ tus *bring toward* auferŠauferre abstulī ablÄ tus *take away* cŠnferŠcŠnferre contulī collÄ tus *compare* differŠdifferre distulī dÄ«lÄ tus *put off* efferŠefferre extulī Ä"lÄ tus *carry out* īnferÅ Ä«nferre intulÄ« illÄ tus *bring against* offerŠofferre obtulī oblÄ tus *present* referŠreferre rettulī relÄ tus *bring back* NOTE.—The forms sustulÄ« and sublÄ tus belong to tollÅ.

130. volÅ, nÅ lÅ, mÄ lÅ.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. volÅ, velle, voluÄ«, \_to wish.\_ nÅ lÅ, nÅ lle, nÅ luÄ«, \_to be unwilling.\_ mÄ lÅ, mÄ lle, mÄ luÄ«, \_to prefer.\_

INDICATIVE MOOD. \_Pres.\_ volÅ, nÅ lÅ, mÄ lÅ, vÄ«s, nÅ n vÄ«s, mÄ vÄ«s, vult; nÅ n vult; mÄ vult; volumus, nÅ lumus, mÄ lumus, vultis, nÅ n vultis, mÄ vultis, volunt. nÅ lunt. mÄ lunt. \_Imp.\_ volēbam. nÅ lÄ"bam. mÄ lÄ"bam. \_Fut.\_ volam. nÅ lam. mÄ lam. \_Perf.\_ voluÄ«. nÅ luÄ«. mÄ luÄ«. \_Plup.\_ volueram. nÅ lueram. mÄ lueram. \_Fut. P.\_ voluerÅ . nÅ luerÅ .

SUBJUNCTIVE. \_Pres.\_ velim, -īs, -it, nÅ lim. mÄ lÄ«m. etc. \_Inf.\_ vellem, -Ä"s, -et, nÅ llem. mÄ llem. etc. \_Perf.\_ voluerim. nÅ luerim. mÄ luerim. \_Pluf.\_ voluissem. nÅ luissem. mÄ luissem.

IMPERATIVE.

\_Pres.\_ nŠlī; nÅ lÄ«te. \_Fut.\_ nÅ lÄ«tÅ ; nÅ lÄ«tÅ te. nÅ lÄ«tÅ ; nÅ luntÅ .

INFINITIVE. \_Pres.\_ velle. nÅ lle. mÄ lle. \_Perf.\_ voluisse. nÅ luisse. mÄ luisse

PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ volēns nÅ lÄ"ns. ----

131. FīŠ.

PRINCIPAL PARTS. fīÅ, fÄ«erÄ«, factus sum, to become, be made.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR, PLURAL. \_Pres.\_ fīÅ, fÄ«s, fit; fÄ«mus, fÄ«tis, fÄ«unt. \_Inf.\_ fīēbam; fīēbÄ mus. \_Fut.\_ fÄ«am; fīēmus. \_Perf.\_ factus sum; factÄ« sumus. \_Pluf.\_ factus eram; factÄ« erÄ mus. \_Fut. P.\_ factus erÅ ; factÄ« erimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE. \_Pres.\_ fīam; fÄ«Ä mus. \_Imp.\_ fierem; fierÄ"mus. \_Perf.\_ factus sim; factÄ« sÄ«mus. \_Plup.\_ factus essem; factÄ« essÄ"mus.

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ fī; fÄ«te. PARTICIPLE. INFINITIVE. \_Pres.\_ fierÄ«. \_Perf.\_ factus esse. \_Perf.\_ factus. \_Fut.\_ factum Ä«rÄ«. \_Ger.\_ faciendus.

NOTE.--A few isolated forms of compounds of fīÅ occur; as, dÄ"fit \_lacks\_; Ä«nfit, begins.

132. EÅ .

PRINCIPAL PARTS. eÅ, Ä«re, Ä«vÄ«, itum (est), to go.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. \_Pres.\_ eŠ, īs, it; Ä«mus, Ä«tis, eunt. \_Imp.\_ Ä«bam; Ä«bÄ mus. \_Fut.\_ ībÅ ; Ä«bimus. \_Perf.\_ Ä«vÄ« (iÄ«); Ä«vimus (iimus). \_Plup.\_ Ä«veram (ieram); Ä«verÄ mus (ierÄ mus) \_Fut. P.\_ Ä«verÅ (ierÅ ); Ä«verimus (ierimus).

SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. \_Pres.\_ eam; eÄ mus. \_Inf.\_ Ä«rem; Ä«rÄ"mus. \_Perf.\_ Ä«verim (ierim); īverÄ«mus (ierÄ«mus). \_Pluf.\_ Ä«vissem (iissem, Ä«ssem); Ä«vissÄ"mus (iissÄ"mus, Ä«ssÄ"mus).

IMPERATIVE. \_Pres.\_ ī; īte. \_Fut.\_ Ä«tÅ ; Ä«tÅ te, Ä«tÅ ; euntÅ .

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. \_Pres.\_ īre. \_Pres.\_ iÄ"ns. \_Perf.\_ Ä«visse (Ä«sse). (\_Gen.\_ euntis.) \_Fut.\_ itÅ«rus esse. \_Fut.\_ itÅ«rus. *Gerundive*, eundum.

GERUND. SUPINE. eundī, etc. itum, itÅ«.

1. Transitive compounds of eŠadmit the full Passive inflection; as adeor, adīris, adÄ«tur, etc.

\* \* \* \* \*

#### DEFECTIVE VERBS.

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

133. USED MAINLY IN THE PERFECT SYSTEM.

Coepī, MeminÄ«, ÅŒdÄ«, \_I have I remember. I hate. begun.\_

INDICATIVE MOOD. \_Perf.\_ coepī. meminÄ«. Å dÄ«. \_Plup.\_ coeperam. memineram. Å deram. \_Fut. P.\_ coeperÅ . meminerÅ . Å derÅ .

SUBJUNCTIVE. \_Perf.\_ coeperim. meminerim. Å derim. \_Pluf.\_ coepissem. meminissem. Å dissem.

IMPERATIVE. \_Sing.\_ mementÅ ; \_Plur.\_ mementÅ te.

INFINITIVE. \_Perf.\_ coepisse. meminisse. Šdisse. \_Fut.\_ coeptūrus esse. Å sÅ«rus esse.

PARTICIPLE. \_Perf.\_ coeptus, begun. Šsus. \_Fut.\_ coeptūrus. Å sÅ«rus.

1. When coepī governs a Passive Infinitive it usually takes the form coeptus est; as, amÄ rÄ« coeptus est, *he began to be loved.* 

2. Note that meminī and Å dÄ«, 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\_; Å derÅ, *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. AjÅ , *I say*.

INDICATIVE MOOD. SINGULAR. PLURAL \_Pres.\_ ajŠ, ---- aīs, ---- ait; ajunt. \_Imp.\_ ajÄ"bam, ajÄ"bÄ mus, ajÄ"bÄ s, ajÄ"bÄ tis, ajÄ"bat; ajÄ"bant. \_Perf 3d Sing.\_ aÃ<sup>-</sup>t.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

\_Pres 3d Sing.\_ ajat.

NOTE.--For aīsne, \_do you mean?\_ aÄ«n is common.

136. FÄ rÄ«, \_to speak.\_

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

INDICATIVE MOOD. SINGULAR. PLURAL. \_Pres.\_ ---- fÄ tur. ---- fÄ tur. ---- \_Fut.\_ fÄ bor, ---- fÄ bitur. ---- \_Impv.\_ fÄ re. \_Inf.\_ fÄ rÄ«. \_Pres. fantis, fantÄ«, etc. Partic.\_ *Gerund*, fandī; \_D. and Abl.\_, fandÅ . \_G.\_, *Gerundive*, fandus.

NOTE.—–Forms of fÄ rÄ« are rare. More frequent are its compounds; as,—– affÄ tur, \_he addresses\_; praefÄ mur, \_we say in advance.\_

#### 137. OTHER DEFECTIVE FORMS.

1. QueÅ, quÄ«re, quÄ«vÄ«, *to be able*, and nequeÅ, nequÄ«re, nequÄ«vÄ«, *to be unable*, are inflected like eÅ, but occur chiefly in the Present Tense, and there only in special forms.

2. QuaesÅ, \_I entreat\_; quaesumus, we entreat.

3. Cedo (2d sing. Impv.), cette (2d plu.); give me, tell me.

4. Salvē, salvÄ"te, hail. Also Infinitive, salvÄ"re.

5. Havē (avÄ"), havÄ"te, hail. Also Infinitive, havÄ"re.

\* \* \* \* \*

#### 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 hÅ c fÄ"cisse, lit. \_it shames me to have done this\_; hÅ c decet, *this is fitting*. Here belong—

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

fulget fulsit *it lightens* tonat tonuit *it thunders* grandinat ---- *it hails* ningit ninxit *it snows* pluit pluit *it rains* II. Special Verbs.

paenitet paenitēre paenituit *it repents* piget pigēre piguit *it grieves* pudet pudēre puduit *it causes shame* taedet taedēre taeduit *it disgusts* miseret miserēre miseruit *it causes pity* libet libēre libuit *it pleases* licet licēre licuit *it is lawful* oportet oportēre oportuit *it is fitting* decet decēre decuit *it is becoming* dēdecet dÄ"decä"re dÄ"decuit *it is unbecoming* rēfert rÄ"ferre rÄ"tulit *it concerns* III. Verbs Impersonal only in Special Senses.

cÅ nstat cÅ nstÄ re cÅ nstitit *it is evident* praestat praestÄ re praestitit *it is better* juvat juvÄ re jÅ«vit *it delights* appÄ ret appÄ rÄ"re appÄ ruit *it appears* placet placēre placuit *it pleases* (placitum est) accēdit accÄ"dere accessit *it is added* accidit accidere accidit *it happens* contingit contingere contigit *it happens* Ä"venit Ä"venÄ«re Ä"vÄ"nit *it turns out* interest interesse interfuit *it concerns* IV. The Passive of Intransitive Verbs; as,—

ītur lit. *it is gone*\_i.e. some one goes\_ curritur lit. *it is run*\_i.e. some one runs\_ ventum est lit. *it has been come*\_i.e. some one has come\_ veniendum est lit. *it must be come*\_i.e. somebody must come\_ pugnÄ rÄ« potest lit. *it can be fought*\_i.e. somebody can fight\_

\* \* \* \* \*

# PART III.

\* \* \* \* \*

# PARTICLES.

\* \* \* \* \*

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

# ADVERBS.

140. Adverbs denote manner, place, time, or degree Most adverbs are in origin case–forms which have become stereotyped by usage. The common adverbial terminations have already been given above ( $\hat{A}$  § 76). The following TABLE OF CORRELATIVES is important:––

RELATIVE AND DEMONSTRATIVE. INDEFINITE. INTERROGATIVE. ubi, \_where; where\_? hīc, *here*. alicubī, Å«squam, ibi, illÄ«c, istÄ«c, Å«spiam, *somewhere*. *there*. quÅ, \_whither; hÅ«c, *hither*. aliquÅ, \_to some whither\_? eÅ, istÅ«c, illÅ«c, place\_. *thither*. unde, \_whence; hinc, *hence*. alicunde, \_from whence\_? inde, istinc, illinc, somewhere\_. *thence*. quÄ, \_where; where\_? hÄ c, *by this way*. aliquÄ, *by some way*. eÄ, istÄ c, illÄ c, *by that way*. cum, *when*. nunc, *now*. aliquandÅ, umquam, quandÅ, \_when\_? tum, tunc, *then. sometime*, *ever*. quotiēns, \_as often totiÄ"ns, *so often*. aliquotiēns, \_some as\_; \_how often\_? number of times\_. quam, \_as much as\_; tam, *so much*. aliquantum, \_how much\_? *somewhat*.

# PREPOSITIONS.

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

# PART III.

ad, to. contrÄ, against. post, after. adversus, ergÄ, toward. praeter, past. against. extrÄ, outside. prope, near. adversum, toward, Ä«nfrÄ, below. propter, \_on account against. inter, between. of\_. ante, before. intrÄ, within. secundum, after. apud, with, jÅ«xtÄ, near. subter, beneath. near. ob, \_on account super, over. circÄ, around. of\_. suprÄ, above. circiter, about. penes, \_in the hands trÄ ns, across. circum, around. of\_. ultrÄ, beyond. cis, \_this side per, through. versus, toward. of\_. pÅ ne, behind. citrÄ, this side of.

1. Å<sup>a</sup>sque is often prefixed to ad, in the sense of \_even\_; as,--

ūsque ad urbem, even to the city.

2. Versus always follows its case; as,--

RÅ mam versus, toward Rome.

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

ad urbem versus, toward the city.

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

Ubiī proximÄ" RhÄ"num incolunt, \_the Ubii dwell next to the Rhine\_; propius castra hostium, *nearer the camp of the enemy*.

142. The following Prepositions govern the Ablative:---

Ä, ab, abs, *from*, cum, *with*. prÅ, *in front of*, *by*. dē, *from*, *for*. absque, *without*. *concerning*. sine, *without*. cÅ ram, \_in the Ä", ex, \_from out tenus, *up to*. presence of\_. of\_. prae, *before*.

1.  $\ddot{A} \in$ , ab, abs. Before vowels or h, ab must be used; before consonants we find sometimes  $\ddot{A}$ , 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 t $\ddot{A}$ ", and  $\ddot{A}$  is admissible even there.

2. Ä', ex. Before vowels or h, ex must be used; before consonants we find sometimes Ä", sometimes ex.

3. Tenus regularly follows its case, as, pectoribus tenus, *up to the breast*. It sometimes governs the Genitive, as, labrÅ rum 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 nÅ bÄ«scum quÅ cum *or* cum quŠtēcum vÅ bÄ«scum quÄ cum *or* cum quÄ sÄ"cum quibuscum *or* cum quibus On quīcum, see § 89, Footnote 27.

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\_; contrÄ , *on the other hand*, etc.

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

clam, prīdiÄ", with the Accusative. procul, simul, palam, with the Ablative.

3. AnÃistrophe. A Preposition sometimes follows its case. This is called AnÃistrophe; as,--

eī, quÅ s inter erat, those among whom he was.

Anastrophe occurs chiefly with dissyllabic prepositions.

# CONJUNCTIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

145. 1. Conjunctions are used to connect ideas. For  $Co\tilde{A}$  (rdinate Conjunctions, see  $\hat{A}$ )  $\hat{A}$  341 ff. Subordinate Conjunctions are treated in connection with Subordinate Clauses.

2. Interjections express emotion. Thus:---

1. Surprise; as, Ä"n, ecce, Å . 2. Joy; as, iÅ , euoe. 3. Sorrow and Pain; as, heu, Ä"heu, vae, prÅ . 4. Calling; as, heus, eho.

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# 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. -trīx, denotes \_the agent\_; as,--

victor, victrīx, \_victor\_; dÄ"fÄ"nsor, defender.

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

gladiÄ tor, gladiator (from gladius).

2. The suffix -or (originally -Å s) denotes \_an activity or a condition\_; as,--

amor, \_love\_; timor, \_fear\_; dolor, pain.

3. The suffixes -tiŠ(-siŠ), Gen. -Šnis, and -tus (-sus), Gen. -ūs, denote \_an action as in process\_; as,--

vēnÄ tiÅ, \_hunting\_; obsessiÅ, \_blockade\_; gemitus, \_sighing\_; cursus, running.

NOTE.--Rarer endings with the same force are:--

a) -tūra, -sÅ«ra; as,---

sepultūra, \_burial\_; mÄ"nsÅ«ra, measuring.

b) -ium; as,---

gaudium, rejoicing.

c) –Ä«dÅ ; as,––

cupīdÅ, desire.

4. The suffixes -men, -mentum, -crum, -trum, -bulum, -culum, denote *the means* or *place* of an action; as,--

lūmen (lÅ«c–s–men), \_light\_; vocÄ bulum, \_word\_; Å rnÄ mentum, \_ornament\_; documentum, \_proof\_; sepulcrum, \_grave\_; arÄ trum, \_plough\_; vehiculum, *carriage*.

2. Nouns derived from Nouns.

148. 1. Diminutives end in--

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

as,---

nīdulus, *little nest* (nīdus); virgula, *wand* (virga); oppidulum, *little town* (oppidum); fīliolus, *little son* (fīlius); opusculum, *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\_ (collÄ"ga); sacerdÅ tium, priestly function (sacerdÅ s).

3. The suffixes  $-\ddot{A}$  rium,  $-\ddot{A}$ "tum,  $-\ddot{A}$ «le designate a place where objects *are kept* or \_are found in abundance\_; as,--

columbÄ rium, \_dove-cote\_ (columba); olÄ«vÄ"tum, \_olive-orchard\_ (olÄ«va); ovÄ«le, \_sheep-fold\_ (ovis).

4. The suffix -Ä tus denotes official position or \_honor\_; as,--

cÅ nsulÄ tus, consulship (cÅ nsul).

5. The suffix  $-\ddot{A}$ «na appended to nouns denoting persons designates *a vocation* or \_the place where it is carried on\_; as,--

doctrīna, *teaching* (doctor, \_teacher\_); medicīna, *the art of healing* (medicus, \_physician\_); sūtrÄ«na, \_cobbler's shop\_ (sÅ«tor, \_cobbler\_).

6. Patronymics are Greek proper names denoting *son of ..., daughter of ....* They have the following suffixes:--

a) Masculines: -idēs, -adÄ"s, -Ä«dÄ"s; as, PriamidÄ"s, \_son of Priam\_; AeneadÄ"s, \_son of Aeneas\_; PÄ"lÄ«dÄ"s, *son of Peleus*.

b) Feminines: –Ä"is, –is, –ias; as, NÄ"rÄ"is, \_daughter of Nereus\_; Atlantis, \_daughter of Atlas\_; Thaumantias, *daughter of Thaumas*.

3. Nouns derived from Adjectives.

149. The suffixes -tÄ s (-itÄ s), -tÅ«dÅ (-itÅ«dÅ ), -ia, -itia are used for the formation of abstract nouns \_denoting qualities\_; as,--

bonitÄ s, \_goodness\_; celeritÄ s, \_swiftness\_; magnitÅ«dÅ , \_greatness\_; audÄ cia, \_boldness\_; amÄ«citia, *friendship*.

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# B. ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives derived from Verbs.

150. 1. The suffixes -bundus and -cundus give nearly the force of a present participle; as,--

tremebundus, \_trembling\_; jūcundus (juvÅ ), pleasing.

2. The suffixes -Ä x and -ulus denote an inclination or tendency, mostly a faulty one; as,--

loquÄ x, \_loquacious\_; crÄ"dulus, credulous.

3. The suffix -idus denotes \_a state\_; as,--

calidus, \_hot\_; timidus, \_timid\_; cupidus, eager.

4. The suffixes –ilis and –bilis denote capacity or ability, usually in a passive sense; as,--

fragilis, *fragile* (\_i.e.\_ capable of being broken); docilis, *docile*.

2. Adjectives derived from Nouns.

a) \_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\_; fÄ ginus, of beech.

2. The suffixes –ius, –icus, –Ä«lis, –Ä lis, –Ä ris, –Ä rius, –nus, –Ä nus, –Ä «nus, –Ä «vus, –Ä "nsis signify *belonging to*, \_connected with\_; as,––

Å rÄ tÅ rius, \_oratorical\_; legiÅ nÄ rius, \_legionary\_; bellicus, \_pertaining to war\_; paternus, \_paternal\_; cÄ«vÄ«lis, \_civil\_; urbÄ nus, \_of the city\_; rÄ"gÄ lis, \_regal\_; marÄ«nus, \_marine\_; cÅ nsulÄ ris, \_consular\_; aestÄ«vus, \_pertaining to summer\_; circÄ"nsis, *belonging to the circus*.

3. The suffixes -Å sus and -lentus denote \_fullness\_; as,--

perīculÅ sus, full of danger, glÅ riÅ sus, \_glorious\_; \_dangerous\_; opulentus, wealthy.

4. The suffix -tus has the force of \_provided with\_; as,--

barbÄ tus, \_bearded\_; stellÄ tus, set with stars.

b) \_From Proper Names.\_

152. 1. Names of persons take the suffixes: -Ä nus, -iÄ nus, -Ä«nus; as,--

CatÅ niÄ nus, \_belonging to PlautÄ«nus, \_belonging to Cato\_; Plautus\_.

2. Names of nations take the suffixes -icus, -ius; as,--

GermÄ nicus, \_German\_; ThrÄ cius, Thracian.

3. Names of *places* take the suffixes -Ä nus, -Ä«nus, -Ä"nsis, -aeus, -ius; as,--

RÅ mÄ nus, \_Roman\_; AthÄ"niÄ"nsis, \_Athenian\_; AmerÄ«nus, \_of Ameria\_; Smyrnaeus, \_of Smyrna\_; Corinthius, *Corinthian*.

NOTE. --  $-\ddot{A}$  nus and  $-\ddot{A}$  "nsis, appended to names of countries, designate something *stationed in* the country or *connected with* it, but not indigenous; as, --

bellum ĀfricÄ num, \_a war (of Romans with Romans) in Africa\_. bellum HispÄ niÄ"nse, *a war carried on in Spain*. legiÅ nes GallicÄ nae, \_(Roman) legions stationed in Gaul\_.

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, -tīnus, -tÄ-nus; as,--

hodiernus, \_of to-day\_ (hodiē); hesternus, *of yesterday* (herī); intestÄ«nus, *internal* (intus); diūtinus, \_long-lasting\_ (diÅ«).

\* \* \* \* \*

C. VERBS.

1. Verbs derived from Verbs.

155. 1. INCEPTIVES OR INCHOATIVES. These end in -scÅ, and are formed from Present Stems. They denote \_the beginning of an action\_; as,--

labÄ scÅ, *begin to totter* (from labÅ); horrÄ"scÅ, *grow rough* (from horreÅ); tremÄ"scÅ, *begin to tremble* (from tremÅ); obdormÄ«scÅ, *fall asleep* (from dormiÅ).

2. FREQUENTATIVES OR INTENSIVES. These denote *a repeated or energetic action*. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -tÅ or -sÅ. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in -itÅ (not -Ä tÅ, as we should expect). Examples of Frequentatives are—

jactÅ, *toss about*, *brandish* (from jaciÅ, \_hurl\_); cursÅ, *run hither and thither* (from currÅ, \_run\_); volitÅ, *flit about* (from volÅ, \_fly\_).

a. Some double Frequentatives occur; as,--

cantitÅ, sing over and over (cantÅ); cursitÅ, keep running about (cursÅ); ventitÅ, keep coming.

b. agitÅ, 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 –uriÅ ; as,––

Ä"suriÅ, desire to eat, am hungry (edÅ); parturiÅ, want to bring forth, \_am in (pariÅ). labor\_

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:---

fraudÅ, defraud (fraus); vestiÅ, clothe (vestis); flÅ reÅ, bloom (flÅ s).

b) From Adjectives:---

līberÅ, free (lÄ«ber); saeviÅ, be fierce (saevus).

\* \* \* \* \*

D. ADVERBS.

157. 1. Adverbs derived from verbs are formed from the Participial Stem by means of the suffix –im; as,–- certÄ tim, *emulously* (certÅ); cursim, *in haste* (currÅ); statim, *immediately* (stÅ).

2. Adverbs derived from nouns and adjectives are formed:---

a) With the suffixes -tim (-sim), -Ä tim; as,--

gradÄ tim, \_step by step\_;

paulÄ tim, \_gradually\_;

virītim, man by man.

b) With the suffix -tus; as,--

antīquitus, \_of old\_;

rÄ dÄ«citus, from the roots.

c) With the suffix –ter; as,––

breviter, briefly.

\* \* \* \* \*

# II. COMPOUNDS.

158. 1. Compounds are formed by the union of simple words. The second member usually contains the *essential meaning* of the compound; the first member expresses *some modification* of this.

2. Vowel changes often occur in the process of composition. Thus:---

a. In the second member of compounds. (See § 7, 1.)

b. The final vowel of the stem of the first member of the compound often appears as  $\ddot{A}$ - where we should expect  $\dot{A}$  or  $\ddot{A}f$ ; sometimes it is dropped altogether, and in case of consonant stems  $\ddot{A}$ - is often inserted; as,--

signifer, \_standard-bearer\_;

tubicen, \_trumpeter\_;

magnanimus, \_high-minded\_;

mÄ tricÄ«da, matricide.

# 159. EXAMPLES OF COMPOUNDS.

1. Nouns:---

- a) Preposition + Noun; as,--
- dē-decus, \_disgrace\_;
- pro-avus, \_great-grandfather\_.
- b) Noun + Verb Stem; as,---
- agri-cola, \_farmer\_;
- frÄ tri–cÄ«da, *fratricide*.
- 2. Adjectives:---
- a) Preposition + Adjective (or Noun); as,--
- per-magnus, \_very great\_;
- sub-obscūrus, \_rather obscure\_;
- Ä –mÄ"ns, *frantic*.
- b) Adjective + Noun; as,---
- magn-animus, \_great-hearted\_;
- celeri-pēs, \_swift-footed\_.
- c) Noun + Verb Stem; as,---
- parti-ceps, \_sharing\_;
- morti-fer, \_death-dealing\_.
- 3. Verbs:---
- The second member is always a verb. The first may be--
- a) A Noun; as,---
- aedi-ficÅ, build.
- b) An Adjective; as,---
- ampli-ficÅ, enlarge.
- c) An Adverb; as,---
- male-dīcÅ, rail at.
- d) Another Verb; as,---

- cale-faciÅ, make warm.
- e) A Preposition; as,---
- ab-jungÅ , \_detach\_;
- re-ferÅ , \_bring back\_;
- dis-cernÅ , \_distinguish\_;
- ex-spectÅ, await.
- NOTE.--Here belong the so-called INSEPARABLE PREPOSITIONS:
- ambi- (amb-), \_around\_;
- dis- (dir-, di-), apart, \_asunder\_;
- por-, \_forward\_;
- red-(re-), \_back\_;
- sēd– (sÄ"–), \_apart from\_;
- vē-, without.
- 4. Adverbs:---
- These are of various types; as,--
- anteÄ, \_before\_;
- īlÄ«cÅ (in locÅ ), \_on the spot\_;
- imprīmÄ«s, \_especially\_;
- obviam, in the way.
- \* \* \* \* \*

- \* \* \* \* \*
- SYNTAX.
- \* \* \* \* \*
- 160. Syntax treats of the use of words in sentences

# CHAPTER I.

--\_Sentences.\_

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

161. Sentences may be classified as follows:---

1. DECLARATIVE, which state something; as,---

puer scrībit, the boy is writing.

2. INTERROGATIVE, Which ask a question; as,--

quid puer scrībit, \_what is the boy writing?\_

3. EXCLAMATORY, which are in the form of an exclamation; as,---

quot librŠs scrībit, \_how many books he writes!\_

4. IMPERATIVE, which express a command or an admonition; as,--

scrībe, \_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, quÄ«, quÄ lis, quantus, quot, quotiÄ"ns, quÅ , quÄ , etc. Thus:––

quis venit, \_who comes?\_ quam dīÅ« manÄ"bit, \_how long will he stay?\_

2. Sentence-Questions. These are introduced---

a) By nÅ nne implying the answer 'yes'; as,---

nŠnne vidētis, \_do you not see?\_

b) By num implying the answer 'no'; as,---

num exspectÄ s, \_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 implication from the context; as,--

sēnsistÄ«ne, \_did you not perceive?\_

d) Sometimes by no special word, particularly in expressions of surprise or \_indignation\_; as,---

tū in jÅ«dicum cÅ nspectum venÄ«re audÄ"s, \_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, annÅ n (less often necne) is used. Examples:---

utrum honestum est an turpe, } honestumne est an turpe, } \_is it honorable or base?\_ honestum est an turpe, } suntne  $d\ddot{A} \ll ann\dot{A}$  n, \_are there gods or not?\_

a. An was not originally confined to double questions, but introduced single questions, having the force of –ne, nÅ nne, or num. Traces of this use survive in classical Latin; as,––

Ā rēbus gerendÄ«s abstrahit senectÅ«s. Quibus? An eÄ«s quae juventÅ«te geruntur et vÄ«rÄ«bus? \_Old age (it is alleged) withdraws men from active pursuits. From what pursuits? Is it not merely from those which are carried on by the strength of youth?\_

5. Answers.

a. The answer YES is expressed by ita, etiam, vērÅ, sÄ nÄ", or by repetition of the verb; as,--

'vīsne locum mÅ«tÄ"mus?' 'sÄ nÄ"'. \_'Shall we change the place?'\_ \_'Certainly.'\_

'estīsne vÅ s lÄ"gatÄ«?' 'sumus.' \_'Are you envoys?'\_ \_'Yes.'\_

b. The answer NO is expressed by nŠn, minimē, minimÄ" vÄ"rÅ , or by repeating the verb with a negative; as,—

'jam ea praeteriit?' 'nÅ n.' \_'Has it passed?'\_ \_'No.'\_

'estne frÄ ter intus?' 'nÅ n 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 librÅ s legit, *the boy reads books*, is a Simple Sentence; but puer librÅ s legit et epistulÄ s scrÄ«bit, *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 on another is called SUBORDINATE. Thus in puer librÅ s legit et epistulÄ s scrÄ«bit the two clauses are Coördinate; but in puer librÅ s legit quÅ s pater scrÄ«bit, *the boy reads the books which his father writes*, the second clause is Subordinate to the first.

\* \* \* \* \*

# **CHAPTER II.**

--\_Syntax of Nouns.\_

SUBJECT.

166. The Subject of a Finite Verb (i.e. any form of the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative) is in the Nominative Case.

1. The Subject may be--

a) A Noun or Pronoun; as,---

puer scrībit, \_the boy writes\_;

hīc scrÄ«bit, this man writes.

b) An Infinitive; as,---

decÅ rum est prÅ patriÄ morÄ«, \_to die for one's county is a noble thing\_.

c) A Clause; as,---

opportūnÄ" accÄ«dit quod vÄ«distÄ«, it happened opportunely that you saw.

2. A Personal Pronoun as Subject is usually implied in the Verb and is not separately expressed; as,--

scrībÅ, \_I write\_; videt, \_he sees.\_

a. But for the purpose of emphasis or contrast the Pronoun is expressed; as,--

ego scrībÅ et tÅ« 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,--

rēctÄ" ille (sc. facit), \_he does rightly\_; consul 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;[47] as,--

CicerÅ Å rÄ tor fuit, \_Cicero was an orator\_;

Numa creÄ tus est rÄ"x, Numa was elected king.

1. when possible, the Predicate Noun usually agrees with its Subect in Gender also; as,--

philosophia est vītae magistra, philosophy is the guide of life.

2. Besides sum, the verbs most frequently accompanied by a Predicate Noun are--

a) fiÅ, Ä"vÄ dÅ, exsistÅ; maneÅ; videor; as,--

Croesus nÅ n semper mÄ nsit rÄ"x, Croesus did not always remain king.

b) Passive verbs of making, calling, regarding, etc.; as, creor, appellor, habeor; as,--

RŠmulus rēx appellatus 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,--

CicerÅ cÅ nsul, \_Cicero, the Consul\_;

urbs RÅ ma, the city Rome.

2. An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case; as,--

opera CicerŠnīs Å rÄ tÅ ris, \_the works of Cicero, the orator\_;

apud HÄ"rodotum, patrem historiae, \_in the works of Herodotus, the father of history\_.

3. When possible, the Appositive agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as,---

assentÄ tiÅ adjÅ«trÄ«x vitiÅ rum, \_flattery, the promoter of evils\_.

4. A Locative may take in Apposition the Ablative of urbs or oppidum, with or without a preposition; as,--

Corinthī, AchÄ iae urbe, or in AchÄ iae urbe, \_at Corinth, a city of Greece\_.

5. PARTITIVE APPOSITION. A Noun denoting a whole is frequently followed by an Appositive denoting a part; as,--

mīlitÄ"s, fortissimus quisque, hostibus restitÄ"runt, \_the soldiers, all the bravest of them, resisted the

enemy\_.

\* \* \* \* \*

THE CASES.

# THE NOMINATIVE.

170. The Nominative is confined to its use as Subject, Appositive, or Predicate Noun, as already explained. See  $\hat{A}$   $\hat{A}$ 

\* \* \* \* \*

THE VOCATIVE.

171. The Vocative is the Case of direct address; as,--

crēdite mihi, jÅ«dicÄ"s, \_believe me, judges\_.

1. By a species of attraction, the Nominative is occasionally used for the Vocative, especially in poetry and formal prose; as, audī tÅ«, populus AlbÄ nus, \_hear ye, Alban people!\_

2. Similarly the Appositive of a Vocative may, in poetry, stand in the Nominative; as, nÄ te, mea magna potentia sÅ lus, \_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,--

cŠnsulem interfēcit, \_he slew the consul\_;

legÅ librum, I read the book.

B. The RESULT PRODUCED by the action; as,---

librum scrīpsÄ«, 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 gnÄ tum amÄ re, *it is rumored that my son is in love*.

Accusative of the Person or Thing Affected.

175. 1. This is the most frequent use of the Accusative; as in--

parentēs amÄ mus, \_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, trÄ ns; as,--

hostēs circumstÄ re, \_to surround the enemy;\_

urbem praeterīre, \_to pass by the city;\_

mūrÅ s trÄ nscendere, \_to climb over the walls.\_

2) Less frequently, compounds of ad, per, in, sub; as,---

adīre urbem, \_to visit the city;\_

peragrÄ re Italiam, \_to travel through Italy;\_

inīre magistrÄ tum, \_to take office;\_

subīre perÄ«culum, \_to undergo danger.\_

b) Many Verbs expressing emotions, regularly Intransitive, have also a Transitive use; as,---

queror fÄ tum, \_I lament my fate;\_

doleÅ ejus mortem, \_I grieve at his death;\_

rīdeÅ tuam stultitiam, \_I laugh at your folly.\_

So also lūgeÅ, maereÅ, \_mourn\_; gemÅ, \_bemoan\_; horreÅ, 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 dÄ«cere, \_it becomes me to say this.\_

d) In poetry many Passive Verbs, in imitation of Greek usage, are employed as Middles ( $\hat{A}$  § 256, 1; 2), and take the Accusative as Object; as,—

galeam induitur, \_he puts on his helmet;\_

cīnctus tempora hederÄ, \_having bound his temples with ivy;\_

nŠdŠsinus collēcta, \_having gathered her dress in a knot.\_

Accusative of the Result Produced.

176. 1. The ordinary type of this Accusative is seen in such expressions as--

librum scrībÅ, \_I write a book\_;

domum aedificÅ, 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\_;

idem glÅ riÄ rÄ«, \_to make the same boast\_;

eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes.

b) A Neuter Adjective, -- particularly *Adjectives of number* or *amount*, -- multum, multa, pauca, etc.; also nihil; as, --

multa egeÅ , \_I have many needs\_;

pauca studet, \_he has few interests\_;

multum valet, \_he has great strength\_;

nihil peccat, he makes no mistake.

NOTE.--In poetry other Adjectives are freely used in this construction; as--

minitantem vÄ na, \_making vain threats\_;

acerba tuēns, \_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 vēnÄ tiÅ ne, they are much engaged in hunting.

a. So also plūrimum, \_very greatly\_; plÄ"rumque, \_generally\_; aliquid, \_somewhat\_; quid, \_why?\_ nihil, \_not at all\_; etc.

4. Sometimes an Intransitive Verb takes an Accusative of Result which is of kindred etymology with the Verb. This is called a COGNATE ACCUSATIVE, and is usually modified by an Adjective; as,--

sempiternam servitūtem serviat, \_let him serve an everlasting slavery\_;

vītam dÅ«ram vÄ«xÄ«, 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.

5. The Accusative of Result occurs also after Verbs of *tasting* and \_smelling\_; as,--

piscis mare sapit, \_the fish tastes of the sea\_;

Å rÄ tiÅ nÄ"s antÄ«quitÄ tem redolent, the speeches smack of the past.

Two Accusatives--Direct Object and Predicate Accusative.

177. 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 hÄ"rÄ"dem fÄ"cit, he made me heir.

Here mē is Direct Object, hÄ"rÄ"dÄ"m Predicate Accusative. So also---

eum jūdicem cÄ"pÄ"re, \_they took him as judge\_;

urbem RÅ mam vocÄ vit, \_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 caecÅ s reddit cupiditÄ s, \_covetousness renders men blind\_;

ApollŠSŠcratem sapientissimum jūdicÄ vit, Apollo adjudged Socrates the wisest man.

a. Some Verbs, as reddÅ, 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 (ŧ 168, 2, b): as,––

urbs RÅ ma vocÄ ta est, the city was called Rome.

a. Not all Verbs admit the Passive construction; reddÅ and efficiÅ, 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,--

Štium dīvÅ s rogat, \_he asks the gods for rest\_;

mē duÄ s Å rÄ tiÅ nÄ"s postulÄ s, you demand two speeches of me.

So also Å rÅ , poscÅ , reposcÅ , exposcÅ , flÄ gitÅ , though some of these prefer the Ablative with ab to the Accusative of the Person; as,--

opem Ä tÄ" poscÅ, I demand aid of you.

b) Verbs of *teaching* (doceÅ and its compounds); as,---

tē litterÄ s doceÅ, I teach you your letters.

c) Verbs of \_inquiring\_; as,--

tē haec rogÅ , \_I ask you this\_;

tē sententiam rogÅ, I ask you your opinion.

d) Several Special Verbs; *viz.* moneÅ, admoneÅ, commoneÅ, cÅ gÅ, accÅ«sÅ, arguÅ, and a few others. These admit only a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective as Accusative of the Thing; as,—

hŠc tē moneÅ , \_I give you this advice\_;

mē id accÅ«sÄ s, \_you bring this accusation against me\_;

id cÅ git nÅ s nÄ tÅ«ra, \_nature compels us (to) this\_.

e) One Verb of concealing, cēlÅ; as,--

nŠn tē cÄ"lÄ vÄ« sermÅ nem, 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 artÄ"s Ä"doctus est, \_he was taught all accomplishments\_;

rogÄ tus sum sententiam, \_I was asked my opinion\_;

multa Ä dmonÄ"mur, we are given many admonitions.

a. Only a few Verbs admit the Passive construction.

Two Accusatives with Compounds.

179. 1. Transitive compounds of trÄ ns may take two Accusatives, one dependent upon the Verb, the other upon the Preposition, as,--

mīlitÄ"s flÅ«men trÄ nsportat, 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,---

mīlitÄ"s flÅ«men trÄ dÅ«cÄ"bantur, the soldiers were led across the river.

Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative.

180. 1. The Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative denotes the part to which an action or quality refers; as,--

tremit artūs, literally, he trembles as to his limbs, i.e. his limbs tremble;

nūda genÅ«, lit. bare as to the knee, i.e. with knee bare;

manūs 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,--

quadrä gintä annå s vä«xit, \_he lived forty years\_;

hīc locus passÅ«s sescentÅ s aberat, \_this place was six hundred paces away\_;

arborēs quÄ«nquÄ gintÄ pedÄ"s altae, \_trees fifty feet high\_;

abhinc septem annÅ s, seven years ago.

2. Emphasis is sometimes added by using the Preposition per; as,

per biennium labÅ rÄ vÄ«, 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,--

RŠmam vēnÄ«, \_I came to Rome\_;

AthēnÄ s proficÄ«scitur, \_he sets out for Athens\_;

DÄ"lum pervÄ"nÄ«, I arrived at Delos.

b) With domum, domŠs, rūs; as,--

domum revertitur, \_he returns home\_;

rūs Ä«bÅ, I shall go to the country.

NOTE.--When domus means house (i.e. building), it takes a preposition; as,--

in domum veterem remigrÄ re, to move back to an old house.

2. Other designations of place than those above mentioned require a Preposition to denote Limit of Motion; as,--

ad Italiam 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,—

Thalam, in oppidum magnum, \_to Thala, a large town;\_

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,--

ThūriÅ s in Italiam pervectus, \_carried to Thurii in Italy;\_

cum Acēn ad exercitum vÄ"nisset, \_when he had come to the army at Ace.\_

3. To denote toward, to the vicinity of, \_in the vicinity of, \_ ad is used; as,---

ad Tarentum vēnÄ«, \_I came to the vicinity of Tarentum;\_

ad CannÄ s 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,—

Italiam vēnit, \_he came to Italy.\_

5. The *goal* notion seems to represent the original function of the Accusative Case. Traces of this primitive force are recognizable in the phrase īnfitiÄ s Ä«re, *to deny* (lit. \_to go to a denial\_), and a few other similar expressions.

Accusative in Exclamations.

183. The Accusative, generally modified by an Adjective, is used in Exclamations; as,---

mē miserum, \_ah, wretched me!\_

Ō fallÄ cem spem, \_oh, deceptive hope!\_

Accusative as Subject of the Infinitive.

184. The Subject of the Infinitive is put in the Accusative; as,--

videŠhominem abīre, \_I see that the man is going away.\_

Other Uses of the Accusative.

185. Here belong--

1. Some Accusatives which were originally Appositives; viz.--

id genus, \_of that kind\_; as, hominēs id genus, *men of that kind* (originally hominēs, id genus hominum, \_men, that kind of men\_);

virīle secus, muliebre secus, of the male sex, \_of the female sex\_;

meam vicem, tuam vicem, etc., for my part, etc.;

bonam partem, magnam partem, \_in large part\_;

maximam partem, for the most part.

2. Some phrases of doubtful origin; as,--

id temporis, \_at that time\_; quod si, \_but if\_; id aetÄ tis, \_at that time\_; cÄ"tera, 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 pecūniam mihi dat, \_he gives me this money\_;

haec nŠbīs dÄ«xit, he said this to us.

a. Some verbs which take this construction (particularly dA nA and circumdA) admit also the Accusative of the person along with the Ablative of the thing. Thus:---

Either Themistoclī mÅ«nera dÅ nÄ vit, he presented gifts to Themistocles, or

Themistoclem mūneribus dÅ nÄ vit, \_he presented Themistocles with gifts\_;

urbī mÅ«rÅ s circumdat, he builds walls around the city, or

urbem mūrÄ«s circumdat, he surrounds the city with walls II. With many intransitive verbs; as,---

nūllÄ« labÅ rÄ« cÄ"dit, \_he yields to no labor.\_

a. Here belong many verbs signifying favor,[48] help, injure, please, displease, trust, distrust, command, obey, serve, resist, indulge, spare, pardon, envy, threaten, be angry, believe, persuade, and the like; as,--

Caesar populÄ ribus favet, \_Caesar favors (i.e. is favorable to) the popular party\_;

amīcÄ«s cÅ nfÄ«dÅ , \_I trust (to) my friends\_;

Orgetorīx HelvÄ"tiÄ«s persuÄ sit, \_Orgetorix persuaded (made it acceptable to) the Helvetians\_;

bonīs nocet quÄ« malÄ«s 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, juvÅ, laedÅ, dÄ"lectÅ. Thus: audentÄ"s deus juvat, \_God helps the bold\_; nÄ"minem laesit *he injured no one*.

b. Verbs of this class are used in the passive only impersonally; as,--

tibi parcitur, \_you are spared\_;

mihi persuÄ dÄ"tur, \_I am being persuaded\_;

eī invidÄ"tur, he is envied.

c. Some of the foregoing verbs admit also a Direct Object in connection with the Dative; as,---

mihi mortem minitÄ tur, he threatens me with death (\_threatens death to me\_).

III. With many verbs compounded with the prepositions: ad, ante, circum, com,[49] in, inter, ob, post, prae, prÅ, 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,--

afflīctÄ«s succurrit, \_he helps the aflicted\_;

exercituī praefuit, \_he was in command of the army\_;

intersum cŠnsiliīs, I share in the deliberations.

2. Many transitive verbs which take only a direct object become capable, when compounded, of taking a dative also as indirect object; as,—

pecūniae pudÅ rem antepÅ nit, \_he puts honor before money\_;

inicere spem amīcÄ«s, \_to inspire hope in one's friends\_;

mūnÄ«tiÅ ni LabiÄ"num praefÄ"cit, he put Labienus in charge of the fortifications.

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,--

mihi ante oculÅ s versÄ ris, you hover before my eyes (lit. \_hover before the eyes to me\_);

illī sevÄ"ritÄ s amÅ rem nÅ n dÄ"minuit, *in his case severity did not diminish love* (lit. \_to him severity did not diminish\_);

interclūdere inimÄ«cÄ«s commeÄ tum, \_to cut of the supplies of the enemy.\_

a. Note the phrase alicui interdīcere aquÄ et Ä«gnÄ«, 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 prīmum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ä'pÄ«rÅ, *the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus* (lit. \_to those coming from Epirus\_).

b) Ethical Dative. This name is given to those Dative constructions of the personal pronouns in which the connection of the Dative with the rest of the sentence is of the very slightest sort; as,--

tū mihi istÄ«us audÄ ciam dÄ"fendis? \_tell me, do you defend that man's audacity?\_

quid mihi Celsus agit? \_what is my Celsus doing?\_

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 clÄ ro hominÄ«, 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,--

honŠrem dētrÄ xÄ"runt hominÄ«, \_they took away the honor from the man\_;

Caesar rēgÄ« tetrarchiam Ä"ripuit, \_Caesar took the tetrarchy away from the king\_;

silicī scintillam excÅ«dit, he struck a spark from the flint.

Dative of Agency.

189. The Dative is used to denote \_agency\_--

1. Regularly with the Gerundive; as,--

haec nŠbīs 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, Ä with the Ablative is sometimes used with the Gerundive; as,--

hostibus Ä nÅ bÄ«s 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,--

disputÄ tiÅ quae mihi nÅ«per habita est, the discussion which was recently conducted by me.

3. Rarely with the uncompounded tenses of the passive; as,--

honesta bonīs virÄ«s quaeruntur, noble ends are sought by good men.

Dative of Possession.

190. The Dative of Possession occurs with the verb esse in such expressions as:---

mihi est liber, \_I have a book\_;

mihi nÅ men est MÄ rcus, I have the name Marcus.

1. But with nÅ men est the name is more commonly attracted into the Dative; as, mihi MÄ rcÅ nÅ men est.

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,--

castrīs locum dÄ"ligere, \_to choose a place for a camp\_;

legiŠnēs praesidiÅ relinquere, to leave the legions as a guard (lit. \_for a guard\_);

receptuī 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,--

fortūnae tuae mihi cÅ«rae sunt, your fortunes are a care to me (lit. \_for a care\_);

quibus sunt odiÅ, \_to whom they are an object of hatred\_;

cui bonÅ ? \_to whom is it of advantage\_?

b) With other verbs; as,---

hŠs tibi mūnerÄ« mÄ«sit, \_he has sent these to you for a present\_;

PausaniÄ s AtticÄ«s vÄ"nit auxiliÅ, *Pausanias came to the aid of the Athenians* (lit. \_to the Athenians for aid\_).

3. In connection with the Gerundive; as,---

decemvirī lÄ"gibus scrÄ«bundÄ«s, \_decemvirs for codifying the laws\_;

mē gerendÅ bellÅ ducem creÄ vÄ"re, 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,—

mihi inimīcus, \_hostile to me\_;

sunt proximī GermÄ nis, \_they are next to the Germans\_;

noxiae poena pÄ r estÅ, let the penalty be equal to the damage.

a. For propior and proximus with the Accusative, see  $\hat{A}$  § 141, 3.

2. Corresponding to the Dative of Purpose, the Dative occurs with adjectives signifying: *suitable*, *adapted*, \_fit\_; as,--

castrīs idÅ neus locus, \_a place fit for a camp\_;

apta diēs sacrificiÅ, 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 clÄ mor caelÅ, \_the shout goes heavenward\_;

cinerēs rÄ«vÅ fluentÄ« jace, cast the ashes toward a flowing stream.

1. By an extension of this construction the poets sometimes use the Dative to denote the \_limit of motion\_; as,--

dum LatiŠdeŠs īnferret, till he should bring his gods to Latium.

\* \* \* \* \*

#### THE GENITIVE.

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

GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

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

Genitive of Origin, Objective Genitive, Genitive of Material, Genitive of the Whole, Genitive of Possession, Appositional Genitive, Subjective Genitive, Genitive of Quality.

196. Genitive of Origin; as,---

MÄ rcÄ« fÄ«lius, the son of Marcus.

197. Genitive of Material; as,--

talentum aurī, \_a talent of gold\_;

acervus frūmentÄ«, a pile of grain.

198. Genitive of Possession or Ownership; as,--

domus CicerÅ nis, \_Cicero's house\_.

1. Here belongs the Genitive with causÄ and grÄ tiÄ. The Genitive always precedes; as,--

hominum causÄ , \_for the sake of men\_;

meŠrum amīcÅ rum grÄ tiÄ, for the sake of my friends.

2. The Possessive Genitive is often used predicatively, especially with esse and fierī; as,--

domus est rēgis, \_the house is the king's\_;

stultī est in errÅ re manÄ"re, \_it is (the part) of a fool to remain in error\_;

dē bellÅ jÅ«dicium imperÄ tÅ ris est, nÅ n mÄ«litum, \_the decision concerning war belongs to the general, not to the soldiers\_.

a. For the difference in force between the Possessive Genitive and the Dative of Possession, see § 359, 1.

199. Subjective Genitive. This denotes \_the person who makes or produces something or who has a feeling\_; as,--

dicta PlatÅ nis, \_the utterances of Plato\_;

timŠrēs lÄ«berÅ rum, the fears of the children.

200. Objective Genitive. This denotes \_the object of an action or feeling\_; as,--

metus deÅ rum, \_the fear of the gods\_;

amor lībertÄ tis, \_love of liberty\_;

cŠnsuētÅ«dÅ bonÅ rum hominum, intercourse with good men.

1. This relation is often expressed by means of prepositions; as,--

amor ergÄ parentÄ"s, \_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 peditum, \_two thousand foot-soldiers\_;

quis mortÄ lium, \_who of mortals?\_

major frÄ trum, \_the elder of the brothers\_;

gēns maxima GermÄ nÅ rum, \_the largest tribe of the Germans\_;

prīmus omnium, the first of all.

a. Yet instead of the Genitive of the Whole we often find ex or  $d\ddot{A}$ " with the Ablative, regularly so with Cardinal numbers and qu $\ddot{A}$ «dam; as,—

fidēlissimus dÄ" servÄ«s, \_the most trusty of the slaves\_;

quīdam ex amÄ«cÄ«s, \_certain of his friends\_;

ūnus ex mÄ«litibus, 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 vÅ s estis, \_how many of you are there?\_

trecentī conjÅ«rÄ vimus, three hundred of us have conspired (i.e. we, three hundred in number).

2. The Genitive of the Whole is used also with the Nominative or Accusative Singular Neuter of Pronouns, or of Adjectives used substantively; also with the Adverbs parum, satis, and partim when used substantively; as,--

quid cŠnsilī, \_what purpose?\_

tantum cibī, \_so much food\_;

plūs auctÅ ritÄ tis, \_more authority\_;

minus labÅ ris, \_less labor\_;

satis pecūniae, \_enough money\_;

parum industriae, too little industry.

a. An Adjective of the second declension used substantively may be employed as a Genitive of the Whole; as, nihil bonī, *nothing good*.

b. But Adjectives of the third declension agree directly with the noun they limit; as, nihil dulcius, *nothing sweeter*.

3. Occasionally we find the Genitive of the Whole dependent upon Adverbs of place; as,---

ubi terrÄ rum? ubi gentium? \_where in the world?\_

a. By an extension of this usage the Genitive sometimes occurs in dependence upon prīdiÄ" and postrÄ«diÄ", but only in the phrases prÄ«diÄ" ejus diÄ"Ä«, \_on the day before that\_; postrÄ«diÄ" ejus diÄ"Ä«, *on the day after that.* 

202. Appositional Genitive. The Genitive sometimes has the force of an appositive; as,--

nŠmen rēgis, \_the name of king\_;

poena mortis, \_the penalty of death\_;

ars scrībendÄ«, the art of writing.

203. Genitive of Quality. The Genitive modified by an Adjective is used to denote quality. This construction presents several varieties. Thus it is used---

1. To denote some internal or permanent characteristic of a person or thing; as,--

vir magnae virtūtis, \_a man of great virtue\_;

ratiŠnēs ejus modÄ«, 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 quīndecim pedum, a trench fifteen feet wide (or \_deep\_);

exsilium decem annÅ rum, an exile of ten years.

3. Equivalent to the Genitive of Quality (though probably of different origin) are the Genitives tantī, quantÄ«, parvÄ«, magnÄ«, minÅ ris, plÅ«ris, minimÄ«, plÅ«rimÄ«, maximÄ«. These are used predicatively to denote \_indefinite value\_; as,--

nūlla studia tantÄ« sunt, \_no studies are of so much value\_;

magnī opera ejus exÄ«stimÄ ta est, his assistance was highly esteemed.

4. By an extension of the notion of *value*, quantī, tantÄ«, plÅ«ris, and minÅ ris are also used with verbs of *buying* and *selling*, to denote \_indefinite price\_; as,--

quantī aedÄ"s Ä"mistÄ«, \_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 mÅ lis erat RÅ mÄ nam 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*, *fullness*, and their opposites; as,--

studiŠsus discendī, \_desirous of learning\_;

perītus bellÄ«, \_skilled in war\_;

īnsuÄ"tus labÅ ris, \_unused to toil\_;

immemor mandÄ tÄ« tuÄ«, \_unmindful of your commission\_;

plēna perÄ«culÅ rum est vÄ«ta, life is full of dangers.

a. Some participles used adjectively also take the Genitive; as,--

diligēns vÄ"ritÄ tis, \_fond of truth\_;

amÄ ns patriae, \_devoted to one's country\_.

2. Sometimes with proprius and commūnis; as,--

virī propria est fortitÅ«dÅ, 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,--

fīlius patris simillimus est, \_the son is exactly like his father\_;

meī similis, \_like me\_; vestrÄ« similis, *like you*.

When the reference is to things, both Genitive and Dative occur; as,---

mors somnŠ(or somnī) 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, atrŠx animī, \_fierce of temper\_; incertus cÅ nsilÄ«, *undecided in purpose*.

# GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

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

Memini, \_Reminīscor\_, \_OblÄ«vÄ«scor\_.

206. 1. WHEN REFERRING TO PERSONS--

a. meminī always takes the Genitive of personal or reflexive pronouns; as,--

meī meminerÄ«s, remember me!

nostrī meminit, he remembers us.

With other words denoting persons meminī takes the Accusative, rarely the Genitive; as,---

Sullam meminī, \_I recall Sulla\_;

vīvÅ rum meminÄ«, I remember the living.

b. oblīvÄ«scor regularly takes the Genitive; as,--

EpicūrÄ« nÅ n licet oblÄ«vÄ«scÄ«, \_we mustn't forget Epicurus\_.

2. WHEN REFERRING TO THINGS, meminī, reminÄ«scor, oblÄ«vÄ«scor take sometimes the Genitive, sometimes the Accusative, without difference of meaning; as,—

animus praeteritÅ rum meminit, \_the mind remembers the past\_;

meministīne nÅ mina, \_do you remember the names?\_

reminīscere veteris incommodÄ«, \_remember the former disaster\_;

reminīscÄ"ns acerbitÄ tem, remembering the bitterness.

a. But neuter pronouns, and adjectives used substantively, regularly stand in the Accusative; as,--

haec meminī, \_I remember this;\_

multa reminīscor, \_I remember many things.\_

3. The phrase mihi (tibi, etc.) in mentem venit, following the analogy of meminī, takes the Genitive; as,---

mihi patriae veniēbat in mentem, \_I remembered my country.\_

\_AdmoneÅ \_, \_CommoneÅ \_, \_CommonefaciÅ .\_

207. These verbs, in addition to an Accusative of the person, occasionally take a Genitive of the thing; as,---

tē veteris amÄ«citiae commonefaciÅ, \_I remind you of our old friendship.\_

a. But more frequently (in Cicero almost invariably) these verbs take dē with the Ablative; as,---

mē admonÄ"s dÄ" sorÅ re, \_you remind me of your sister.\_

b. A neuter pronoun or adjective used substantively regularly stands in the Accusative (§ 178, 1, d); as,--

tē hÅ c admoneÅ , \_I give you this warning.\_

Verbs of Judicial Action.

208. 1. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting take the Genitive of the \_charge\_; as,--

mē fÅ«rtÄ« accÅ«sat, \_he accuses me of theft\_;

Verrem avÄ ritiae coarguit, \_he convicts Verres of avarice\_;

impietÄ tis absolÅ«tus est, he was acquitted of blasphemy.

2. Verbs of Condemning take--

a. The Genitive of the \_charge\_; as,--

pecūniae pÅ«blicae condemnÄ tus, \_condemned (on the charge) of embezzlement\_ (lit. \_public money\_);

capitis damnÄ tus, condemned on a capital charge (lit. \_on a charge involving his head\_).

b. The Ablative of the \_penalty;\_ as,--

capite damnÄ tus est, \_he was condemned to death\_;

mīlle nummÄ«s damnÄ tus est, \_he was condemned (to pay) a thousand sesterces\_ (lit. by a thousand sesterces, Abl. of Means).

3. Note the phrases:---

vŠtī damnÄ tus, vÅ tÄ« reus, \_having attained one's prayer\_ (lit. \_condemned on the score of one's vow\_);

dē vÄ«, (accused, convicted, etc.) \_of assault\_;

inter sīcÄ riÅ s, (accused, convicted, etc.) of murder.

Genitive with Impersonal Verbs.

209. 1. The Impersonals pudet, paenitet, miseret, taedet, piget take the Accusative of *the person affected*, along with the Genitive \_of the person or thing toward whom the feeling is directed\_; as,--

pudet mē tuÄ«, I am ashamed of you (lit. \_it shames me of you\_);

paenitet mē hÅ«jus factÄ«, \_I repent of this act\_;

eum taedet vītae, \_he is weary of life\_;

pauperum tē miseret, you pity the poor.

a. Instead of the Genitive of the thing we often find an Infinitive or Neuter Pronoun used as subject of the verb. Thus;--

mē paenitet hÅ c fÄ"cisse, \_I repent of having done this\_;

mē hÅ c pudet, I am ashamed of this.

2. Misereor and miserēscÅ also govern the Genitive; as,---

miserēminÄ« sociÅ rum, pity the allies.

Interest, \_RÄ"fert.\_

210. With interest, it concerns, three points enter into consideration; viz.--

a) the \_person concerned\_; b) the *thing about which* he is concerned; c) the *extent* of his concern.

211. 1. The person concerned is regularly denoted by the Genitive; as,--

patris interest, it concerns the father.

a. But instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, meī, tuÄ«, nostrÄ«, vestrÄ«, the Latin uses the Ablative Singular Feminine of the Possessive, viz.: meÄ , tuÄ , etc.; as,--

meÄ interest, it concerns me.

2. The thing about which a person is concerned is denoted---

a) by a Neuter Pronoun as subject; as,--

hŠc reī pÅ«blicae interest, this concerns the state.

b) by an Infinitive; as,---

omnium interest valÄ"re, it concerns all to keep well.

c) by an Indirect Question; as,---

meÄ interest quandÅ veniÄ s, I am concerned as to when you are coming.

3. The degree of concern is denoted--

a) by the Genitive (cf. § 203, 3): magnÄ«, parvÄ«, etc.; as,--

meÄ magnÄ« interest, it concerns me greatly.

b) by the Adverbs, magnopere, magis, maximē, etc.; as,--

cīvium minimÄ" interest, it concerns the citizens very little.

c) by the Neuters, multum, plūs, minus, etc.; as,--

multum vestrÄ interest, it concerns you much.

4. RÄ"fert follows interest in its construction, except that it rarely takes the Genitive of the person. Thus:---

meÄ rÄ"fert, \_it concerns me\_;

but rarely illīus rÄ"fert, it concerns him.

Genitive with Other Verbs.

212. 1. Verbs of Plenty and Want sometimes govern the Genitive; as,--

pecūniae indigÄ"s, you need money.

a. These verbs more commonly take the Ablative ( $\hat{A}$  § 214, 1); indige $\hat{A}$  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 potīrÄ« rÄ"rum, *to get control of affairs*.

3. In poetry some verbs take the Genitive in imitation of the Greek; as,---

dēsine querellÄ rum, \_cease your complaints\_;

operum solūtÄ«, freed from their tasks.

\* \* \* \* \*

#### THE ABLATIVE.

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

The Ablative or from-case. The Instrumental or with-case. The Locative or where-case.

The uses of the Latin Ablative accordingly fall into Genuine Ablative uses, Instrumental uses, and Locative uses.

GENUINE ABLATIVE USES.

Ablative of Separation.

214. The Ablative of Separation is construed sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition.

1. The following words regularly take the Ablative without a preposition:---

a) The Verbs of \_freeing\_: līberÅ , solvÅ , levÅ ;

b) The Verbs of \_depriving\_: prīvÅ , spoliÅ , exuÅ , fraudÅ , nÅ«dÅ ;

c) The Verbs of \_lacking\_: egeÅ , careÅ , vacÅ ;

d) The corresponding Adjectives, līber, inÄ nis, vacuus, nÅ«dus,

and some others of similar meaning.

Thus:---

cūrÄ«s lÄ«berÄ tus, \_freed from cares\_;

Caesar hostēs armÄ«s exuit, \_Caesar stripped the enemy of their arms\_;

caret sēnsÅ« commÅ«nÄ«, \_he lacks common sense\_;

auxiliÅ eget, \_he needs help\_;

bonŠrum vīta vacua est metÅ«, the life of the good is free from fear.

NOTE 1.--Yet Adjectives and līberÅ may take the preposition ab,--regularly so with the Ablative of persons; as,--

urbem Ä tyrannÅ lÄ«berÄ runt, \_they freed the city from the tyrant.\_

NOTE 2.--IndigeŠusually takes the Genitive. See § 212, 1, a.

2. Of Verbs signifying *to keep from, to remove, to withdraw*, some take the preposition, others omit it. The same Verb often admits both constructions. Examples:—

abstinēre cibÅ , \_to abstain from food;\_

hostēs fÄ«nibus prohibuÄ"runt, \_they kept the enemy from their borders\_;

praedŠnēs ab Ä«nsulÄ prohibuit, he kept the pirates from the island.

3. Other Verbs of separation usually take the Ablative with a Prepositon, particularly compounds of dis– and  $s\ddot{A}$ "–; as,––

dissentiÅ Ä tÄ", \_I dissent from you\_;

sēcernantur Ä nÅ bÄ«s, 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 nÄ tus and ortus (in poetry also with Ä"ditus, satus, and some others), to designate *parentage* or \_station\_; as,--

Jove nÄ tus, \_son of Jupiter\_;

summÅ locÅ nÄ tus, \_high-born\_ (lit. \_born from a very high place\_);

nŠbilī genere ortus, born of a noble family.

1. Pronouns regularly (nouns rarely) take ex; as,

ex mē nÄ tus, 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 Ä (ab) is used with passive verbs to denote the \_personal agent\_; as,--

Ä Caesare accÅ«sÄ tus 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 Ä fortÅ«nÄ dÄ"serÄ"bantur, \_the enemy were deserted by Fortune\_;

Ä multitÅ«dine hostium mÅ ntÄ"s tenÄ"bantur, the mountains were held by a multitude of the enemy.

2. Names of animals sometimes admit the same construction. Thus:---

Ä canibus laniÄ tus est, he was torn to pieces by dogs.

Ablative of Comparison.

217. 1. The Ablative is often used with Comparatives in the sense of \_than\_; as,--

melle dulcior, \_sweeter than honey\_;

patria mihi vītÄ cÄ rior 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 studiÅ sior sum quam illÄ«us, I am fonder of you than of him.

--StudiÅ sior illÅ would have meant, I am fonder of you than he is.

Plūs, minus, amplius, longius are often employed as the equivalents of plÅ«s quam, minus quam, etc. Thus:---

amplius vīgintÄ« urbÄ"s incenduntur, \_more than twenty cities are fired\_;

minus quīnque mÄ«lia prÅ cessit, he advanced less than five miles.

3. Note the use of opīniÅ ne with Comparatives; as,---

opīniÅ ne celerius venit, he comes more quickly than expected (lit. \_than opinion\_).

INSTRUMENTAL USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Means.

218. The Ablative is used to denote *means* or \_instrument\_; as,--

Alexander sagittÄ vulnerÄ tus est, Alexander was wounded by an arrow.

There are the following special varieties of this Ablative:---

1. Å<sup>a</sup>tor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds take the Ablative; as,--

dīvitiÄ«s Å«titur, he uses his wealth (lit. \_he benefits himself by his wealth\_);

vītÄ fruitur, he enjoys life (lit. \_he enjoys himself by life\_);

mūnere fungor, *I perform my duty* (lit. \_I busy myself with duty\_);

carne vescuntur, *they eat flesh* (lit. \_feed themselves by means of\_);

castrīs potÄ«tus est, he got possession of the camp (lit. \_made himself powerful by the camp\_).

a.. Potior sometimes governs the Genitive. See § 212, 2.

2. With opus est (rarely ūsus est), \_there is need\_; as,--

duce nŠbīs opus est, we need a leader.

a. A Neuter Pronoun or Adjective often stands as subject with opus as predicate. Thus:---

hÅ c mihi opus est, this is necessary for me.

b. An ordinary substantive rarely stands as subject. Thus dux nŠbīs opus est is a rare form of expression.

c. Note the occasional use of a perfect passive participle with opus est; as,--

opus est properÄ tÅ, there is need of haste.

3. With nītor, innÄ«xus, and frÄ"tus; as,--

nītitur hastÄ, he rests on a spear (lit. \_supports himself by a spear\_);

frētus virtÅ«te, *relying on virtue* (lit. \_supported by virtue\_).

4. With continērÄ«, cÅ nsistere, cÅ nstÄ re, \_consist of\_; as,--

nervīs et ossibus continentur, *they consist of sinews and bones* (lit. \_they are held together by sinews and bones\_);

mortÄ lÄ« cÅ nsistit corpore mundus, the world consists of mortal substance (lit. holds together by means of, etc.).

6. In expressions of the following type:---

quid hÅ c homine faciÄ s, \_what can you do with this man?\_

quid meÄ TulliolÄ fÄ«et, \_what will become of my dear Tullia?\_ (lit. \_what will be done with my dear Tullia?\_)

7. In the following special phrases at variance with the ordinary English idiom:---

proeliÅ contendere, vincere, to contend, \_conquer in battle\_;

proeliÅ lacessere, \_to provoke to battle\_;

currū vehÄ«, \_to ride in a chariot\_;

pedibus īre, \_to go on foot\_;

castrīs sÄ" tenÄ"re, to keep in camp.

8. With Verbs of *filling* and Adjectives of \_plenty\_; as,--

fossÄ s virgultÄ«s complÄ"runt, they filled the trenches with brush.

a. But plēnus more commonly takes the Genitive. See § 204, 1.

9. Under 'Means' belongs also the Ablative of the Way by Which; as,---

vīnum TiberÄ« dÄ"vectum, \_wine brought down (by) the Tiber\_.

10. The means may be a person as well as a thing. Thus:---

mīlitibus Ä lacÅ« LemannÅ ad montem JÅ«ram mÅ«rum perdÅ«cit, *with* (i.e. by means of) \_his troops he runs a wall from Lake Geneva to Mt. Jura\_.

Ablative of Cause.

219. The Ablative is used to denote cause; as,--

multa glÅ riae cupiditÄ te fÄ"cit, he did many things on account of his love of glory.

1. So especially with verbs denoting mental states; as, dēlector, gÄ udeÅ , laetor, glÅ rior, fÄ«dÅ , cÅ nfÄ«dÅ . Also with contentus; as,—

fortūnÄ amÄ«cÄ« gaudeÅ, \_I rejoice at the fortune of my friend (i.e. on account of it\_);

victÅ riÄ suÄ glÅ riantur, \_they exult over their victory\_;

nÄ tÅ«rÄ locÄ« cÅ nfÄ«dÄ"bant, *they trusted in the character of their country* (lit. \_were confident on account of the character\_).

a. f $\ddot{A}$ «d $\ddot{A}$  and c $\ddot{A}$  nf $\ddot{A}$ «d $\ddot{A}$  always take the Dative of the person ( $\hat{A}$ § 187, II, a); sometimes the Dative of the thing.

2. As Ablatives of Cause are to be reckoned also such Ablatives as jussū, by order of, injussÅ«, *without the order*, rogÄ tÅ«, etc.

Ablative of Manner.

220. The Ablative with cum is used to denote manner; as,--

cum gravitÄ te loquitur, he speaks with dignity.

1. The preposition may be absent when the Ablative is modified by an adjective; as,---

magnÄ gravitÄ te loquitur, he speaks with great dignity.

2. The preposition is regularly absent in the expressions jÅ«re, injÅ«ri $\ddot{A}$ , jocÅ,  $v\ddot{A}$ «, fraude, volunt $\ddot{A}$  te, fÅ«rt $\dot{A}$ , silenti $\dot{A}$ .

3. A special variety of the Ablative of Manner denotes that *in accordance with which* or *in pursuance of which* anything is or is done. It is generally used without a preposition. Thus:--

meÄ sententiÄ, \_according to my opinion\_;

suīs mÅ ribus, \_in accordance with their custom\_;

suÄ sponte, voluntarily, \_of his (their) own accord\_;

eÄ condiciÅ ne, on these terms.

Ablative of Attendant Circumstance.

221. The Ablative is often used to denote an attendant circumstance of an action or an event; as,--

bonīs auspiciÄ«s, \_under good auspices\_;

nūlla est altercÄ tiÅ clÄ mÅ ribus umquam habita majÅ ribus, \_no debate was ever held under circumstances of greater applause\_;

exstinguitur ingentī lÅ«ctÅ« prÅ vinciae, \_he dies under circumstances of great grief on the part of the province\_;

longÅ intervÄ llÅ 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 comitibus profectus est, \_he set out with his attendants\_;

cum febrī domum rediit, 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 cŠpiīs, ingentÄ« exercitÅ«, magnÄ manÅ«; but usually cum exercitÅ«, cum duÄ bus legiÅ nibus.

Ablative of Association.

222A. The Ablative is often used with verbs of *joining*, *mixing*, *clinging*, \_exchanging\_; also with assuēscÅ, cÅ nsuÄ"scÅ, assuÄ"faciÅ, and some others to denote \_association\_; as,--

improbitÄ s scelere jÅ«ncta, \_badness joined with crime\_;

Ä Ä"r calÅ re admixtus, \_air mixed with heat\_;

assuētus labÅ re, accustomed to (lit. \_familiarized with) toil\_;

pÄ cem bellÅ permÅ«tant, 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,  $\ddot{A}$ «nfr $\ddot{A}$ , supr $\ddot{A}$ ) to denote the \_degree of difference\_; as,--

dimidiÅ minor, \_smaller by a half\_;

tribus pedibus altior, \_three feet higher\_;

paulÅ post, \_a little afterwards\_;

quÅ plurÄ habÄ"mus, eÅ cupimus ampliÅ ra, \_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 eximiÄ fÅ rmÄ , \_a girl of exceptional beauty\_;

vir singulÄ rÄ« industriÄ, a man of singular industry.

1. The Ablative of Quality may also be used predicatively; as,--

est magnÄ prÅ«dentiÄ, \_he is (a man) of great wisdom\_;

bonÅ animÄ sunt, they are of good courage.

2. In place of the Adjective we sometimes find a limiting Genitive; as,---

sunt speciē et colÅ re taurÄ«, they are of the appearance and color of a bull,

3. In poetry the Ablative of Quality sometimes denotes \_material;\_ as,---

scopulīs pendentÄ«bus antrum, \_a cave of arching rocks.\_

Ablative of Price.

225. With verbs of buying and selling, price is designated by the Ablative; as--

servum quīnque minÄ«s Ä"mit, \_he bought the slave for five minae.\_

1. The Ablatives magnÅ , plÅ «rimÅ , parvÅ , minimÅ (by omission of pretiÅ ) are used to denote \_indefinite price\_; as, –– aedēs magnÅ vÄ"ndidÄ«t, \_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,---

HelvētiÄ« omnibus GallÄ«s virtÅ«te praestÄ bant, \_the Helvetians surpassed all the Gauls in valor\_;

pede claudus, lame in his foot.

1. Note the phrases:---

major nÄ tÅ«, *older* (lit. \_greater as to age\_);

minor nÄ tÅ«, \_younger.\_

2. Here belongs the use of the Ablative with dignus, *worthy*, indignus, *unworthy*, and dignor, \_deem worthy of\_; as,--

dignī honÅ re, \_worthy of honor (i.e. in point of honor\_);

fidē indignÄ«, \_unworthy of confidence\_;

mē dignor honÅ re, I deem myself worthy of honor.

Ablative Absolute.

227. The Ablative Absolute is grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. In its commonest form it consists of a noun or pronoun limited by a participle; as,—

urbe capt $\ddot{A}$ , Aen $\ddot{A}$ " $\ddot{A}$ s f $\dot{A}$ «git, \_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,--

vīvÅ Caesare rÄ"s pÅ«blica salva erat, *while Caesar was alive the state was safe* (lit. \_Caesar being alive\_);

TarquiniŠrēge, PythagorÄ s in Italiam vÄ"nit, *in the reign of Tarquin Pythagoras came into Italy* (lit. \_Tarquin being king\_);

Cn. PompejÅ, M. CrassÅ cÅ nsulibus, *in the consulship of Gnaeus Pompey and Marcus Crassus* (lit. \_P. and C. being consuls\_).

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 virtÅ«tÄ"s jacent, voluptÄ te dominante, \_all virtues lie prostrate, if pleasure is master\_.

c) Opposition; as,---

perditīs omnibus rÄ"bus, virtÅ«s sÄ" sustentÄ re potest, \_though everything else is lost, yet Virtue can maintain herself\_.

d) Cause; as,---

nūllÅ adversante rÄ"gnum obtinuit, \_since no one opposed him, he secured the throne\_.

e) Attendant circumstance; as,--

passīs palmÄ«s pÄ cem petÄ«vÄ"runt, \_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,--

audītÅ eum fÅ«gisse, when it was heard that he had fled.

4. A noun or pronoun stands in the Ablative Absolute construction only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the clause in which it stands. Exceptions to this principle are extremely rare.

### LOCATIVE USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Place.

\_A. Place where.\_

228. The place where is regularly denoted by the \_Ablative with a preposition\_; as,---

in urbe habitat, he dwells in the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz.--

a) Names of towns,--except Singulars of the First and Second Declensions (see § 232, 1); as,--

CarthÄ ginÄ«, \_at Carthage\_;

Athēnis, \_at Athens\_;

Vejīs, at Veii.

b) The general words locŠ, locīs, parte; also many words modified by tÅ tus or even by other Adjectives; as,--

hÅ c locÅ , \_at this place\_;

tŠtīs castrÄ«s, in the whole camp.

c) The special words: forīs, \_out of doors\_; rÅ«rÄ«, in the country, terrÄ marÄ«que, on land and sea.

d) The poets freely omit the preposition with any word denoting place; as,---

stant lītore puppÄ"s, the sterns rest on the beach.

\_B. Place from which.[50]\_

229. Place from which is regularly denoted by the \_Ablative with a preposition\_; as,---

ab ItaliÄ profectus est, \_he set out from Italy\_;

ex urbe rediit, he returned from the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; viz.--

a) Names of towns and small islands; as,--

RÅ ma profectus est, \_he set out from Rome\_;

RhodÅ revertit, he returned from Rhodes.

b) domŠ, \_from home\_; rūre, *from the country*.

c) Freely in poetry; as,---

ItaliÄ dÄ"cessit, 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,--

Ä GergoviÄ discessit, \_he withdrew from the vicinity of Gergovia\_;

Ä RÅ mÄ X mÄ«lia aberat, he was ten miles distant from Rome.

Urbe and oppidÅ, when standing in apposition with a town name, are accompanied by a preposition; as,--

Curibus ex oppidŠSabīnÅ rum, \_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,--

quÄ rtÄ hÅ rÄ mortuus est, \_he died at the fourth hour\_;

annÅ septuÄ gÄ"simÅ cÅ nsul creÄ tus, elected consul in his seventieth year.

1. Any word denoting a period of time may stand in this construction, particularly annus, vēr, aestÄ s, hiems, diÄ"s, nox, hÅ ra, comitia (\_Election Day\_), lÅ«dÄ« (\_the Games\_), etc.

2. Words not denoting time require the preposition in, unless accompanied by a modifier. Thus:---

in pÄ ce, \_in peace\_; in bellÅ , \_in war\_;

but secundŠbellŠPūnicÅ, in the second Punic War.

3. Expressions like in eŠtempore, in summa senectūte, take the preposition because they denote *situation* rather than *time*.

\_B. Time within which.\_

231. Time within which is denoted by the Ablative either with or \_without a preposition\_; as,--

stella SÄ turnÄ« trÄ«gintÄ annÄ«s cursum cÅ nficit, \_the planet Saturn completes its orbit within thirty years\_;

ter in annÅ, thrice in the course of the year.

1. Occasionally the Ablative denotes \_duration of time\_; as,---

bienniÅ prÅ sperÄ s rÄ"s habuit, for two years he had a prosperous administration.

\* \* \* \* \*

### 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,--

RŠmae, \_at Rome\_; Corinthī, \_at Corinth\_; RhodÄ«, at Rhodes.

2. In the following special forms:---

domī, \_at home\_; humÄ«, \_on the ground\_; bellÄ«, \_in war\_; mÄ«litiae, \_in war\_; vesperÄ«, \_at evening\_; herÄ«, *yesterday*.

3. Note the phrase pendēre animÄ«, lit. \_to be in suspense in one's mind\_.

4. For urbs and oppidum in apposition with a Locative, see  $\hat{A}$  § 169, 4.

\* \* \* \* \*

# 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 vidēbÄ tur sapiÄ"ns, \_the man seemed wise\_;

vir jūdicÄ tus est sapiÄ"ns, \_the man was judged wise\_;

hunc virum sapientem jūdicÄ vimus, we adjudged this man wise.

3. Participles and Adjective Pronouns have the construction of Adjectives.

### AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

234. Agreement with One Noun. When an Adjective limits one noun it agrees with it in Gender, Number, and Case.

1. Two Adjectives in the Singular may limit a noun in the Plural, as; prīma et vÄ«cÄ"sima legiÅ nÄ"s, *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,--

omnium rērum mors est extrÄ"mum, death is the end of all things.

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 mÄ ter, \_your father and mother\_;

eadem alacritÄ s et studium, the same eagerness and zeal.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative, it is regularly Plural; as,---

pÄ x et concordia sunt pulchrae, *peace and concord are glorious*.

### B. AGREEMENT AS TO GENDER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in gender with the nearest noun; as,--

rēs operae multae ac labÅ ris, 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 fīlius captÄ« sunt, father and son were captured.

Yet with feminine abstract nouns, the Adjective is more frequently Neuter; as,--

stultitia et timiditÄ s fugienda sunt, folly and cowardice must be shunned.

b) If the nouns are of different gender; then,--

 $\hat{I}$ <sup>±</sup>) In case they denote persons, the Adjective is Masculine; as,--

pater et mÄ ter mortuÄ« sunt, the father and mother have died.

Î<sup>2</sup>) In case they denote things, the Adjective is Neuter; as,--

honŠrēs et victÅ riae fortuÄ«ta sunt, \_honors and victories are accidental.\_

Î<sup>3</sup>) In case they include both persons and things, the Adjective is,--

αα) Sometimes Masculine; as,---

domus, uxor, līberÄ« inventÄ« sunt, \_home, wife, and children are secured.\_

ββ) Sometimes Neuter; as,--

parentēs, lÄ«berÅ s, domÅ s vÄ«lia habÄ"re, \_to hold parents, children, houses cheap.\_

Î<sup>3</sup>Î<sup>3</sup>) Sometimes it agrees with the nearest noun; as,--

populī prÅ vinciaeque lÄ«berÄ tae 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 bēstiÄ«s objectÄ« sunt, \_part (of the men) were thrown to beasts.\_

ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY.

236. 1. 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\_; malÄ«, \_the wicked\_; magna, \_great things\_; GraecÄ«, \_the Greeks\_; Å«tilia, \_useful things\_; nostrÄ«, *our men*.

2. Neuter Plural Adjectives thus used are confined mainly to the Nominative and Accusative cases. Such forms as magnŠrum, omnium; magnīs, omnibus, would ordinarily lead to ambiguity; yet where there is no ambiguity, they sometimes occur; as,––

parvīs compÅ nere magna, to compare great things with small Otherwise the Latin says: magnÄ rum rÄ"rum, magnÄ«s rÄ"bus, 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 nēminÄ«, the honest man envies nobody.

a. Usually vir, homÅ, or some similar word is employed; as,---

homÅ doctus, \_a scholar\_;

vir RÅ mÄ nus, a Roman.

b. But when limited by a pronoun any adjective may be so used; as,--

hīc doctus, \_this scholar\_;

doctus quīdam, a certain scholar.

2. Neuters are likewise infrequent; as,--

vērum, \_truth\_;

jūstum, \_justice\_;

honestum, virtue.

a. This substantive use of Neuter Singulars is commonest in the construction of the Genitive of the Whole, and after Prepositions; as,--

aliquid vērÄ«, \_something true\_;

nihil novī, \_nothing new\_;

in mediÅ, 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,—

adversÄ rius, \_opponent\_; hÄ«berna, \_winter quarters\_; aequÄ lis, \_contemporary\_; propinquus, \_relative\_; amÄ«cus, \_friend\_; socius, \_partner\_; cognÄ tus, \_kinsman\_; sodÄ lis, \_comrade\_; vÄ«cÄ«nus, \_neighbor\_; etc.

# ADJECTIVES WITH THE FORCE OF ADVERBS.

239. The Latin often uses an Adjective where the English idiom employs an Adverb or an adverbial phrase; as,--

senÄ tus frequÄ"ns convÄ"nit, \_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 loquÄ cior, \_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 cÅ piae, 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, extrÄ"mus, summus, medius, Ä«nfimus, Ä«mus; as,--

summus mÅ ns, \_the top of the mountain\_;

extrēmÄ hieme, in the last part of the winter.

2. Prior, prīmus, ultimus, and postrÄ"mus are frequently equivalent to a relative clause; as,---

prīmus eam vÄ«dÄ«, \_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 cÅ gitÄ tiÅ nÄ"s, \_many (and) great thoughts\_.

\* \* \* \* \*

# CHAPTER IV.

--\_Syntax of Pronouns.\_

### PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

242. 1. The Personal Pronouns as subjects of verbs are, as a rule, not expressed except for the purpose of *emphasis, contrast*, or *clearness*. Thus ordinarily:---

videÅ, \_I see\_; amat, he loves.

But ego tē videÅ, et tÅ« mÄ" vidÄ"s, \_I see you, and you see me\_.

2. The Genitives meī, tuÄ«, nostrÄ«, vestrÄ« are used only as Objective Genitives; nostrum and vestrum as Genitives of the Whole. Thus:--

memor tuī, \_mindful of you\_;

dēsÄ«derium vestrÄ«, \_longing for you\_;

nēmÅ vestrum, no one of you.

a. But nostrum and vestrum are regularly used in the 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 amÄ«citiÄ s conciliat et cÅ nservat, *virtue establishes friendships and maintains them* (not eÄ s cÅ nservat).

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

243. 1. The Possessive Pronouns, as a rule, are not employed except for the purpose of *clearness*. Thus:---

patrem amÅ , \_I love my father\_;

dē fÄ«liÄ« morte flÄ"bÄ s, you wept for the death of your son.

But--

dē morte fÄ«liÄ« meÄ« flÄ"bÄ s, 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,--

suÄ manÅ« lÄ«berÅ s occÄ«dit, \_with his own hand he slew his children\_;

meÄ quidem sententiÄ, 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\_;

dēsÄ«derium tuum, longing for you.

3. For special emphasis, the Latin employs ipsīus or ipsÅ rum, in apposition with the Genitive idea implied in the Possessive; as,--

meÄ ipsÄ«us operÄ, \_by my own help\_;

nostrÄ ipsÅ rum operÄ, by our own help.

a. So sometimes other Genitives; as,--

meÄ Å«nÄ«us operÄ, 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\_;

suŠs amīcÅ s adjuvÄ t, \_he helps his own friends\_;

eum Å rÄ vÄ«, ut sÄ" servÄ ret, 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 Å rÄ vit ut sÄ" dÄ"fenderem, he besought me to defend him (lit. \_that I defend himself\_);

mē Å rÄ vÄ"runt, ut fortÅ«nÄ rum suÄ rum dÄ"fÄ"nsiÅ nem 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 meÄ« and tuÄ«, as an Objective Genitive, \_e.g.\_ oblÄ«tus suÄ«, \_forgetful of himself\_; but it occasionally occurs—particularly in post–Augustan writers—in place of the Possessive suus; as, fruitur fÄ mÄ suÄ«, *he enjoys his own fame*.

3. SÄ" 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 amÄ re, \_to love one's self\_;

suum genium propitiÄ re, \_to propitiate one's own genius\_.

4. Suus sometimes occurs in the meaning *his own, their own*, etc., referring not to the subject but to an oblique case; as,--

Hannibalem suī cÄ«vÄ"s Ä" cÄ«vitÄ te Ä"jÄ"cÄ"runt, \_his own fellow-citizens drove out Hannibal.\_

a. This usage is particularly frequent in combination with quisque; as,--

suus quemque error vexat, his own error troubles each.

5. The Reflexives for the first and second persons are supplied by the oblique cases of ego and tū (ŧ 85); as,––

vŠs dēfenditis, 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 nA s, inter vA s, inter  $s\ddot{A}$ "; as,--

Belgae obsidēs inter sÄ" dedÄ"runt, the Belgae gave each other hostages (lit. \_among themselves\_);

amÄ mus inter nÅ s, \_we love each other\_;

Gallī inter sÄ" cohortÄ tÄ« 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, hÄ«c usually refers to the latter of two objects, and ille to the former.

2. Hīc and ille are often used in the sense of 'the following'; as,---

Themistoclēs hÄ«s verbÄ«s epistulam mÄ«sit, \_Themistocles sent a letter (couched) in the following words\_;

illud intellegŠ, omnium Šra in mē conversa esse, \_I understand this, that the faces of all are turned toward me\_.

3. Ille often means \_the famous\_; as, SolÅ n ille, *the famous Solon*.

4. Iste frequently involves contempt; as, iste homÅ, \_that fellow!\_

5. The above pronouns, along with is, 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.\_

Is.

247. 1. Is often serves as the antecedent of the relative quī. Thus:---

Maximum, eum quī Tarentum recÄ"pit, dÄ«lÄ"xÄ«, \_I loved Maximus, the man who retook Tarentum\_.

a. Closely akin to this usage is is in the sense of such (= tÄ lis); as,---

nŠn sum is quī 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,---

nÅ n suspicÄ bÄ tur (id quod nunc sentiet) satis multÅ s testÄ"s nÅ bÄ«s reliquÅ s esse, \_he did not suspect (a thing which he will now perceive) that we had witnesses enough left\_.

Yet quod alone, without preceding id, sometimes occurs in this use.

2. Is also in all cases serves as the personal pronoun of the third person, 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' 'they,' 'them.'

3. When the English uses '*that of*,' '*those of*,' to avoid repetition of the noun, the Latin omits the pronoun: as,--

in exercitū Sullae et posteÄ in CrassÄ« fuerat, \_he had been in the army of Sulla and afterward in that of Crassus\_;

nūllae mÄ" fÄ bulae dÄ"lectant nisi PlautÄ«, 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\_.

Ä<sup>a</sup>dem.

248. 1. Ä<sup>a</sup>dem in apposition with the subject or object often has the force of *also*, \_likewise\_; as,---

quod idem mihi contigit, which likewise happened to me (lit. \_which, the same thing\_);

bonus vir, quem eundem sapientem appellÄ mus, \_a good man, whom we call also wise\_.

For īdem atque (ac), the same as, see § 341, 1. c.

Ipse.

249. 1. Ipse, literally self, acquires its special force from the context; as,---

eŠipsŠdiē, \_on that very day\_;

ad ipsam rīpam, \_close to the bank\_;

ipsÅ terrÅ re, \_by mere fright\_;

valvae sē ipsae aperuÄ"runt, \_the doors opened of their own accord\_;

ipse aderat, he was present in person.

2. The reflexive pronouns are often emphasized by the addition of ipse, but ipse in such cases, instead of standing in apposition with the reflexive, more commonly agrees with the subject; as,—

sēcum ipsÄ« loquuntur, \_they talk with themselves\_;

sē ipse continÄ"re nÅ n potest, *he cannot contain himself* 3. Ipse is also used as an Indirect Reflexive for the purpose of \_marking a contrast or avoiding an ambiguity\_; as,--

Persae pertimuērunt nÄ" AlcibiadÄ"s ab ipsÄ«s dÄ"scÄ«sceret et cum suÄ«s in grÄ tiam redÄ«ret, \_the Persians feared that Alcibiades would break with them and become reconciled with his countrymen\_;

ea molestissimē ferre dÄ"bent hominÄ"s quae ipsÅ rum culpÄ contrÄ cta 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 vidēbÄ mus, \_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  $\hat{A}$  § 235, B, 2). Thus:---

pater et fīlius, qui captÄ« sunt, \_the father and son who were captured\_;

stultitia et timiditÄ s quae fugienda sunt, \_folly and cowardice which must be shunned\_;

honŠrēs et victÅ riae quae sunt fortuÄ«ta, \_honors and victories, which are accidental\_.

3. The Relative regularly agrees with a predicate noun (either Nominative or Accusative) instead of its antecedent; as,—

carcer, quae lautumiae vocantur, \_the prison, which is called Lautumiae\_;

Belgae, quae est tertia pars, \_the Belgians, who are the third part\_.

4. Sometimes the Relative takes its gender and number from the meaning of its antecedent; as,--

pars quī bÄ"stiÄ«s objectÄ« sunt, \_a part (of the men) who were thrown to beasts.\_

5. Occasionally the Relative is attracted into the case of its antecedent; as,---

nÄ tus eÅ patre quÅ dÄ«xÄ«, born of the father that I said.

251. Antecedent. 1. The antecedent of the Relative is sometimes omitted; as,--

quī nÄ tÅ«ram sequitur sapiÄ"ns est, he who follows Nature is wise.

2. The antecedent may be implied in a possessive pronoun (or rarely an adjective); as,--

nostra quī remÄ nsimus caedÄ"s, \_the slaughter of us who remained\_;

servīlÄ« tumultÅ«, quÅ s Å«sus ac disciplÄ«na sublevÄ runt, \_at the uprising of the slaves, whom experience and discipline assisted\_ (servÄ«lÄ« = servÅ rum).

3. Sometimes the antecedent is repeated with the Relative; as,--

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:---

a) When the relative clause stands first; as,--

quam quisque nÅ vit artem, in hÄ c sÄ" exerceat, \_let each one practice the branch which he knows.\_

b) When the antecedent is an appositive; as,--

nŠn longē Ä TolÅ sÄ tium fÄ«nibus absunt, quae cÄ«vitÄ s est in prÅ vinciÄ , \_they are not far from the borders of the Tolosates, a state which is in our province.\_

c) When the logical antecedent is a superlative; as,---

Themistoclēs dÄ" servÄ«s suÄ«s, quem habuit fidÄ"lissimum, mÄ«sit, *Themistocles sent the most trusty slave he had*.

d) In expressions of the following type---

quÄ es prÅ«dentiÄ ; quae tua est prÅ«dentia, *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 vīdÄ«.

6. The Relative is used freely in Latin, particularly at the beginning of a sentence, where in English we employ a demonstrative; as,--

quÅ factum est, \_by this it happened\_;

quae cum ita sint, \_since this is so\_;

quibus rēbus cognitÄ«s, when these things became known.

7. The Relative introducing a subordinate clause may belong grammatically to a clause which is subordinate to the one it introduces; as,--

numquam dignē satis laudÄ rÄ« philosophia poterit, cui quÄ« pÄ reat, omne tempus aetÄ tis sine molestiÄ possit dÄ"gere, \_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 pÄ reat, which is subordinate to possit.

### INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

252. 1. Quis, *any one*, is the weakest of the Indefinites, and stands usually in combination with sī, nisi, nÄ", num; as,--

sī quis putat, if any one thinks.

2. Aliquis (adj. aliquī) is more definite than quis, and corresponds usually to the English *some one*, *somebody*, \_some\_; as,--

nunc aliquis dīcat mihÄ«, \_now let somebody tell me\_;

utinam modo agÄ tur aliquid, oh that something may be done.

3. Quīdam, a certain one, is still more definite than aliquis; as,---

homŠquīdam, 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,--

cognÄ tiÅ quaedam, \_a sort of relationship\_;

mors est quasi quaedam migrÄ tiÅ, death is a kind of transfer as it were.

4. Quisquam, *any one, any one whoever* (more general than quis), and its corresponding adjective ūllus, *any*, occur mostly in negative and conditional sentences, in interrogative sentences implying a negative, and in clauses of comparison; as,—

jūstitia numquam nocet cuiquam, \_justice never harms anybody\_;

sī quisquam, CatÅ sapiÄ"ns fuit, \_if anybody was ever wise, Cato was\_;

potestne quisquam sine perturbÄ tiÅ ne animÄ« Ä«rÄ scÄ«, \_can anybody be angry without excitement?\_

sī Å«llÅ modÅ poterit, \_if it can be done in any way\_;

taetrior hīc tyrannus fuit quam quisquam superiÅ rum, he was a viler tyrant than any of his predecessors.

5. Quisque, each one, is used especially under the following circumstances:---

a) In connection with suus. See § 244, 4, a.

b) In connection with a Relative or Interrogative Pronoun; as,--

quod cuique obtigit, id teneat, \_what falls to each, that let him hold\_.

c) In connection with superlatives; as,--

optimus quisque, *all the best* (lit. \_each best one\_).

d) With ordinal numerals; as,---

quīntÅ quÅ que annÅ, every four years (lit. \_each fifth year\_).

6. NÄ"mÅ, no one, in addition to its other uses, stands regularly with adjectives used substantively; as,---

nēmÅ mortÄ lis, \_no mortal\_;

nēmÅ RÅ mÄ nus, 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\_;

aliī resistunt, aliÄ« fugiunt, \_some resist, others flee\_;

alter exercitum perdidit, alter vēndidit, \_one ruined the army, the other sold it\_;

alterī sÄ" in montem recÄ"pÄ"runt, alterÄ« ad impedÄ«menta sÄ" contulÄ"runt, \_the one party retreated to the mountain, the others betook themselves to the baggage\_.

2. Where the English says \_one does one thing, another another\_, the Latin uses a more condensed form of statement; as,--

alius aliud amat, \_one likes one thing, another another\_;

aliud aliīs placet, \_one thing pleases some, another others\_.

a. So sometimes with adverbs; as,--

aliī aliÅ fugiunt, \_some flee in one direction, others in another\_.

3. The Latin also expresses the notion '\_each other\_' by means of alius repeated; as,---

Gallī alius alium cohortÄ tÄ« sunt, the Gauls encouraged each other.

4. CÄ"terÄ« means the rest, \_all the others\_; as,--

cēterÄ«s praestÄ re, 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 pettifogger or other\_;

mīsit nescio quem, \_he sent some one or other\_;

nescio quÅ pactÅ, somehow or other.

\* \* \* \* \*

# 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,--

vŠs vidētis, \_you see\_;

pater fīliÅ s Ä«nstituit, 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,—

sēditiÅ 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,--

Tarquiniī mÄ terna patria erat, \_Tarquinii was his native country on his mother's side\_;

nŠn omnis error stultitia est dīcenda, not every error is to be called folly.

a. Less frequently the verb agrees with an appositive; as,---

Coriolī, oppidum VolscÅ rum, 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,---

multitūdÅ hominum convÄ"nerant, a crowd of men had gathered.

b) In Gender; as,---

duo mīlia crucibus adfÄ«xÄ« 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 mortuÄ« 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 fīlius;

pater mortuus est et fīlius.

b) When the subjects are connected by aut; aut ... aut; vel ... vel; neque ... neque; as,--

neque pater neque fīlius mortuus est, neither father nor son died.

3. When the different subjects are felt together as constituting a whole, the singular is used; as,--

temeritÄ s ignÅ rÄ tiÅ que vitiÅ sa est, rashness and ignorance are bad.

a. This is regularly the case in senÄ tus populusque RÅ mÄ nus.

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,--

sī tÅ« et Tullia valÄ"tis, ego et CicerÅ valÄ"mus, \_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  $\hat{A}$  § 235, B, 2.

VOICES.

256. 1. The Passive Voice sometimes retains traces of its original middle or reflexive meaning; as,--

ego nŠn patiar eum dēfendÄ«, 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 itself, but as doing something \_in his own interest\_; as,--

vēlÄ tus tempora, having veiled his temples.

a. Occasionally finite forms of the verb are thus used; as,---

tunicÄ indÅ«citur artÅ«s, he covers his limbs with a tunic.

3. Intransitive Verbs may be used impersonally in the passive; as,--

curritur, people run (lit. \_it is run\_);

ventum est, he (they, etc.) came (lit. \_it was come\_).

TENSES.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE.

257. 1. The Latin tenses express two distinct notions:---

a) The *period of time* to which the action belongs: Present, Past, or Future.

b) The \_kind of action\_: Undefined, Going on, or Completed.

The Latin with its six tenses is able to express each of the three kinds of action for each of the three periods of time (making practically nine tenses). It does this by employing certain tenses in more than one way, as may be seen by the following table:—

KIND OF PERIOD OF TIME. ACTION. PRESENT. PAST. FUTURE. UNDEFINED Present: Historical Future: scrībÅ, *I write*. Perfect: scrībam, \_I shall scrÄ«psÄ«, *I write*. wrote\_. GOING ON. Present: Imperfect: Future: scrībÅ, \_I am scrÄ«bÄ"bam, \_I was scrÄ«bam, *I shall writing*. writing\_. be writing\_. COMPLETED. Present Pluperfect: Future Perfect: Scrīpseram, \_I had scrÄ«pserÅ, \_I scrÄ«psÄ«, *I have written*. shall have written\_. written\_.

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,--

virtūs conciliat amÄ«citiÄ s et cÅ nservat, virtue establishes ties of friendship and maintains them (i.e. always does so).

2. It is used of an attempted action ('Conative Present'); as,---

dum vītant vitia, in contrÄ ria currunt, while they try to avoid (vÄ«tant) \_vices, they rush into opposite ones\_.

3. In lively narration the Present is often used of a past action ('Historical Present'); as,---

Caesar imperat magnum numerum obsidum, Caesar demanded a large number of hostages (lit. \_demands\_).

4. In combination with jam, jam diū, jam prÄ«dem, and similar words, the Present is frequently used of an action originating in the past and continuing in the present; as,—

jam prīdem cupiÅ tÄ" vÄ«sere, 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,--

lēgÄ tÅ s interrogÄ bat, \_he kept asking the envoys\_;

C. Duīlium vidÄ"bam puer, 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 nostrÅ s intrÄ mÅ«nÄ«tiÅ nÄ"s prÅ gredÄ« prohibÄ"bant, the enemy tried to prevent

(prohibēbant) our men from advancing within the fortifications ('Conative');

ad proelium sē expediÄ"bant, they were beginning to get ready for battle ('Inceptive').

4. The Imperfect, with jam, jam diū, jam dÅ«dum, etc., is sometimes used of an action which had been continuing some time; as,--

domicilium RŠmae multŠs jam annŠs habēbat, *he had had his residence at Rome for many years* (i.e. he had it at this time and had long had it).

Future Indicative.

261. 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, dīcÄ"s, \_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,--

nŠvī, cognÅ vÄ«, *I know* (lit. \_I have become acquainted with\_);

cŠnsuēvÄ«, *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,--

RÄ"gulus in senÄ tum vÄ"nit, mandÄ ta exposuit, reddÄ« captivÅ s negÄ vit esse Å«tile, \_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 trÄ nsÄ«re dÄ"crÄ"verat, sed nÄ vÄ"s deerant, \_Caesar had decided to cross the Rhine, but had no boats\_.

a. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (ŧ 262, A), the Pluperfect has the force of an Imperfect; as,—–

nÅ veram, *I knew*.

Future Perfect Indicative.

264. The Future Perfect denotes an action completed in future time. Thus:---

scrībam epistulam, cum redieris, I will write the letter when you have returned (lit. \_when you shall have

returned\_).

a. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future Perfect than the English, which commonly employs the Present Perfect instead of the Future Perfect.

b. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (ŧ 262, A) the Future Perfect has the force of a Future; as,—

nÅ verÅ, I shall know.

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 scrÄ«berem, neque enim novÄ« quidquam audieram et ad tuÄ s omnÄ"s epistulÄ s jam rescrÄ«pseram, \_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 §Â§ 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,---

videÅ quid faciÄ s, I see what you are doing.

vidēbÅ quid faciÄ s, I shall see what you are doing.

vīderÅ quid faciÄ s, I shall have seen what you are doing.

videŠquid fēcerÄ«s, I see what you have done.

vidēbÅ quid fÄ"cerÄ«s, I shall see what you have done.

vīderÅ quid fÄ"cerÄ«s, I shall have seen what you have done.

HISTORICAL SEQUENCE,--

vidēbam quid facerÄ"s, I saw what you were doing.

vīdÄ« quid facerÄ"s, I saw what you were doing.

vīderam quid facerÄ"s, I had seen what you were doing.

vidēbam quid fÄ"cissÄ"s, I saw what you had done.

vīdÄ« quid fÄ"cissÄ"s, I saw what you had done.

vīderam quid fÄ"cissÄ"s, 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,—

dēmÅ nstrÄ vÄ« quÄ rÄ" ad causam accÄ"derem, *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 quÄ lÄ"s deÄ« 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 suÅ s hortÄ tur ut fortÄ« animÅ sint, \_Sulla exhorts his soldiers to be stout-hearted\_;

GallÅ s hortÄ tur 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 tÄ le est ut, vel sÄ« ignÅ rÄ rent id hominÄ"s, suÄ tamen pulchritÅ«dine laudabÄ«le 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 sÅ lÅ s eÅ s dÄ«cerÄ"s miserÅ s, quibus moriendum esset, nÄ"minem tÅ« quidem eÅ rum quÄ« vÄ«verent exciperÄ"s, \_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 mÅ tus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem jÅ«dicÄ rit, *the king was so much moved that he adjudged Tissaphernes an enemy*.

This construction is rare in Cicero, but frequent in Nepos and subsequent historians. The Perfect Subjunctive in this use represents a result simply *as a fact without reference to the continuance of the act*, and therefore corresponds to an Historical Perfect Indicative of direct statement. Thus, jūdicÄ rit in the above example corresponds to adjÅ«dicÄ vit, *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 restituÄ« nÅ n possit, *Verres so ruined Sicily that it cannot be restored* (Direct statement: nÅ n potest restitui);

Ä rdÄ"bat HortÄ"nsius dÄ«cendÄ« cupiditÄ te sÄ«c, ut in nÅ«llÅ flagrantius studium vÄ«derim, *Hortensius burned so with eagerness to speak that I have seen in no one a greater desire* (Direct statement: in nūllÅ vÄ«dÄ«, \_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,--

nesciŠquid causae fuerit cūr nÅ«llÄ s ad mÄ" litterÄ s darÄ"s, *I do not know what reason there was why you did not send me a letter*.

Here fuerit is historical, as is shown by the following Imperfect Subjunctive.

Method of Expressing Future Time in the Subjunctive.

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

1. a) The Future is supplied by the Present after principal tenses, by the Imperfect after historical tenses.

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

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

Gallī pollicentur sÄ" factÅ«rÅ s, quae Caesar imperet, \_the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall order\_;

Gallī pollicÄ"bantur sÄ" factÅ«rÅ s, quae Caesar imperÄ ret, \_the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should order\_;

Gallī pollicentur sÄ" factÅ«rÅ s quae Caesar imperÄ verit, \_the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall have ordered\_;

Gallī pollicÄ"bantur sÄ" factÅ«rÅ s quae Caesar imperÄ visset, \_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:---

timeŠnē veniat, \_I am afraid he will come\_;

Caesar exspectÄ bat quid cÅ nsilÄ« hostÄ"s caperent, *Caesar was waiting to see what plan the enemy would adopt*.

3. Where greater definiteness is necessary, the periphrastic forms in -Å«rus sim and -Å«rus essem are employed, especially in clauses of Result, Indirect Questions, and after nÅ n dubitÅ quÄ«n; as,--

nŠn dubitŠquīn pater ventÅ«rus sit, \_I do not doubt that my father will come\_;

nÅ n dubitÄ bam quÄ«n pater ventÅ«rus 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,--

nŠn dubitŠquīn tÄ" mox hÅ«jus reÄ« paeniteat, \_I do not doubt that you will soon repent of this thing;\_

nÅ n dubitÄ bam quÄ«n haec rÄ"s brevÄ« cÅ nficerÄ"tur, \_I did not doubt that this thing would soon be fnished.\_

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 honÅ rÄ"s adsequÄ«, \_he seems to be gaining honors\_;

vidēbÄ tur honÅ rÄ"s adsequÄ«, he seemed to be gaining honors.

b) The Perfect Infinitive represents an act as prior to the time of the verb on which it depends; as,---

vidētur honÅ rÄ"s adsecÅ«tus esse, \_he seems to have gained honors\_;

vīsus est honÅ rÄ"s adsecÅ«tus 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 honÅ rÄ"s adsecÅ«tÅ«rus esse, \_he seems to be about to gain honors\_;

vīsus est honÅ rÄ"s adsecÅ«tÅ«rus 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 dēbuÄ«, oportuit, potuÄ« (dÄ"bÄ"bam, oportÄ"bat, poteram), with the Present Infinitive; as,--

dēbuit dÄ«cere, he ought to have said (lit. \_owed it to say\_);

opŠrtuit venīre, \_he ought to have come\_;

potuit vidēre, he might have seen.

a. Oportuit, volÅ , nÅ lÅ (and in poetry some other verbs), may take a Perfect Infinitive instead of the Present; as,--

hŠc jam prīdem 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,—–

spērÅ fore ut tÄ" paeniteat levitÄ tis, *I hope you will repent of your fickleness* (lit. \_hope it will happen that you repent\_);

spērÅ futÅ«rum esse ut hostÄ"s arceantur, I hope that the enemy will be kept off.

a. The Periphrastic Future Infinitive is often used, especially in the Passive, even in case of verbs which have the Participial Stem; as,--

spērÅ fore ut hostÄ"s vincantur, I hope the enemy will be conquered.

4. Passives and Deponents sometimes form a Future Perfect Infinitive with fore; as,--

spērÅ epistulam scrÄ«ptam fore, \_I hope the letter will have been written\_;

dīcÅ mÄ" satis adeptum fore, I say that I shall have gained enough.

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, ūtilius est, and some others; as,---

longum est ea 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:--

eÄ mus, \_let us go\_;

amēmus patriam, \_let us love our country\_;

nē dÄ"spÄ"rÄ"mus, let us not despair.

### **B. JUSSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.**

275. The Jussive Subjunctive expresses a *command*. The Jussive stands regularly in the Present Tense, and is used---

1. Most frequently in the third singular and the third plural; as,---

dīcat, \_let him tell\_;

dīcant, \_let them tell\_;

quÄ rÄ" sÄ"cÄ"dant improbÄ«, \_wherefore let the wicked depart!\_

2. Less frequently in the second person, often with indefinite force; as,--

istŠbonŠūtÄ re, \_use that advantage\_;

modestē vÄ«vÄ s, live temperately.

### C. PROHIBITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

276. The Subjunctive is used in the second and third persons singular and plural, with nē, to express *a prohibition*. Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning; as,--

nē repugnÄ"tis, \_do not resist!\_

tū vÄ"rÅ istam nÄ" relÄ«querÄ«s, \_don't leave her!\_

impiī nÄ" plÄ cÄ re audeant deÅ s, \_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 nŠlī (nÅ lÄ«te) with a following infinitive, or by cavÄ" or cavÄ" nÄ" with the Subjunctive; as,—

nŠlī hÅ c facere, \_don't do this\_ (lit. \_be unwilling to do\_)!

nŠlīte mentÄ«rÄ«, \_do not lie!\_

cavē ignÅ scÄ s, cavÄ" tÄ" misereat, \_do not forgive, do not pity!\_

cavē nÄ" haec faciÄ s, 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 nÅ n. Thus:---

quid faciam, \_what shall I do?\_

ego redeam, \_I go back!\_

huic cēdÄ mus! hÅ«jus condiciÅ nÄ"s audiÄ mus! \_are we to bow to him! are we to listen to his terms!\_

quid facerem, \_what was I to do?\_

hunc ego nŠn dīligam, \_should I not cherish this man?\_

a. These Deliberative Questions are usually purely Rhetorical in character, and do not expect an answer.

### E. CONCESSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

278. The Subjunctive is used to indicate something *as granted or conceded for the sake of argument*. The Present is used for present time, the Perfect regularly for past. The negative is nē. Thus:--

sit hŠc vērum, *I grant that this is true* (lit. \_let this be true\_);

nē sint in senectÅ«te vÄ«rÄ"s, \_I grant there is not strength in old age\_;

fuerit malus cīvis aliÄ«s; tibi quandÅ esse coepit, \_I grant that he was a bad citizen to others; when did he begin to be so toward you?\_

# OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

279. The Optative Subjunctive occurs in expressions of wishing. The negative is regularly nē.

1. The Present Tense, often accompanied by utinam, is used where the wish is conceived of as possible.

dī istaec prohibeant, \_may the gods prevent that!\_

falsus utinam vÄ tÄ"s sim, \_oh that I may be a false prophet!\_

nē 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 animŠdīcerÄ"s, *would that you were saying that in earnest* (i.e. I regret that you are not saying it in earnest);

PÄ"lÄ«dÄ"s utinam vÄ«tÄ sset Apollinis arcÅ«s, \_would that Achilles had escaped the bow of Apollo\_;

utinam nē nÄ tus essem, would that I had not been born.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

280. The Potential Subjunctive expresses *a possibility*. The negative is nÅ n. 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:—

dīcat aliquis, \_some one may say\_;

dīxerit 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:—

fortūnam citius reperiÄ s quam retineÄ s, *one would more quickly find Fortune than keep it* (i.e. if one should make the trial);

crēdiderim, I should believe.

a. Here belongs the use of velim, mÄ lim, nÅ lim, as softened forms of statement for volÅ , mÄ lÅ , nÅ lÅ . Thus:—–

velim mihi ignÅ scÄ s, \_I wish you would forgive me\_;

nŠlim putēs mÄ" jocÄ rÄ«, \_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 ŧ 303); as,––

diēs dÄ"ficiat, sÄ« cÅ ner Ä"numerÄ re causÄ s, \_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;  $\hat{A}$  § 356, 3) of a few verbs of *perceiving*, *seeing*, *thinking*, and the like; as,—

videÄ s, cernÄ s, one can see, \_one can perceive\_;

crēderÄ"s, \_one could believe\_;

vidērÄ"s, cernerÄ"s, one could see, \_perceive\_;

putÄ rÄ"s, one could imagine.

4. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of the contrary–to–fact type (see § 304) are also Potential in character. By omission of the Protasis, such an Apodosis sometimes stands alone, particularly vellem, nÅ llem, mÄ llem; as,––

vellem id quidem, I should wish that (i.e. were I bold enough).

The Imperative.

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

Ä"gredere ex urbe, \_depart from the city\_;

mihi ignÅ sce, \_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 vŠbīs prÅ pÅ nam; vÅ s eam penditÅ te, \_I will lay the matter before you; do you (then) consider it\_;

sī bene disputÄ bit, tribuitÅ litterÄ«s Graecis, \_if he shall speak well, attribute it to Greek literature.\_

b) In laws, treaties, wills, maxims, etc.; as,--

cŠnsulēs summum jÅ«s habentÅ , \_the consuls shall have supreme power\_;

hominem mortuom in urbe nē sepelÄ«tÅ, \_no one shall bury a dead body in the city\_;

amīcitia rÄ"gÄ« AntiochÅ cum populÅ RÅ mÄ nÅ hÄ«s legibus et condiciÅ nibus estÅ, \_let there be friendship between Antiochus and the Roman people on the following terms and conditions\_;

quÄ rtae estÅ partis MÄ rcus hÄ"rÄ"s, \_let Marcus be heir to a fourth (of the property\_);

ignŠscitŠsaepe 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  $\hat{A}$  § 276, b.

3. Questions in the Indicative introduced by quīn (\_why not?\_) are often equivalent to an Imperative or to the Hortatory Subjunctive; as,--

quīn abÄ«s, \_go away!\_ (lit. \_why don't you go away?\_);

quīn vÅ cem continÄ"tis, \_keep still!\_ (lit. \_why don't you stop your voices?\_);

quīn equÅ s cÅ nscendimus, let us mount our horses (lit. \_why do we not mount our horses?\_)

# MOODS IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Clauses of Purpose.

282. 1. Clauses of Purpose are introduced most commonly by ut (utī), quÅ (*that*, \_in order that\_), nē (\_in order that not, lest\_), and stand in the Subjunctive, as,--

edimus ut vīvÄ mus, \_we eat that we may live;\_

adjūtÄ mÄ" quÅ hÅ c fÄ«at facilius, \_help me, in order that this may be done more easily;\_

portÄ s clausit, nÄ" quam oppidÄ nÄ« injÅ«riam acciperent, \_he closed the gates, lest the townspeople should receive any injury.\_

a. QuÅ , as a rule, is employed only when the purpose clause contains a comparative or a comparative idea. Occasional exceptions occur; as,—

haec faciunt quŠChremētem absterreant, \_they are doing this in order to frighten Chremes.\_

b. Ut nē is sometimes found instead of nÄ". Thus:---

ut nē quid neglegenter agÄ mus, in order that we may not do anything carelessly.

c. Ut nŠn (not nē) is used where the negation belongs to some single word, instead of to the purpose clause as a whole. Thus:—–

ut nÅ n Ä"jectus ad aliÄ"nÅ s, sed invÄ«tÄ tus ad tuÅ s videÄ re, \_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 eÄ rum rÄ"rum vÄ«s minuerÄ"tur, neu pontÄ« nocÄ"rent, \_that the violence of these things might be lessened, and that they might not harm the bridge\_;

profūgit, nÄ" caperÄ"tur nÄ"ve interficerÄ"tur, \_he fled, that he might not be captured or killed.\_

e. But neque (for n $\ddot{A}$ "ve) 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 n $\ddot{A}$ ".

f. Purpose Clauses sometimes stand in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun: as,--

hÄ c causÄ, ut pÄ cem habÄ"rent, \_on this account, that they might have peace.\_

2. A Relative Pronoun (qu $\ddot{A}$ «) or Adverb (ubi, unde, qu $\ddot{A}$ ) is frequently used to introduce a Purpose Clause; as,—

HelvētiÄ« lÄ"gÄ tÅ s mittunt, quÄ« dÄ«cerent, the Helvetii sent envoys to say (lit. \_who should say\_);

haec habuī, dÄ" senectÅ«te quae dÄ«cerem, \_I had these things to say about old age\_;

nŠn habēbant quÅ sÄ" reciperent, they had no place to which to flee (lit. \_whither they might flee\_).

a. Quī in such clauses is equivalent to ut is, ut ego, etc.; ubi to ut ibi; unde to ut inde; quÅ to ut eÅ.

3. Relative Clauses of purpose follow dignus, indignus, and idÅ neus; as,--

idŠneus fuit nēmÅ quem imitÄ rÄ"re, *there was no one suitable for you to imitate* (*cf.* nēmÅ fuit quem imitÄ rÄ"re, \_there was no one for you to imitate\_);

dignus est quī aliquandÅ 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 omnia 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,—

 $Cat {\rm \AA\,,\,senex\,\,j Å} \mbox{-cundus,\,} qu {\rm \AA\,,\,} Sapi {\rm \AA\,,\,} sappell {\rm \AA\,\,tus\,\,est,\,\_Cato,\,} a \ delightful \ old \ man, \ who \ was \ called \ 'The Wise.' \_$ 

The Clause of Characteristic implies '\_a person of the sort that does something\_'; the Indicative relative clause implies '*a particular person who does something*.'

2. Clauses of Characteristic are used especially after such expressions as, est quī; sunt quÄ«; nÄ"mÅ est quÄ«; nÅ«llus est quÄ«; Å«nus est quÄ«; sÅ lus est quÄ«; quis est quÄ«; is quÄ«; etc. Thus:---

sunt quī dÄ«cant, \_there are (some) who say\_;

nēmÅ est quÄ« nesciat, \_there is nobody who is ignorant\_;

sapientia est ūna quae maestitiam pellat, \_philosophy is the only thing that drives away sorrow\_;

quae cīvitÄ s est quae nÅ n Ä"vertÄ« possit, \_what state is there that cannot be overthrown?\_

nŠn is sum quī improbÅ s 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,--

nŠn longius hostēs aberant quam quÅ tÄ"lum adigÄ« posset, *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, quīppe, utpote; as,--

ŠfortūnÄ te adulÄ"scÄ"ns, quÄ« tuae virtÅ«tis HomÄ"rum praecÅ nem invÄ"nerÄ«s, \_O fortunate man, since you have found a Homer as the herald of your valor\_;

ut quī optimÅ jÅ«re eam prÅ vinciam obtinuerit, since he held that province by excellent right.

b) Opposition:---

egomet quī sÄ"rÅ GraecÄ s litterÄ s attigissem, tamen complÅ«rÄ"s diÄ"s AthÄ"nÄ«s commorÄ tus 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 quīn = quÄ« (quae, quod) nÅ n; as,--

nēmÅ est quÄ«n saepe audierit, \_there is no one who has not often heard\_;

nēmÅ fuit mÄ«litum quÄ«n vulnerÄ rÄ"tur, there was no one of the soldiers who was not wounded.

5. Related to Clauses of Characteristic are also phrases of the type:

quod sciam, \_so far as I know\_; quem (quam, quod), audierim, so far as I have heard.

Clauses of Result.

284. 1. Clauses of Result are usually introduced by ut (*that*, \_so that\_), negative ut nÅ n (\_so that not\_), and take the Subjunctive. The main clause often contains tantus, tÄ lis, tot, is (= tÄ lis), tam, ita, sÄ«c, adeÅ, or some similar word. Thus:---

quis tam dēmÄ"ns est ut suÄ voluntÄ te maereat, \_who is so senseless as to mourn of his own volition?\_

Siciliam ita vÄ stÄ vit ut restituÄ« in antÄ«quum statum nÅ n possit, \_he so ravaged Sicily that it cannot be restored to its former condition\_;

mŠns altissimus impendēbat, ut facile perpaucÄ« prohibÄ"re possent, \_a very high mountain overhung, so that a very few could easily stop them\_;

nŠn is es ut tē pudor umquam Ä turpitÅ«dine Ä vocÄ rit, 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,  $qu\ddot{A} \ll (= ut is)$ ,  $qu\dot{A} \ll (= ut e\dot{A})$ , etc.; as,--

nēmÅ est tam senex quÄ« sÄ" annum nÅ n putet posse vÄ«vere, \_nobody is so old as not to think he can live a year\_;

habētis eum cÅ nsulem quÄ« pÄ rÄ"re vestrÄ«s dÄ"crÄ"tÄ«s nÅ n 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 nÅ n; as,--

nihil tam difficile est quīn quaerendÅ invÄ"stÄ«gÄ rÄ« possit, \_nothing is so difficult that it cannot be discovered by searching\_;

nēmÅ est tam fortis quÄ«n reÄ« novitÄ te perturbÄ"tur, no one is so steadfast as not to be thrown into confusion by a strange occurrence.

4. Note the use of quam ut (sometimes quam alone) to denote Result after comparatives; as,--

urbs erat mūnÄ«tior quam ut prÄ«mÅ impetÅ« capÄ« posset, *the city was too strongly fortified to be taken at the first attack* (lit. \_more strongly fortified than [so] that it could be taken, etc.\_).

Causal Clauses.

285. Causal clauses are introduced chiefly by the following particles:---

1. Quod, quia, quoniam. 2. Cum. 3. QuandÅ .

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:--

ParthŠs timeŠquod diffīdÅ cÅ piÄ«s nostrÄ«s, \_I fear the Parthians, because I distrust our troops\_.

Themistoclēs, quia nÅ n tÅ«tus erat, Corcyram dÄ"migrÄ vit, \_Themistocles, since he was not safe, moved to Corcyra\_.

neque mē vÄ«xisse paenitet, quoniam bene vÄ«xÄ«, \_I do not regret having lived, since I have lived well\_.

SŠcratēs accÅ«sÄ tus est quod corrumperet juventÅ«tem, *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 CaesarÄ« grÄ tiÄ s Ä"gÄ"runt quod sÄ" perÄ«culÅ 1Ä«berÄ visset, *the Haedui thanked Caesar because he had delivered them from danger*. (The reason of the Haedui.)

quoniam Miltiadēs dÄ«cere nÅ n posset, verba prÅ eÅ fÄ"cit TÄ«sagorÄ s, \_since Miltiades could not speak, Tisagoras spoke for him\_. (The reason of Tisagoras.)

noctū ambulÄ bat ThemistoclÄ"s, quod somnum capere nÅ n 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 nÅ n complÄ"vÄ"runt quod sÄ" suÅ nÅ mine cum RÅ mÄ nÄ«s bellum gestÅ«rÅ s dÄ«cerent, \_the Bellovaci did not furnish their complement, because they said they were going to wage war with the Romans on their own account\_.

b. NÅ n quod, nÅ n quÅ (by attraction for nÅ n eÅ quod), nÅ n quia, *not that*, \_not because\_; and nŠn quod nŠn, nŠn quŠnŠn, nŠn quīn, \_not that ... not\_; \_not because ... not\_; *not but that*, are usually employed merely to introduce a hypothetical reason, and hence take the Subjunctive; as,---

id fēcÄ«, nÅ n quod vÅ s hanc dÄ"fÄ"nsiÅ nem dÄ"sÄ«derÄ re arbitrÄ rer, sed ut omnÄ"s intellegerent, \_this I did, not because I thought you needed this defense, but that all might perceive\_;

CrassÅ commendÄ tiÅ nem nÅ n sum pollicitus, nÅ n quÄ«n eam valitÅ«ram apud tÄ" arbitrÄ rer, sed egÄ"re mihi commendÄ tiÅ ne nÅ n vidÄ"bÄ tur, \_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\_.

c. But clauses introduced by nŠn quod, nŠn quīa take the Indicative *if they state a fact*, even though that fact is denied to be the reason for something; as,—

hÅ c ita sentiÅ, nÅ n quia sum ipse augur, sed quia sÄ«c exÄ«stimÄ re nÅ s 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 īta sint, \_since this is so\_;

cum sīs mortÄ lis, quae mortÄ lia sunt, cÅ«rÄ , \_since you are mortal, care for what is mortal\_.

a. Note the phrase cum praesertim (praesertim cum), \_especially since;\_ as,--

HaeduŠs accūsat, praesertim cum eÅ rum precibus adductus bellum suscÄ"perit, \_he blamed the Haedui, especially since he had undertaken the war at their entreaties\_.

3. QuandÅ (less frequent than the other causal particles) governs the Indicative; as,---

id omittÅ, quandÅ vÅ bÄ«s ita placet, \_I pass over that, since you so wish\_.

Temporal Clauses introduced by Postquam, Ut, Ubi, Simul ac, etc.

287. 1. Postquam (posteÄ quam), \_after\_; ut, ubi, \_when\_; cum prÄ«mum, simul, simul ac (simul atque), *as soon as*, when used to refer *to a single past act* regularly take the Perfect Indicative; as,--

EpamīnÅ ndÄ s postquam audÄ«vit vÄ«cisse BoeÅ tiÅ s, 'Satis' inquit 'vÄ«xÄ«,' \_Epaminondas, after he heard that the Boeotians had conquered, said, 'I have lived enough;' \_

id ut audīvit, Corcyram dÄ"migrÄ vit, \_when he heard this, he moved to Corcyra\_;

Caesar cum prīmum potuit, ad exercitum contendit, \_Caesar, as soon as he could, hurried to the army\_;

ubi dē Caesaris adventÅ« certiÅ rÄ"s factÄ« sunt, lÄ"gÄ tÅ s 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  $\hat{A}$  §  $\hat{A}$  § 288, 3; 302, 3); as,--

ut quisque Verris animum offenderat, in lautumiÄ s statim coniciÄ"bÄ tur, \_whenever anybody had offended Verres's feelings, he was forthwith put in the stone–quarry\_;

hostēs, ubi aliquÅ s Ä"gredientÄ"s cÅ nspexerant, adoriÄ"bantur, \_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 dīxisset hastam mittÄ"bat, \_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, trienniÅ postquam. Thus:—

quīnque post diÄ"bus quam LÅ«cÄ discesserat, ad Sardiniam vÄ"nit \_five days after he had departed from Luca he came to Sardinia\_;

postquam occupÄ tae SyrÄ cÅ«sae erant, profectus est CarthÄ ginem, \_after Syracuse had been seized, he set out for Carthage\_.

4. The Imperfect Indicative also sometimes occurs, to denote \_a continued state;\_ as,--

postquam RÅ mam adventÄ bant, senÄ tus cÅ nsultus est, \_after they were on the march toward Rome, the Senate was consulted\_;

postquam strūctÄ« utrimque stÄ bant, after they had been drawn up on both sides and were in position.

5. Rarely postquam, posteÄ quam, following the analogy of cum, take the Subjunctive, but only in the historical tenses; as,—

posteÄ quam sÅ«mptuÅ sa fieri fÅ«nera coepissent, lÄ"ge sublÄ ta 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 er Ä s cÅ nsul, cum in PalÄ tiÅ mea domus Ä rdÄ"bat, \_or were you consul at the time when my house burned up on the Palatine?\_

crēdÅ tum cum Sicilia flÅ rÄ"bat opibus et cÅ piÄ«s magna artificia fuisse in eÄ Ä«nsulÄ, \_I believe that at the time when Sicily was powerful in riches and resources there were great crafts in that island\_;

eÅ tempore pÄ ruit cum pÄ rÄ"re necesse erat, \_he obeyed at the time when it was necessary to obey\_;

illŠdiē, cum est lÄ ta lÄ"x dÄ" mÄ", on that day when the law concerning me was passed.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Lysander cum vellet LycūrgÄ« lÄ"gÄ"s commÅ«tÄ re, prohibitus est, \_when Lysander desired to change the laws of Lycurgus, he was prevented\_;

PythagorÄ s cum in geÅ metriÄ quiddam novÄ« invÄ"nisset, MÅ«sÄ«s bovem immolÄ sse dÄ«citur, \_when Pythagoras had discovered something new in geometry, he is said to have sacrificed an ox to the Muses\_.

a. Note that the Indicative is much less frequent in such clauses than the Subjunctive, and is regularly confined to those cases where the main clause has tum, eŠdiē, eÅ annÅ, eÅ 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. Cum Inversum. When the logical order of the clauses is inverted, we find cum with the Perfect Indicative or Historical Present, in the sense of *when*, *when suddenly*. The main clause in such cases often has jam, vix, aegrē, nÅ ndum; as,—

jam Gallī ex oppidÅ fugere apparÄ bant, cum mÄ trÄ"s familiae repente prÅ currÄ"runt, \_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\_);

TrēvirÄ« LabiÄ"num adorÄ«rÄ« parÄ bant, cum duÄ s legiÅ nÄ"s vÄ"nisse cognÅ scunt, \_the Treviri were preparing to attack, when (suddenly) they learned that two legions had arrived\_.

3. To denote a *recurring action* in the past, cum is followed by the Indicative, particularly of the Pluperfect (compare  $\hat{A}$  §  $\hat{A}$  § 287, 2; 302, 3); as,--

cum Ä d aliquod oppidum vÄ"nerat, eÄ dem lectÄ«cÄ ad cubiculum dÄ"ferÄ"bÄ tur, \_whenever he had arrived at some town, he was (always) carried in the same litter to his room\_;

cum equitÄ tus noster sÄ" in agrÅ s Ä"jÄ"cerat, essedÄ riÅ s ex silvÄ«s Ä"mittÄ"bat, \_whenever our cavalry had advanced into the fields, he would send his charioteers out from the woods\_.

a. Sometimes the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is thus used; as,--

saepe cum aliquem vidēret minus bene vestÄ«tum, suum amiculum dedit, \_often, wherever he saw some one more poorly clothed, he gave him his own mantle\_;

cum prŠcucurrissent, Numidae effugiēbant, \_as often as they had advanced, the Numidians ran away\_.

This construction is frequent in Livy and subsequent historians.

B. Cum REFERRING TO THE PRESENT OR FUTURE.

289. When cum refers to the Present or Future it regularly takes the Indicative; as,--

tum tua rēs agitur, pariÄ"s cum proximus Ä rdet, \_your own interests are at stake when your neighbor's house is burning\_;

cum vidēbis, tum sciÄ"s, \_when you see, then you will know.\_

a. The Indicative of the Present or Future may denote also a \_recurring action;\_ as,--

stabilitÄ s amÄ«citiae cÅ nfirmÄ rÄ« potest, cum hominÄ"s cupÄ«dinibus imperÄ bunt, \_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 clÄ mant, *their silence is a shout* (lit. \_when they are silent, they shout\_).

2. Cum ... tum. When cum ... tum mean \_both ... and\_, the cum-clause is in the Indicative; but when cum has the force of *while*, *though*, it may take the Subjunctive; as,--

cum tē semper dÄ«lÄ"xerim, tum tuÄ«s factÄ«s incÄ"nsus sum, \_while I have always loved you, at the same time I am stirred by your conduct\_.

Clauses introduced by Antequam and Priusquam.

#### A. WITH THE INDICATIVE.

291. Antequam and priusquam (often written ante ... quam, prius ... quam) take the Indicative to denote an actual fact.

1. Sometimes the Present or Future Perfect; as,--

prius respondēs quam rogÅ, \_you answer before I ask\_;

nihil contrÄ disputÄ bÅ priusquam dÄ«xerit, \_I will say nothing in opposition, before he speaks\_.

2. Sometimes the Perfect, especially after negative clauses; as,--

nŠn prius jugulandī fÄ«nis fuit, quam Sulla omnÄ"s suÅ s dÄ«vitiÄ«s explÄ"vit, there was no end of murder until Sulla satisfied all his henchmen with wealth.

## B. 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 dīmicÄ rent, foedus Ä«ctum 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,—

tempestÄ s minÄ tur antequam surgat, the tempest threatens before it rises.

b) An act anticipated and forestalled; as,--

priusquam tēlum adicÄ« posset, omnis aciÄ"s terga vertit, \_before a spear could be hurled, the whole army fled.\_

c) An act anticipated and deprecated; as,---

animum omittunt priusquam locŠdēmigrent, \_they die rather than quit their post.\_

2. After historical tenses the Imperfect Subjunctive is used, especially by some writers, where the notion of anticipation has practically vanished; as,--

sŠl antequam sē abderet fugientem vÄ«dit AntÅ nium, \_the sun before it set saw Antony fleeing.\_

Clauses introduced by Dum, \_DÅ nec\_, Quoad.

293. 1. Dum, while, regularly takes the Indicative of the Historical Present; as,--

Alexander, dum inter prīmÅ rÄ"s pugnat, sagittÄ ictus est, \_Alexander, while he was fighting in the van, was struck by an arrow\_;

dum haec geruntur, in fīnÄ"s VenellÅ rum pervÄ"nit, \_while these things were being done, he arrived in the territory of the Venelli\_.

II. Dum, dÅ nec, and quoad, as long as, take the Indicative; as,--

dum anima est, spēs est, \_as long as there is life, there is hope\_;

LacedaemoniŠrum gēns fortis fuit, dum LycÅ«rgÄ« lÄ"gÄ"s vigÄ"bant, \_the race of the Lacedaemonians was powerful, as long as the laws of Lycurgus were in force\_;

CatÅ, quoad vÄ«xit, virtÅ«tum laude crÄ"vit, \_Cato, at long as he lived, increased in the fame of his virtues\_.

III. Dum, dÅ nec, and quoad, until, take:--

1. The Indicative, to denote \_an actual event\_; as,--

dÅ nec rediit, fuit silentium, \_there was silence till he came\_;

ferrum in corpore retinuit, quoad renūntiÄ tum est BoeÅ tiÅ s vÄ«cisse, he kept the iron in his body until word was brought that the Boeotians had conquered.

a. In Livy and subsequent historians dum and dÅ nec in this sense often take the Subjunctive instead of the Indicative; as,--

trepidÄ tiÅ nis aliquantum Ä"dÄ"bant dÅ nec timor quiÄ"tem fÄ"cisset, \_they showed some trepidation,

until fear produced quiet\_.

2. The Subjunctive, to denote anticipation or \_expectancy\_; as,--

exspectÄ vit Caesar dum nÄ vÄ"s convenÄ«rent, \_Caesar waited for the ships to assemble\_;

dum litterae veniant, morÄ bor, I shall wait for the letter 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:---

1. With verbs signifying *to admonish*, *request*, *command*, *urge*, *persuade*, *induce*,[51] etc. (conjunctions ut, nē, or ut nÄ"); as,--

postulŠut fīat, *I demand that it be done* (dependent form of the Jussive fīat, \_let it be done!\_);

Šrat, nē abeÄ s, \_he begs that you will not go away\_;

mīlitÄ"s cohortÄ tus est ut hostium impetum sustinÄ"rent, \_he exhorted his soldiers to withstand the attack of the enemy\_;

HelvētiÄ«s persuÄ sit ut exÄ«rent, he persuaded the Helvetii to march forth.

a. JubeÅ , command, order, regularly takes the Infinitive.

2. With verbs signifying to grant, concede, permit, allow, [52] etc. (conjunction ut); as,---

huic concēdÅ ut ea praetereat, *I allow him to pass that by* (dependent form of the Jussive ea praetereat, \_let him pass that by!\_);

cŠnsulī permissum est ut duÄ s legiÅ nÄ"s scrÄ«beret, the consul was permitted to enroll two legions.

3. With verbs of hindering, preventing, [53] etc. (conjunctions nē, quÅ minus, quÄ«n); as,---

nē lÅ«strum perficeret, mors prohibuit, *death prevented him from finishing the lustrum* (dependent form after past tense of nē lÅ«strum perficiat, *let him not finish*, etc.);

prohibuit quŠminus in ūnum coÄ«rent, \_he prevented them from coming together\_;

nec quīn Ä"rumperet, prohibÄ"rÄ« 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*,[54] etc. (conjunctions ut, nē, or ut nÄ"); as,--

cŠnstitueram ut prīdiÄ" Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s AquÄ«nÄ« manÄ"rem, \_I had decided to remain at Aquinum on the 12th\_;

dēcrÄ"vit senÄ tus ut OpÄ«mius vidÄ"ret, \_the Senate decreed that Opimius should see to it\_;

convēnit ut Å«nÄ«s castrÄ«s miscÄ"rentur, it was agreed that they should be united in one camp.

5. With verbs of *striving*,[55] etc. (conjunctions ut, nē, or ut nÄ"); as,---

fac ut eum exŠrēs, \_see to it that you prevail upon him!\_

cūrÄ ut vir sÄ«s, \_see to it that you are a man!\_

labÅ rÄ bat ut reliquÄ s cÄ«vitÄ tÄ"s adjungeret, he was striving to join the remaining states to him.

a. CÅ nor, *try*, always takes the Infinitive.

NOTE.---Verbs of all the above classes also admit the Infinitive, especially in poetry.

6. With a few other expressions, such as necesse est, reliquus est, sequitur, licet, oportet; as,--

sequitur ut doceam, \_it remains for me to show\_;

licet redeÄ s, \_you may return\_;

oportet loquÄ mur, we must speak.

On the absence of ut with licet and oportet, see paragraph 8.

7. Here also belong phrases of the type: nūlla causa est cÅ«r, quÄ«n; nÅ n est cÅ«r, etc.; nihil est cÅ«r, etc.; as,--

nūlla causa est cÅ«r timeam, *there is no reason why I should fear* (originally Deliberative: \_why should I fear? There's no reason\_);

nihil est quīn dÄ«cam, 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:--

eŠs moneŠdēsinant, \_I warn them to stop\_;

huic imperat adeat cīvitÄ tÄ"s, 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 cupiÅ, optÅ, volÅ, mÄ lÅ (conjunctions ut, nÄ", ut nÄ"); as,--

optŠut in hŠc jūdiciÅ nÄ"mÅ improbus reperiÄ tur, *I hope that in this court no bad man may be found* (here ut reperiÄ tur represents a simple optative of direct statement, viz. reperiÄ tur, *may no bad man be found*!);

cupiŠnē veniat, I desire that he may not come.

a. The simple Subjunctive (without ut) sometimes occurs with verbs of this class. (See ŧ 295, 8.) Examples are: velim scr $\ddot{A}$ «b $\ddot{A}$ s, \_I wish you would write\_; vellem scr $\ddot{A}$ «psisset, *I wish he had written*.

2. With expressions of *fearing* (timeÅ, metuÅ, vereor, etc.). Here nÄ" means *that*, *lest*, and ut means \_that not\_; as,--

timeŠnē veniat, *I fear that he will come* (originally: \_may he not come! I'm afraid\_ [\_he will\_]);

timeÅ ut veniat, *I fear that he will not come* (originally: \_may he come! I'm afraid\_ [\_he won't\_]).

a. NÄ" nÅ n sometimes occurs instead of ut, especially where the verb of *fearing* has a negative, or where the writer desires to emphasize some particular word in the dependent clause; as,—

nŠn vereor ne hŠc nŠn fīat, \_I am not afraid that this will not happen;\_

vereor nē exercitum fÄ«rmum habÄ"re nÅ n possit, *I fear that he is unable* (nÅ n possit) \_to have a strong army.\_

C. Substantive Clauses of Result.

297. Substantive Clauses of Result (introduced by ut, ut nÅ n) 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 faciÅ, efficiÅ, cÅ nficiÅ). Thus:---

gravitÄ s morbÄ« facit ut medicÄ«nÄ egeÄ mus, \_the severity of disease makes us need medicine.\_

2. As the subject of several impersonal verbs, particularly fit, efficitur, accidit, Ä"venit, contingit, accÄ"dit, fierÄ« potest, fore, sequitur, relinquitur. Thus:--

ex quÅ efficitur, ut voluptÄ s nÅ n sit summum bonum, \_from which it follows that pleasure is not the greatest good\_;

ita fit, ut nēmÅ esse possit beÄ tus, \_thus it happens that no one can be happy\_;

accēdÄ"bat ut nÄ vÄ"s deessent, *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, mÅ s est, cÅ nsuÄ"tÅ«dÅ est; also after neuter pronouns, hÅ c, illud, etc. Thus:--

est mŠs hominum ut nŠlint eundem plūribus rÄ"bus 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 nÅ n dubitÅ , \_I do not doubt\_; quis dubitat, \_who doubts?\_; nÅ n (haud) dubium est, *there is no doubt*. The mood is the Subjunctive. Examples:--

quis dubitat quīn in virtÅ«te dÄ«vitiae sint, \_who doubts that in virtue there are riches?\_

nŠn dubium erat quīn ventÅ«rus 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  $qu\ddot{A}$ «n–clause after nÅ n dubitÅ ; as,––

nÅ n dubitÄ mus inventÅ s esse, *we do not doubt that men were found* b. NÅ n dubitÅ , *I do not hesitate*, is regularly followed by the Infinitive, though sometimes by a quīn–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 hÅ c, id, illud, illa, ex eÅ , inde, etc. Thus:---

illud est admīrÄ tiÅ ne dignum, quod captÄ«vÅ s retinendÅ s cÄ"nsuit, \_this is especially worthy of admiration, that he thought the prisoners ought to be kept\_;

hŠc ūnÅ praestÄ mus vel maximÄ" ferÄ«s, quod colloquimur inter nÅ s, \_in this one respect we are especially superior to the beasts, that we talk with each other\_.

b) After bene fit, bene accidit, male fit, bene facere, mīror, etc.; as,---

bene mihi Ä"venit, quod mittor ad mortem, \_it is well for me that I am sent to death\_;

bene fēcistÄ« quod mÄ nsistÄ«, \_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 multitūdinem GermÄ nÅ rum in Galliam trÄ dÅ«cÅ, id meÄ« mÅ«niendÄ« causÄ faciÅ, \_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 mē Agamemnona aemulÄ rÄ« putÄ s, falleris, \_as regards your thinking that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken\_.

F. Indirect Questions.

300. 1. Indirect Questions are Substantive Clauses used after verbs of *asking*, *inquiring*, *telling*, and the like. They take their verb in the Subjunctive[56]. Like Direct Questions (see § 162) they may be introduced—

a) By Interrogative Pronouns or Adverbs; as,--

dīc mihi ubi fuerÄ«s, quid fÄ"cerÄ«s, \_tell me where you were, what you did\_;

oculīs jÅ«dicÄ rÄ« nÅ n potest in utram partem fluat Arar, \_it cannot be determined by the eye in which direction the Arar flows\_;

bis bīna quot essent, nesciÄ"bat, 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 nēmÅ id potest quod futÅ«rum est, \_no one can escape what is destined to come to pass;\_ but saepe autem ne Å«tile quidem est scÄ«re quid futÅ«rum 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,--

EpamīnÅ ndÄ s quaesÄ«vit num salvus esset clipeus, or salvusne esset clipeus, \_Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe\_;

disputÄ tur num interÄ«re virtÅ«s in homine possit, \_the question is raised whether virtue can die in a man\_;

ex SŠcrate quaesītum est nÅ nne ArchelÄ um beÄ tum putÄ ret, *the question was asked of Socrates whether he did not think Archelaus happy*.

NOTE.—–NÅ nne in Indirect Questions occurs only after quaerÅ , as in the last example above.

2. Often the Indirect Question represents a Deliberative Subjunctive of the direct discourse; as,--

nesciÅ quid faciam, \_I do not know what to do.\_ (Direct: quid faciam, \_what shall I do!\_)

3. After verbs of *expectation* and *endeavor* (exspectÅ , cÅ nor, experior, temptÅ ) we sometimes find an Indirect Question introduced by  $s\ddot{A}$ «; as,—

cŠnantur sī perrumpere possint, \_they try whether they can break through.\_

a. Sometimes the governing verb is omitted; as,--

pergit ad proximam spēluncam sÄ« forte eÅ vÄ"stÄ«gia ferrent, \_he proceeded to the nearest cave (to see) if the tracks led thither.\_

4. Indirect Double Questions are introduced in the main by the same particles as direct double questions (§ 162, 4); viz.;--

utrum ... an; -ne ... an; ---- ... an; ---- ... ne.

Examples:---

quaerŠutrum vērum an falsum sit, } quaerÅ vÄ"rumne an falsum sit, } *I ask whether it* quaerŠvērum an falsum sit, } \_is true or false?\_ quaerÅ vÄ"rum falsumne sit, }

a. \_'Or not'\_ in the second member of the double question is ordinarily expressed by necne, less frequently by an nÅ n; as,--

dī utrum sint necne, quaeritur, \_it is asked whether there are gods or not.\_

5. Haud sciÅ an, nesciÅ 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 sciÅ an ita sit, \_I am inclined to think this is so.\_

6. In early Latin and in poetry the Indicative is sometimes used in indirect Questions.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

301. Conditional Sentences are compound sentences ( $\hat{A}$  § 164) consisting of two parts, the Protasis (or \_condition\_), usually introduced by s $\ddot{A}$ «, nisi, or s $\ddot{A}$ «n, and the Apodosis (or \_conclusion\_). There are the following types of 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,---

sī hÅ c crÄ"dis, errÄ s, \_if you believe this, you are mistaken\_;

nÄ tÅ«ram sÄ« sequÄ"mur, numquam aberrÄ bimus, \_if we follow Nature, we shall never go astray\_;

sī hÅ c dÄ«xistÄ«, errÄ stÄ«, \_if you said this, you were in error\_.

2. Sometimes the Protasis takes the Indefinite Second Person Singular ( $\hat{A}$  § 356, 3) of the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, with the force of the Indicative; as,—–

memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceÄ s, memory is impaired unless you exercise it.

3. Here belong also those conditional sentences in which the Protasis denotes a repeated action (compare  $\hat{A}$   $\hat{A}$   $\hat{A}$   $\hat{S}$  287, 2; 288, 3); as,--

sī quis equitum dÄ"ciderat, peditÄ"s circumsistÄ"bant, \_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,--

sī dÄ«cendÅ quis diem eximeret, \_if (ever) anybody consumed a day in pleading\_; sÄ« quandÅ adsidÄ"ret, *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,--

sī hÅ c crÄ"ditis, tacÄ"te, \_if you believe this, be silent\_;

sī hÅ c crÄ"dimus, taceÄ mus, \_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,--

sī hÅ c dÄ«cÄ s, errÄ"s, or sÄ« hÅ c dÄ«xerÄ«s, errÄ verÄ«s, \_if you should say this, you would be mistaken\_;

sī velim Hannibalis proelia omnia dÄ"scrÄ«bere, diÄ"s mÄ" dÄ"ficiat, \_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 tÄ"cum patria loquÄ tur, nÅ nne impetrÄ re dÄ"beat, \_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,--

aliter sī faciat, nÅ«llam habet auctÅ ritÄ tem, \_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 amÄ«cÄ« meÄ« adessent, opis nÅ n indigÄ"rem, \_if my friends were here, I should not lack assistance\_;

sī hÅ c dÄ«xissÄ"s, errÄ ssÄ"s, \_if you had said this, you would have erred\_;

sapientia nŠn expeterētur, sÄ« nihil efficeret, \_philosophy would not be desired, if it accomplished nothing\_;

cÅ nsilium, ratiÅ, sententia nisi essent in senibus, nÅ n summum cÅ nsilium majÅ rÄ"s nostrÄ« appellÄ ssent senÄ tum, \_unless deliberation, reason, and wisdom existed in old men, our ancestors 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 existing\_; as,--

Laelius, Fūrius, CatÅ sÄ« nihil litterÄ«s adjuvÄ rentur, numquam sÄ" ad eÄ rum 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 centÄ"simum annum vÄ«xisset, senectÅ«tis eum suae paenitÄ"ret, \_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 fēlÄ«citÄ s in sÅ cordiam vertisset, exuere jugum potuÄ"runt, \_unless their prosperity had turned to folly, they could have thrown off the yoke\_;

NOTE.—In sentences of this type, however, it is not the *possibility* that is represented as—contrary—to—fact, but something to be supplied in thought from the context. Thus in the foregoing sentence the logical apodosis is *et exuissent* understood (\_and they would have shaken it off\_). When the *possibility* itself is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used.

eum patris locŠcolere dēbÄ"bÄ s, sÄ« Å«lla in tÄ" pietÄ s esset, \_you ought to revere him as a father, if you had any sense of devotion\_.

b) With both the Periphrastic Conjugations; as,--

sī SÄ"stius occÄ«sus esset, fuistisne ad arma itÅ«rÄ«, \_if Sestius had been slain, would you have proceeded to arms?\_

sī Å«num diem morÄ tÄ« essÄ"tis, moriendum omnibus fuit, \_if you had delayed one day, you would all have had to die\_.

Protasis expressed without \_Sī\_.

305. 1. The Protasis is not always expressed by a clause with  $s\ddot{A}$ «, but may be implied in a word, a phrase, or merely by the context; as,—–

aliŠquī haec nÅ n scrÄ«berentur, *otherwise* (i.e. if matters were otherwise) \_these things would not be written\_;

nÅ n potestis, voluptÄ te omnia dÄ«rigentÄ"s, retinÄ"re virtÅ«tem, \_you cannot retain virtue, if you direct everything with reference to pleasure\_.

2. Sometimes an Imperative, or a Jussive Subjunctive, serves as Protasis. Thus:---

crÄ s petitÅ, 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 ZÄ"nÅ nem, respondeat, \_if you should ask Zeno, he would answer\_.

Use of *Nisi*, \_Sī NŠn\_, \_Sīn\_.

306. 1. Nisi, unless, negatives the entire protasis; sī nÅ n negatives a single word; as,---

ferreus essem, nisi tē amÄ rem, \_I should be hard-hearted unless I loved you\_; but--

ferreus essem, sī tÄ" nÅ n amÄ rem, \_I should be hard-hearted if I did NOT love you\_.

In the first example, it is the notion of *loving you* that is negatived, in the second, the notion of *loving*.

2. Sī nŠn (sī minus) is regularly employed:---

a) When an apodosis with at, tamen, certē follows; as,--

dol<br/>Å rem s Ä« nÅ n potuerÅ  $\ frangere,\ tamen \ occult$  $Ä bÅ , _if I \ cannot \ crush my \ sorrow, yet I \ will hide it._$ 

b) When an affirmative protasis is repeated in negative form; as,---

sī fÄ"ceris, magnam habÄ"bÅ grÄ tiam; sÄ« nÅ n fÄ"ceris, ignÅ scam, \_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 si minus or sin minus is admissible; as,---

hŠc sī assecÅ«tus sum, gaudeÅ ; sÄ« minus, mÄ" cÅ nsÅ lor, \_if I have attained this, I am glad; if not, I console myself\_.

3. Sīn. Where one protasis is followed by another opposed in meaning, but affirmative in form, the second is introduced by sÄ«n; as,--

hunc mihi timÅ rem Ä"ripe; sÄ« vÄ"rus est, nÄ" opprimar, sÄ«n falsus, ut timÄ"re dÄ"sinam, \_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 (nŠn, nēmÅ , nihil); as,---

nihil cÅ gitÄ vit nisi caedem, he had no thought but murder.

a. NÅ n and nisi are always separated in the best Latinity.

5. Nisi forte, nisi vērÅ, nisi sÄ«, \_unless perchance, unless indeed\_ (often with ironical force), take the Indicative; as,--

nisi vērÅ, quia perfecta rÄ"s nÅ n est, nÅ n vidÄ"tur pÅ«nienda, \_unless indeed, because an act is not consummated, it does not seem to merit punishment\_.

Conditional Clauses of Comparison.

307. 1. Conditional Clauses of Comparison are introduced by the particles, ac s $\ddot{A}$ «, ut s $\ddot{A}$ «, quasi, quam s $\ddot{A}$ «, tamquam s $\ddot{A}$ «, velut s $\ddot{A}$ «, or simply by velut or tamquam. They stand in the Subjunctive mood and regularly involve an ellipsis (see  $\hat{A}$ § 374, 1), as indicated in the following examples:—

tantus patrēs metus cÄ"pit, velat sÄ« jam ad portÄ s hostis 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 Å«tor quasi rÄ"s dubia aut obscÅ«ra sit, \_but why do I use these witnesses, as (I should do) if the matter were doubtful or obscure\_;

serviam tibi tam quasi Ä"merÄ«s mÄ" argentÅ, 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 Past Perfect.

## Concessive Clauses.

308. The term 'Concessive' is best restricted to those clauses developed from the Jussive Subjunctive which have the force of *granted that*, etc.; (see  $\hat{A}$  § 278) as,--

sit fūr, sit sacrilegus, at est bonus imperÄ tor, \_granted that he is a thief and a robber, yet he is a good

commander\_;

haec sint falsa, \_granted that this is false\_;

nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certÄ" est, \_granted that pain is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil\_.

Adversative Clauses with \_Quamvīs\_, Quamquam, etc.

309. Clauses introduced by quamvīs, quamquam, etsÄ«, tametsÄ«, 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. Quamvīs, *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 quamvÄ«s in turbidÄ«s rÄ"bus sint, tamen interdum animÄ«s relaxantur, \_in however stirring events men may engage, yet at times they relax their energies;\_

nÅ n est potestÄ s opitulandÄ« reÄ« pÅ«blicae quamvÄ«s ea premÄ tur perÄ«culÄ«s, \_there is no opportunity to succor the state, though it be beset by dangers.\_

2. Quamquam, etsī, tametsÄ«, *although*, introduce a statement of fact, and are followed by the Indicative (of any tense); as,—

quamquam omnis virtūs nÅ s allicit, tamen jÅ«stitia id maximÄ" efficit, \_although all virtue attracts us, yet justice does so especially;\_

Caesar, etsī nÅ ndum cÅ nsilium hostium cognÅ verat, tamen id quod accidit suspicÄ bÄ tur, \_Caesar, though he did not yet know the plans of the enemy, yet was suspecting what actually occurred\_.

a. Ets $\ddot{A}$ «, *although*, must be distinguished from ets $\ddot{A}$ «, *even if*. The latter is a conditional particle and takes any of the constructions admissible for s $\ddot{A}$ «. (See  $\hat{A}$ § $\hat{A}$ § 302–304.)

3. Cum, *although*, is followed by the Subjunctive; as,--

Atticus honŠrēs nÅ n petiit, cum eÄ« patÄ"rent, \_Atticus did not seek honors, though they were open to him\_.

4. Licet sometimes loses its verbal force (see  $\hat{A}$  § 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 terrÅ rÄ"s 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?\_

6. In post–Augustan writers quamquam is freely construed with the Subjunctive, while quamvÄ«s is often used to introduce statements of fact, and takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Thus:--

quamquam movērÄ"tur hÄ«s vÅ cibus, \_although he was moved by these words\_;

quamvīs multÄ« opÄ«nÄ rentur, \_though many thought\_;

quamvīs Ä«nfÄ"stÅ animÅ pervÄ"nerÄ s, though you had come with hostile intent.

Clauses with Dum, Modo, Dummodo, denoting a Wish or a Proviso.

310. These particles are followed by the Subjunctive (negative nē) and have two distinct uses:---

I. They are used to introduce clauses embodying a wish entertained by the subject of the leading verb; as,---

multī honesta neglegunt dummodo potentiam cÅ nsequantur, *many neglect honor in their desire to obtain power* (\_if only they may attain\_);

omnia postposuī, dum praeceptÄ«s patris pÄ rÄ"rem, \_I made everything else secondary, in my desire to obey the injunctions of my father\_;

nīl obstat tibi, dum nÄ" sit dÄ«tior 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,---

Å derint, dum metuant, \_let them hate, provided they fear\_;

manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria, \_old men retain their faculties, provided only they retain their interest and vigor\_;

nūbant, dum nÄ" dÅ s 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 –oumque; as,––

quidquid id est, timeŠDanaŠs et dŠna ferentēs, \_whatever it is, I fear the Greeks even when they offer gifts;\_

quidquid oritur, quÄ lecumque est, causam Ä nÄ tÅ«rÄ 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  $\hat{A}$   $\hat{S}$   $\hat{A}$   $\hat{S}$  302-304; as,--

quī hÅ c dÄ«cit, errat, he who says this is mistaken (First Type);

quī hÅ c dÄ«cat, erret, he would be mistaken who should say this (Second Type);

quī hÅ c dÄ«xisset, errÄ sset, \_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 (\_ÅŒrÄ tiÅ 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 (\_ÅŒrÄ tiÅ OblÄ«qua\_); 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,—

RÄ"gulus dÄ«xit quam diÅ« jÅ«re jÅ«randÅ hostium tenÄ"rÄ"tur nÅ n esse sÄ" senÄ tÅ rem, \_Regulus said that as long as he was held by his pledge to the enemy he was not a senator.\_ (Direct: quam diū teneor nÅ n sum senÄ tor.)

2. The verb of saying, thinking, etc., is sometimes to be inferred from the context; as,---

tum RŠmulus lēgÄ tÅ s circÄ vÄ«cÄ«nÄ s gentÄ"s mÄ«sit quÄ« societÄ tem cÅ nÅ«biumque peterent: urbÄ"s quoque, ut cÄ"tera, ex Ä«nfimÅ nÄ scÄ«, \_then Romulus sent envoys around among the neighboring tribes, to ask for alliance and the right of intermarriage, (saying that) cities, like everything else, start from a modest beginning\_.

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,—

nūntiÄ tum est Ariovistum ad occupandum VesontiÅ nem, quod est oppidum maximum SÄ"quanÅ rum contendere, \_it was reported that Ariovistus was hastening to seize Vesontio, which is the largest town of the Sequani\_.

4. Sometimes a subordinate clause is such only in its external form, and in sense is principal. It then takes the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. This occurs especially in case of relative clauses, where quī is equivalent to et hÄ«c, nam hÄ«c, etc.; as,--

dīxit urbem AthÄ"niÄ"nsium prÅ pugnÄ culum oppositum esse barbarÄ«s, apud quam jam bis classÄ"s rÄ"giÄ s fÄ"cisse naufragium, \_he said the city of the Athenians had been set against the barbarians like a bulwark, near which (= and near it) the fleets of the King had twice met disaster\_.

5. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is sometimes omitted when it refers to the same person as the subject of the leading verb, or can easily be supplied from the context; as,—

cum id nescä«re Mä gå dä«ceret, when Mago said he did not know this (for sä" nescä«re).

Interrogative Sentences.

315. 1. Real questions of the Direct Discourse, upon becoming indirect, are regularly put in the Subjunctive; as,--

Ariovistus Caesarī respondit: sÄ" prius in Galliam vÄ"nisse quam populum RÅ mÄ num. Quid sibi vellet? CÅ«r in suÄ s possessiÅ nÄ"s venÄ«ret, \_Ariovistus replied to Caesar that he had come into Gaul before the Roman people. What did he (Caesar) mean? Why did he come into his domain?\_ (Direct: quid tibi vÄ«s? cÅ«r in meÄ s possessiÅ nÄ"s venÄ«s?)

2. Rhetorical questions, on the other hand, being asked merely for effect, and being equivalent in force to emphatic statements, regularly stand in the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse. Thus :--

quid est levius (lit. *what is more trivial*, = nothing is more trivial) of the Direct Discourse becomes quid esse levius in the Indirect.

3. Deliberative Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse remain unchanged in mood in the Indirect: as,---

quid faceret, \_what was he to do?\_ (Direct: quid faciat?)

Imperative Sentences.

316. All Imperatives or Jussive Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse appear as Subjunctives in the Indirect; as,--

mīlitÄ"s certiÅ rÄ"s fÄ"cit paulisper intermitterent proelium, *he told the soldiers to stop the battle for a little*. (Direct: intermittite.)

a. The negative in such sentences is nē; as,--

nē suae virtÅ«tÄ« 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:---

sciŠtē haec Ä"gisse may mean--

I know you were doing this.(Direct: haec agēbÄ s.)

I know you did this. (Direct: haec Ä"gistÄ«.)

I know you had done this. (Direct: haec Ä"gerÄ s.)

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 (\_RepraesentÄ tiÅ \_); as,--

Caesar respondit, sī obsidÄ"s dentur, sÄ"sÄ" pÄ cem esse factÅ«rum, \_Caesar replied that, if hostages be given, he would make peace\_.

a. For the sequence after the Perfect Infinitive, see  $\hat{A}$  § 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  $(\hat{A} \$ \hat{A} \$ 270; 317, a)$ .

B. THE PROTASIS. The protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive which are required by the Sequence of Tenses.

Examples:---

DIRECT. INDIRECT. sī hÅ c crÄ"dis, errÄ s, dÄ«cÅ, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"dÄ s, tÄ" errÄ re; dÄ«xÄ«, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ"s, tÄ" errÄ re. sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"dÄ"s, errÄ bis, dÄ«cÅ, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"dÄ s, tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum esse; dÄ«xÄ«, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ"s, tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum esse. sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"dideris, errÄ bis, dÄ«cÅ, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ«s, tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum esse; dÄ«xÄ«, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ«s, tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum esse; dÄ«xÄ«, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ», tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum esse; dÄ«xÄ«, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"dä s, tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum esse; dÄ«xÄ«, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ», tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum esse; dÄ«xÄ«, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ», tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum esse; dÄ«xÄ«, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ», tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum esse; dÄ«xÄ«, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"dä"bÄ s, errÄ vistÄ«, dÄ«cÅ, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ"s, tÄ" errÄ visse; dÄ«xÄ«, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ», tÄ" errÄ visse.

a. Note that a Future Perfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse regularly appears in the Indirect as a Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and as a Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense.

Conditional Sentences of the Second Type.

320. A. THE APODOSIS. The Present Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse regularly becomes the Future Infinitive of the Indirect.

B. THE PROTASIS. The Protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive demanded by the sequence of tenses.

Examples:---

sī hÅ c crÄ"dÄ s, errÄ"s, dÄ«cÅ , sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"dÄ s, tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum esse; dÄ«xÄ«, sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ"s, tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum 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 -Å«rus fuisse.

b) In the Passive Voice it takes the form futūrum fuisse ut with the Imperfect Subjunctive.

B. THE PROTASIS. The protasis in Conditional Sentences of this type always remains unchanged.

Examples:---

sī hÅ c crÄ"derÄ"s, errÄ rÄ"s, dÄ«cÅ (dÄ«xÄ«), sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"derÄ"s, tÄ" errÄ tÅ«rum esse; sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"didissÄ"s, dÄ«cÅ (dÄ«xÄ«), sÄ« hÅ c crÄ"didissÄ"s, tÄ" errÄ vissÄ"s, errÄ tÅ«rum fuisse; sÄ« hÅ c dÄ«xissÄ"s, pÅ«nÄ«tus dÄ«cÅ (dÄ«xÄ«), sÄ« hÅ c dÄ«xissÄ"s, futÅ«rum essÄ"s. fuisse ut pÅ«nÄ«rÄ"ris.

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 qu $\ddot{A}$ «n–clause (after nÅ n dubitÅ, etc.), it stands in the Perfect Subjunctive in the form –Å«rus fuerim; as,––

ita territī sunt, ut arma trÄ ditÅ«rÄ« fuerint,[57] nisi Caesar subitÅ advÄ"nisset, \_they were so frightened that they would have given up their arms, had not Caesar suddenly arrived\_;

nŠn dubitŠquīn, sÄ« hÅ c dÄ«xissÄ"s, errÄ tÅ«rus fuerÄ«s,[57] \_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,--

nŠn dubitŠquīn, sÄ« hÅ c dÄ«xissÄ"s, vituperÄ tus essÄ"s, \_I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have been blamed\_.

b. When an Indirect Question becomes an apodosis in a conditional sentence of the Third Type, -Å«rus fuerim (rarely -Å«rus fuissem) is used; as,—

quaerÅ, num, sÄ« hÅ c dÄ«xissÄ"s, errÄ tÅ«rus fuerÄ«s (or fuissÄ"s).

c. Potuī, when it becomes a dependent apodosis in sentences of this Type, usually changes to the Perfect Subjunctive; as,--

concursū tÅ tÄ«us civitÄ tis dÄ"fÄ"nsÄ« sunt, ut frÄ«gidissimÅ s quoque Å rÄ tÅ rÄ"s populÄ« studia excitÄ re 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,--

dēmÅ nstrÄ bantur mihi praetereÄ , quae SÅ cratÄ"s dÄ" immortÄ litÄ te animÅ rum disseruisset, \_there were explained to me besides, the arguments which Socrates had set forth concerning the immortality of the soul\_ (i.e. the arguments which, it was said, Socrates had set forth);

Paetus omnēs librÅ s quÅ s pater suus relÄ«quisset mihi dÅ nÄ vit, \_Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said) his father had left\_.

# 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,--

nēmÅ avÄ rus adhÅ«c inventus est, cui, quod habÄ"ret, esset satis, \_no miser has yet been found who was satisfed with what he had\_;

cum dīversÄ s causÄ s afferrent, dum fÅ rmam suÄ« quisque et animÄ« et ingeniÄ« redderent, \_as they brought forward different arguments, while each mirrored his own individual type of mind and natural bent\_;

quod ego fatear, 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,--

mŠs est AthēnÄ«s quotannÄ«s in cÅ ntiÅ ne laudÄ rÄ« eÅ s quÄ« sint in proeliÄ«s interfectÄ«, *it is the custom at Athens every year for those to be publicly eulogized who have been killed in battle*. (Here the notion of 'praising those who fell in battle' forms an inseparable whole.)

## NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

325. These are the Infinitive, Participle, Gerund, and Supine. All of these partake of the nature of the Verb, on the one hand, and of the Noun or Adjective, on the other. Thus:--

As Verbs,---

a) They may be limited by adverbs; b) They admit an object; c) They have the properties of voice and tense.

As Nouns or Adjectives,---

a) They are declined; b) They take Noun or Adjective constructions.

## THE INFINITIVE.

Infinitive without Subject Accusative.

326. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also as Predicate or Appositive.

NOTE.—The Infinitive was originally a Dative, and traces of this are still to be seen in the poetical use of the Infinitive to express \_purpose\_; as, nec dulcÄ"s occurrent Å scula nÄ tÄ« 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, licet, praestat, decet, pudet, interest, etc.; as,--

dulce et decÅ rum est prÅ patriÄ morÄ«, \_it is sweet and noble to die for one's country\_;

virŠrum est fortium toleranter dolŠrem patī, \_it is the part of brave men to endure pain with patience\_;

senÄ tuÄ« placuit lÄ"gÄ tÅ s 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 īrÄ cundum esse, aliud Ä«rÄ tum, \_it is one thing to be irascible, another to be angry\_;

impūne quaelibet facere, id est rÄ"gem 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 ŠtiŠsŠThemistoclī, 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--

volÅ, cupiÅ, mÄ lÅ, nÅ lÅ, dÄ"beo, cÅ gitÅ, meditor, *purpose*, \_ought\_; \_intend\_; statuÅ, cÅ nstituÅ, \_decide\_; neglegÅ, \_neglect\_; audeÅ, \_dare\_; vereor, timeÅ, \_fear\_; studeÅ, contendÅ, \_strive\_; mÄ tÅ«rÅ, festÄ«nÅ, properÅ, contendÅ, parÅ, *prepare* (so parÄ tus); \_hasten\_; incipiÅ, coepÄ«, Ä«nstituÅ, assuÄ"scÅ, cÅ nsuÄ"scÅ, \_accustom \_begin\_; myself\_ (so assuÄ"tus, Ä«nsuÄ"tus, pergÅ, \_continue\_; assuÄ"factus); dÄ"sinÅ, dÄ"sistÅ, \_cease\_; discÅ, \_learn\_; possum, \_can\_; sciÅ, \_know how\_; cÅ nor, \_try\_; soleÅ, \_am wont\_;

as,--

tū hÅ s intuÄ"rÄ« audÄ"s, \_do you dare to look on these men\_?

DÄ"mosthenÄ"s ad flÅ«ctÅ«s maris dÄ"clÄ mÄ re solÄ"bat, *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,---

beÄ tus esse sine virtÅ«te nÄ"mÅ potest, \_no one can be happy without virtue\_;

CatŠesse quam vidērÄ« bonus mÄ lÄ"bat, 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, ūtile est, turpe est, fÄ ma est, spÄ"s est, fÄ s est, nefÄ s est, opus est, necesse est, oportet, cÅ nstat, praestat, licet, etc.; as,--

nihil in bellŠoportet contemnī, \_nothing ought to be despised in war\_;

apertum est sibi quemque nÄ tÅ«rÄ esse cÄ rum, it is manifest that by nature everybody is dear to himself.

\_B. As Object.\_

331. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used as Object after the following classes of verbs:

1. Most frequently after verbs of *saying*, *thinking*, *knowing*, *perceiving*, and the like (\_Verba Sentiendi et DÄ"clÄ randÄ«\_). This is the regular construction of Principal Clauses of Indirect Discourse. Verbs that take this construction are, among others, the following: sentiÅ, audiÅ, videÅ, cognÅ scÅ; putÅ, jÅ«dicÅ, spÄ"rÅ, cÅ nfÄ«dÅ; sciÅ, meminÄ«; dicÅ, affÄ«rmÅ, negÅ (\_say that ... not\_), trÄ dÅ, nÄ rrÅ, fateor, respondeÅ, scrÄ«bÅ, prÅ mittÅ, glÅ rior. Also the phrases: certiÅ rem faciÅ (\_inform\_), memoriÄ teneÅ (\_remember\_), etc.

Examples:---

EpicūrÄ"Ä« putant cum corporibus simul animÅ s interÄ«re, \_the Epicureans think that the soul perishes with the body\_;

Thalēs dÄ«xit aquam esse initium rÄ"rum, \_Thales said that water was the first principle of the universe\_;

DÄ"mocritus negat quicquid esse sempiternum, \_Democritus says nothing is everlasting;\_

spērÅ eum ventÅ«rum esse, I hope that he will come.

II. With jubeÅ , order, and vetÅ , \_forbid\_; as,--

Caesar mīlitÄ"s 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 jubeŠand vetŠis put in the Passive; as, Caesar pontem fierī jussit.

III. With patior and sinÅ , permit, \_allow\_; as,--

nūllÅ sÄ" implicÄ rÄ« negÅ tiÅ passus est, he did not permit himself to be involved in any difficulty.

IV. With volÅ , nÅ lÅ , mÄ lÅ , cupiÅ , when the Subject of the Infinitive is different from that of the governing verb; as,—

nec mihi hunc errŠrem extorquērÄ« volÅ , \_nor do I wish this error to be wrested from me\_;

eÄ s rÄ"s jactÄ rÄ« nÅ lÄ"bat, \_he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed\_;

tē tuÄ fruÄ« virtÅ«te cupimus, we desire that you enjoy your worth.

a. When the Subject of both verbs is the same, the simple Infinitive is regularly used in accordance with  $\hat{A}$ 328, 1. But exceptions occur, especially in case of esse and Passive Infinitives as,—

cupiŠmē esse clÄ"mentem, \_I desire to be lenient\_;

TīmoleÅ n mÄ luit sÄ" diligÄ« quam metuÄ«, Timoleon preferred to be loved rather than feared.

b. VolŠalso admits the Subjunctive, with or without ut; nŠlŠthe Subjunctive alone. (See § 296, 1, a.)

V. With Verbs of *emotion (joy, sorrow, regret*, etc.), especially gaudeÅ, laetor, doleÅ; aegrÄ" ferÅ, molestÄ" ferÅ, graviter ferÅ, *am annoyed*, \_distressed\_; mīror, queror, indignor; as,--

gaudeŠtē salvum advenÄ«re, \_I rejoice that you arrive safely\_;

nŠn molestē ferunt sÄ" libÄ«dinum vinculÄ«s laxÄ tÅ s Ä"sse, \_they are not troubled at being released from the bonds of passion\_;

mīror tÄ" ad mÄ" nihil scrÄ«bere, I wonder that you write me nothing.

a. Instead of an Infinitive these verbs also sometimes admit a quod- clause as Object. (See § 299.) Thus:---

mīror quod nÅ n 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 ( $\hat{A}$  § 178, 1), may substitute an Infinitive for the second Accusative; as,--

cŠgŠtē hÅ c facere, I compel you to do this (\_cf.\_ tÄ" hÅ c cÅ gÅ );

docuī tÄ" contentum esse, *I taught you to be content* (\_cf.\_ tē modestiam docuÄ«, \_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 of the Passive. This is true of the following and of some others:--

a) jubeor, vetor, sinor; as,---

mīlitÄ"s pontem facere jussÄ« sunt, \_the soldiers were ordered to build a bridge\_;

pŠns fierī jussus est, \_a bridge was ordered built\_;

mīlitÄ"s castrÄ«s exÄ«re vetitÄ« sunt, \_the troops were forbidden to go out of the camp\_;

SÄ"stius ClÅ dium accÅ«sÄ re nÅ n 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, exÄ«stimor, jÅ«dicor (in all persons); as,--

dīcitur in Italiam vÄ"nisse, \_he is said to have come into Italy\_;

RŠmulus prīmus rÄ"x RÅ mÄ nÅ rum fuisse putÄ tur, *Romulus is thought to have been the first king of the Romans.* 

d) fertur, feruntur, trÄ ditur, trÄ duntur (only in the third person); as,---

fertur Homērus caecus fuisse, \_Homer is said to have been blind\_;

carmina Archilochī contumÄ"liÄ«s referta esse trÄ duntur, \_Archilochus's poems are reported to have been full of abuse\_.

NOTE.—In compound tenses and periphrastic forms, the last two classes of verbs, c), d), more commonly take the impersonal construction; as—

trÄ ditum est HomÄ"rum caecum fuisse, the story goes that Homer was blind.

Infinitive with Adjectives.

333. The Infinitive with Adjectives (except parÄ tus, assuÄ"tus, etc.; see § 328, 1) occurs only in poetry and post–Augustan prose writers; as,––

contentus dēmÅ nstrÄ sse, \_contented to have proved\_;

audÄ x omnia perpetÄ«, bold for enduring everything.

Infinitive in Exclamations.

334. The Infinitive is used in Exclamations implying *scorn*, *indignation*, or *regret*. An intensive –ne is often attached to some word in the clause. Examples:––

huncine sŠlem tam nigrum surrēxe mihi, \_to think that to-day's sun rose with such evil omen for me!\_

sedēre tÅ tÅ s diÄ"s in vÄ«llÄ, 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 cottīdiÄ" Caesar HaeduÅ s frÅ«mentum flÄ gitÄ re, meanwhile Caesar was daily demanding grain of the Haedui.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Tenses of the Participle.

336. 1. The tenses of the Participle, like those of the infinitive (see  $\hat{A}$  § 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:---

audiŠtē loquentem = *you* ARE \_speaking and I hear you\_;

audiēbam tÄ" 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 resupÄ«nat, \_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 taceÅ = *I* HAVE \_spoken and am silent\_;

locūtus tacui = *I* HAD \_spoken and then was silent\_;

locÅ«tus tacÄ"bÅ = *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. arbitrÄ tus, ausus, ratus, gÄ vÄ«sus, solitus, Å«sus, cÅ nfÄ«sus, diffÄ«sus, secÅ«tus, veritus.

Use of Participles.

337. As an Adjective the Participle may be used either as an attributive or predicate modifier of a Substantive.

1. Attributive Use. This presents no special peculiarities. Examples are:---

glŠria est cŠnsentiēns laus bonÅ rum, \_glory is the unanimous praise of the good\_;

ConŠn mūrÅ s Ä LysandrÅ dÄ«rutÅ s reficit, \_Conon restored the walls destroyed by Lysander.\_

2. Predicate Use. Here the Participle is often equivalent to a subordinate clause. Thus the Participle may denote:---

a) Time; as,---

omne malum nÄ scÄ"ns facile opprimitur, \_every evil is easily crushed at birth.\_

b) A Condition; as,---

mente ūtÄ« nÅ n possumus cibÅ et pÅ tiÅ ne complÄ"tÄ«, \_if gorged with food and drink, we cannot use our intellects\_.

c) Manner; as,---

SolŠn senēscere sÄ" dÄ«cÄ"bat multa in diÄ"s addiscentem, \_Solon said he grew old learning many new things daily.\_

d) Means; as,---

sŠl oriēns diem cÅ nficit, \_the sun, by its rising, makes the day.\_

e) Opposition ('\_though\_'); as,--

mendÄ cÄ« hominÄ« nÄ" vÄ"rum quidem dÄ«centÄ« crÄ"dimus, \_we do not believe a liar, though he speaks the truth.\_

f) Cause; as,---

perfidiam veritus ad suÅ s recessit, \_since he feared treachery, he returned to his own troops.\_

3. VideÅ and audiÅ, besides the Infinitive, take the Present Participle in the Predicate use; as,--

videŠtē fugientem, \_I see you fleeing.\_

a. So frequently faciÅ, fingÅ, indÅ«cÅ, etc.; as,--

eīs CatÅ nem respondentem facimus, \_we represent Cato replying to them\_;

Homērus Laërtem colentem agrum facit, \_Homer represents Laërtes tilling the field.\_

4. The Future Active Participle (except futūrus) is regularly confined to its use in the Periphrastic Conjugation, but in poets and later writers it is used independently, especially to denote \_purpose\_; as,---

vēnÄ"runt castra oppugnÄ tÅ«rÄ«, \_they came to assault the camp.\_

5. The Perfect Passive Participle is often equivalent to a coördinate clause; as,--

urbem captam dīruit, he captured and destroyed the city (lit. \_he destroyed 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\_;

Quīnctius dÄ"fÄ"nsus, \_the defense of Quinctius\_;

quibus animus occupÄ tus, \_the preoccupation of the mind with which.\_

7. HabeÅ sometimes takes a Perfect Passive Participle in the Predicate construction with a force not far removed from that of the Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative; as,—

equitÄ tus quem coÄ ctum habÄ"bat, \_the cavalry 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\_;

lēgÄ"s observandae, laws deserving of observance.

b) More frequently as Predicate.

1) In the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (amandus est, etc.). In this use Intransitive Verbs can be used only impersonally, but admit their ordinary case–construction (Gen., Dat., Abl.); as,––

veniendum est, \_it is necessary to come\_;

oblīvÄ«scendum est offÄ"nsÄ rum, \_one must forget injuries\_;

numquam prŠditŠrī crÄ"dendum est, \_you must never trust a traitor\_;

suŠcuique ūtendum est jÅ«diciÅ, every man must use his own judgment.

2) After cūrÅ , \_provide for\_; dÅ , trÄ dÅ , \_give over\_; relinquÅ , \_leave\_; concÄ"dÅ , hand over,

and some other verbs, instead of an object clause, or to denote purpose; as,--

Caesar pontem in Ararī faciendum cÅ«rÄ vit, \_Caesar provided for the construction of a bridge over the Arar\_;

imperÄ tor urbem mÄ«litibus dÄ«ripiendam concessit, the general handed over the city to the soldiers to plunder.

9. For the Gerundive as the equivalent of the Gerund, see  $\hat{A}$  § 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 §Â§ 200, 202); as,--

cupiditÄ s dominandÄ«, \_desire of ruling\_;

ars scrībendÄ«, the art of writing.

b) With Adjectives; as,---

cupidus audiendī, desirous of hearing.

c) With causÄ, grÄ tiÄ; as,---

discendī causÄ, for the sake of learning.

2. Dative. The Dative of the Gerund is used---

a) With Adjectives; as,---

aqua ūtilis est bibendÅ, water is useful for drinking.

b) With Verbs (rarely); as,---

adfuī scrÄ«bendÅ, 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,--

homÅ ad agendum nÄ tus 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 §Â§ 218, 219); as,--

mēns discendÅ alitur et cÅ gitandÅ, the mind is nourished by learning and reflection.

Themistoclēs maritimÅ s praedÅ nÄ"s cÅ nsectandÅ mare tÅ«tum reddidit, Themistocles made the sea

safe by following up the pirates.

b) After the prepositions Ä, dÄ", ex, in; as,--

summa voluptÄ s ex discendÅ capitur, \_the keenest pleasure is derived from learning\_;

multa dē bene beÄ tÄ"que vÄ«vendÅ Ä PlatÅ ne disputÄ ta 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 cupidus urbis videndae; seeing the city\_. dÄ"lector Å rÄ tÅ rÄ"s legendÅ , \_I am dÄ"lector Å rÄ tÅ ribus legendÄ«s charmed with reading the orators\_.

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 castrīs mÅ«niendÄ«s aptus, \_a place adapted to fortifying a camp\_;

ad pÄ cem petendam vÄ"nÄ"runt, \_they came to ask peace\_;

multum temporis cŠnsūmÅ in legendÄ«s poÄ"tÄ«s, I spend much time in reading the poets.

3. In order to avoid ambiguity (see  $\hat{A}$  § 236, 2), the Gerundive Construction must not be employed in case of Neuter Adjectives used substantively. Thus regularly—

philosophī cupidÄ« sunt vÄ"rum invÄ"stÄ«gandÄ«, philosophers are eager for discovering truth (rarely vÄ"rÄ« invÄ"stÄ«gandÄ«);

studium plūra cognÅ scendÄ«, a desire of knowing more (not plÅ«rium cognÅ scendÅ rum).

4. From the nature of the case only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Gerundive construction; but ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior (originally transitive) regularly admit it; as,—

hostēs in spem potiundÅ rum castrÅ rum vÄ"nerant, *the enemy had conceived the hope of gaining possession of the camp*.

5. The Genitives meī, tuÄ«, suÄ«, nostrÄ«, vestrÄ«, 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 servandÄ« causÄ aufÅ«git, \_the woman fled for the sake of saving herself\_;

lēgÄ tÄ« in castra vÄ"nÄ"runt suÄ« pÅ«rgandÄ« causÄ , the envoys came into camp for the purpose of clearing themselves.

So nostrī servandÄ« causÄ, for the sake of saving ourselves.

6. Occasionally the Genitive of the Gerundive Construction is used to denote \_purpose\_; as,--

quae ille cēpit lÄ"gum ac lÄ«bertÄ tis 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,--

decemvirī lÄ"gibus scrÄ«bundÄ«s, \_decemvirs for codifying the laws\_;

quīndecimvirÄ« sacrÄ«s faciundÄ«s, quindecimvirs for performing the sacrifices.

THE SUPINE.

340. 1. The Supine in -um is used after Verbs of motion to express \_purpose\_; as,--

lēgÄ tÄ« ad Caesarem grÄ tulÄ tum convÄ"nÄ"runt, envoys came to Caesar to congratulate him.

a. The Supine in -um may take an Object; as,--

pÄ cem petÄ«tum Å rÄ tÅ rÄ"s RÅ mam mittunt, they send envoys to Rome to ask for peace.

b. Note the phrase:---

dÅ (collocÅ) fÄ«liam nÅ«ptum, I give my daughter in marriage.

2. The Supine in -Å« is used as an Ablative of Specification with facilis, difficilis, incrÄ"dibilis, jÅ«cundus, optimus, etc.; also with fÄ s est, nefÄ s est, opus est; as,—

haec rēs est facilis cognitÅ«, \_this thing is easy to learn\_;

hŠc est optimum factū, this is best to do.

a. Only a few Supines in -ū are in common use, chiefly audītÅ«, cognitÅ«, dictÅ«, factÅ«, vÄ«sÅ«.

b. The Supine in -Å ever takes an Object.

\* \* \* \* \*

# **CHAPTER VI.**

--\_Particles.\_

COÃ-RDINATE 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 lÄ«berÄ«que, \_parents and children\_;

cum hominēs aestÅ« febrÄ«que 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 sentiŠac 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 enclitic, and is appended always to the second of two words connected. Where it connects phrases or clauses, it is appended to the first word of the second clause; but when the first word of the second clause is a Preposition, –que is regularly appended to the next following word; as,––

ob eamque rem, and on account of that thing.

b) atque is used before vowels and consonants; ac never before vowels, and seldom before c, g, qu.

c) et nÅ n is used for neque when the emphasis of the negative rests upon a special word; as,---

vetus et nÅ n ignÅ bilis Å rÄ tor, an old and not ignoble orator.

d) For *and nowhere*, *and never*, *and none*, the Latin regularly said nec ūsquam, nec umquam, nec Å«llus, etc.

3. Correlatives. Copulative Conjunctions are frequently used correlatively; as,---

et ... et, \_both ... and\_;

neque (nec) ... neque (nec), \_neither ... nor\_;

cum ... tum, \_while ... at the same time\_;

tum ... tum, \_not only ... but also\_.

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  $\hat{A}$  § 346). Thus:---

ex cupiditÄ tibus odia, discidia, discordiae, sÄ"ditiÅ nÄ"s, bella nÄ scuntur, \_from covetous desires spring up hatred, dissension, discord, sedition, wars\_.

b) The different members may severally be connected by et (Polysyndeton). Thus:---

hŠrae cēdunt et diÄ"s et mÄ"nsÄ"s et annÄ«, hours and days and months and years 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 Carnutēs, AndÄ"s TuronÄ"sque legiÅ nÄ"s dÄ"dÅ«cit, \_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 victÅ ria laeta, \_(either) swift death or glad victory comes\_.

b) vel, -ve (enclitic) imply a choice between the alternatives; as,--

quī aethÄ"r vel caelum nÅ minÄ tur, which is called aether or heaven.

2. Correlatives. Disjunctive Conjunctions are often used correlatively; as,---

aut ... aut, \_either ... or\_;

vel ... vel, \_either ... or\_;

sīve ... sÄ«ve, \_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) atquī means but yet.

f) tamen, *yet*, usually stands after the emphatic word, but not always.

g) vērÅ, however, indeed, in truth, is always post-positive.

2. Note the correlative expressions:---

nÅ n sÅ lum (nÅ n modo) ... sed etiam, \_not only ... but also\_;

nŠn modo nŠn ... sed nē ... quidem, \_not only not, but not even\_; as,--

nŠn modo tibi nŠn īrÄ scor, sed nÄ" reprehendÅ 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, nÅ n modo may be used for nÅ n modo nÅ n; as,---

adsentÄ tiÅ nÅ n modo amÄ«cÅ, sed nÄ" lÄ«berÅ quidem digne 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) ergÅ = therefore, accordingly.

c) igitur (regularly post–positive[58]) = *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  $co\tilde{A}$  (rdinate members, particularly in lively or impassioned narration. Thus:---

a) A copulative Conjunction is omitted; as,--

avÄ ritia Ä«nfÄ«nÄ«ta, Ä«nsatiÄ bilis est, \_avarice is boundless (and) insatiable\_;

Cn. PompejÅ, M. CrassÅ cÅ nsulibus, \_in the consulship of Gnaeus Pompey (and) Marcus Crassus\_.

The conjunction is regularly omitted between the names of consuls when the praenomen (\_MÄ rcus\_, *Gaius*, etc.) is expressed.

b) An Adversative Conjunction may be omitted; as,--

ratiŠnēs dÄ"fuÄ"runt, Å«bertÄ s Å rÄ tiÅ nis nÅ n dÄ"fuit, \_arguments were lacking, (but) abundance of words was not\_.

## 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, nÄ" ille quidem, *not even he.* 

tamen and vērÅ, 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 nŠn nūllÄ«, \_some\_; but when nÅ n, nÄ"mÅ, nihil, numquam, etc., are accompanied by neque ... neque, nÅ n ... nÅ n, nÅ n modo, or nÄ" ... quidem, the latter particles simply take up the negation and emphasize it; as,---

habeŠhīc nÄ"minem neque amÄ«cum neque cognÄ tum, \_I have here no one, neither friend nor relative\_.

nŠn 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 sciÅ 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,--

DÄ rÄ«us classem quÄ«ngentÄ rum nÄ vium comparÄ vit, 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 hŠc bellŠThemistoclēs fuit, GREAT \_was Themistocles in this war\_;

aliud iter habēmus nÅ«llum, other course we have NONE.

#### SPECIAL PRINCIPLES.

350. 1. Nouns. A Genitive or other oblique case regularly follows the word upon which it depends. Thus:---

a) Depending upon a Noun:---

tribūnus plÄ"bis, \_tribune of the plebs\_;

fīlius rÄ"gis, \_son of the king\_;

vir magnī animÄ«, a man of noble spirit.

Yet always senÄ tÅ«s cÅ nsultum, plÄ"bis scÄ«tum.

b) Depending upon an Adjective:---

ignÄ rus rÄ"rum, \_ignorant of affairs\_;

dignī amÄ«citiÄ , \_worthy of friendship\_;

plūs aequÅ , \_more than (what is) fair\_.

2. Appositives. An Appositive regularly follows its Subject; as,--

Philippus, rēx Macedonum, \_Philip, king of the Macedonians\_;

adsentÄ tiÅ, vitiÅ rum adjÅ«trÄ«x, \_flattery, promoter of evils\_.

Yet flūmen RhÄ"nus, \_the River Rhine\_; and always in good prose urbs RÅ ma, the city Rome.

3. The Vocative usually follows one or more words; as,--

audī, Caesar, \_hear, Caesar!\_

4. Adjectives. No general law can be laid down for the position of Adjectives. On the whole they precede the noun oftener than they follow it.

a. Adjectives of quantity (including \_numerals\_) regularly precede their noun; as,---

omnēs hominÄ"s, \_all men\_;

septingentae nÄ vÄ"s, 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. RÅ mÄ nus and LatÄ«nus regularly follow; as,--

senÄ tus populusque RÅ mÄ nus, \_the Roman Senate and People\_;

lūdÄ« RÅ mÄ nÄ«, \_the Roman games\_;

fēriae LatÄ«nae, the Latin holidays.

d. When a Noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, a favorite order is: Adjective, Genitive, Noun; as,--

summa omnium rērum abundantia, the greatest abundance of all things.

5. Pronouns.

a. The Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns regularly precede the Noun; as,---

hīc homÅ , \_this man\_;

ille homÅ , \_that man\_;

erant duo itinera, quibus itineribus, etc., \_there were two routes, by which\_, etc.

quī homÅ ? \_what sort of 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\_;

MÄ"dÄ"a illa, that famous Medea.

c. Possessive and Indefinite Pronouns usually follow their Noun; as,---

pater meus, \_my father\_;

homŠquīdam, \_a certain man\_;

mulier aliqua, some woman.

But for purposes of contrast the Possessive often precedes its Noun; as,---

meus pater, MY father (i.e. as opposed to yours, his, etc.).

d. Where two or more Pronouns occur in the same sentence, the Latin is fond of putting them in close proximity; as,--

nisi forte ego vŠbīs cessÄ re videor, unless perchance I seem to you to be doing nothing.

6. Adverbs and Adverbial phrases regularly precede the word they modify; as,---

valdē dÄ«ligÄ"ns, \_extremely diligent\_;

saepe dīxÄ«, \_I have often said\_;

tē jam diÅ« hortÄ mur, \_we have long been urging you\_;

paulÅ 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 commÅ«nÄ« hominum memoriÄ , \_concerning the common memory of men\_;

ad beÄ tÄ" vÄ«vendum, for living happily.

b. When a noun is modified by an Adjective, the Adjective is often placed before the preposition; as,---

magnÅ in dolÅ re, \_in great grief\_;

summÄ cum laude, \_with the highest credit\_;

quÄ dÄ" causÄ , \_for which cause\_;

hanc ob rem, on account of this thing.

c. For Anastrophe, by which a Preposition is put after its case, see § 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, Corcyram dÄ"migrÄ vit, *when he heard that* (referring to the contents of the preceding sentence), \_he moved to Corcyra\_;

eŠcum Caesar vēnisset, timentÄ"s cÅ nfirmat, *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 senectÅ«te, sÄ«c hÅ c librÅ ad amÄ«cum amÄ«cissimus dÄ" amÄ«citiÄ scrÄ«psÄ«, \_as I, an old man, wrote to an old man, on old age, so in this book, as a fond friend, I have written to a friend, concerning friendship\_.

11. Special rhetorical devices for indicating emphasis are the following:---

a) Hypérbaton, which consists in the separation of words that regularly stand together; as,--

septimus mihi Orīginum liber est in manibus, \_the seventh book of my 'Origines' is under way\_;

receptÅ Caesar Å EricÅ proficÄ «scitur, \_having recovered Oricus, Caesar set out\_.

b) AnÃ<sub>i</sub>phora, which consists in the repetition of the same word or the same word–order in successive phrases; as,––

sed plēnÄ« omnÄ"s sunt librÄ«, plÄ"nae sapientium vÅ cÄ"s, plÄ"na exemplÅ rum vetustÄ s, \_but all books are full of it, the voices of sages are full of it, antiquity is full of examples of it\_.

c) ChiÃismus,[59] which consists in changing the relative order of words in two antithetical phrases; as,--

multŠs dēfendÄ«, laesÄ« nÄ"minem, \_many have I defended, I have injured no one\_;

horribilem illum diem aliīs, nÅ bÄ«s faustum, \_that day dreadful to others, for us fortunate\_.

d) SÃ $\frac{1}{2}$ nchysis, or the interlocked arrangement. This is mostly confined to poetry, yet occurs in rhetorical prose, especially that of the Imperial Period; as,--

simulÄ tam PompejÄ nÄ rum grÄ tiam partium, pretended interest in the Pompeian party.

12. Metrical Close. At the end of a sentence certain cadences were avoided; others were much employed. Thus:---

a) Cadences avoided.

\_ v v \_ v or \_ ; as, esse vidētur (close of hexameter).

\_ v v v or \_ ; as, esse potest (close of pentameter).

b) Cadences frequently employed.

\_ v \_ ; as, auxerant.

\_v\_v; as, comprobÄ vit.

\_ v v v \_ v ; as, esse videÄ tur.

v \_ \_ v \_ ; as, rog Ä tÅ< tuÅ .

# 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 prīmum suÅ, deinde omnium ex cÅ nspectÅ« remÅ tÄ«s equÄ«s, ut aequÄ tÅ perÄ«culÅ spem fugae tolleret, cohortÄ tus suÅ s proelium commÄ«sit, \_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 sÄ" dÄ"fendere nÅ n possent, lÄ"gÄ tÅ s ad Caesarem mittunt, \_since the Haedui could not defend themselves, they sent envoys to Caesar\_;

ille etsī flagrÄ bat bellandÄ« cupiditÄ te, tamen pÄ cÄ« serviendum putÄ vit, \_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 hŠc eī nÅ«ntiatum esset, mÄ tÅ«rat ab urbe proficÄ«scÄ«, 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. MÄ nliÅ, cum dictÄ tor fuisset, M. PompÅ nius tribÅ«nus plÄ"bis diem dÄ«xit, \_M. Pomponius, tribune of the people, instituted proceedings against Lucius Manlius, though he had been dictator\_.

3. Of subordinate clauses, temporal, conditional, and adversative clauses more commonly precede the main clause; indirect questions and clauses of purpose or result more commonly follow; as,--

postquam haec dīxit, profectus est, \_after he said this, he set out\_;

sī quis ita agat, imprÅ«dÄ"ns sit, \_if any one should act so, he would be devoid of foresight\_;

accidit ut ūnÄ nocte omnÄ"s Hermae dÄ"icerentur, *it happened that in a single night all the Hermae were thrown down*.

4. Sometimes in Latin the main verb is placed within the subordinate clause; as,---

sī quid est in mÄ" ingenÄ«, quod sentiÅ quam sit exiguum, \_if there is any talent in me, and I know how little it is\_.

5. The Latin Period. The term Period, when strictly used, designates a compound sentence in which the subordinate clauses are inserted within the main clause; as,—

Caesar etsī intellegÄ"bat quÄ dÄ" causÄ ea dÄ«cerentur, tamen, nÄ" aestÄ tem in TrÄ"verÄ«s cÅ nsÅ«mere cÅ gerÄ"tur, IndutiomÄ rum ad sÄ" venÄ«re jussit, \_though Caesar perceived why this was said, yet, lest he should be forced to spend the summer among the Treveri, he ordered Indutiomarus to come to him\_.

In the Periodic structure the thought is suspended until the end of the sentence is reached. Many Roman writers were extremely fond of this sentence–structure, and it was well adapted to the inflectional character of their language; in English we generally avoid it.

6. When there are several subordinate clauses in one Period, the Latin so arranges them as to avoid a succession of verbs. Thus:---

At hostēs cum mÄ«sissent, quÄ«, quae in castrÄ«s gererentur, cognÅ scerent, ubi sÄ" dÄ"ceptÅ s intellÄ"xÄ"runt, omnibus cÅ piÄ«s subsecÅ«tÄ« ad flÅ«men contendunt, \_but the enemy when they had sent men to learn what was going on in camp, after discovering that they had been outwitted, followed with all their forces and hurried to the river\_.

\* \* \* \* \*

# 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,—

domÅ s eunt, \_they go home (i.e. to their homes\_);

GermÄ nÄ« corpora cÅ«rant, \_the Germans care for the body\_;

animŠs mīlitum recreat, \_he renews the courage of the soldiers\_;

diēs noctÄ"sque timÄ"re, to be in a state of fear day and night.

2. In case of Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively, the Latin often employs the Plural where the English uses the Singular; as,--

omnia sunt perdīta, \_everything is lost\_;

quae cum ita sint, \_since this is so\_;

haec omnibus pervulgÄ ta 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:---

Ä puerÅ, Ä puerÄ«s, \_from boyhood\_;

SullÄ dictÄ tÅ re, \_in Sulla's dictatorship\_;

mē duce, \_under my leadership\_;

RÅ mÄ nÄ« cum CarthÄ giniÄ"nsibus pÄ cem fÄ"cÄ"runt = \_Rome made peace with Carthage\_;

liber doctrīnae plÄ"nus = \_a learned book\_;

prūdentiÄ ThemistoclÄ«s Graecia servÄ ta est = \_Themistocles's foresight saved Greece\_.

4. The Nouns of Agency in -tor and -sor (see § 147, 1) denote a *permanent* or \_characteristic activity\_; as,--

accūsÄ tÅ rÄ"s, \_(professional) accusers\_;

Å rÄ tÅ rÄ"s, \_pleaders\_;

cantŠrēs, \_singers\_;

Arminius, Germä niae lä«berä tor, \_Arminius, liberator of Germany\_.

a. To denote single instances of an action, other expressions are commonly employed; as,---

Numa, quī RÅ mulÅ successit, \_Numa, successor of Romulus\_;

quī mea legunt, \_my readers\_;

quī mÄ" audiunt, my auditors.

5. The Latin avoids the use of prepositional phrases as modifiers of a Noun. In English we say: '\_The war

against Carthage\_'; '\_a journey through Gaul\_'; '\_cities on the sea\_'; '\_the book in my hands\_'; '\_the fight at Salamis\_'; etc. The Latin in such cases usually employs another mode of expression. Thus:--

a) A Genitive; as,---

dolor injūriÄ rum, resentment at injuries.

b) An Adjective; as,---

urbēs maritimae, \_cities on the sea\_;

pugna Salamīnia, the fight at Salamis.

c) A Participle; as,---

pugna ad CannÄ s facta, the battle at Cannae.

d) A Relative clause; as,---

liber quī in meÄ«s 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:—

trÄ nsitus in Britanniam, \_the passage to Britain\_;

excessus Ä" vÄ«tÄ , \_departure from life\_;

odium ergÄ RÅ mÄ nÅ s, \_hatred of the Romans\_;

liber dē senectÅ«te, \_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,---

virtūtÄ"s animÄ« = \_moral virtues\_;

dolŠrēs corporis = *bodily ills*.

b) An Abstract Noun; as,---

novitÄ s reÄ« = \_the strange circumstance\_;

asperitÄ s viÄ rum = rough roads.

c) Hendiadys (see § 374, 4); as,--

ratiÅ et Å rdÅ = \_systematic order\_;

 $\ddot{A}$  rdor et impetus = *eager onset*.

d) Sometimes an Adverb; as,--

omnēs circÄ populÄ«, \_all the surrounding tribes\_;

suŠs semper hostēs, their perpetual foes.

2. Often a Latin Noun is equivalent to an English Noun modified by an Adjective; as,--

doctrīna, \_theoretical knowledge\_;

prūdentia, \_practical knowledge\_;

oppidum, \_walled town\_;

libellus, little book.

3. Adjectives are not used in immediate agreement with proper names; but an Adjective may limit vir, homÅ, ille, or some other word used as an Appositive of a proper name; as,--

SŠcratēs, homÅ sapiÄ"ns = \_the wise Socrates\_;

ScīpiÅ, vir fortissimus = \_the doughty Scipio\_;

SyrÄ cÅ«sae, urbs praeclÄ rissima = *famous Syracuse*.

4. An Adjective may be equivalent to a Possessive or Subjective Genitive; as,---

pÄ stor rÄ"gius, \_the shepherd of the king\_;

tumultus servīlis, the uprising of the slaves.

#### PRONOUNS.

355. 1. In Compound Sentences the Relative Pronoun has a fondness for connecting itself with the subordinate clause rather than the main one; as,—

Ä quÅ cum quaererÄ"tur, quid maximÄ" expedÄ«ret, respondit, \_when it was asked of him what was best, he replied\_. (Less commonly, quÄ«, cum ab eÅ quaererÄ"tur, respondit.)

2. Uterque, ambÅ . Uterque means \_each of two\_; ambÅ means \_both\_; as,--

uterque frÄ ter abiit, each of the two brothers departed (i.e. separately);

ambÅ frÄ trÄ"s abiÄ"runt, i.e. the two brothers departed together.

a. The Plural of uterque occurs--

1) With Nouns used only in the Plural (see § 56); as,--

in utrīsque castrÄ«s, in each camp.

2) Where there is a distinct reference to two groups of persons or things; as,--

utrīque ducÄ"s clÄ rÄ« fuÄ"runt, 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 odiÅ sumus, \_we are hated\_;

in invidiÄ sum, \_I am envied\_;

admīrÄ tiÅ nÄ« est, \_he is admired\_;

oblīviÅ ne obruitur, he is forgotten (lit. \_is overwhelmed by oblivion\_);

in ūsÅ« esse, to be used.

b) By the Passive of Verbs of related meaning. Thus:---

agitÄ rÄ« as Passive of persequÄ«;

temptÄ rÄ« as Passive of adorÄ«rÄ«.

2. The lack of the Perfect Active Participle in Latin is supplied---

a) Sometimes by the Perfect Passive Participle of the Deponent; as,--

adhortÄ tus, \_having exhorted\_;

veritus, having feared.

b) By the Ablative Absolute; as,--

hostium agrīs vÄ stÄ tÄ«s Caesar exercitum redÅ«xit, \_having ravaged the country of the enemy, Caesar led back his army\_.

c) By subordinate clauses; as,---

eŠcum advēnisset, castra posuit, \_having arrived there, he pitched a camp\_;

hostes quī in urbem irrÅ«perant, 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 ( $\hat{A}$  § 280), Jussive ( $\hat{A}$  § 275), Deliberative ( $\hat{A}$  § 277), and the Subjunctive in conditional sentences of the sort included under  $\hat{A}$  § 302, 2, and 303. Examples:—

vidērÄ"s, \_you could see\_;

ūtÄ re vÄ«ribus, use your strength,

quid hÅ c homine faciÄ s, \_what are you to do with this man\_?

mēns quoque et animus, nisi tamquam lÅ«minÄ« oleum Ä«nstÄ«llÄ"s, exstinguuntur senectÅ«te, \_the intellect and mind too are extinguished by old age, unless, so to speak, you keep pouring oil into the lamp\_;

tantŠamŠre possessiŠnēs suÄ s amplexÄ« tenÄ"bant, ut ab eÄ«s membra dÄ«vellÄ« citius posse dÄ«cerÄ"s, \_they clung to their possessions with such an affectionate embrace, that you would have said their limbs could sooner be torn from their bodies\_.

# PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.

357. 1. To denote '\_so many years, etc., afterwards or before\_' the Latin employs not merely the Ablative of Degree of Difference with post and ante (see  $\hat{A}$  223), but has other forms of expression. Thus:--

post quīnque annÅ s, \_five years afterward\_;

paucŠs ante diēs, \_a few days before\_;

ante quadriennium, \_four years before\_;

post diem quÄ rtum quam ab urbe discesserÄ mus, \_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,---

RÅ mÄ nÅ s Hannibalem vÄ«cisse cÅ nstat.

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,---

RÅ mÄ nÅ s ab Hannibale victÅ s esse cÅ nstat, *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 prÅ with the Ablative, viz. in the senses--

a) \_In defense of\_; as,---

prÅ patriÄ morÄ«, \_to die for one's country\_.

b) Instead of, \_in behalf of\_; as,--

ūnus prÅ omnibus dÄ«xit, \_one spoke for all\_;

haec prŠlēge dicta sunt, these things were said for the law.

c) \_In proportion to\_; as,--

prŠmultitūdine hominum eÅ rum fÄ«nÄ"s erant angustÄ«, \_for the population, their territory was small\_.

2. Similarly, English to when it indicates motion is rendered in Latin by ad.

a. Note, however, that the Latin may say either scrībere ad aliquem, or scrÄ«bere alicui, 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:--

sē miscet virÄ«s, \_he mingles with the men\_;

contendis HomērÅ, \_you contend with Homer\_;

dextrae 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 dÄ«cere, \_it is foolish to say\_; but Adjectives of one ending permit only the Genitive; as,--

sapientis est haec sēcum reputÄ re, it is the part of a wise man to consider this.

\* \* \* \* \*

# PART VI.

PROSODY.

360. Prosody treats of metres and versification.

361. Latin Verse. Latin Poetry was essentially different in character from English. In our own language, poetry is based upon *accent*, and poetical form consists essentially in a certain succession of *accented* and *unaccented* syllables. Latin poetry, on the other hand, was based not upon accent, but upon *quantity*, so that with the Romans poetical form consisted in a certain succession of *long and short syllables*, i.e. of long and short intervals of time.

This fundamental difference in the character of English and Latin poetry is a natural result of the difference in character of the two languages. English is a strongly accented language, in which quantity is relatively subordinate. Latin, on the other hand, was a quantitative language, in which accent was relatively subordinate.

#### QUANTITY OF VOWELS AND SYLLABLES

#### GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

362. The general principles for the quantity of vowels and syllables have been given above in  $\hat{A}$  5. The following peculiarities are to be noted here:---

1. A vowel is usually short when followed by another vowel (ŧ 5, A, 2), but the following exceptions occur:—

a) In the Genitive termination –Ä«us (except alterÄ-us); as, illÄ«us, tÅ tÄ«us. Yet the i may be short in poetry; as, illÄ-us, tÅ tÄ-us.

b) In the Genitive and Dative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diēÄ«, aciÄ"Ä«. But fidĕī, rĕī, spĕī (§ 52, 1).

c) In fīÅ, excepting fit and forms where i is followed by er. Thus: fīēbam, fÄ«at, fÄ«unt; but fÄ-erÄ«, fÄ-erem.

d) In a few other words, especially words derived from the Greek; as, dīus, AenÄ"Ä s, DÄ rÄ«us, hÄ"rÅ es, etc.

2. A diphthong is usually long ( $\hat{A}$  § 5, B, 2), but the preposition prae in composition is often shortened before a vowel; as, pr $\ddot{A}f\ddot{A}$ •ac $\dot{A}$ «tus.

3. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants ( $\hat{A}$  § 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, prÅ segete spÄ«cÄ s.

4. Compounds of jaciÅ, though written inicit, adicit, etc., have the first syllable long, as though written inj-, adj-.

5. Before j,  $\ddot{A}f$  and  $\ddot{A}^{\bullet}$  made a long syllable, e.g. in major, pejor, ejus, ejusdem, Pompejus, rej $\ddot{A}^{\circ}$  cit, etc. These were pronounced, mai–jor, pei–jor, ei–jus, Pompei–jus, rei–j $\ddot{A}^{\circ}$  cit, etc. So also sometimes before i, e.g. Pompe– $\ddot{A}^{\circ}$ , pronounced Pompei– $\ddot{A}^{\circ}$ ; re–ici $\dot{A}$ , pronounced rei–ici $\dot{A}$ .

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, portÄ .

b) In the Imperative; as, laudÄ.

c) In indeclinable words (except it $\ddot{A}f$ , qui $\ddot{A}f$ ); as, tr $\ddot{A}$ «gint $\ddot{A}$ , contr $\ddot{A}$ , poste $\ddot{A}$ , intere $\ddot{A}$ , etc.

2. Final e is usually short, but is long:---

a) In the Ablative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diē, rÄ"; hence hodiÄ", quÄ rÄ". Here belongs also famÄ" (§ 59, 2, b).

b) In the Imperative of the Second Conjugation; as, monē, habÄ", etc.; yet occasionally cavÄ•, valÄ•.

c) In Adverbs derived from Adjectives of the Second Declension, along with ferē and fermÄ". BenÄ•, malÄ•, temerÄ•, saepÄ• have Ä•.

d) In Ä", dÄ", mÄ", tÄ", sÄ", nÄ" (*not*, \_lest\_), nē (\_verily\_).

3. Final i is usually long, but is short in nisÄ- and quasÄ-. Mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi, have regularly Ä-, but sometimes Ä«; yet always ibÄ«dem, ibÄ«que, ubÄ«que.

4. Final o is regularly long, but is short:---

a) In egÅ, duÅ, modÅ (\_only\_), citÅ.

b) Rarely in the First Person Singular of the Verb, and in Nominatives of the Third Declension; as, amÅ, leÅ.

c) In a few compounds beginning with the Preposition pro, especially before f; as prŠfundere, prŠficīscÄ«, prÅ fugere.

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: sÄ l, sÅ l, LÄ r, pÄ r, vÄ"r, fÅ«r, dÄ«c, dÅ«c, Ä"n, nÅ n, quÄ«n, sÄ«n, sÄ«c, cÅ«r. Also the adverbs hÄ«c, illÄ«c, istÄ«c.[60]

2. Final syllables in –as are long; as, terrÄ s, amÄ s.

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, segÄ•s (segetis), obsÄ•s (obsidis), mÄ«lÄ•s, dÄ«vÄ•s. But a few have –Ä"s; viz. pÄ"s, ariÄ"s, abiÄ"s, pariÄ"s.

b) In Ä"s (\_thou art\_), penÄ"s.

4. Final –os is usually long, but short in Å s (ossis), compÅ s, impÅ s.

5. Final -is is usually short, but is long:---

a) In Plurals; as, portīs, hortÄ«s, nÅ bÄ«s, vÅ bÄ«s, nÅ«bÄ«s (Acc.).

b) In the Second Person Singular Perfect Subjunctive Active; as, amÄ verÄ«s, monuerÄ«s, audÄ«verÄ«s, etc. Yet occasional exceptions occur.

c) In the Second Person Singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation; as, audīs.

d) In vīs, \_force\_; Ä«s, \_thou goest\_; fÄ«s; sÄ«s; velÄ«s; nÅ lÄ«s; vÄ«s, *thou wilt* (mÄ vÄ«s, quamvÄ«s, quÄ«vÄ«s, 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, frūctÅ«s.

 $b_)$  In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of those nouns of the Third Declension in which the u belongs to the stem; as, palūs (-Å«dis), servitÅ«s (-Å«tis), tellÅ«s (-Å«ris).

365. Greek Nouns retain in Latin their original quantity; as, AenēÄ, epitomÄ", DÄ"los, Pallas, SimoÄ«s, SalamÄ«s, DÄ«dÅ«s, ParidÄ«, Ä Ä"r, aethÄ"r, crÄ tÄ"r, hÄ"rÅ Äfs. Yet Greek nouns in -Imilian (-Å r) regularly shorten the vowel of the final syllable; as, rhētÅ r, HectÅ r.

VERSE-STRUCTURE.

#### GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

366. 1. The metrical unit in versification is a short syllable, technically called a mora ( v ). A long syllable ( \_ ) is regarded as equivalent to two morae.

2. A Foot is a group of syllables. The following are the most important kinds of fundamental feet:---

FEET OF THREE MORAE. FEET OF FOUR MORAE. \_ v Trochee. \_ v v Dactyl. v \_ Iambus. v v \_ Anapaest.

3. A Verse is a succession of feet.

4. The different kinds of verses are named Trochaic, Iambic, Dactylic, Anapaestic, according to the foot which forms the basis of their structure.

5. Ictus. In every fundamental foot the long syllable naturally receives the greater prominence. This prominence is called ictus.[61] It is denoted thus:  $_/ v v$ ;  $_/ v$ .

6. Thesis and Arsis. The syllable which receives the ictus is called the thesis; the rest of the foot is called the arsis.

7. Elision. Final syllables ending in a vowel, a diphthong, or -m are regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or h. In reading, we omit the elided syllable entirely. This may be indicated as follows: corpor^e in ūnÅ; mult^um ill^e et; mÅ nstr^um horrendum; caus^ae Ä«rÄ rum.

a. Omission of elision is called  $Hi\tilde{A}_i$ tus. It occurs especially before and after monosyllabic interjections; as, ÅE et praesidium.

8. The ending of a word within a foot is called a Caes $\tilde{A}^{\circ}$ ra (\_cutting\_) Every verse usually has one prominent caesura. The ending of a word and foot together within the verse is called a diaeresis.

9. Verses are distinguished as Catalectic or Acatalectic. A Catalectic verse is one in which the last foot is not complete, but lacks one or more syllables; an Acatalectic verse has its last foot complete.

10. At the end of a verse a slight pause occurred. Hence the final syllable may be either long or short (syllaba anceps), and may terminate in a vowel or m, even though the next verse begins with a vowel.

11. Iambic, Trochaic, and Anapaestic verses are further designated as dimeter, trimeter, tetrameter, according

to *the number of dipodies* (pairs of feet) which they contain. Dactylic verses are measured *by single feet*, and are designated as tetrameter, pentameter, hexameter, accordingly.

SPECIAL PECULIARITIES.

367. 1. Syniz $\tilde{A}$ ©sis (syna $\tilde{A}$ ©resis). Two successive vowels in the interior of a word are often united into a long syllable; as,—

aur{eī}s, d{ei}nde, ant{eÄ«}re, d{ee}sse.

2. DiÃistole. A syllable usually short is sometimes long; as,--

vidēt, audÄ«t.

3. SÃ1/2stole. A syllable usually long is sometimes short; as,--

stetĕrunt.

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; genva for genua.

5. Sometimes v becomes u; as,---

silua for silva; dissoluÅ for dissolvÅ .

6. Sometimes a verse has an extra syllable. Such a verse is called an Hyp $\tilde{A}$ <sup>©</sup>rmeter. The extra syllable ends in a vowel or -m, and is united with the initial vowel or h of the next verse by Synaph $\tilde{A}$ <sup>©</sup>ia. Thus:--

... ignÄ r^Ä« hominumque locÅ rum^que errÄ mus.

7. Tmesis (cutting). Compound words are occasionally separated into their elements; as,--

quŠmē cumque rapit tempestÄ s, for quÅ cumque, etc.

8. SÃ1/2ncope. A short vowel is sometimes dropped between two consonants; as,--

repostus for repositus

# THE DACTYLIC HEXAMETER.

368. 1. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. But in all the feet except the fifth, a spondee ( $\_$ ) may take the place of the dactyl. The sixth foot may be either a spondee or a trochee, since the final syllable of a verse may be either long or short (syllaba anceps). The following represents the scheme of the verse:--

\_/ vv (or \_) ; \_/ vv ; \_/ v (or \_).

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,---

armÄ tum^que aurÅ circumspicit ÅŒrīŠna.

cÄ ra deum subolÄ"s, magnum Jovis incrÄ"mentum.

3. Caesura.

a) The favorite position of the caesura in the Dactylic Hexameter is after the thesis of the third foot; as,---

arma virumque canŠ|| TrŠjae quī prÄ«mus ab Å rÄ-s.

b) Less frequently the caesura occurs after the thesis of the fourth foot, usually accompanied by another in the second foot; as,--

inde torŠ|| pater AenēÄ s || sÄ«c Å rsus ab alt^Å est.

c) Sometimes the caesura occurs between the two short syllables of the third foot; as,--

Ō passÄ« graviÅ ra || dabit deus hÄ«s quoque fÄ«nem.

This caesura is called Feminine, as opposed to the caesura after a long syllable, which is called Masculine (as under a and b)

d) A pause sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot. This is called the Bucolic Diaeresis, as it was borrowed by the Romans from the Bucolic poetry of the Greeks. Thus:--

sŠlstitium pecorī dÄ"fendite; || jam venit aestÄ s.

DACTYLIC PENTAMETER.

369. 1. The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts, each of which contains two dactyls, followed by a long syllable. Spondees may take the place of the 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:--

\_/ vv (or \_) \_/ vv (or \_) \_/ || \_/ vv \_/ vv v (or \_).

2. The Pentameter is never used alone, but only in connection with the Hexameter. The two arranged alternately form the so-called Elegiac Distich. Thus:--

Vergilium vīdÄ« tantum, neo amÄ ra TibullÅ Tempus amÄ«citiae fÄ ta dedÄ"re meae.

#### IAMBIC MEASURES.

370. 1. The most important Iambic verse is the Iambic Trimeter ( $\hat{A}$  § 366, 11), called also Senarius. This is an acatalectic verse. It consists of six Iambi. Its pure form is:--

v\_v\_v\_v\_v\_v\_BeÄ tus ille quÄ« procul negÅ tiÄ«s.

The Caesura usually occurs in the third foot; less frequently in the fourth.

2. In place of the Iambus, a Tribrach ( v v v ) 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 Proceleusmatic (v v v v) occurs.

3. In the Latin comic writers, Plautus and Terence, great freedom is permitted, and the various equivalents of the Iambus, viz. the Dactyl, Anapaest, Spondee, Tribrach, Proceleusmatic, 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: JÄ nuÄ rius, FebruÄ rius, MÄ rtius, AprÄ«lis, Majus, JÅ«nius, JÅ«lius (QuÄ«ntÄ«lis[62] prior to 46 B.C.), Augustus (SextÄ«lis[62] before the Empire), September, OctÅ ber, November, December. These words are properly Adjectives in agreement with mÄ"nsis 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 prīdiÄ" KalendÄ s, NÅ nÄ s, Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s. The second day before was designated as diÄ" tertiÅ ante KalendÄ s, NÅ nÄ s, etc. Similarly the third day before was designated as diÄ" quÄ rtÅ, 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 KalendÄ s, NÅ nÄ s, Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s. Various forms of expression occur, of which that given under d) is most common:—–

1 |KALENDÄ<sup>a</sup>S |KALENDÄ<sup>a</sup>S |KALENDÄ<sup>a</sup>S |KALENDÄ<sup>a</sup>S 2 |VI NÅ nÄ s |IV NÅ nÄ s |IV NÅ nÄ s |IV NÅ nÄ s 3 |V " |III " |III " |III " 4 |IV " |PrÄ«diÄ" NÅ nÄ s |PrÄ«diÄ" NÅ nÄ s |PrÄ«diÄ" NÅ nÄ s 5 |III " |NÅŒNÄ<sup>a</sup>S |NÅŒNÄ<sup>a</sup>S |NÅŒNÄ<sup>a</sup>S 6 |PrÄ«diÄ" NÅ nÄ s |VIII Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s |VIII Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s |VIII Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s 7 |NÅŒNÄ<sup>a</sup>S |NÅŒNÄ<sup>a</sup>S |NÅŒNÄ<sup>a</sup>S 6 |PrÄ«diÄ" NÅ nÄ s |VIII Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s |VIII Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s |VIII Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s 7 |NÅŒNÄ<sup>a</sup>S |VII " |VII " |VII " 8 |VIII Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s |VI " |VI " 9 |VII " |V " |V " |V " 10 |VI " |IV " |IV " 11 |V " |III " |III " |III " 12 |IV " |Pr. Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s |Pr. Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s |Pr. Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s 13 |III " |Ä<sup>a</sup>DIBUS |Ä<sup>a</sup>DIBUS |Ä<sup>a</sup>DIBUS 14 |Pr. Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s |XIX Kalend. |XVIII Kalend.|XVI Kalend. 15 |Ä<sup>a</sup>DIBUS |XVIII " |XVI " |XV " 16 |XVII Kalend. |XVII " |XII " 17 |XVI " |XVI " |XVI " |XIII " 18 |XV " |XV " |XIV " |XII " 19 |XIV " |XIV " |XIII " |XII " 20 |XIII " |XIII " |XII " |XI " |XI " |XII " |XI " 22 |XI " |XI " |XI " |VII " 23 |X " |X " |IX " |VII " 24 |IX " |IX " |VIII " |VI " 25 |VIII " |VIII " |VII " |V (bis VI)" 26 |VII " |VI " |VI " |IV (V) " 27 |VI " |VI " |V " |III (IV) " 28 |V " |V " |IV " |Pr.Kal.(III K.) 29 |IV " |IV " |III " |(Prīd. Kal.) 30 |III " |III " |Pr. Kalend. |(Enclosed forms are 31 |Pr. Kalend. |Pr. Kalend. | |for leap–year.)

= Davs

# II. PROPER NAMES.

373. 1. The name of a Roman citizen regularly consisted of three parts: the praenÅ men (or given name), the nÅ men (name of the *gens* or clan), and the cognÅ men (family name). Such a typical name is exemplied by MÄ rcus Tullius CicerÅ, in which MÄ rcus is the praenÅ men, Tullius the nÅ men, and CicerÅ the cognÅ men. Sometimes a second cognÅ men (in later Latin called an agnÅ men) is added—expecially in honor of military achievements; as,—

GÄ ius CornÄ"lius ScÄ«piŠĀfricÄ nus.

2. ABBREVIATIONS OF PROPER NAMES.

A. = Aulus. Mam. = MÄ mercus. App. = Appius. N. = Numerius. C. = GÄ ius. P. = PÅ«blius. Cn. = Gnaeus. Q. = QuÄ«ntus. D. = Decimus. Sex. = Sextus. K. = KaesÅ . Ser. = Servius. L. = LÅ«cius. Sp. = Spurius. M. = MÄ rcus. T. = Titus. M'. = MÄ nius. Ti. = Tiberius.

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III. FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC.

\_A.\_ Figures of Syntax.

374. 1. EllÃ-psis is the omission of one or more words; as,--

quid multa, \_why (should I say) much?\_

2. BrachÃ1/2logy is a brief or condensed form of expression; as,--

ut ager sine cultūrÄ frÅ«ctuÅ sus esse nÅ n potest, sÄ«c sine doctrÄ«nÄ 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,---

minīs aut blandÄ«mentÄ«s corrupta = \_(terrifed) by threats or corrupted by flattery.\_

b) Compendiary Comparison, by which a modifier of an object is mentioned instead of the object itself; as,---

dissimilis erat Charēs eÅ rum et factÄ«s et mÅ ribus, lit. *Chares was different from their conduct and character* i.e. Chares's conduct and character were different, etc.

3. Pléonasm is an unnecessary fullness of expression; as,--

prius praedīcam, lit. I will first say in advance.

4. HendÃ-adys ( $\hat{a} \in \hat{I}\mu \hat{I}_2 \hat{I} \hat{T}^1 \hat{I}_2 \hat{I} \hat{T}^1 \hat{I}_2$ , \_one through two\_) is the use of two nouns joined by a conjunction, in the sense of a noun modified by a Genitive or an Adjective; as,--

febris et aestus, \_the heat of fever\_;

celeritÄ te cursÅ«que, by swift running.

5. Prol $\tilde{A}$ ©psis, or Anticipation, is the introduction of an epithet in advance of the action which makes it appropriate; as,—

submersÄ s obrue puppÄ"s, lit. overwhelm their submerged ships, i.e. overwhelm and sink their ships.

a. The name Prolepsis is also applied to the introduction of a noun or pronoun as object of the main clause where we should expect it to stand as subject of a subordinate clause. Thus:--

nŠstī MÄ rcellum quam tardus sit, *you know how slow Marcellus is* (lit. \_you know Marcellus, how slow he is\_).

Both varieties of Prolepsis are chiefly confined to poetry.

6. Anacolðthon is a lack of grammatical consistency in the construction of the sentence; as,--

tum Ancī fÄ«liÄ« ... impÄ"nsius eÄ«s indignitÄ s crÄ"scere, \_then the sons of Ancus ... their indignation increased all the more\_.

7. HÃ1/2steron PrÃ3teron consists in the inversion of the natural order of two words or phrases; as,--

moriÄ mur et in media arma ruÄ mus = let us rush into the midst of arms and die.

B. Figures of Rhetoric.

375. 1. LÃ-totes (literally \_softening\_) is the expression of an idea by the denial of its opposite; as,---

haud parum labÅ ris, no little toil (i.e. much toil);

nÅ n ignÅ rÅ, *I am not ignorant* (\_i.e.\_ I am well aware).

2. OxymÃ<sup>3</sup>ron is the combination of contradictory conceptions; as,--

sapiēns Ä«nsÄ nia, wise folly.

3. Alliteration is the employment of a succession of words presenting frequent repetition of the same letter (mostly initial); as,--

sēnsim sine sÄ"nsÅ« aetÄ s senÄ"scit.

4. Onomatopœia is the suiting of sound to sense; as,--

quadrupedante putrem sonitū quatit ungula campum, 'And shake with horny hoofs the solid ground.'

\* \* \* \* \*

INDEX OF THE SOURCES OF THE ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLES CITED IN THE SYNTAX.[63]

§ 162. nonne videtis, \_Sest.\_ 47. num exspectas, \_Phil.\_ ii, 86. videsne, \_Vatin.\_ 30. sensistine, \_Cat.\_ 1, 8. a rebus, \_de Sen.\_ 15. visne locum, \_Leg.\_ ii, 1. estisne, \_Liv.\_ i, 38, 2. jam ea, \_Ter. Phor.\_ 525. estne frater, \_Ter. Ad.\_ 569.

§ 166. decorum est, \_Hor. Od.\_ iii, 2, 13. opportune accidit \_Att.\_ i, 17, 2.

§ 168. Numa, \_Eut.\_ i, 3. philosophia, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ ii, 16.

§ 169. assentatio, \_Lael.\_ 89. Corinthi, \_Tac. H.\_ ii, 1.

§ 171. audi tu, Livy, i, 24. nate, mea, \_Aen.\_ i, 664.

§ 174. rumor est, \_Ter. And.\_ 185.

§ 175. galeam, \_Aen.\_ ii, 392. cinctus, \_Ov. Am.\_ iii, 9, 61 nodo sinus, \_Aen.\_ i, 320.

§ 176. idem gloriari, \_de Sen.\_ 32. eadem peccat, \_N.D.\_ i, 31. multa egeo, \_Gell.\_ xiii, 24. multum valet, \_Hor. Epp.\_ i, 6, 52. nihil peccat, \_Stat.\_ 161. minitantem vana, \_Sil.\_ i, 306 acerba tuens, \_Lucr.\_ v, 33. dulce loquentem, \_Hor. Od.\_ i, 22, 24. multum sunt, \_B.G.\_ iv, 1, 8. servitutem, \_Pl. Pers.\_ 34 a. vitam, \_Ter. Ad.\_ 859. stadium \_Off.\_ iii, 10, 42. Olympia, \_de Sen.\_ 14. piscis, \_Sen. N.Q.\_ iii, 18, 2. orationes, \_Brut.\_ 82.

§ 177. homines, \_Rosc. Am.\_ 101.

§ 178. otium, \_Hor. Od.\_ ii, 16, 1. me duas, \_Att.\_ ii, 7, 1. te litteras, \_Pis.\_ 73. hoc te, \_Ter. Hec.\_ 766. me id, \_Pl. Tr.\_ 96. non te, \_Fam.\_ ii, 16, 3. omnes artes, \_Liv.\_ 25, 37. rogatus, \_de Dom.\_ 16. multa, \_N.D.\_ ii, 166.

§ 179. milites, \_B.C.\_ i, 54.

§ 180. tremit, \_Lucr.\_ iii, 489. nuda, \_Aen.\_ i, 320. manus, \_Aen.\_ ii, 57.

§ 181. hic locus, \_B.G.\_ i, 49.

§ 182. Thalam, \_Sall. Jug.\_ 75, 1. Thurios in, \_Nep. Alc.\_ 4. cum Acen, \_Nep. Dat.\_ 5. Italiam venit, \_Aen.\_ i, 2.

§ 187. amicis, \_Sall. C.\_ 16, 4. Orgetorix, \_B.G.\_ i, 2. munitioni, \_B.G.\_ i, 10.

§ 188. mihi ante, \_Verr.\_ v, 123. illi, \_Tac. Ag.\_ 9. intercludere, \_Pl. M.G.\_ 223. oppidum, \_B.C.\_ iii, 80 tu mihi, \_Verr.\_ 3, 213. quid mihi, \_Hor. Epp.\_ i, 3, 15. erit ille, \_Ecl.\_ i, 7. quae ista, \_Par.\_ 41. honorem, \_Verr.\_ iv, 25. Caesar, \_Div.\_ ii, 79. scintillam, \_Aen.\_ i, 174.

§ 189. disputatio, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ ii, 2. honesta, \_Off.\_ iii, 38.

§ 191. castris, \_B.G.\_ vii, 16. legiones, \_B.C.\_ ii, 22. receptui, \_B.G.\_ vii, 47. fortunae, \_Fam.\_ vi, 5, 1. quibus, \_Flac.\_ 19. hos tibi, \_Nep. Paus.\_ 2. me gerendo, \_Liv.\_ i, 23. noxiae, \_Leg.\_ iii, 11.

§ 192. it clamor, \_Aen.\_ v, 451.

§ 193. dum Latio, \_Aen.\_ i, 6.

§ 203. magni, \_Nep. Cat.\_ 1, 2. tantae molis, \_Aen.\_ i, 33.

§ 204. viri, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ ii, 43. memoria, \_Or.\_ 54.

§ 206. Epicuri, F. v, 3. praeteritorum, \_Div.\_ i, 63. nomina, \_Pl. Poen.\_ 1062. reminiscere, \_B.G.\_ i, 13. reminiscens, \_Nep. Alc.\_ 6. mihi patriae, \_Sull.\_ 19.

§ 207. te veteris, \_ad Her.\_ iv, 24, 33. me admones, \_ad Att.\_ v, 1, 3.

§ 208. pecuniae, \_Flacc.\_ 43.

§ 209. miseremini, \_Verr.\_ 1, 72.

§ 212. desine, \_Hor. Od.\_ ii, 9, 17. operum, \_Hor. Od.\_ iii, 17, 16.

§ 214. p. 142, curis, \_Marc.\_ 34. Caesar, \_B.G.\_ 5, 51. caret, \_Hor. Sat.\_ i, 3, 66. urbem, \_Nep. Thras.\_ 1. abstinere, \_Plin. Epp.\_ i, 12, 9. hostes, \_B.G.\_ i, 1, 4. praedones, \_Verr.\_ iv, 144. dissentio, \_Planc.\_ 9. secenantur, \_Cat.\_ i, 32.

§ 215. ab Ulixe, \_Liv.\_ i, 49, 9.

§ 216. a fortuna, \_B.G.\_ v, 34, 2. a multitudine, \_B.G.\_ iii, 2, 1.

§ 217. melle dulcior, \_de Sen.\_ 31. patria, \_Cat.\_ i, 27. amplius, \_B.G.\_ vii, 15, 1. opinione, \_B.G.\_ ii, 3, 1.

§ 218. munere, \_Aen.\_ vi, 885. carne, \_Sall. Jug.\_ 89. castris, \_B.G.\_ ii, 26, 4. opus est properato, \_Mil.\_ 49. nititur, \_Aen.\_ vi, 760 nervis, \_N.D.\_ ii, 59 mortali, \_Lucr.\_ v, 65. quid hoc, \_Sest.\_ 29. quid mea, \_Fam.\_ xiv, 4, 3. fossas, \_B.G.\_ iii, 18. vinum, \_Juv.\_ vii, 121. militibus, \_B.G.\_ i, 8, 1.

§ 219. victoria, \_B.G.\_ i, 14, 4. natura loci, \_B.G.\_ iii, 9, 3.

§ 221. nulla est, \_Brut.\_ 164. exstinguitur, \_Tac. A.\_ ii, 72. longo, \_Aen.\_ v, 320.

§ 222A. cum febri, \_de. Or.\_ iii, 6. improbitas, \_de Or.\_ ii, 237. aer calore, \_N.D.\_ ii, 27. assuetus, \_de Or.\_ iii, 58.

§ 224. puella, \_Pl. Merc.\_ 13. vir singulari, \_Pl. Vid.\_ 41. sunt specie, \_B.G.\_ vi, 28, 1. scopulis, \_Aen.\_ i, 166.

§ 226. Helvetii, \_B.G.\_ i, 2, 2. me dignor, \_Aen.\_ i, 335.

§ 227. Cn. Pompeio, \_B.G.\_ iv, 1. omnes virtutes, \_Fin.\_ ii, 117. perditis, \_Fam.\_ vi, 1, 4. nullo adversante, \_Tac. A.\_ i, 2. passis palmis, \_B.C.\_ iii, 98. audito eum, \_Liv.\_ xxviii, 7.

§ 228. stant litore, \_Aen.\_ vi, 901.

§ 229. a Gergovia, \_B.G.\_ vii, 59, 1.

§ 231. stella, \_N.D.\_ ii, 52. biennio, \_Tac. Agr.\_ 14.

§ 234. prima et, \_Tac. A.\_ i, 37. omnium rerum, \_Fam.\_ vi, 21, 1.

§ 235. eadem alacritas, \_B.G.\_ iv, 24, 4. res operae, \_B.G.\_ v, 11, 5. stultitia, F. iii, 39. domus, uxor, \_Ter. And.\_ 891. pars, \_Sall. Jug.\_ 14, 15.

§ 240. senectus, \_de Sen.\_ 55. exercitus, *Livy*, xxxix, 1.

§ 242. virtus, \_Lael.\_ 100.

§ 244. me oravit, \_Phil.\_ ii, 45. me oraverunt, \_Div. Caec.\_ 2. suum genium, \_Tac. Dial.\_ 9. Hannibalem, \_Sest.\_ 142. suus quemque, \_Rosc. Am.\_ 67.

§ 245. Belgae, \_B.G.\_ ii, 1, 1. Galli, \_B.G.\_ vi, 8, 1.

§ 246. Themistocles, \_Nep. Them.\_ 9. illud intellego, \_Sall. Jug.\_ 85, 5. hic est, \_Pl. Tr.\_ 697.

§ 247. Maximum, \_de Sen.\_ 10. non is sum, \_B.G.\_ v, 30, 2. non suspicabatur, \_Verr.\_ i, 36. vincula, \_Cat.\_ iv, 7.

§ 248. quod idem, \_Ac.\_ ii, 52. bonus vir, \_Lael.\_ 65.

§ 249. ipso terrore, \_B.G.\_ iv, 33, 1. valvae se, \_Div.\_ i, 74. Persae, \_Nep. Alc.\_ 5. ea molestissime, \_Q. Fr.\_ i, 1, 2.

§ 250. carcer quae, \_Verr.\_ v, 143. Belgae, \_B.G.\_ ii, 1, 1. nostra qui, \_Cat.\_ i, 7. servili, \_B.G.\_ i, 40. erant, \_B.G.\_ i, 6. quam quisque, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ i, 41. non longe, \_B.G.\_ i, 10, 1. Themistocles, \_Nep. Them.\_ 4. 3. numquam digne, \_de Sen.\_ 2.

§ 252. cognatio, \_Arch.\_ 2. mors est, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ i, 27. justitia, F. i, 50. si quisquam, \_Lael.\_ 9. potestne, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ iv, 54. si ullo, \_Att.\_ xii, 23, 1. taetrior, \_Verr.\_ iv, 123. quod cuique, \_Off.\_ i, 21. quinto quoque, \_Verr.\_ ii, 139. nemo Romanus, \_Liv.\_ viii, 30, 3.

§ 253. alter exercitum, \_Planc.\_ 86. alteri se, \_B.G.\_ i, 26, 1. causidicus, \_de Or.\_ i, 202.

§ 254. Tarquinii, \_Liv.\_ i, 34, 7. non omnis, \_Div.\_ ii, 90. Corioli, \_Liv.\_ ii, 33, 8. duo milia, \_Curt.\_ iii, 2, 5.

§ 255. temeritas, F. iii, 72. si tu, \_Fam.\_ xiv, 5, 1.

§ 256. velatus, \_Ov. Met.\_ v, 110. tunica, \_Aen.\_ viii, 457.

§ 259. virtus, \_Lael.\_ 100. dum vitant, \_Hor. Sat.\_ i, 2, 24. Caesar, \_B.G.\_ vii, 90, 2. jam pridem, \_Att.\_ ii, 5, 1.

§ 260. Duilium, \_de Sen.\_ 44. hostes, \_B.G.\_ v. 9, 6. domicilium, \_Arch.\_ 7.

§ 262. Regulus, \_Off.\_ iii, 100.

§ 263. Caesar, \_B.G.\_ iv, 17, 1.

§ 265. nihil habebam, \_Att.\_ ix, 10, 1.

§ 268. videor, \_N.D.\_ ii, 72. Gallos, \_B.G.\_ vii, 4, 4. honestum, F. ii, 49. si solos, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ i, 9. rex tantum, \_Nep. Con.\_ 4. Verres, \_Verr. Act. Pr.\_ 12. ardebat, \_Brut.\_ 302.

§ 269. Caesar, \_B.G.\_ iii, 24, 1.

§ 270. hoc jam, \_Cat.\_ i, 5. dico me, \_Sull.\_ 27.

§ 275. quare, \_Cat.\_ 1, 32. isto bono, \_de Sen.\_ 33.

§ 276. ne repugnetis, \_Cluent.\_ 6 tu vero, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ i, 112. impii ne, \_Leg.\_ ii, 41. cave ignoscas, \_Lig.\_ 14.

§ 277. quid faciam, \_Pl. Curc.\_ 589. ego redeam, \_Ter. Eun.\_ 49. huic cedamus! \_Phil.\_ xiii, 16. quid facerem, \_Ter. Eun.\_ 831. hunc ego, \_Arch.\_ 18.

§ 278. ne sint, \_de Sen.\_ 34. fuerit, \_Verr.\_ i, 37.

§ 279. di istaec, \_Ter. H.T.\_ 1038. falsus utinam, \_Liv.\_ xxi, 10, 10.

§ 280. dicat aliquis, \_Ter. And.\_ 640. fortunam, \_Pub. Syr.\_ 193. velim mihi, \_Fam.\_ xiii, 75, 1. nolim putes, \_Fam.\_ ix, 15, 4. dies deficat, \_N.D.\_ iii, 81.

§ 281. egredere, \_Cat.\_ i, 20. rem vobis, \_Verr.\_ iv, 1. si bene, \_de Sen.\_ 3. consules, \_Leg.\_ iii, 8. hominem, \_Twelve Tables.\_ amicitia, \_Liv.\_ 38, 38, 1. quin equos, \_Liv.\_ i, 57, 7.

§ 282. adjuta, \_Ter. Eun.\_ 150. portas, \_B.G.\_ ii, 33 haec, \_And.\_ 472. ut ne, \_Off.\_ i, 103. ut non, \_Cat.\_ i, 23. ut earum, \_B.G.\_ iv, 17, 10. Helvetii, \_B.G.\_ i, 7, 3. haec habui, \_de Sen.\_ 85. non habebant, \_B.G.\_ iv, 38, 2. idoneus, \_Verr.\_ iii, 41. dignus, \_Leg.\_ iii, 5.

§ 283. multa, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ i, 80. sunt qui, \_Inv.\_ ii, 144. nemo, \_Fam.\_ i, 4, 2. sapientia, \_Fin.\_ i, 43. quae, \_Lael.\_ 23. non is sum, \_B.G.\_ v, 30, 2. non longius, \_B.G.\_ ii, 21, 3. o fortunate, \_Arch.\_ 24. ut qui, \_Phil.\_ xi, 30. egomet, \_de Or.\_ i, 82. nemo est, \_Verr.\_ iv, 115. nemo fuit, \_B.C.\_ iii, 53, 3. quem audierim, \_Nep. Ar.\_ 1, 2.

§ 284. quis tam, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ iii, 71. Siciliam, \_Verr. Act. Pr.\_ 12. mons, \_B.G.\_ i, 6, 1. non is, \_Cat.\_ i, 22. nemo est, \_de Sen.\_ 24. habetis, \_Cat.\_ iv, 24. nihil, \_Ter. H.T.\_ 675. nemo est, \_B.G.\_ vi, 39, 3.

§ 286. Themistocles, \_Nep. Them.\_ 8, 3. neque, \_de Sen.\_ 84. quoniam, \_Nep. Milt.\_ 7, 5. noctu, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ iv, 44. Bellovaci, \_B.G.\_ vii, 75. id feci, \_Caec.\_ 101. Crasso, \_Fam.\_ xiii, 16, 3. hoc ita, \_Leg.\_ iii, 31. Haeduos, \_B.G.\_ i, 16, 6. id omitto, \_Sall. Jug.\_ 110, 7.

§ 287. Epaminondas, \_Nep. Ep.\_ 9, 4. id ut, \_Nep. Them.\_ 8, 3. Caesar, \_B.G.\_ iii, 9, 2. ubi de, \_B.G.\_ i, 7, 3. ut quisque, \_Verr.\_ v, 143. hostes, \_B.G.\_ iv, 26, 2. id ubi, \_Liv.\_ i, 32, 13. postquam occupatae, \_Liv.\_ xxiv, 35, 4. postquam Romam, \_Sall. Jug.\_ 28, 2. postquam structi, \_Liv.\_ i, 23, 6. posteaquam, \_Leg.\_ ii, 64.

§ 288. an tum, \_Pis.\_ 26. credo tum, \_Verr.\_ iv, 46. eo tempore, \_Lig.\_ 20. illo die, \_Mil.\_ 38. Lysander, \_Div.\_ i, 96. Pythagoras, \_N.D.\_ iii, 88. jam Galli, \_B.G.\_ vii, 26, 3. Treveri, \_B.G.\_ vi, 7, 1. cum ad, \_Verr.\_ v, 27. cum equitatus, \_B.G.\_ v, 19, 2. saepe cum, \_Nep. Cim.\_ 4, 2. cum procucurrissent, \_B.C.\_ ii, 41, 6.

§ 289. tum tua, \_Hor. Epp.\_ i, 18, 84. cum videbis, \_Pl. Bacch.\_ 145. stabilitas, \_Lael.\_ 82.

§ 290. cum tacent, \_Cat.\_ i, 21. cum te, \_Att.\_ xiv, 17 A, 4.

§ 291. prius, \_Pl. Merc.\_ 456. nihil contra, \_Flacc.\_ 51. non prius, \_Sall. C.\_ 51.

§ 291. priusquam, \_Liv.\_ i, 24, 3. tempestas, \_Sen. Ep.\_ 103, 2. priusquam telum, \_B.C.\_ ii, 34, 6. animum, \_Pl. Amph.\_ 240. sol antequam, \_Phil.\_ xiv, 27.

§ 293. Alexander, \_Quint. Curt.\_ iv, 6, 17. dum haec, \_B.G.\_ iii, 17, 1. dum anima, \_Att.\_ ix, 10, 3.

Lacedaemoniorum, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ i, 101. Cato, \_Nep. Cat.\_ 2, 4. donec, \_Liv.\_ xxiii, 31, 9. ferrum, \_Nep. Ep.\_ 9, 3. trepidationis, \_Liv.\_ xxi, 28, 11. exspectavit, \_B.G.\_ iv, 23, 4. dum litterae, \_Fam.\_ xi, 23, 2.

§ 295. postulo, \_Ter. And.\_ 550. orat, \_Ter. Ad.\_ 882. milites, \_B.G.\_ ii, 21, 2. Helvetiis, \_B.G.\_ i, 2, 1. huic, \_Rosc. Am.\_ 54. consuli, \_Liv.\_ xxxv, 20, 4. ne lustrum, \_Liv.\_ xxiv, 43, 4. prohibuit, \_Liv.\_ xxv, 35, 6. nec quin, \_Liv.\_ xxvi, 40, 4. constitueram, \_Att.\_ xvi, 10, 1. decrevit, \_Cat.\_ i, 4. convenit, \_Liv.\_ x, 27, 2. fac ut, \_Pl. Rud.\_ 1218. cura ut, \_Cat.\_ iii, 12. laborabat, \_B.G.\_ vii, 31, 1. sequitur, \_N.D.\_ ii, 81. eos moneo, \_Cat.\_ ii, 20. huic imperat, \_B.G.\_ iv, 21, 8.

§ 296. opto, \_Verr. Act. Pr.\_ 50. vereor ne, \_Att.\_ vii, 12, 2.

§ 297. ex quo, F. ii, 24. ita fit, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ ii, 16. est mos, \_Brut.\_ 84.

§ 298. quis, \_Par.\_ 48.

§ 299. illud, \_Off.\_ iii, 111. hoc uno, \_de Or.\_ i, 32. bene mihi, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ i, 97. quod, \_B.G.\_ i, 44, 6. quod me, \_Nep. Ep.\_ 5, 6.

§ 300. oculis, \_B.G.\_ i, 12, 1. bis bina, \_N.D.\_ ii, 49. effugere, \_N.D.\_ iii, 14. saepe autem, \_N.D.\_ iii, 14. Epaminondas, F. ii, 97. ex Socrate, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ v, 34. nescio, \_Pl. Amph.\_ 1056. conantur, \_B.G.\_ i, 8, 4. pergit, \_Liv.\_ i, 7, 6, quaeritur, \_N.D.\_ i, 61. haud scio, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ ii, 41.

§ 302. naturam, \_Off.\_ i, 100. memoria, \_de Sen.\_ 21. si quis, \_B.G.\_ i, 48, 6. si dicendo, \_Tac. Dial.\_ 19.

§ 303. mentiar, \_Lael.\_ 10. haec si, \_Cat.\_ i, 19.

§ 304. sapientia, F. i, 42. consilium, \_de Sen.\_ 19. Laelius, \_Arch.\_ 16. num igitur, \_de Sen.\_ 19. nisi felicitas, \_Tac. Agr.\_ 31. eum patris, \_Phil.\_ ii, 99. si Sestius, \_Sest.\_ 81. si unum, \_Liv.\_ ii, 38, 5.

§ 305. non potestis, F. ii, 71. cras, \_Pl. Merc.\_ 770. haec reputent, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ i, 51. roges, F. iv, 69.

§ 306. ferreus, \_Fam.\_ xv, 21, 3. dolorem, \_Phil.\_ 12, 21. si feceris, \_Fam.\_ v, 19, 2. hoc si, \_Fam.\_ vii, 1, 6. hunc mihi, \_Cat.\_ i, 18. nihil, \_Cat.\_ ii, 10. nisi, \_Mil.\_ 19.

§ 307. sed quid, \_Div. Caec.\_ 14. serviam, \_Pl. Men.\_ 1101.

§ 308. sit fur, \_Verr.\_ v, 4. haec sint, \_Ac.\_ ii, 105. ne sit, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ ii, 14.

§ 309. homines, \_Phil.\_ ii, 39. non est, \_Rep.\_ i, 10. quamquam, \_Off.\_ i, 56. Caesar, \_B.G.\_ iv, 31, 1. Atticus, \_Nep. Att.\_ 6, 2. licet, \_Rosc. Am.\_ 31. quamquam quid, \_Cat.\_ i, 22. quamquam, \_Liv.\_ xxxvi, 34, 6. quamvis, multi, \_Tac. Dial.\_ 2. quamvis infesto, \_Liv.\_ ii, 40, 7.

§ 310. multi, \_Off.\_ iii, 82. omnia postposui, \_Fam.\_ xvi, 21, 6. nil obstat, \_Hor. Sat.\_ i, 1, 40. oderint, \_Acc.\_ 204. manent, \_de Sen.\_ 22. nubant, \_Pl. Aul.\_ 491.

§ 312. quidquid, \_Aen.\_ ii, 49. quidquid oritur, \_Div.\_ ii, 60.

§ 314. Regulus, \_Off.\_ iii, 100. tum Romulus, \_Liv.\_ i, 9, 2. nuntiatum, \_B.G.\_ i, 38, 1. dixit, \_Nep. Them.\_ 7, 5.

§ 315. Ariovistus, \_B.G.\_ i, 44, 7.

§ 316. milites, \_B.G.\_ iii, 5, 3.

§ 318. Caesar, \_B.G.\_ i, 14, 6.

§ 322. concursu, \_Tac. Dial.\_ 39.

§ 323. demonstrabantur, \_de Sen.\_ 78. Paetus, \_Att.\_ ii, 1, 12.

§ 324. nemo, \_Par.\_ 52. cum diversas, \_Tac. Dial.\_ 1, 4. mos est, \_Orat.\_ 151. quod ego, \_Pl. Capt.\_ 961.

§ 327. dulce, \_Hor. Od.\_ iii, 2, 13. virorum, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ ii, 43. aliud est, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ iv, 27. impune, \_Sall. Jug.\_ 31, 26. licuit, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ i, 33.

§ 328. Demosthenes, F. v, 5. beatus, \_N.D.\_ i, 48. Cato, \_Sall. Cat.\_ 54, 5.

§ 330. apertum est, F. v, 34.

§ 331. Epicurei, \_Lael.\_ 13. Thales, \_N.D.\_ i, 25. Democritus, \_N.D.\_ i, 20. nullo se, \_Lig.\_ 3. nec mihi, \_de Sen.\_ 85. eas res, \_B.G.\_ i, 18. te tua, \_Brut.\_ 331. cupio, \_Cat.\_ i, 4. Timoleon, \_Nep. Tim.\_ 3, 4. gaudeo, \_Pl. Bacch.\_ 456. non moleste, \_de Sen.\_ 7.

§ 332. Sestius, \_Sest.\_ 95. traditum, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ v, 114.

§ 333. audax, \_Hor. Od.\_ i, 3, 25.

§ 334. huncine, \_Hor. Sat.\_ i, 9, 72.

§ 335. interim, \_B.G.\_ i, 16, 1.

§ 336. assurgentem, \_Liv.\_ iv, 19.

§ 337. gloria, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ iii, 3. Conon, \_Nep. Con.\_ 4, 5. omne, \_Phil.\_ v, 31. mente, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ v, 100. Solon, \_de Sen.\_ 26. sol, \_N.D.\_ ii, 102. mendaci, \_Div.\_ ii, 146. perfidiam, \_B.G.\_ vii, 5, 5. eis Catonem, \_de Sen.\_ 3. Homerus, \_de Sen.\_ 54. urbem, \_Liv.\_ xxii, 20. equitatum, \_B.G.\_ i, 15, 1. obliviscendum, \_Tac. Hist.\_ ii, 1. numquam, \_Verr.\_ i, 38. suo cuique, \_N.D.\_ iii, 1. Caesar, \_B.G.\_ i, 13, 1.

§ 338. scribendo, \_Fam.\_ xv, 6, 2. mens, \_Off.\_ i, 105. Themistocles, \_Nep. Them.\_ 2, 3. multa, F. i, 5.

§ 339. ad pacem, \_Liv.\_ xxi, 13. hostes, \_B.G.\_ iii, 6, 2. legati, \_B.G.\_ iv, 13, 5. quae ille, \_Sall. Fr.\_ i, 77, 11.

§ 340. legati, \_B.G.\_ i, 30, 1. do (colloco), \_Pl. Tr.\_ 735. hoc est, \_Att.\_ vii, 22, 2.

§ 341. cum homines, \_Cat.\_ i, 31. discidia, F. i, 44. horae, \_de Sen.\_ 69. Caesar, \_B.G.\_ ii, 35, 3.

§ 342. cita, \_Hor. Sat.\_ i, 1, 8. qui aether, \_N.D.\_ ii, 41.

§ 343. adsentatio, \_Lael.\_ 89.

§ 346. Cn. Pompeio, \_B.G.\_ iv, 1, 1.

§ 348. Darius, \_Nep. Milt.\_ 4, 1.

§ 349. magnus, \_Nep. Them.\_ 6, 1.

§ 350. erant duo, \_B.G.\_ i, 6, 1. nisi forte, \_de Sen.\_ 18. id ut, \_Nep. Them.\_ 8, 3. eo cum, \_B.G.\_ vii, 7, 4. ut ad, \_Lael.\_ 5. septimus, \_de Sen.\_ 38. recepto, \_B.C.\_ iii, 12, 1. sed pleni, \_Arch.\_ 14. horribilem, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ i, 118. simulatam, \_Tac. A.\_ i, 10.

§ 351. Caesar, \_B.G.\_ i, 25, 1. Haedui, \_B.G.\_ i, 11, 2. Caesar cum, \_B.G.\_ i, 7, 1. accidit, \_Nep. Alc.\_ 3, 2. si quid, \_Arch.\_ 1. Caesar, \_B.G.\_ v, 4, 1.

§ 356. hostium, \_B.G.\_ iii, 29, 3. mens quoque, \_de Sen.\_ 36. tanto, \_Sull.\_ 59.

§ 358. pro multitudine, \_B.G.\_ i, 2, 5.

§ 374. ut ager, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ ii, 13. minis, \_Tusc. Disp.\_ v, 87. dissimilis, \_Nep. Chab.\_ 3, 4. febris, \_Cat.\_ i, 31. submersas, \_Aen.\_ i, 69. nosti, \_Fam.\_ viii, 10, 3. tum Anci, \_Liv.\_ i, 40, 2. moriamur, \_Aen.\_ ii, 353.

§ 375. quadrupedante, \_Aen.\_ viii, 506.

#### ABBREVIATIONS USED IN INDEX TO THE ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLES

Ac., Cicero, Academica. Acc., Accius. ad Her., ad Herennium. Aen., Virgil, Aeneid. Arch., Cicero, pro Archia. Att., Cicero, Epistulae ad Atticus. B.C., Caesar, de Bello Civili. B.G., Caesar, de Bello Gallico. Brut., Cicero, Brutus. Caec., Cicero, pro Caecina. Cat., Cicero, in Catilinam. Cluent., Cicero, pro Cluentio. Curt., Quintus Curtius de Dom., Cicero, de Domo Sua. de Or., Cicero, de Oratore. de Sen., Cicero, de Senectute. D., Cicero, de Divinatione. Div. Caec., Cicero, Divinatio in Caecilium. Ecl., Virgil, Eclogues. Eut., Eutropius. F., Cicero, de Finibus. Fam., Cicero, Epistulae ad Familiares. Flac., Cicero, pro Flacco. Gell, Aulus Gellius. Hor., Horace. ---- Epp., Epistles. ---- Od., Odes. ---- Sat., Satires. Inv., Cicero, de Inventione. Juv., Juvenal. Lael., Cicero, \_Laelius, de Amicitia\_. Leg., Cicero, de Legibus. Lig., Cicero, pro Ligario. Liv., Livy. Lucr., Lucretius. Marc., Cicero, pro Marcello. Mil., Cicero, pro Milone. N.D., Cicero, de Natura Deorum. Nep., Nepos. ---- Alc., Alcibiades. ---- Ar., Aristides. ---- Att., Atticus. ---- Cat., Cato. ---- Chab. Chabrias. ---- Cim., Cimon. ---- Con., Conon. ---- Dat., Datames. ---- Ep., Epaminondas. ----Milt., Miltiades. ---- Paus., Pausanias. ---- Them., Themistocles. ---- Thras., Thrasybulus. ---- Tim., Timoleon. Off., Cicero, de Officiis. Or., Cicero, Orator. Ov., Ovid. ---- Am., Amores, ---- Met., Metamorphoses. Par., Cicero, Paradoxa. Phil., Cicero, Philippics. Pis., Cicero, in Pisonem. Planc., Cicero, pro Plancio. Pl., Plautus. ---- Amph., Amphitruo. ---- Aul., Aulularia. ---- Bacch., Bacchides. ----Capt., Captivi. ---- Curc., Curculio. ---- Men., Menaechmi. ---- Merc., Mercator. ---- M.G., Miles Gloriosus. ---- Pers., Persa. ---- Poen., Poenulus. ---- Rud., Rudens. ---- Tr., Trinummus. ---- Vid., Vidularia. Plin. Epp., Pliny the Younger, Letters. Pub. Syr., Publilius Syrus. Q.F., Cicero, ad Quintum Fratrem. Rosc. Am., Cicero, pro Roscio Amerino. Sall., Sallust. ---- C., Catiline. ---- Fr., Fragments. ---- Jug., Jugurtha. Sen., Seneca. ---- Ep., Epistles. ---- N.Q., Naturales Quaestiones. Sest., Cicero, pro Sestio. Sex. Rosc., Cicero, pro Sexto Roscio. Sil., Silius Italicus. Stat., Caecilius Statius. Sull., Cicero, pro Sulla. Tac., Tacitus. ---- A., Annals. ---- Agr., Agricola. ---- Dial., Dialogus de Oratoribus. ---- Ger., Germania. ---- H., Histories. Ter., Terence. ---- Ad., Adelphoi. ---- And., Andria. ---- Eun., Eunuchus. ---- Hec., Hecvra. ---- H.T., Hautontimoroumenos. ---- Phor., Phormio. Tusc. Disp., Cicero, Tusculan Disputations. Twelve Tables, Laws of the Twelve Tables. Vatin., Cicero, in Vatinium. Verr., Cicero, in Verrem. Verr. Act. Pr., Cicero, \_Actio Prima in C. Verrem\_.

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#### INDEX TO THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS

NOTE.--Compounds are not given unless they present some special irregularity. The references are to

#### sections.

A.

abdÅ , 122, I, 4. abiciÅ , 122, III. abnuÅ , 122, II. aboleÅ , 121, I. abstergeÅ , 121, III absum, 125. accendŠ, 122, I, 4. accidit, 138, III. acciŠ, 121, I, N. accipiŠ, 122, III. acquīrÅ , 122, I, 6. acuÅ , 122, II. addŠ, 122, I, 2. adhaerēscÅ , 122, IV, 2. adipÄ«scor, 122, V. adolÄ"scÅ , 122, IV, 1. adsum, 125. adveniŠ, 123, IV. afferŠ, 129. afficiŠ, 122, III. afflīgÅ , 122, I, 1, a. agnÅ scÅ , 122, IV, 1. agÅ , 122, I, 3. algeÅ , 121, III. alÅ , 122, I, 5. amiciÅ , 123, III. amÅ , 120, I. amplector, 122, V. angÅ , 122, I, 7. aperiÅ , 123, II. appetÅ , 122, I, 6. arceÅ , 121, II, a. arcessÅ , 122, I, 6. Ä rdeÅ , 121, III. Ä rÄ"scÅ , 122, IV, 2. arguÅ , 122, II. ascendÅ , 122, I, 4. aspiciÅ , 122, III. assentior, 123, VII. assuēfaciÅ , 122, III. assuÄ"fīŠ, 122, III. audiÅ , 123, I. auferÅ , 129. augeÅ , 121, III. aveÅ , 121, II, a, N. 2.

# C.

cadÅ, 122, I, 2. caedÅ, 122, I, 2. calefaciÅ, 122, III. calefiÅ, 122, III. caleÅ, 121, II, a. calÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 2. canÅ, 122, I, 2. capessÅ, 122, I, 6. capiÅ, 122, III. careÅ, 121, II, a. carpÅ, 121, I, 1, a. caveÅ, 121, V. cÄ"dÅ, 122, I, 1, b. cÄ"nseÅ, 121, II, b. cernÅ, 122, I, 6. cieÅ, 121, I. cingÅ, 122, I, 1, a. circumsistÅ, 122, I, 2. claudÅ, 122, I, 1, b. claudÅ, 122, I, 7. coëmÅ, 122, I, 3. coepÄ«, 133. coërceÅ, 121, II, a. cognÅ scÅ, 122, IV, 1. cÅ gÅ, 122, I, 3. colligÅ, 122, I, 3. colÅ, 122, I, 5. comminÄ«scor, 122, V. comperiÅ, 123, V. compleÅ, 121, I. concutiÅ, 122, IV, 2. cÅ nserÅ, 122, I, 2. cÅ nferÅ, 129, cÅ nfiteor, 121, VII. congruÅ, 122, II. cÅ nsenÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 2. cÅ nserÅ, 122, I, 5. cÅ nserÅ, 122, I, 6 (\_plant\_). cÅ nsidÅ, 122, I, 4. cÅ nsistÅ, 122, I, 2. cÅ nspiciÅ, 122, III. cA nstituÅ, 122, II. cÅ nsuÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 1. cÅ nsulÅ, 122, I, 5. contineÅ, 121, II, b. contingit, 138, III. coquÅ, 122, I, 1, a. crepÅ, 120, II. crÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 1. cubÅ, 120, II. cupiÅ, 122, III. currÅ, 122, I, 2.

# D.

dēbeÅ, 121, II, a. dÄ"cernÅ, 122, I, 6. decet, 138, II. dÄ"decet, 138, II. dÄ"dÅ, 122, I, 2. dÄ"fendÅ, 122, I, 4. dÄ"lÄ"o, 121, I dÄ"ligÅ, 122, I, 3. dÄ"mÅ, 122, I, 3. dÄ"sÄ"rÅ, 122, I, 5 dÄ"sinÅ, 122, I, 6. dÄ"sum, 125. dÄ«cÅ, 122, I, 1, a. differÅ, 129. dÄ«ligÅ, 122, I, 3. dÄ"micÅ, 120, II. dirimÅ, 122, I, 3. dÄ«ripiÅ, 122, III. dÄ«ruÅ, 122, II. discernÅ, 122, I, 6. discÅ, 122, IV, 1. disserÅ, 122, I, 5. distinguÅ, 122, I, 1, a., footnote 44. dÄ«vidÅ, 122, I, 1, b. dÅ, 127. doceÅ, 121, II, b. doleÅ, 121, II, a. domÅ, 120, II. dÅ«cÅ, 122, I, 1, a.

# E.

Ä"dÅ, 122, I, 2. edÅ, 122, I, 3. efferÅ, 129. effugiÅ, 122, III. egeÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. Ä"liciÅ, 122, III. Ä"mineÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. emÅ, 122, I, 3. eÅ, 132. Ä"suriÅ, 123, VI. Ä"vÄ dÅ, 122, I, 1, b., footnote 45. Ä"vÄ nÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 3. excolÅ, 122, I, 5. excÅ«dÅ, 122, I, 4. exerceÅ, 121, II, a. experior, 123, VII. expleÅ, 121, I, N. explicÅ, 120, II. exstinguÅ, 122, I, 1, a., footnote 44. extimÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 2.

# F.

faciÅ, 122, III. fallÅ, 122, I, 2. fateor, 121, VII. faveÅ, 121, V. feriÅ, 123, VI. ferÅ, 129. ferveÅ, 121, VI fÄ«gÅ, 122, I, 1, b. findÅ, 122, I, 2, N. fingÅ, 122, I, 1, a. fiÅ, 131. flectÅ, 122, I, 1, b. fleÅ, 121, I. flÅ reÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. flÅ rÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 2. fluÅ, 122, II. fodiÅ, 122, III. foveÅ, 121, V. frangÅ, 122, I, 3. fremÅ, 122, I, 5. fricÅ, 120, II. frÄ«geÅ, 121, II, a, N. 2. fruor, 122, V. fugiÅ, 122, III. fulciÅ, 123, III. fulgeÅ, 121, III. fulget, 138, I. fundÅ, 122, I, 3. fungor, 122, V. furÅ, 122, I, 7.

G.

gemÅ , 122, I, 5. gerÅ , 122, I, 1, a. gignÅ , 122, I, 5. gradior, 122, V.

H.

habeÅ , 121, II, a. haereÅ , 121, III. hauriÅ , 123, III. horreÅ , 121, II, a, N. 1.

# I.

ignÅ scÅ, 121, IV, 2. illiciÅ, 122, III. imbuÅ, 122, II. immineÅ, 121, II, a, N. 2. impleÅ, 121, I, N. implicÅ, 120, II. incipiÅ, 122, III. incolÅ, 122, I, 5. incumbÅ, 122, I, 5. indulgeÅ, 121, III. induÅ, 122, II. Ä«nferÅ, 129. ingemÄ«scÅ, 122, IV, 2. Ä«nsum, 125. intellegÅ, 122, I, 3. interficiÅ, 122, III. intersum, 125. invÄ dÅ, 122, I, 1, b., footnote 45. inveniÅ, 123, IV. Ä«rÄ scor, 122, V.

J.

jaceÅ , 121, II, a. jaciÅ , 122, III. jubeÅ , 121, III. jungÅ , 122, I, 1, a. juvÅ , 120, III.

# L.

lÄ bor, 122, V. lacessÅ, 122, I, 6. laedÅ, 122, I, 1, b. lambÅ, 122, I, 7. largior, 123, VII. lateÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. lavÅ, 120, III. legÅ, 122, I, 3. libet, 138, II. liceor, 121, VII. licet, 138, II. loquor, 122, V. lÅ«ceo, 121, III. lÅ«dÅ, 122, I, 1, b. lÅ«geÅ, 121, III. luÅ, 122, II.

# M.

maereÅ, 121, II, a, N. 2. mÄ lÅ, 130. maneÅ, 121, III. mÄ tÅ«rÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 3. medeor, 121, VII. meminÄ«, 133. mereÅ, 121, II, a. mereor, 121, VII. mergÅ, 122, I, 1, b. mÄ"tior, 123, VII. metuÅ, 122, II. micÅ, 120, II. minuÅ, 122, II. misceÅ, 121, II, b. miseret, 138, II. misereor, 121, VII. mittÅ, 122, I, 1, b. molÅ, 122, I, 5. moneÅ, 121, II, a. mordeÅ, 121, IV. morior, 122, V. moveÅ, 121, V.

# N.

nancīscor, 122, V. nÄ scor, 122, V. nectÅ, 122, I, 1, b. neglegÅ, 122, I, 3. ningit, 138, . niteÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. nÄ«tor, 122, V. noceÅ, 121, II, a. nÅ lÅ, 130. nÅ scÅ, 122, IV, 1. nÅ«bÅ, 122, I, 1, a.

# О.

obdūrÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 3. oblinÅ, 122, I, 6. oblÄ«vÄ«scor, 122, V. obmÅ«tÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 3. obruÅ, 122, II. obsolÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 1. obsum, 125. obtineÅ, 121, II, b. Å dÄ«, 133. offerÅ, 129. oleÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. operiÅ, 123, II. oportet, 138, II. opperior, 123, VII. Å rdior, 123, VII. orior, 123, VII.

# P.

paenitet, 138, II. palleÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. pandÅ, 122, I, 4. parcÅ, 122, I, 2. pÄ reÅ, 121, II, a. pariÅ, 122, III. pÄ scÅ, 122, IV, 1. pÄ scor, 122, IV, 1. patefaciÅ, 122, III. patefÄ«Å, 122, III. pateÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. patior, 122, V. paveÅ, 121, V. pelliciÅ, 122, III. pellÅ, 122, I, 2. pendeÅ, 121, IV. pendÅ, 122, I, 2. peragÅ, 122, I, 3. percellÅ, 122, I, 2, N. percrÄ"brÄ"scÅ, 122, IV, 3. perdÅ, 122, I, 2. perficiÅ, 122, III. perfringÅ, 122, I, 3. perfruor, 122, V. perlegÅ, 122, I, 3. permulceÅ, 121, III. perfringÅ, 122, I, 1, b., footnote 45. petÅ, 122, I, 6. piget, 138, II. pingÅ, 122, I, 1, a. placeÅ, 121, II, a. plaudÅ, 122, I, 1, b. pluit, 138, I. polleÅ, 121, II, a, N. 2. polliceor, 121, VII. polluÅ,

122, II. pŠnŠ, 122, I, 6. poscŠ, 122, IV, 1. possīdÅ , 122, I, 4. possum, 126. pÅ tÅ , 120, I. praebeÅ , 121, II, a. praestat, 138, III. praesum, 125. prandeÅ , 121, VI. prehendÅ , 122, I, 4. premÅ , 122, I, 1, b. prÅ dÅ , 122, I, 2. prÅ mÅ , 122, I, 3. prÅ sum, 125. prÅ sternÅ , 122, I, 6. pudet, 138, II. pungÅ , 122, I, 2.

# Q.

quaerŠ, 122, I, 6. quatiŠ, 122, III. queror, 122, V. quiēscÅ , 122, IV, 1.

# R.

rÄ dÅ, 122, I, 1, b. rapiÅ, 122, III. reddÅ, 122, I, 2. redimÅ, 122, I, 3. referciÅ, 123, III. referÅ, 129. rÄ"fert, 138, II. regÅ, 122, I, 1, a. relinquÅ, 122, I, 3. reminÄ«scor, 122, V. reor, 121, VII. reperiÅ, 123, V. rÄ"pÅ, 122, I, 1, a. resistÅ, 122, I, 2. respuÅ, 122, II. restinguÅ, 122, I, 1, a., footnote 44. retineÅ, 121, II, b. rÄ«deÅ, 121, III. rÅ dÅ, 122, I, 1, b. rubeÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. rumpÅ, 122, I, 3. ruÅ, 122, II.

# S.

saepiÅ, 123, III. saliÅ, 123, II. sanciÅ, 123, III. sapiÅ, 122, III. sarciÅ, 123, III. scindÅ, 122, I, 2, N. scÄ«scÅ, 122, IV, 2. scribÅ, 122, I, 1, a. sculpÅ, 122, I, 1, a. secÅ, 120, II. sedeÅ, 121, V. sentiÅ, 123, III. sepeliÅ, 123, I. sequor, 122, V. serÅ, 122, I, 6. serpÅ, 122, I, 1, a. sileÅ, 121, II, a, N. sinÅ, 122, I, 6. solvÅ, 122, I, 4. sonÅ, 120, II. spargÅ, 122, I, 1, b. spernÅ, 122, I, 6. splendeÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. spondeÅ, 121, IV. statuÅ, 122, II. sternÅ, 122, I, 6. –stinguÅ, 122, I, 1, a. stÅ, 120, IV. strepÅ, 122, I, 5. strÄ«deÅ, 121, VI. stringÅ, 122, I, 1, a. struÅ, 122, II. studeÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. suÄ deÅ, 121, III. subigÅ, 122, I, 3. subsum, 125. sum, 100. sÅ«mÅ, 122, I, 3. suÅ, 122, II. supersum, 125. sustineÅ, 121, II, b.

# T.

taceÅ, 121, II, a. taedet, 138, II. tangÅ, 122, I, 2. tegÅ, 122, I, 1, a. temnÅ, 122, I, 1, a. tendÅ, 122, I, 2. teneÅ, 121, II, b. terÅ, 122, I, 6. terreÅ, 121, II, a. texÅ, 122, I, 5. timeÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. tingÅ, 122, I, 1, a. tollÅ, 122, I, 2, N. tonat, 138, I. tondeÅ, 121, IV. tonÅ, 120, II. torpeÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. torqueÅ, 121, III. torreÅ, 121, II, b. trÄ dÅ, 122, I, 2. trahÅ, 122, I, 1, a. tremÅ, 122, I, 5. tribuÅ, 122, II. trÅ«dÅ, 122, I, 1, b. trÄ dÅ, 122, I, 2.

# U.

ulcīscor, 122, V. unguÅ, 122, I, 1, a. urgeÅ, 121, III. Å«rÅ, 122, I, 1, a. Å«tor, 122, V.

# V.

vÄ dÅ, 122, I, 1, b. valeÅ, 121, II, a. vehÅ, 122, I, 1, a. vellÅ, 122, I, 4. veniÅ, 123, IV. vereor, 121, VII. vergÅ, 122, I, 7. verrÅ, 122, I, 4. vertÅ, 122, I, 4. vescor, 122, V. vetÅ, 120, II. videÅ, 121, V. vigeÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. vinciÅ, 123, III. vincÅ, 122, I, 3. vireÅ, 121, II, a, N. 1. vÄ«sÅ, 122, I, 4. vÄ«vÅ, 122, I, 1, a. volÅ, 130. volvÅ, 122, I, 4. vomÅ, 122, I, 5. voveÅ, 121, V.

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# GENERAL INDEX.

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The references are to sections and paragraphs.

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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 conjugation; const., constr., construction; dat., dative; decl., declension; gen., genitive; ind., indicative; indir. disc., indirect discourse; loc., locative; N., note; nom., nominative; plu., plural; prep., preposition; pron., pronoun or pronunciation; sing., singular; subj., subject; subjv., subjunctive; voc., vocative; w., with.

#### A.

 $\ddot{A}f$ , vowel, 2, 1; ---- pronunciation, 3, 1; ---- development of  $\ddot{A}f$ , before a single consonant, 7, 1, a; ---before two consonants, 7, 1, b; ---- Äf as ending of nom. sing. of 1st decl., 20; ---- in voc. sing. of Greek nouns in -Ä"s of 1st decl., 22; ---- in nom. sing. of Greek nouns in -Ä" of 1st decl., 22, 3; ---termination of nom. and acc. plu. of neuters, 23; 35; 48; ---- termination of nom. sing. of nouns of 3d decl., 28; ---- gender of nouns in  $-\ddot{A}f$  of 3d decl., 43, 3; ---- ending of acc. sing. of Greek nouns of 3d decl., 47, 1; ---- regular quantity of final a, 363, 1; ---- exceptions to quantity of final a, 363, 1, a-c. Å, pronunciation, 3, 1; ---- arising by contraction, 7, 2; ---- as ending of stem in 1st decl., 18; ----Ä -stems inflected, 20; ---- in voc. sing. of Greek nouns of 1st decl., 22; ---- in voc. sing. of Greek nouns in -Ä s of 3d decl., 47, 4; ---- distinguishing vowel of 1st conjugation, 98; ---- ending of imperative act. of 1st conj., 101; ---- final a long by exception, 363, 1, a-c. Ä, ab, abs, use, 142, 1; ---- with town names, 229, 2. Å to denote agency, 216. ---- to denote separation, 214. ---- place from which, 229. ---with town names, 229, 2. ---- with abl. of gerund, 338, 4, b. Ä -stems, 20; 98; 101. Abbreviations of proper names, 373. Ablative case, 17; 213 f. ---- in -Ä bus, 21, 2, e. ---- in -d in prons., 84, 3; 85, 3. ----- formation of sing. of adjs. of 3d decl., 67, a; 70, 1–5. ----- of Ä--stems, 37; 38. ----- genuine abl. uses, 214 f. ---- absolute, 227. ---- of agent, 216. ---- of accompaniment, 222. ---- of accordance, 220, 3. ---- of association, 222A. ---- of attendant circumstance, 221; 227, 2, e). ---- of cause, 219. ---- of comparison, 217. ---- of degree of difference, 223. ---- of fine or penalty, 208, 2, b. ---- of manner, 220. ---- of material, 224, 3. ---- of means, 218. ---- of penalty, 208, 2, b. ---- of place where, 228. ---of place whence, 229. ---- of price, 225. ---- of quality, 224. ---- of separation, 214; ---- with compounds of dis- and sÄ"-, 214, 3, ---- of source, 215, ---- of specification, 226, ---- of time at which, 230. ---- of time during which, 231, 1. ---- of time within which, 231. ---- of way by which, 213, 9. ---- with continēri, cÅ nsistere, cÅ nstÄ re, 218, 4. ---- with special phrases, 218, 7. ---- with jungere, mīscÄ"re, mÅ«tÄ re, etc., 222A, ---- with faciÅ, fiÅ, 218, 6 ---- with prepositions, 142; 213 f. ---- with verbs of filling, 218, 8. ---- with verbs and adjs. of freeing, 214, I, a, and N. 1. ---- with adjs. of plenty, 218, 8. ---- with ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, 218, 1. ---- with opus and Å«sus, 218, 2 ---- with nītor, innÄ«xus, and frÄ"tus, 218, 3. abs, 142, 1. absÄ"ns, 125. Absolute, ablative, 227. ----- time, of participles, 336, 4. ---- use of verbs, 174, a. Abstract nouns, 12, 2, b); ---- plural of, 55, 4, c).  $-\ddot{A}$  bus, 21, 2, e). ac, 341, 2, b); ---- = as, than, 341, 1, c). Acatalectic verses, 366, 9. acc $\ddot{A}$  dit ut, 297, 2. Accent, 6; ---- in gen. of nouns in -ius and -ium, 25, 1 and 2. accidit ut, 297, 2. accidit quod, 299, 1, b. Accompaniment, abl. of, 222. Accordance, abl. of, 220, 3. Accusative case, 17; ---- in -Ä n and -Ä"n of Greek nouns, 22; ---- in -om in 2d decl., 24; ---- in -on and  $-\text{\AA}$  n in Greek nouns, 27; ---- in  $-\text{\AA}f$  in sing. of Greek nouns, 47, 1; ---- in -Äfs in plu., 47, 3; ---- in -im and -is in i-stems, 37; 38; ---- acc. sing. neut. as adv., 77, 3; 176, 3; 172 f. ---- of duration of time, 181. ---- of result produced, 173, B; 176. ---- of extent of space, 181. ---- of limit of motion, 182 f. ---- of neut. prons. or adjs., 176, 2. ---- of person or thing affected, 173, A; 175. ---- in exclamations, 183. ---- as subj. of inf., 184. ---- with admoneÅ, commoneÅ, etc., 207. ---- with adv. force, 176, 3. ---- with compounds, 175, 2. ---- with impersonal verbs, 175, 2, c. ---- with intransitive verbs, 175, 2, a. ---- with passive used as middle, 175, 2, d). ---- with verbs of remembering and forgetting (meminī, oblÄ«vÄ«scor, reminÄ«scor), 206, 1; 2. ---- with verbs expressing emotion, 175, 2, b. ---- with verbs of tasting and smelling, 176, 5. ---- with verbs of making, choosing, calling, regarding, etc., 177. ---- with verbs of asking, requesting, demanding,

209 teaching, concealing, 178, 1–5. ---- with adjs. (propior, proximus), 141, 3. ---- with adverbs (propius, proximē), 141, 3; ---- clam, prÄ«diÄ", 144, 2. ---- Genavam ad oppidum, 182, 2, a. ---- cognate acc., 176, 4. ---- Greek acc., 180. ---- synecdochical acc., 180. ---- two accs., direct obj. and pred. acc., 177; ---- person affected and result produced, 178; ---- with compounds of trÄ ns, 179; ---- with other compounds, 179, 2. ---- with prepositions, 141; 179 f. ---- retained in pass., 178, 2. Accusing, verbs of, constr., 208 f. accūsÅ, constr., 178, 1, d). Ä cer, decl., 68; ---- compared, 71, 3. Acquitting, verbs of, constr., 208 f. ac sī with subjv., 307, 1. ad, 'toward,' 'in vicinity of,' 182, 3; ---- with acc. alternating with dat., 358, 2. ---- compounds of ad governing dat., 187, III; 188, 2, d. ---- with gerund denoting purpose, 338, 3.  $-ad\ddot{A}$ "s, patronymic ending, 148, 6, a. adg = agg - 9, 2. Adjectives, 62 f; 354; ----- derivation of, 150 f. ----- of 1st and 2d decl., 63 ff. ----- in -ius, gen. sing., 63, a. ----- of 3d decl., 67, ff; ----- in abl., 70, 5. ---- comparison of adjs., 71 f.; ----- in -er, 71, 3; ----- in -ilis, 71, 4: ---- comparative lacking, 73, 3: ---- defective comparison, 73; ---- not admitting comparison, 75; ---- comparison by magis and maximÄ", 74. ---- numerals, 78 f. ---syntax, 233 ff.; ---- attributive and predicate adjs., 233, 2. ---- agreement, 234, f. ---- used substantively, 236 f. ---- denoting part of an object, 241, 1. ---- with force of adverbs, 239. ---- force of comp. and superl., 240, 1. ---- not followed by infinitive, 333. ---- not used with proper names, 354, 3. ---- equivalent to a poss. gen., 354, 4. ---- special Latin equivalents of Eng. adjs., 354, 1. ---- equiv. to rel. clause, 241, 2. ---- as pred. acc., 177, 2. ---- position of adj., 350, 4. ---- pronominal adjs., 92. ---governing gen., 204. ---- governing dat., 192. ---- governing acc., 141, 3. ---- construed with abl., 214, 1, d; 217, 1; 218, 8; 223; 226, 2; 227, 1. ---- with supine in -Å«, 340, 2. adl- = all-, 9, 2. admoneÅ,

constr., 207. Admonishing, const. of verbs of, 207. adr = arr - 9, 2. ads = ass - 9, 2. ad sensum, constr., 235, B, 2, c; 254, 4. adulÄ"scÄ"ns, spelling, 9, 2. adulter, decl., 23, 2. adultus, force, 114, 2. Adverbs, defined, 140; ---- formation and comparison, 76 f.; 140; 157. ---- in -iter from adjs. in -us, 77, 4. ---- in -tus and -tim, 77, 5. ---- in Å and -o, 77, 2. ---- numeral, 79. ---- as preps., 144, 2. ---- derivation of, 157. ---- with gen., 201, 2; 3; and a. ---- special meanings, 347. ---- position, 350, 6. Adversative clauses, 309. ---- conjunctions, 343. adversus, prep. with acc., 141. ae, how pronounced, 3, 2; ---phonetic changes, 7, 1, d. aedēs, plu., 61. aequÄ lis, abl. sing. of, 70, 5, a; ---- as subst., 238. aequor, decl., 34. aequum est = aequum sit, 271, 1, b). aes, in plu., 55, 4, b; ---- lacks gen. plu., 57, 7. aetÄ s, decl., 40, 1, e); ---- id aetÄ tis, 185, 2. -aeus, suffix, 152, 3. aevom, decl., 24. Affected, acc. of person or thing, 175. Agency, dat. of, 189; ---- abl., 216. Agent, abl., 216; ---- with names of animals, 216, 2. ager, decl., 23. Agreement, nouns, 166; 168; 169, 2; 3; 4. ---- adjs., 234; ---- in gender, 235, B; ---- in number, 235, A; ---- prons., 250; ---- verbs, with one subj., 254, 1; ---- with two or more subjs., 255, 1. –Ä Ä«, case–ending, gen. sing., 1st decl., poet., 21, 2, b). aÄ«n, 135, N. ajÅ, 135; ---- quantity of first syllable, 362, 5. -al, declension of nouns in, 39. alacer, decl., 68, 1; ---- comp., 73, 4. aliqua, 91, 2. aliquī, 91; 91, 2. aliquis, 91; 252, 2; ---- aliquis dÄ«cat, dÄ«xerit, 280, 1. -Ä lis, suffix, 151, 2. aliter ac, 341, 1, c. alius, 66; 92, 1; ---- used correlatively, 253, 1. alius ac, 'other than,' 341, 1, c). Allia, gender of, 15, 3, N. alliciÅ, conj., 109, 2, b). Alliteration, 375, 3. Alphabet, 1. alter, decl., 66; 92, 1; ---- used correlatively, 253, 1. Alternative questions, 162, 4; ---- indirect, 300, 4. alteruter, decl., 92, 2. alvus, gender of, 26, 1, b. amandus sum, conj., 115. amÄ tÅ«rus sum, conj., 115. amb– (ambi–), 159, 3, N. ambÅ, 80, 2, a; ---- usage, 355, 2. amÅ, conj., 101. amplius = amplius quam, 217, 3. amussis, -im, 38, 1. an, 162, 4, and a); 300, 4; ---- haud sciÅ an, nesciÅ an, 300, 5. Anacoluthon, 374, 6. Anapaest, 366, 2. Anaphora, 350, 11, b). Anastrophe of prep., 141, 2; 142, 3; 144, 3. anceps (syllaba anceps), defined, 366, 10. AndrogeÅ s, decl., 27. animal, decl., 39. Animals, as agents, 216, 2. animÁ«, locative, 232, 3. annÅ n, in double questions, 162, 4. Answers, 162, 5. ante, prep. w. acc., 141; ---- as adv., 144, 1; ---- dat. w. verbs compounded w. ante, 187, III; ---- in expressions of time, 357, 1; 371, 5; ---- ante diem, 371, 5; 6. Antecedent of rel., 251. ---- attraction of, 251, 4. ---- incorporated with rel., 251, 4. Antecedent omitted, 251, 1. ---- repeated with rel., 251, 3. Antepenult, 6, 2. antepÅ nÅ, with dat., 187, III, 2. antequam, with ind., 291; ---- with subjv., 292. Anticipation, denoted by subjv., w. antequam and priusquam, 292; ---- by subjv. with dum, dÅ nec, quoad, 293, III, 2; 374, 5. –Ä nus, suffix, 151, 2; 152, 1; 3. Aorist tense, see Historical perfect. Apodosis, 301 ff. ---- in conditional sent. of 1st type, 302, 4; ---- result clauses as apodoses, 322; ---- quīn- clauses as apodoses, 322; ---- ind. questions as apodoses, 322, b; --potuerim in apodosis, 322, c; ---- apodosis in indir. disc., 319-321; ---- in expressions of obligation,

ability, etc., 304, 3, a; ---- with periphrastic conjugations, 304, 3, b. Apposition, 169; ---- agreement, 169, 2; ---- partitive, 169, 5; ---- with voc. in nom., 171, 2; ---- genitive w. force of appositive, 202; ---- id as appositive of clause, 247, 1, b; ---- inf. as appositive, 326; 329; ---- subst. clauses as appositives, 282, 1, f; 294; 297, 3. Appositive of locative, 169, 4; ---- with acc. of limit of motion, 182, 2, a; ---- with town names, in abl. of place whence, 229, 2. ---- position of, 350, 2. aptus, w. dat., 192, 2. apud, prep. w. acc., 141. ArchiÄ s, declension of, 22. –ar, declension of nouns in, 39. arguÅ, constr., 178, 1, d). –Ä ris, suffix, 151, 2. –Ä rium, suffix, 148, 3. –Ä rius, suffix, 151, 2. armiger, decl., 23, 2. Arrangement of words, 348-350; ---- of clauses, 351. Arsis, defined, 366, 6. artūs, dat. and abl. plu. of, 49, 3. arx, decl., 40. -Äfs, acc. plu. in Greek nouns, 47, 3. -Ä s, old gen. sing., 1st decl., case-ending, 21, 2, a). ---- ending of Greek nouns, nom. sing. in, 22. ---- gender of nouns in -Ä s, 43, 2; 45, 1. ---- voc. of Greek nouns in -Ä s, antis, 47, 4. ---- -Ä tis, abl. of patrials in, 70, 5, c). Asking, case const, with verbs of, 178, 1, c; ---subst. clauses w., 295, 1; ---- ind. questions, 300, 1. Aspirates, 2, 3, c. Assimilation of consonants, 8, 4 f.; 9, 2. Association, abl. of, 222A. Asyndeton, 341, 4, a); 346. at, 343, 1, d). -Ä tim, suffix, 157, 2. AtlÄ s, decl., 47, 4. atomus, gender of, 26, 1, c). atque, 341, 2, b); ----= as, 341, 1, c). atquī, 343, 1, e). Attendant circumstance, abl. of, 221: 227, 2, e). Attraction of demonstratives, 246, 5; ---- of relatives, 250, 5; ---subjunctive by attraction, 324; ---- of adjectives, 327, 2, a; 328, 2. Attributive adjs., 233, 2. -Ä tus, its force as suffix, 151, 4. audÄ cter, formation and comparison, 76, 2. audeÅ, conj., 114, 1. audiÅ, conj., 107; ---- with pres. partic., 337, 3. aulÄ Ä«, archaic gen., 21, 2, b. ausus, force as participle, 336, 5. aut, 342, 1, a). autem, 343, 1, c); 350, 8. Auxiliary omitted in infin., 116, 5: ---- in finite forms, 166, 3. auxilium, auxilia, 61. –Ä x, suffix, 150, 2.

#### В.

balneum, balneae, 60, 2. barbitos, decl., 27. Believing, verbs of, with dat., 187, II. bellī, locative, 232, 2. bellum, decl., 23. bene, comparison, 77, 1. Benefiting, verbs of, w. dat., 187, II. benevolus, comparison, 71, 5, a). –ber, declension of month names in, 68, 1. –bilis, suffix, 150, 4. bonus, decl., 63; comparison, 72. bÅ s, decl., 41. Brachylogy, 374, 2. Bucolic diaeresis, 368, 3, d –bulum, suffix, 147, 4. –bundus, suffix, 150, 1. bÅ«ris, decl., 38, 1

#### С.

C., for G. as abbreviation of GÄ ius, 373. caedÄ"s, decl., 40. Caesura, 366, 8: ---- in dactylic hexameter 368, 3. calcar, decl., 39. Calendar, 371; 372. Calends, 371, 2, a). campester, decl., 68, 1 canis, decl., 38, 2. capiÅ, conj., 110 carbasus, gender of, 26, 1 b). carcer, carcerÄ"s, 61. Cardinals, defined. 78, 1; ---- list of, 79: ---- decl., 80; ---- with and without et, 81, 1; 3; ---- expressed by subtraction, 81, 2; ---- replaced by attributives in poetry, 81, 4, d. cÄ rÄ", comparison, 76, 2. carÅ, decl., 42. carrus, carrum, 60, 1. Cases, 17: ---- alike in form, 19: 170 ff. Case-endings, 17, 3. castrum, castra, 61. Catalectic verses, 366, 9. causÄ, with gen., 198, 1; ---- nÅ«lla causa est cÅ«r, with subjv., 295, 7. Causal clauses, 285; 286; ---clause of characteristic with accessory notion of cause, 283, 3. ---- conjunctions, 345. Cause, abl. of, 219; 227, 2, d) cavē, cavÄ" nÄ" in prohibitions, 276, b. -ce, 6, 3 f.; 87, footnote 23. cedo, cette, 137, 3. cÄ"dÅ, with dat. 187, II. celeber, decl., 68, 1. celer, decl., 68, 2. cēlÅ, constr., 178, 1, e). cÄ"nÄ tus, force, 114, 2. cētera, adverbial acc., 185, 2. ceterÄ«, use, 253, 4. Characterstic, clauses of, 283; ---- denoting cause or opposition ('although'), 283, 3; ---- gen. of, 208, 1; ---- abl., 224. Charge, gen. of, 208, 1; 2. Chiasmus, 350, 11, c). Choosing, const. w. verbs of, 177, 1–3. circÄ, circiter, circum, preps. w. acc., 141. circum, compounds of, w. dat., 187, III. circumdÅ, const., 187, 1, a. Circumstance, abl. of attendant, 221. cis, prep. w. acc., 141. citerior, comparison, 73, 1. cito, 77, 2, a. citrÄ, prep. w. acc., 141. cÄ«vitÄ s decl., 40, 1, e. clam, with acc., 144, 2. Clauses, coA¶rd. and subord., 164, 165. Clauses of characteristic, 283; ---- purpose, 282; ---- result, 284; ---- causal, 285; ---- temporal with postquam, ut, ubi, simul ac, etc., 287; -with cum, 288; ---- substantive clauses, 294 f.; ---- condition, 301 f.; ---- conditional comparison, 307; ---- concessive, 308; ---- adversative, 309; ---- wish or proviso, 310; ---- relative, 311 f.; 283 f. clÄ vis, decl., 38, 1. Clinging, construction of verbs of, 258, 3. clipeus, clipeum, 60, 1. Close of sentences, cadences used, 350, 12. coepī, conj., 133; ---- coeptus est, 133, 1. Cognate acc., 176, 4. cognÅ men, 373.

cÅ gÅ, w. acc., 178, 1, d); ---- w. infin., 331, VI. Collective nouns, 12, 2, a); ---- w. plu. verb, 254, 4. colus, gender of, 26, 1, b). com–, compounds of, w. dat., 187, III. comedÅ, conj., 128, 2. comÄ"tÄ"s, decl., 22. comitia, as time expression, 230, 1. Commanding, dat. w. verbs of, 187, II; ---- subst. clause w. verbs of, 295, 1; ---- commands expressed by jussive subjv., 275; ---- by imperative, 281. Common gender, 15, B, N. 1. ---- nouns, 12, 1. ---- syllables, 5, B, 3. commonefaciÅ, w. gen, and acc., 207. commoneÅ, w. gen. and acc., 207. commūnis, w. gen., 204, 2; ---- with dat., 204, 2, a. commÅ«tÅ, w. abl., 222A. Comparatives, decl., 69; ---- w. abl., 217; ---- w. quam, 217, 2; ---- occasional meaning, 240. ---- two required in Latin, 240, 4. Comparison of adjs., 71 f.; ---- of adverbs, 76; 77. ---- participles as adjs., 71, 2. ---- adjs. in -dicus, -ficus, -volus, 71, 5. ---- defective, 73. ---- abl. of, 217. Comparison, conditional, 307. Compendiary comparison, 374, 2, b); ---- w. result clauses, 284, 4; ---- w. clauses of characteristic, 283, 2, a. Completed action, tenses expressing, 262–4; 267, 3. Compounds, 158 f.; ---- spelling of, 9, 2. Compound sentences, 164. ---- verbs governing acc., 175, 2, a; ---- governing dat., 187, III; 188, 2, d. Conative uses of pres., 259, 2; ---- of imperf., 260, 3; ---- of pres. partic., 336, 2, a. Concessive clauses, 308; ---- 'although' as accessory idea to clause of characteristic, 283, 3. ---- subjunctive, 278. Conclusion, see Apodosis. Concrete nouns, 12, 2, a). Condemning, verbs of, constr., 208, f. Conditional clauses of comparison, 307. ---- sentences, 1st type (nothing implied), 302; ---- in indir. disc., 319; --------- 2d type ('should'-'would'), 303; ----- in indir. disc., 320; ----- 3d type (contrary to fact), 304; ---- in indir. disc., 321; ---- abl. abs. equivalent to, 227, 2, b); ---- introduced by relative pronouns, 312; ---- general conditions, 302, 2; 3; ---- indicative in contrary-to-fact apodoses, 304, 3; ---- protasis omitted or implied, 305, 1; ---- protasis contained in imperative, or jussive subjv., 305, 2; ---- employment of nisi, sī nÅ n, sÄ«n, sÄ« minus, 306; ---- conditional relative sentences, 312, 2. cŠnfīdÅ, w. abl., 219, 1, a. Conjugation, 11; 93 f.; ---- the four conjugations, 98; ---- periphrastic, 115; ---- peculiarities of conj., 116. Conjunctions, 145, 1; 341 f. cÅ nor, with inf., 295, 5, a. Consecutive clauses, see Result clauses. cÅ nsistere, with abl., 218, 4. Consonant stems, nouns, 29 f.; ---- adjs., 70, 1. ---- partially adapted to Ä--stems, 40. Consonants, 2, 2 f.; ---- pronunciation, 3, 3. ---- double, 2, 9. ---- combinations of, in division into syllables, 4, 2 f. Consonant changes, 8; ---- omission of finals 8, 3; ---- assimilation of, 8, 4 f. ---- stems, 29; -------- following analogy of Ä--stems, 40. cÅ nspiciÅ, conj., 109, 2, b). cÅ nstÄ re, w. abl., 218, 4. Construction acc. to sense, 254, 4; 235, B, 2, c). cŠnsuētÅ«dÅ est, with subjv. substantive clause, 297, 3. cŠnsuēvÄ« = pres., 262, A. cÅ nsulÄ ris, abl. sing. of, 70, 5, a. Contending, verbs of, with dat., 358, 3. contentus, w. abl., 219, 1. continerī, with abl., 218, 4. contingit ut, 297, 2. Continued action, tenses for, 257, 1, b. contrÄ, prep. w. acc., 141; ---- as adv., 144, 1. Contraction, 7, 2. ---- length of vowel as result of, 5, A, 1, b). Contrary-to-fact conditions, 304. Convicting, verbs of, constr., 208 f. Co¶rdinate clauses, 165. ---- conjunctions, 341 f. cÅ pia, cÅ piae, 61. Copulative conjunctions, 341. cor, lacks gen. plu., 57, 7.

cornū, decl., 48. Correlative conjunctions, 341, 3; 342, 2. ——— adverbs, 140. cottÄ«diÄ", spelling, 9, 2. Countries, gender of, 26, 1, a. Crime, gen. of, 208, 1; 2. –crum, suffix, 147, 4. –culum, suffix, 147, 4. –culus (a, um), suffix, 148, 1. cum, appended, 142, 4. cum (conj.), 'when,' 288–290; ——— 'whenever,' 288, 3. —— adversative, 309, 3. ——— causal, 286, 2. ——— explicative, 290. ——— to denote a recurring action, 288, 3; 289, a. ——— inversum, 288, 2. com ... tum, 290, 2. cum prÄ«mum, 287, 1. cum, spelling of, 9, 1. cum (prep.), with abl. of manner, 220; ——— with abl. of accompaniment, 222; ——— appended to prons., 142, 4. –cundus, suffix, 150, 1. cupiÅ, conj, 109, 2, a); ——— with subst. clause developed from optative, 296; ——— w. inf., 331, IV, and a. cÅ«r, nÅ«lla causa est cÅ«r, w. subjv., 295, 7. cÅ«rÅ, with gerundive const as obj., 337, 8, b, 2. Customary action, 259, 1; 260, 2.

#### D.

D, changed to s, 8, 2; ---- d final omitted, 8, 3; ---- assimilated, 8, 4. Dactyl, 366, 2. Dactylic hexameter, 368. ---- pentameter, 369. dapis, defective, 57, 6. Daring, verbs of, with obj. inf., 328, 1. Dates 371, 2–5; ---- as indeclinable nouns, 371, 6; ---- in leap year, 371, 7. Dative 17; ---- irregular, 1st decl., 21, 2, c); ---- 3d decl., 47, 5; ---- 4th decl., 49, 2; 3; ---- 5th decl., 52, 1 and 3; 186 ff. ---- in the gerundive const., 339, 7. ---- of agency, 189. ---- of direction and limit of motion, 193. ---- of indir. obj., 187. ---- of advantage or disadvantage, so called, 188, 1. ---- of local standpoint, 188, 2, a). ---- of person

judging, 188, 2, c). ---- of possession, 190; 359, 1. ---- of purpose or tendency, 191; 339, 7. ---- of reference, 188. ---- of separation, 188, 2, d). ---- of the gerund, 338, 2. ---- with adjs., 192; ---- with proprius, commūnis, 204, 2; ---- with similis, 204, 3. ---- with compound verbs, 187, III. ---- with intrans. verbs, 187, II. ---- with nÅ men est, 190, 1. ---- with impersonal pass. verbs, 187, II, b. ---with trans. verbs, 187, I. ---- with verbs of mingling, 358, 3. ---- ethical dat., 188, 2, b). dÄ", prep. w. abl., 142; ---- with abl. instead of gen. of whole, 201, 1, a; ---- with verbs of reminding, 207, a; ---compounds of dÄ" governing dat., 188, 2, d; ---- dÄ" vÄ«, with verbs of accusing and convicting, 208, 3; ---- with gerund and gerundive, 338, 4, b. dea, deÄ bus, 21, 2, e). dÄ"bÄ"bam, dÄ"buÄ« in apodosis, 304, 3, a). dēbeÅ, governing obj. inf., 328, 1. dÄ"buÄ«, with pres inf., 270, 2. decemvir, gen. plu. of, 25, 6, b). dēcernÄ", w. subst. clause developed from volitive, 295, 4. decet, w. acc., 175, 2, c). Declarative sentences, defined, 161, 1; ---- in indir. disc., 314. Declension, 11; ---- heteroclites, 59. ---- stems and gen. terminations, 18. ---- 1st decl., 20-22; ---- 2d decl., 23-27; ---- 3d decl., 28-47; ---- 4th decl., 48-50; ----- 5th decl., 51-53; ----- of Greek nouns, 22; 27; 47; ----- of adjs., 62-69; ----- of prons., 84-90. Decreeing, verbs of, w. subjv., 295, 4. dēdecet, 175, 2, c). Defective verbs, 133 f.; ---- nouns, 54 f.; 52, 4; 57: ---- comparison, 73. Definite perfect, see Present perfect. Degree of difference, abl. of, 223. Degrees of comparison, 71 ff. dēlectat, w. inf. as subj., 327, 1. dÄ"lector, w. abl. of cause, 219. Deliberative subjv., 277; ---- in indir. questions, 300, 2; ---- in indir. disc., 315, 3. Demanding, verbs of, w. two accs., 178, 1; ---- w. subst. clause, 295, 1. Demonstrative pronouns, 87; 246; ---- of 1st, 2d, and 3d persons, 87; ---position of demonstratives, 350, 5, a. Denominative verbs, 156. Dental mutes, 2, 4; ---- stems, 33. Dependent clauses, 282 ff. Deponent verbs, 112; ---- forms with passive meanings, 112, b); ---semi-deponents, 114. Depriving, verbs of, w. abl, 214, 1, b. Derivatives, 147 f. -dÄ"s, patronymics in, 148, 6. Description, imperf. as tense of, 260, 1, a. Desideratives, 155, 3. Desire, adjs. of, w. gen., 204, 1; ---verbs of, w. subst. clauses, 296, 1. dA"terior, 73, 1. deus, decl., 25, 4. dA"vertor, 114, 3. dexter, decl, 65, 1. dī-, 159, 3, N. Diaeresis, 366, 8; ---- bucolic d., 368, 3, d). Diastole, 367, 2. dÄ«c, 116, 3. dÄ«citur, dictum est, w. inf., 332, note. dīcÅ, accent of compounds of, in imperative, 116, 3. -dicus, comparison of adjs. in, 71, 5. DīdÅ, decl, 47, 8. diÄ"s, decl., 51; ---- gender, 53. Difference, abl of degree of, 223. difficile est = Eng. potential, 271, 1, b). difficilis, comp., 71, 4. dignor, with abl., 226, 2. dignus, 226, 2; ---in rel. clauses of purpose, 282, 3. Dimeter, verses, 366, 11. Diminutives, 148, 1. Diphthongs, 2, 1; 3, 2; ---diphthong stems, 41; ---- diphthongs shortened, 362, 2. diphthongus, gender of, 26, 1. c). Dipodies, 366, 11. Direct reflexives, 244, 1. ---- object, 172. ---- quotation, 313. ---- discourse, 313. ---- questions, 162. dis-, in compounds, 159, 3, N. Disjunctive conjunctions, 342. dissimilis, comp., 71, 4. Distributives, 63, 2; 78, 1; 79; 81, 4. diū, compared, 77, 1. dÄ«ves, decl., 70, 1; ---- compared, 71, 6. dÄ«xtÄ«, 116, 4, c. dÅ, conj., 127. doceÅ, with acc., 178, 1, b); ---- with inf., 331, VI. domÄ«, locative, 232, 2. domÅ, 229, 1, b). domÅ s, 182, 1, b. domum, 182, 1, b); ---- 'house,' in acc., 182, N. domus, decl., 49, 4; ---- gender, 50. dÅ nec, with ind., 293; ---- with subjv., 293, III, 2. dÅ nÅ , constr., 187, 1, a. dÅ s, gender, 44, 3. Double consonants, 2, 9. ---- questions, 162, 4; ---- indirect, 300, 4. Doubting, verbs of, w. quīn, 298. Dubitative subjunctive, see Deliberative, dubitÅ, dubium est, nÅ n dubitÅ, nÅ n dubium est, with quin, 298; ---- nŠn dubitŠw. inf., 298, a. dūc, 116, 3. dÅ«cÅ, accent of compounds of, in imper., 116, 3. duim, duint, 127, 2. -dum, 6, 3. dum, temporal with ind., 293; ---- with subjv., 293, III, 2; ---- in wishes and provisos, 310. dummodo, 310. duo, decl, 80, 2. Duration of time, 181, 2. Duty, expressed by gerundive, 189, 337, 8; ---- verbs of duty in conclusion of cond. sentences contrary-to-fact, 304, 3, a; -subst. clauses dependent on verbs of, 295, 6; ---- inf. w. verbs of duty, 327, 1; 328, 1; 330; ---- 'it is the duty of,' 198, 3; ---- 'I perform a duty, 218, 1. duumvir, gen. plu. of, 25, 6, b). dux, decl, 32.

E.

 $\ddot{A}$ •, as vowel, 2, 1; ---- as second member of diphthongs, 2, 1; ---- sound of, 3, 1; ---- change, to  $\ddot{A}$ -, 7, 1, a; ---- for  $\ddot{A}f$ , 7, 1, c; ---- in voc. sing, of 2d decl., 23; ---- in abl. sing, of 3d decl., 31; ---- dropped in nom. of neuters of 3d decl., 39; ---- - $\ddot{A}$ • for - $\ddot{A}$ - in abl. of mare, 39; ---- alternating w.  $\ddot{A}$ « in abl. sing. of  $\ddot{A}$ --stems, 37, 38; ---- for  $\ddot{A}$ " in gen. sing. of 5th decl., 52, 1; ---- in abl. sing. of adjs. of 3d decl., 70, 1; ---- in ben $\ddot{A}$ • and mal $\ddot{A}$ •, 77, 1; ---- distinguishing vowel of 3d conj., 98; ---- before j, 362, 5; ---- for - $\ddot{A}$ " in imperatives, 363, 2, b; ---- in temer $\ddot{A}$ • and saep $\ddot{A}$ •, 363, 2, c.  $\ddot{A}$ ", pronunciation, 3, 1; ---- by

contraction, 7, 2; ---- as ending of Greek nouns, 22; ---- Ä"-stems, 51; ---- ending of dat. of 5th decl., 52, 3; ---- distinguishing vowel of 2d conj., 98; ---- -Ä" in famÄ" 363, 2, a; ---- in adverbs, 363, 2, c Ä", ex, use, 142; see ex. ecquis, 91, 6. Ä"dÄ«c, 116, 3. Editorial 'we,' 242, 3. edÅ , 128. Ä"dÅ«c, 116, 3. efficiÅ ut, 297, 1. efficitur ut, 297, 2. Effort, subjv. w. verbs of, 295, 5. egeÅ, w. abl., 214, 1, c. ego, 84. egomet, 84, 2. ei, diphthong, 2, 1; 3, 2. -ĕi, gen. of 5th decl., 52, 1. -Ä"is, 148, 6, b). ejus, as poss., 86, 1; ---- quantity, 362, 5. Elegiac distich, 369, 2. Elision, 266, 7. Ellipsis, 374, 1. -ellus (a, um), 148, 1. Emphasis, 349. Enclitics, accent of preceding syllable, 6, 3. ---- -met, 84, 2; ---- -pte, 86, 3; ---- cum as enclitic, 142, 4 End of motion, see Limit. Endings, case endings, 17, 3; ---- personal, of verb, 96; ---- in formation of words, 147 f. enim, 345. –Ä"nsimus (–Ä"nsumus), 79, N. –Ä"nsis, 151, 2; 152, 3. Envy, verbs of, with dat., 187, II eÅ, 132; ---- cpds., 132, 1. Epexegetical genitive, 202. Epistolary tenses, 265. epistula, spelling, 9, 2. epitomē, decl., 22. epulum, epulae, 60, 2. equÄ bus, 21, 2, e). equester, decl., 68, 1. equos, decl., 24. -er, decl., of nouns in, 23; ---- adjs., 63; 64; 65; ---- adjs. in -er compared, 71, 3. ergÄ, prep. w. acc., 141. ergÅ, 344, 1, b). –ernus, suffix, 154. –Å•s, gender of nouns in, 43, 1; –– exception, 44, 5; ---- in nom. plu. of Greek nouns of 3d decl., 47, 2. -Ä"s, ending of Greek nouns, nom. sing. in, 22. ---- gen. -is, decl. of nouns in, 40, 1, a). esse, conjugation of, 100; ---- compounds of, 125; 126; ---- esse omitted, 116, 5. est quī, with subj., 283, 2. et, 341, 1, a; ---- in enumerations, 341, 4, c). et is, 247, 4. et ... neque, 341, 3. Ethical dative, 188, 2, b). etiam, in answers, 162, 5. et nŠn, 341, 2, c). etsī, 'although,' 309, 2; ---- etsī, 'even if,' 309, 2, a. -Ä"tum, suffix, 148, 3. -eus, inflection of Greek nouns in, 47, 6; ---- adj. suffix, 151, 1. Ä"venit ut, 297, 2. ex, 142, 2; ---- with abl., instead of gen. of whole, 201, 1, a; ---- compounds of, with dat., 188, 2, d; ---- with abl. of source, 215, 1. Exchanging, verbs of, with abl. of association, 222A. Exclamation, acc. of, 183. Exclamatory sentences, 161, 3. Expectancy, clauses denoting, in subjv., 292, 1; 293, III, 2. exposed, constr., 178, 1, a). exsistA, spelling, 9, 2. exspectA, spelling, 9, 2. exterī, xterior, 73, 2. extrÄ"mus, use, 241, 1. exuÅ, w. abl., 214, 1, b.

#### F.

f, pronunciation, 3, 3; ---- nf, quantity of vowel before, 5, 1, a. fac, 116, 3; ---- with subjv., 295, 5. facile, 77, 3. facilis, comp., 71, 4. faciÅ, 109, 2, a); ---- pass. of, 131. ---- in imper., 116, 3. falsus, comparison, 73, 3. famÄ", 59, 2, b). Familiarity, adjs. of, w. gen., 204. 1. familiÄ s, 21, 2, a. fÄ rÄ«, 136. fÄ s, indeclinable, 58. faucÄ"s, decl., 40, 1, d. Favor, verbs signifying, with dat., 187, II. Fearing, verbs of, constr. 296, 2. febris, decl. 38, 1. fēlÄ«x, 70. Feminine, see Gender. Feminine caesura, 368, 3, c. femur, decl. 42, 4. -fer, decl. of nouns in; adjs., 23, 2; ---- adjs. 65, 1. ferÅ, and its compounds, 129. -ficus, comparison of adjs. in, 71, 5. fideī, 52, 1. fÄ«dÅ, 114, 1; ---- with abl., 219, 1, a. fÄ«dus, compared, 73, 3. fÄ-erem, fÄ-erÄ« 362, 1, c; ---- fierÄ« potest ut, 298, 2. Fifth decl., 51 f. Figures of rhetoric, 375. ---- of syntax, 374. fīlÄ«, 25, 3. fÄ«lia, fÄ«liä bus, 21, 2, e Filling, verbs of, w. abl., 218, 8. Final clauses, see Purpose clauses. Final consonant omitted, 8, 3. Final syllables, quantity, 363, 364. fīnis, fÄ«nÄ"s, 61. Finite verb, 95. fīÅ, conj., 131. fÄ«Å, with abl., 218, 6. First conj., 101; ---- principal parts of verbs of, 120; ---deponents of 1st conj., 113. First decl., 20 f.; ---- peculiarities, 21; ---- Greek nouns of 1st decl., 22. fit ut, 297, 2. flÄ gitÅ, constr., 178, 1, a. fodiÅ, conj., 109, 2, a. Foot, in verse, 366, 2. 'For,' its Latin equivalents, 358, 1. fore, 100, footnote 32. fore ut, 270, 3; ---- 297, 2. forem, forēs, etc., 100, footnote 31. forīs, 228, 1, c. Formation of words, 146 f. fors, forte, 57, 2, a. fortior, decl., 69. fortis, 69. fortÅ«na, fortūnae, 61. Fourth conj., 107. Fourth decl., 48; ---- dat. in -Å«, 49, 2; ---- gen. in -Ä«, 49, 1; ---dat. abl. plu. in -ubus, 49, 3. fraude, abl. of manner, 220, 2. Free, abl. w. adjs. signifying, 214, 1, d. Freeing, abl. w. verbs of, 214, 1, a. frēnum, plu. of, 60, 2. Frequentatives, 155, 2. frÄ"tus w. abl., 218, 3. Fricatives, 2, 7. Friendly, dat. w. adjs. signifying, 192, 1. frūctus, decl., 48. frÅ«gi, compared, 72; 70, 6. frÅ«gis, 57, 6. fruor, with abl., 218, 1; ---- in gerundive constr., 339, 4. fugiÅ, conj., 109, 2, a). fuÄ«, fuistÄ«, etc., for sum, es, etc., in compound tenses, 102, footnotes 36, 37. Fullness, adjs. of, w. abl., 218, 8; ---- w. gen., 204, 1. fungor, w. abl., 218, 1; ---- in gerundive constr., 339, 4. fūr, decl., 40, 1, d. fÅ«rtÅ, abl. of manner, 220, 2. Future tense, 161; ---- w. imperative force, 261, 3. ---- time in the subjv., 269. ---- perfect, 264; ----- with future meaning, 133, 2; ---- inf., 270, 4. ---- imperative, 281, 1. ---- infinitive, 270; ---- periphrastic fut. inf., 270, 3, and a. ---- participle, 337, 4. futūrum esse ut, with subjv., 270, 3.

gaudeÅ, semi-deponent, 114, 1. gemÅ, w. acc., 175, 2, b. Gender 13–15; ---- in 1st decl., 20; 21; ---in 2d decl., 23; ---- exceptions, 26; ---- in 3d decl., 43 f.; ---- in 4th decl., 50; ---- in 5th decl., 53; ---- determined by endings, 14; ---- by signification, 15, A; ---- heterogeneous nouns, 60. gener, decl, 23, 2. General relatives, 312, 1; ---- general truths, 259, 1; 262, B, 1; ---- 'general' conditions, 302, 2; 3. Genitive, 17; ---- in -ī for -iī, 25, 1 and 2; ---- of 4th decl., in -Ä«, 49, 1; ---- of 5th decl. in -ī, 52, 2; ---- of 5th decl. in -ĕī, 52, 1; ---- in -Ä", 52, 3; ---- of 1st decl. in -Ä Ä«, 21, 2, b; ---- of 1st decl. in -Ä s, 21, 2, a; ---- gen. plu. -um for -Ä rum, 21, 2 d); ---- --- -um for Å rum, 25, 6; 63, 2; ---- --- --- --- --- --- --- gen. plu. lacking, 57, 7; ---- syntax of, 194 f. ---- of characteristic, 203, 1. ---- of charge with judicial verbs, 208. ---- of indefinite price, 203, 4. ----- of indefinite value, 203, 3. ----- of material, 197. ----- of measure, 203, 2. ----- of origin, 196. --of possession, 198. ---- of quality, 203. ---- of the whole, 201. ---- appositional, 202. ---- objective, 200. ---- of separation, 212, 3. ---- subjective, 199. ---- with adjs., 204; ---- with participles, 204, 1, a. ---- with causÄ, grÄ tiÄ, 198, 1. ---- with verbs, 205 f.; ---- of plenty and want, 212; ---- with impers. verbs, 209. ---- position of gen., 350, 1. genus, decl. 36; ---- id genus, 185, 1. -ger, decl. of nouns in, 23, 2; ---- adjs., 65, 1. Gerund, 95, 1; ---- 1st conj., 101; ---- 2d conj., 103; ----- 3d conj., 105; ----- 4th conj., 107; ----- syntax, 338; ----- with object, 338, 5. Gerundive, 95, 1; ----- 1st conj., 102; ----- 2d conj., 104; ----- 3d conj., 106; ----- 4th conj., 108; ----- in periphrastic conj., 115; 337, 8. Gerundive, const., 339, 1-6; ---- in passive periphrastic conj., 337, 8 f.; ---- gen. denoting purpose, 339, 6; ---- with dat. of purpose, 191, 3; 339, 7. gnÄ rus, not compared, 75, 2. Gnomic present, 259, 1; ---- perfect, 262, 1. gradior, conj., 109, 2, c. Grammatical gender, 15. grÄ tiÄ, with gen., 198, 1; ---- grÄ tia, grÄ tiae, 61. Greek nouns, 1st decl., 22; ---- 2d decl., 27; ---- exceptions in gender, 26, 1, c); ---- 3d decl., 47; ---- Greek acc., 180; ---- Greek nouns in verse, 365. grūs, decl., 41, 2. gu = gv, 3, 3. Guttural mutes, 2, 4. ---- stems, 32.

#### H.

h, pron., 3, 3; ---- ph, ch, th, 2, 4; 3, 3. habeÅ, with perf. pass. partic., 337, 6. Hadria, gender, 21, 1. Happening, verbs of, w. ind., 299, 1, 2; ---- w. subjv., 297, 2. Hard consonants, 2, 3, a), footnote 4. Hardening, 367, 4. haud, use, 347, 2, a; ---- haud sciÅ an, 300, 5. havÄ", 137, 5. Help, verbs signifying, w. dat. 187, II. Hendiadys, 374, 4. herÄ«, locative, 232, 2. Heteroclites, 59. Heterogeneous nouns, 60. Hexameter, dactylic, 368. Hiatus, 366, 7, a. hÄ«c, 87; 246, 1; 246, 2; ---- hÄ-c, 364, footnote 60. hiems, 35, footnote 13. Hindering, verbs of, with subjv., 295, 3. Historical tenses, 258; ---- historical present, 259, 3; 268, 3; ---- historical perfect, 262, B; ---- historical infinitive, 335. honor, decl., 36. Hoping, verbs of, w. inf., 331, I. Hortatory subjv., 274. hortus, decl., 23. hÅ scine, 87, footnote 23 hostis, decl., 38. hÅ«jusce, 87, footnote 23 humÄ«, locative, 232, 2. humilis, comp., 71, 4. humus, gender of, 26, 1, b. huncine, 87, footnote 23 Hyperbaton, 350, 11, a. Hypermeter, 367, 6. Hysteron proteron, 374, 7.

#### I.

Ä-, 1, 1; ---- in diphthongs, 2, 1; ---- pron., 3, 1; ---- from Ä•, 7, 1, a; ---- from Ä*f*, 7, 1, b; ----- dropped by syncope, 7, 4; ---- for Å- in some words, 9, 1; ---- changes to Ä•, 39; ---- dropped, 39;
---- final i short, 363, 3; ---- becomes j, 367, 4. Ä--stems, 37; 39; ---- not always ending in -is, 38, 3.
-ī, gen. and voc. of 2d decl. nouns in -ius and -ium in, 25, 1 and 2. ---- gen. of 4th decl. nouns in -us, 49, 1. ---- gen. of 5th decl. nouns, 52, 2. ī-stem, vīs, 41. Ä«, in abl., 3d decl., 38, 1; 39; ---- in adjs., 67, 3, a; 70, 5; ---- participles, 70, 3; ---- patrials, 70, 5, c); ---- nom. plu., of is, 87; ---- as characteristic of 4th conj., 98. -ia, 149. Iambus, 366, 2. Iambic measures, 370. ---- trimeter, 370. -iÄ nus, suffix, 152, 1. -ias, suffix, 148, 6, b). -Ä«bam, in imperf., 116, 4, b). -Ä«bÅ, in future, 116, 4, b). Ictus, 366, 5. -icus, suffix, 151, 2; 152, 2. id aetÄ tis, 185, 2. id genus, 185, 1. id quod 247, 1, b. id temporis, 185, 2. Ideal 'you'; see Indefinite second person. Ä«dem, 87; 248. Ä«dem ac, 248, 2. Ides, 371, 2, c). -Ä«dÄ"s, suffix, 148, 6, a). -Ä-dÄ"s, suffix, 148, 6, a). -Ä«dÅ, suffix, 147, 3, c). idÅ neus, not compared, 74, 2;

---- w. dat., 192, 2.; ---- w. ad and acc., 192, 2 and N.; ---- with rel. clause of purpose, 282, 3. -Ä-dus, suffix, 150, 3. Ä<sup>a</sup>dÅ«s, fem. by exception, 50. –ie, in voc. sing. of adjs. in –ius, 63, 1. iÄ"ns, pres. partic. from eÅ, 132. –iÄ"ns, as ending of numeral adverbs, 97 and N. –ier, inf. ending, 116, 4, a. –iÄ"s, nouns in, 51. igitur, 344, 1, c). īgnis, decl., 38. –iÄ«, in gen, sing. of iÅ –stems, 25, 2. iÄ«s, in dat. and abl. plu. of is, 87. –Ä«le, suffix, 148, 3. Ä<sup>a</sup>lion, decl., 27. –Ä«lis, suffix, 151, 2. –ilis, suffix, 150, 4. Illative conjunctions, 344. ille, 87; ----- 'the following,' 246, 2; ----- 'the former,' 246, 1; ----- 'the well-known,' 246, 3; ----position, 350, 5, b. illūc, 87, footnote 25. –illus (a, um), diminutive suffix, 148, 1. –im, in acc., 3d decl., 38, 1. -im, -ūs in subjv., 116, 4, d. impedÄ«mentum, impedÄ«menta, 61. Imperative, 281; ---- tenses in, 94, 3; 281, 1; ---- future indic. with force of, 261, 3. ---- as protasis of a conditional sent., 305, 2; ----as apodosis, 302, 4. ---- sent. in indir disc., 316. Imperfect tense, 260; ---- conative, 260, 3; ---inceptive, 260, 3; ---- with jam, etc., 260, 4; ---- epistolary imp., 265. Imperfect subjv. in conditional sent. referring to the past, 304, 2. Impersonal verbs, 138; ---- gen, with, 209; ---- dat, with, 187, II, b; ---- in passive, 256, 3; ---- with substantive clauses developed from volitive, 295, 6; ---- of result, 297, 2; ---with infin., 327, 1; 330. impetus, defective, 57, 4. Implied indir. disc., 323. īmus, 'bottom of,' 241, 1. in, prep., 143; ---- verbs compounded w. in governing acc., 175, 2, a, 2; ---- verbs compounded w. in governing dat., 187, III. in with abl. of place, 228; ---- with abl. of time, 230, 2; 231. -īna, suffix, 148, 5. Inceptives, 155, 1. Inchoatives, 155, 1. Incomplete action, 257, 1, b; 267, 3. Indeclinable adjs., 70, 6; 80, 6. ---- nouns, 58; ---- gender of, 15, 3. Indefinite price, 225, 1; 203, 4. Indefinite pronouns, 91, 252; ---- in conditions, 302, 3. Indefinite second person, 280, 3; 356, 3; 302, 2. Indefinite value, 203, 3. Indicative, equivalent to Eng. subjv., 271. ---- in apodosis of conditional sent. of 3d type, 304, 3, a) and b). indigeÅ, constr., 214, 1, N. 2. indignus, with abl., 226, 2; ---- with rel. clause of purpose, 282, 3. Indirect discourse, defined, 313 f.: ---- mood in, 313 ff.: ---- tenses in 317-18; ---declarative sentences in, 314; ---- interrog. sentences in, 315; ---- imperative sentences in, 316; ---- conditional sentences in, 319-22; ---- verbs introducing, 331, 1; ---- verb of saying, etc., implied, 314, 2; ---- ind. in subord. clauses of indir. disc., 314, 3; ---- inf. for subjv. in indir. disc., 314, 4; ---- subj. acc. omitted, 314, 5; ---- implied indir. disc., 323. ---- questions, 300; ---- particles introducing, 300, 1, a; ---- deliberative subjv. in indir. quest., 300, 2; ---- indir. quest. w. sī, 300, 3; ---- double indir. questions, 300, 4; -------- in indir. quest., 300, 6; ---- in conditional sents. of 3d type, 322, b. ---- reflexives, 244, 2. ---- object, 187. īnferum, Ä«nferior, 73, 2. Ä«nfimus, 241, 1. Infinitive, gender of, 15, A 3; ---- in -ier, 116, 4, a; ---- force of tenses in, 270; 326 ff. ---- fut. perf. inf., 270, 4; ---- periphrastic future, 270, 3. ---- without subj. acc., 326-328; 314, 5. ---- with subj. acc., 329-331. ---- as obj., 328; 331, ---- as subj., 327; 330. ---- with adjs., 333. ---- denoting purpose, 326, N. ---- in abl. abs., 227, 3. ---- in exclamations, 334. ---- historical inf., 335. īnfitiÄ s, constr., 182, 5. Inflection, 11. Inflections, 11 ff. īnfrÄ, prep. w. acc., 141. ingÄ"ns, comp., 73, 4. injÅ«riÄ, abl. of manner, 220, 2. injussÅ«, defective, 57, 1; ---- the abl., 219, 2. inl- = ill-, 9, 2. innīxus, w. abl., 218, 3. inops, decl., 70, 2. inquam, conj., 134. Inseparable prepositions, 159, 3, N. īnsidiae, plu. only, 56, 3. Ä«nstar, 58. Instrumental uses of abl., 213; 218 ff. Intensive pron., 88. Intensives (verbs), 155, 2. inter, prep. w. acc., 141; ---- compounded w. verbs, governing dat. 187, III; ---- to express reciprocal relation, 245. interdīcÅ, const., 188, 1, a. interest, constr., 210; 211. interior, comp., 73, 1. Interjections, 145. Interlocked order, 350, 11, d. Interrogative pronouns, 90. ---- sentences, 162; ---- particles, 162, 2; ---- omitted, 162, 2, d); ---- in indir. disc., 315. intrÄ, prep. w. acc., 141. Intransitive verbs, with cognate acc., 176, 4; ---- in passive, 256, 3; 187, II, b; ---- impersonal intransitives, 138, IV. -īnus, suffix, 151, 2; 152, 1; 152, 3. -iÅ, verbs of 3d conj., 109. -ior, ius, comparative ending, 71. ipse, 88; 249; ---- as indir. reflexive, 249, 3. ipsīus and ipsÅ rum, with possessive pronouns, 243, 3. –ir, decl. of nouns in, 23. Irregular comparison, 72 ff.; –––– nouns, 42; ---- verbs, 124 f. is, 87; 247; ---- as personal pron., 247, 2. -is, as patronymic ending, 148, 6, b); ---- nouns in -is of 3d decl., 37 f.; ---- adjs. in -is, 69. -īs, acc. plu., 3d decl., 37; 40. ---- -Ä«tis, abl. of patrials in, 70, 5, c). istaec, 87, footnote 24. iste, 87; 246, 4. istīc, 6, 4. istÅ«c, 6, 4; 87, footnote 24. ita, in answers, 162, 5. itaque, 344, 1, a). iter, 42, 1. -itia, 149. -itÅ, frequentatives in, 155, 2, a. -ium, gen. of nouns in, 25, 2; ---- ending of gen. plu., 3d decl., 37 f.; 39; 40; 147, 3, b); 148, 2. -ius, gen. and voc. sing. of nouns in, 25, 1 and 2; ---- of adjs., 63, a; 151, 2; 152, 2; 152, 3; ---- -Ä-us for -Ä«us, 362, 1, a).  $-\ddot{A}$ «vus, suffix, 151, 2.

#### J.

j, 1, 2. jaciÅ, conj., 109, 2, a); ---- compounds of, 9, 3; 362, 5. jam, etc., with present tense, 259, 4; ---with imperfect, 260, 4. jecur, decl., 42, 3. jocÅ, abl. of manner, 220, 2. jocus, plu. of, 60, 2. Joining, verbs of, construction, 358, 3. jubeÅ, constr., 295, 1, a: 331, II. jÅ«dicor, w. inf., 332, c. jÅ«gerum, 59, 1. Julian calendar, 371. jungÅ, w. abl., 222A. Juppiter, decl., 41. jÅ«rÄ tus, 114, 2. jÅ«re, abl. of manner, 220, 2. jūs est, with substantive clause, 297, 3. jussÅ«, 57, 1; ---- the abl., 219, 2. Jussive subjv., 275; ---equiv. to a protasis, 305, 2. juvat, w. acc., 172, 2, c); ---- with inf., 327, 1. JuvenÄ le, abl., 70, 5, b. juvenis, a cons. stem, 38, 2; ---- comparison, 73, 4. juvÅ, with acc., 187, II, N. jÅ«xtÄ, prep. w. acc., 141.

#### K.

k, 1, 1. Knowing, verbs of, w. inf., 331, I. Knowledge, adjs. of, w. gen., 204.

#### L.

l, pron., 3, 3. Labial mutes, 2, 4. —— stems, 31; —— —— gender of, 43, 3; 46, 1. lacer, decl., 65, 1. lacus, decl., 49, 3. laedÅ, w. acc., 187, II, N. laetus, w. adverbial force, 239. lapis, decl., 33. largior, 113. Latin period, 351, 5. Length of syllables, 5, B. Length of vowels, 5, A. –lentus, suffix, 151, 3. leÅ, decl., 35. LÄ«ber, decl, 23, 2. lÄ«ber, adj., decl., 65, 1. lÄ«berÅ, constr., 214, 1, N. 1. lÄ«berta, lÄ«bertÄ bus, 21, 2, e). liberum, gen. plu., 25, 6, c). licet, with subjv., 295, 6 and 8; 308, a; —— with inf., 327, 1; 330. licet, adversative, 309, 4. Likeness, adjs. of, w. dat., 192, 1. Limit of motion, acc. of., 182. Lingual mutes, 2, 4. linter, decl., 40. Liquids, 2, 5. —— stems, 34. lÄ«s, decl., 40, 1, d). Litotes, 375, 1. littera, litterae, 61. Locative, 17, 1; —— in –ae, 21, 2, c); —— in –i, 25, 5; —— syntax, 232; —— apposition with, 169, 4; —— loc. uses of abl., 213; 228 f. locÅ, locÄ«s, the abl., 228, 1, b. locus, plurals of, 60, 2. Long syllables, 5, B, 1. —— vowels, 5, A, 1. longius = longius quam, 271, 3. longum est = Eng. potential, 217, 1, b. lubet, lubÄ«dÅ, spelling, 9, 1. lÅ«dÄ«s, the abl., 230, 1. –lus, –la, –lum, diminutives in, 148, 1. lÅ«x, 57, 7.

#### М.

m, pron., 3, 3; ---- changed to n before d, c, 8, 5, c; ---- m-stem, 35, footnote 13; ---- m-final in poetry, 366, 10. maereÅ, w. acc., 175, 2, b. magis, comparison, 77, 1; ---- comparison with, 74. magnÄ«, gen. of value, 203, 3. magnopere, compared, 77, 1. magnus, compared, 72. Making, verbs of, w. two accusatives, 177. male, comparison, 77, 1. maledīcÄ"ns, comparison, 71, 5, a). mÄ lim, potential subjv., 280, 2, a. mÄ llem, potential subjv., 280, 4. mÄ lÅ, 130; ---- with inf., 331, IV, and a; ---- with subjv., 296, 1, a. malus, comparison, 72. mÄ ne, indeclinable, 58. Manner, abl. of, 200. mare, decl., 39, 2; ---- marÄ«, 228, 1, c). mÄ s, decl., 40, 1, d). Masculine, see Gender. Masculine caesura, 368, 3, c. Material, abl. of, 224, 3. mÄ teriÄ"s, mÄ teria, 59, 2, a). mÄ tÅ«rÄ", compared, 77, 1. mÄ tÅ«rus, compared, 71, 3. maximÄ", adjs. compared with, 74. maximī, as gen. of value, 203, 3. maxumus, 9, 1. Means, abl. of, 218; ---- abl. abs. denoting, 227, 2; ---- denoted by partic., 337, 2, d. mēd, for mÄ", 84, 3. Mediae (consonants), 2, 3, b), footnote 5. medius, 'middle of', 241, 1. meī, as objective gen., 242, 2. melior, comparison, 72. melius est = Eng. potential, 271, 1, b). memini, 133; ---- constr., 206, 1, a; 2, a. memor, decl., 70, 2. -men, -mentum, suffixes, 147, 4. mēnsis, 38, 2, footnote 14. mentem (in mentem venÄ«re), 206, 3. –met, enclitic, 6, 3; 84, 2. Metrical close of sent., 350, 12. metuÅ, w. subjv., 296, 2. mÄ«, dat., 84, 1. mÄ«, voc. of meus, 86, 2. Middle voice, verbs in, 175, 2, d). mīles, decl., 33. mÄ«litiae, locative, 232, 2. mÄ«lle, mÄ«lia, decl., 80, 5. minimÄ", comparison, 77, 1; ---- in answers, 162, 5, b). minimus, comparison, 72. minor, comparison, 72. minÅ ris, gen. of value, 203, 3; --- of price, 203, 4. minus, comparison 77, 1; --- = minus quam, 217, 3; ---- quŠminus, 295, 3; ---- sī minus, 306, 2 and a. mÄ«ror, conj., 113. mÄ«rus, comparison, 75, 2. miscēre, with abl., 222A; ---- with dat., 358, 3. misereor, with gen., 209, 2. miserÄ"scÅ, with gen., 209, 2. miseret, constr., 209. Mixed stems, 40. modium, gen. plu., 25, 6, a). modo, in wishes and provisos, 310. moneÅ, 103; ---- constr., 178, 1, d). months, gender of names of, 15, 1; ---- decl. 68, 1; ---- abl., of month names, 70, 5, a); ---- names, 371, 1. Moods, 94, 2. ---- in independent sentences, 271 f. ---- in

dependent clauses, 282 f. Mora, 366, 1. morior, conj. 109, 2, c); mŠs, decl., 36; ---- mŠrēs, 61. mÅ s est, with subjv. clause, 297, 3. muliebre secus, constr., 185, 1. Multiplication, distributives used to indicate, 81, 4, c. multum, 77, 3; ---- compared, 77, 1. multus, compared, 72; ---- with another adj., 241, 3. mÅ«s decl., 40, 1, d). mÅ«tÄ re, with abl., 222A. Mutes, 2, 3. Mute stems, 30.

#### N.

n, pronunciation, 3, 3; ---- n-stems, 35. n adulterīnum, 2, 6. -nam, appended to quis, 90, 2, d. Names, Roman, 373. Naming, verbs of, w. two accusatives, 117, 1. Nasals, 2, 6. Nasal stems, 35. nÄ tÅ«, 57, 1; ---- maximus nÄ tÅ«, minimus nÄ tÅ«, 73, 4, footnotes 20, 21; 226, 1. Natural gender, 14. nÄ tus, constr., 215. nÄ vis, decl., 41, 4. nd, vowel short before, 5, 2, a. -ne, 6, 3 f; 162, 2, c); 300, 1, b); ---- -ne ... an, 162, 4; ---- in indir. double questions, 300, 4. nē, in prohibitions, 276; ---- with hortatory subjv., 274; ---- with concessive, 278; ---- with optative, 279; ---- in purpose clauses, 282; ---- in substantive clauses, 295 f., 296; ---- in provisos, 310. nē, 'lest,' 282, 1; 296, 2. nÄ" nÅ n for ut after verbs of fearing, 296, 2, a. nē ... quidem, 347, 1; 2. Nearness, adjs. of, w. dat., 192, 1. nec, 341, 1, d); ---- nec ūsquam, 341, 2, d). necesse est, w. subjv., 295, 8. necne, in double questions, 162, 4. nefÄ s, indeclinable, 58. Negatives, 347, 2; ---- two negatives strengthening the negation, 347, 2. nēmÅ, defective, 57, 3; ---- use, 252, 6. nēquam, indeclinable, 70, 6; ---- compared, 72. neque, 341, 1, d); ---- neque in purpose clauses, 282, 1, e. nequeÅ, conj., 137, 1. ne quis, use, 91, 5. nÄ"quiter, compared, 77, 1. nesciÅ an, 300, 5. nesciŠquis, as indef. pron., 253, 6. Neuter, see Gender, neuter, decl., 66; ---- use, 92, 1. nēve (neu), in purpose clauses, 282, 1, d. nf, quantity of vowel before, 5, 1, a. nihil, indeclinable, 58. nihil est cūr, quīn, 295, 7. ningit, 'it snows,' 138, 1. nisi, 306, 1 and 4. nisi forte, 306, 5. nisi sÄ«, 306, 5. nisi vÄ"rÅ, 306, 5. nītor, constr., 218, 3. nix, decl., 40, 1, d). No, in answers, 162, 5, b. –nÅ, class of verbs, 117, 4. nŠlī, with inf., in prohibitions, 276, b. nÅ lim, potential subjv., 280, 2, a. nÅ llem, potential subjv., 280, 4. nÅ lÅ, 130; ---- with inf., 331, IV and a; 276, 2, a; ---- with subjy., 296, 1, a. nÅ men, decl., 35; ---- nÅ men est, constr., 190, 1; ---- nÅ men, as part of Roman name, 373. Nominative, 17; 170; ---used for voc., 171, 1; ---- nom. sing. lacking, 57, 6; ---- pred. nom., 168. Nones, 371, 2, b). nÅ n, in answers, 162, 5, b); ---- with poten. subjv., 280; ---- with deliberative, 277. nŠn dubitŠquīn, with subjv., 298; ---- nÅ n dubitÅ, w. inf., 298, a; b. nÅ n modo for nÅ n modo nÅ n, 343, 2, a. nÅ nne, 162, 2, a); 300, 1, b), N. nŠn quia, with ind., 286, 1, c; ---- with subjy., 286, 1, b. nŠn quīn, with sujbv., 286, 1, b. nÅ n quod, with ind., 286, 1, c; ---- with subjv., 286, 1, b. nÅ s = ego, 242, 3. nostri, as objective gen., 242, 2. nostrum, as gen. of whole, 242, 2; ---- as possessive gen., 242, 2, a. Nouns, 12 ff.; 353; ---- derivation of, 147 f. ---- in -is not always Ä--stems, 38, 1. ---- of agency, force, 353, 4. --used in plu. only, 56. ---- used in sing. only, 55. ---- used only in certain cases, 57. ---- indeclinable, 58. ---- with change of meaning in plural, 61. ---- syntax, 166 f. ---- predicate, agreement of, etc., 167 f. ---- appositives, agreement of, etc., 169 f. Noun and adj. forms of the verb, 95, 2. nŠvī, as pres., 262, A. novus, compared, 73, 3. ns, quantity of vowel before, 5, 1, a. -ns, decl. of nouns in, 40, 1, c). nt, quantity of vowel before, 5, 2, a. nūbÄ"s, decl., 40, 1, a nÅ«lla causa est cÅ«r, quÄ«n, 295, 7. nÅ«llus, decl., 66; 57, 3; ---- use, 92, 1. num, 162, 2, b); 300, 1, b). Number, 16; 94, 4. Numerals, 78 f.; ---- peculiarities in use of, 81. numquis, decl., 91, 5. nūper, compared, 77, 1. –nus, suffix, 151, 2.

#### О.

Å, vowel, 2, 1; ---- as element in dipthong Å", 2, 1; ---- pron., 3, 1; ---- alternating w. Å- in certain classes of words, 9, 1; 2; 4; ---- Å -stems, 23; 24; ---- in citÅ, 77, 2, a; ---- in duÅ, 80, 2; ---- in egÅ, 84; 363, 4, a; ---- in modÅ, 363, 4, a; ---- in compounds of pro-, 363, 4, c; ---- in amÅ, leÅ, etc., 363, 4, b. Å, pron. 3, 1; ---- for au, 7, 1, e; ---- by contraction, 7, 2; ---- in abl. sing. of 2d decl., 23; ---- in nom. sing. of 3d decl., 35; ---- in Greek nouns, 47, 8; ---- in adverbs, 77, 2; ---- in ambÅ, 80, 2, a; ---- in personal endings, 96. ob, prep. w. acc., 141; ---- verbs compounded w. governing dat., 187, III. Obeying, verbs of, w. dat., 187, II. Object, direct, 172 f.; ---- two objects w. same verb, 177; 178; ---- indirect, 187 f.; ---- inf. as obj., 326; 328; 329; 331. Objective gen., 200. Obligation, verb in expression of, 304, 3, a; ---- see also Duty. Oblique cases, 71, 2. oblÄ«vÄ«scor, constr., 206, 1, b; 2.

octŠdecim (for duodēvÄ«gintÄ«), 81, 2. Å dÄ«, 133. oe, 2, 1; ---- pron., 3, 2. Old forms, familiÄ s, 21, 2, a; ---- aulÄ Ä«, 21, 2, b; ---- servos, aevom, equos, etc., 24; ---- mÄ"d, tÄ"d, 84, 3; ---- sÄ"d, 85, 3. olle, archaic for ille, 87. -olus (a, um), 148, 1. -om, later -um in 2d decl., 23. -on, Greek nouns, 2d decl. in, 27. OnomatopÅ"ia, 375, 4. opera, operae, 61. Operations of nature, impersonal verbs expressing, 138, 1. opÄ«niÅ ne with comparatives, 217, 4. opis, 57, 6; ---- opÄ"s, 61. oportet, 138; ---- w. subjv., 295, 6; 8; ---- w. inf., 327, 330. oportuit, with pres. inf. 'ought to have', 270, 2; ---- with perf. inf., 270, 2, a. oppidum (Genavam ad oppidum), 182, 2, a. Optative subjv., 272; 279; ---- substantive clauses developed from, 296. optimÄ tÄ"s, decl., 40, 1, d. optimus, comp., 72. optÅ , w. subst. cl. developed from optative, 296, 1. optumus, spelling, 9, 1. opus est, w. abl., 218, 2; ---- w. partic., 218, 2, c. -or, nouns in, 34; ---- or for -os, 36; ---- gender of nouns in, 43, 1; ---- exceptions in gender, 44, 2; ---- as suffix, 147, 2. Oratio Obliqua, 313 f. Order of words, 348 f. Ordinals, 78, 1; 79. orior, conjugation, 123, VII. oriundus, constr., 215, 2. Å rÅ , with acc., 178, 1, a Orpheus, decl., 47, 6. Orthography, peculiarities, 9. ortus, constr., 215. Å s, decl., 57, 7. os, decl., 42. -os, later -us in 2d decl., 23. -Å s, later -or in 3d decl., 36, 1. ----

## P.

p, pron., 3, 3; ---- by assimilation, 8, 4; ---- by partial assimilation, 8, 5. paenitet, 138, II; ---- with gen., 209 palam, as prep. w. abl., 144, 2. Palatal mutes, 2, 4. palūster, decl., 68, 1. Parasitic vowels, 7, 3. parÄ tus, with infin., 333. Pardon, verbs signifying, w. dat., 187, II. pariÅ, 109, 2, a). pars, partÄ", 61. parte, abl. of place, 228, 1, b. partem, adverbially used, 185, 1. Participation, adjs. of, w. gen., 204, 1. Participial stem, 97, III; ---- formation, 119. Participles, in -Ä ns and -Ä"ns, 70, 3; ---- gen, plu, of in -um, 70, 7; ---- pres. act. partic., 97, I, 5; 101; 103; 105; 107; 110; 113; ---- fut. act. partic., 97, III; ---as one of the principal parts of the verb, 99, footnote 28; 100; 101; 103; 105; 107; 110; 113; ---- perf. pass. partic., 97, III; 102; 104; 106; 108; 111; 113;; ---- gerundive, see Gerundive; ---- fut. act., peculiar formation of, 119, 4; ---- perf. pass., w. act. or neuter meaning, 114, 2; ---- of deponents, 112, b; ---syntax, 336 ff. Participles, fut. act., 119, 4; ---- denoting purpose, 337, 4. ---- perf. act., how supplied, 356, 2. ---- perf. pass. 336, 3; ---- as pres., 336, 5. ---- pres. partic., 336, 2; ---- --with conative force, 336, 2, a. ---- perf. pass., with active meaning, 114, 2; ---- pred. use of partic., 337, 2; ---- participles equivalent to subordinate clauses, 337, 2; ---- to coördinate clauses, 337, 5; ---w. opus est, 218, 2, c; ---- with noun, equivalent to abstract noun, 337, 6; ---- with habeÅ, 337, 7. ---with videÅ, audiÅ, faciÅ, etc., 337, 3. Particles, 139 f.; 341 f. Partitive apposition, 169, 5. Partitive gen., so called, 201. Parts of speech, 10. parum, comparison, 77, 1. parvū, gen. of value, 203, 3. parvus, comparison, 72. Passive, verbs in, with middle meaning, 175, 2, d; 256; ---- verbs governing dat. used in pass. only impersonally, 187, II, b; ---- constr. of passive verbs of saying, etc., 332 and note; ---- how supplied when missing, 356, 1. patior, conj., 109, 2, c; 113; ---- with inf., 331, III. Patrial adjs., 70, 5, c. Patronymics, 148, 6. paulum, formation, 77, 3. paulus, spelling, 9, 2. pauper, decl., 70, 1. pedester, decl., 68, 1. pejor, quantity of first syllable, 362, 5. pelagus, gender of, 26, 2. Penalty, abl. of, 208, 2, b. penÄ tÄ"s, decl., 40, 1, d). penes, prep. w. acc., 141. Pentameter, dactylic, 369. Penult, 6, 2. per, prep. w. acc., 141; ---with acc. of time and space, 181, 2. Perceiving, verbs of, w. inf., 331, I. Perfect active ptc., how supplied in Latin, 356, 2. Perfect pass. partic., force of w. deponent verbs, 112, b; ---- dat. of agency sometimes used w., 189, 2; ---- opus, 218, 2, c. Perfect stem, 97, II; ---- formation, 118. ---- in -Ä vÄ«, -Ä"vÄ«, -Ä«vÄ« contracted, 116, 1. ---- historical perf., 262. ---- with force of pres. 262; 133, 2; ---pres. perf. and hist. perf. distinguished, 237, 1 and 2; ---- gnomic perf., 262, 1; ---- perf. subjv. as historical tense, 268, 6 and 7, b; ---- perf. inf. w. oportuit, 270, 2; ---- perf. prohibitive, 279, a; ---- perf. potential, 280, 1 and 2; ---- perf. concessive, 278; ---- sequence of tenses after perf. inf., 268, 2. Periodic structure, 351, 5. Periphrastic conj., 115; 269, 3; ---- in conditional sentences of the 3d type, 304, 3, b); ----- in indir. disc., 322; ----- in passive, 337, 8, b, 1. ----- fut. inf., 270, 3. Persons, 95, 4; ----- 2d sing, of indefinite subject, 356, 3. Personal pronouns 84; 242; ---- as subject, omission of, 166, 2; ---as objective genitives, 242, 2. ---- endings, 96. persuÄ deÅ, with dat., 187, II, a; ---- with subjv., 295, 1. Persuading, verbs of, w. dat., 187, II. ph, 2, 3, c; 2, 4; 3, 3. piget, with gen., 209. Pity, verbs of, w. gen., 209, 1 and 2. Place to which, 182; ---- whence, 229; ---- place where, 228. placitus, force, 114, 2.

Pleasing, verbs of, w. dat., 187, II, a; ---- w. acc., 187, II, a, N. plēbÄ"s, heteroclite, 59, 2, d). plÄ"bi, gen., 52, 2. Plenty and Want, verbs of, constr., 212; cf. 218, 8. plēnus, w. gen., 218, 8, a. Pleonasm, 374, 3. plērÄ;que, 6, 5. pluit, 138, I. Pluperfect tense, formation, 100; ---- syntax, 263; 265; 287, 2; 288, 3; ---with imperfect meaning, 133, 2. Plural, 16; ---- in 5th decl., 52, 4; ---- of proper names, 55, 4, a); ---- of abstract nouns, 5, 4, c); ---- nouns used in, only, 56; ---- with change of meaning, 61; ---- stylistic use, 353, 1, 2. Pluralia tantum, 56; 81, 4, b). plūris, gen. of value, 203, 3; ---- of price, 203, 4. plÅ«s, decl., 70; 70, 4; ---- = plūs quam, 217, 3. poÄ"ma, decl., 47, 5. Polysyndeton, 341, 4, b). por-, inseparable prep., 159, 3, e. porticus, gender, 50. portus, decl., 49, 3. poscÅ, constr., 178, 1, a). Position of clauses, 351, 3. ---- of words, 348; 350; 351. Possessive dat., 190; ---- gen., 198; ---- contrasted with dat. of poss., 359, 1. Possessive pronouns, 86, 243; ---- = objective gen., 243, 2; ---- position of, 243, 1, a. Possibility, verbs of, put in indic. in cond. sentences, 304, 3, a. possum, 126; ---- with present infin., 'I might, 271, 1, a; ---- in cond. sentences, 304, 3, a. post, prep. w. acc., 144, 1; ---- in expressions of time, 357, 1. Post-positive words, 343, 1, c). posteÄ quam, 287; ---- separated, 287, 3; ---- with imperf. ind., 287, 4; ---- w. pluperf. ind., 287, 3; ---- with subjv., 287, 5. posterus, posterior, comp., 73, 2. postrēmus, use, 241, 2. postrīdiÄ", with gen., 201, 3, a. postulÅ, constr., 178, 1, a. Potential subjv., 272; 280. potior, with gen., 212, 2; ---- with abl., 218, 1; ---- in gerundive constr., 339, 4. ---- adj., 73, 1. potius, compared, 77, 1. potuī, poteram, in apodosis of conditional sent. of 3d type, 304, 3, a); ---- in indir. disc., 322, c. potuī, with pres. inf. = 'could have,' 270, 2. potuerim, in dependent apodosis, 322, c. pÅ tus, force, 114, 2. prae, prep, w. abl., 142; ---- verbs compounded with governing dat., 187, III; ---- short in praeacūtus, etc., 362, 2. PraenÅ men, 373. praesÄ"ns, 125. praesum, w. dat., 187, III. prÄ nsus, force, 114, 2. precī, -em, -e, 57, 5, a. Predicate, 163. ---- gen., 198, 3; 203, 5. Predicate nouns, 167; 168; ---- in acc., 177; ---- predicate nouns or adjs. attracted to dat., 327, 2, a; ---- to nom., 328, 2, ---adjectives, 232, 2; 177, 2. Prepositions, assimilation of, in compounds, 8, 4; 9, 2; ---- with acc., 141; ---with abl., 142; ---- as adverbs, 144; ---- inseparable prepositions, 159, 3, N.; ---- position, 350, 7; ---prepositional phrases as attributive modifiers, 353, 5; ---- anastrophe of, 144, 3; 141, 2; 142, 3; ---- usage with abl. of sep., 214 f; ---- with abl. of source, 215. Present tense, 259; ---- gnomic, 259, 1; ---conative, 259, 2; ---- historical, 259, 3; ---- with jam prīdem, jam diÅ«, etc., 259, 4; ---- with dum, 'while,' 293, I; ---- in RepraesentÄ tiÅ, 318; ---- pres. subjv., in -im, 127, 2; ---- pres. partic., see Participle. ---- stem, 97, I; ---- formation, 117. ---- perf., 257, 1 and 2. Preventing, verbs of, w. subjv. clause, 295, 3. Price, indefinite, special words in gen. 203, 4; also 225, 1. ---- abl. of, 225. prīdiÄ", with gen., 201, 3, a; ---- with acc., 144, 2. Primary tenses, see Principal tenses. prīmus, 'first who,' 241, 2. prīnceps, decl., 31. Principal parts, 99; ---- list, p. 251. ---- tenses, 258 f. prior, compared, 73, 1. prius, compared, 77, 1. priusquam, with ind., 291; ---- with subjv., 292; ---- separated, 292. Privation, verbs of, w. abl., 214, 1, b and c. prÅ, prep. w. abl., 142. procul, as prep. w. abl., 144, 2. prohibeÅ, w. abl., 214, 2; ---- w. subjv. clause, 295, 3. Prohibitions, method of expressing, 276. Prohibitive subjv., 276. Prolepsis, 374, 5. Pronominal adjs., 253. Pronouns, defined, 82; ---- classes, 83; ---- personal, 84; ---- reflexive, 85; ---- possessive, 86; ---- demonstrative, 87; ---- intensive, 88; ---- relative, 89; ---- interrogative, 90; ---- indefinite, 91; ---- pronominal adjs., 92; ---- personal, omission of, as subject, 166, 2; ---syntax, 242 f.; ---- personal, 242 f.; ---- possess., 243 f.; ---- reflex., 244 f.; --------- reciprocal, 245 f.; ----- demonstrative, 246 f.; ----- relative, 250 f.; ----- indef., 252 f.; ---- position, 350, 5; 355. Pronunciation, Roman, 3. prope, compared, 77, 1. Proper names, abbreviated, 373. ---- nouns, 12, 1. propior, compared, 73, 1; ---- with acc., 141, 3. proprius, with dat., 204, 2, a; ---- with gen., 204, 2. propter, prep. w. acc., 141. Prosody, 360 f. prÅ sper, decl., 65, 1. prŠsum, conj., 125, N. Protasis, 301; ---- denoting repeated action, 302, 3; ---- without sī, 305; ---of indef. 2d sing., 302, 2; ---- see Conditions. Provisos, 310. proximÄ", -us, comp., 73, 1; 77, 1; ---- with acc., 141, 3. prūdÄ"ns, decl., 70. -pte, 86, 3. pudet, with gen, 209; ---- w. inf., 327, 1. puer, decl., 23. pulcher, comp., 71, 3. puppis, decl., 38, 1. Purpose, dat. of purpose, 191; ---- with dat. and gerundive, 191, 3; ---- w. ad and acc., 192, 2; ---- subjv. of purp., 282, 1; ---- w. quÅ, 282, 1, a; ---- w. ut nē, 282, 1, b; ---- with nÅ n in purpose clause, 282, 1, c; ---- nÄ"ve (neu) in purpose clauses, 292, 1, d; ---- neque, 282, 1, e; ---- rel. clauses of purpose, 282, 2; ---- w. dignus, indignus, idÅ neus, 282, 3; ---- independent of principal verb, 282, 4; ---- inf., denoting purpose, 326, N.; ---- fut. partic., denoting purpose, 337, 4; ---- gerund, w. ad, 338, 3; ---- gerundive, 339, 2; ----

### supine, 340.

Q.

qu, pron., 3, 3; ---- both letters consonants, 74, a. quaerÅ, w. indir. questions, 300, 1, b), N. quaesÅ, 137, 2. Quality, gen., 203; ---- abl., 224. quam, in comparisons, 217, 2; ---- with superl., 240, 3; ---- ante ... quam, post ... quam, prius ... quam, see antequam, postquam, priusquam; quam quī, 283, 2, a. quam sÄ«, 307, 1. quam ut, with subjy., 284, 4. quamquam, with ind., 309, 2; ---- with subjy., 309, 6; ---- = 'and yet,' 309, 5. quamvīs, with subjv., 309, 1; 6; ---- denoting a fact, 309, 6. quandÅ, 286, 3, b. quantÄ«, as gen. of price, 203, 4; ---- of value, 203, 3. Quantity, 5. ---- of syllables, 5, B; 363 f. ---- of vowels, 5, A; 362; ---- in Greek words, 365. quasi, 307, 1. quatiÅ, conj., 109, 2, a). -que, accent of word preceding, 6, 3; 6, 5; 341, 1, b); 2, a); 4, c). queÅ, 137, 1. Questions, word, sentence, 162 f.; ---- rhetorical, 162, 3; ---double (alternative), 162, 4; ---- indirect, 300; ---- questions in indir. disc., 315. quī, rel., 89; ---interr., 90; ---- indef., 91; ---- for guis in indir. guestions, 90, 2, b; ---- with nÄ", sÄ«, nisi, num, 91, 5; ----- in purpose clauses, 282, 2; ---- abl., 90, 2, a. quia, in causal clauses, 286, 1, quīcum, 89. quīcumque, decl., 91, 8. quÄ«dam, decl, 91; syntax, 252, 3. quidem, post-positive, 347, 1. quÄ«libet, decl., 91, quīn, in result clauses, 284, 3; ---- in substantive clauses, 295, 3; 298; ---- = quÄ« nÅ n in clauses of characteristic, 283, 4; ---- with ind., 281, 3; ---- in indir. disc, 322 and a; ---- nūlla causa est quÄ«n, 295, 7. quīnam, 90, 2, d. QuÄ«ntÄ«lis (= JÅ«lius), 371. quÄ«ppe quÄ«, in clauses of characteristic, 283, 3. OuirītÄ"s, decl., 40, 1, d. quis, indef., 91; ---- interr., 90; 90, 2, c.; 252, 1; ---- nesciÅ quis, 253, 6; ---- with nÄ", sÄ«, nisi, num, 91, 5. quis est quÄ«, 283, 2. quÄ«s = quibus, 89. quisnam, inflection, 90, 2, d. quispiam, inflection, 91, quisquam, inflection, 91; ---- usage, 252, 4, quisque, inflection, 91; ---- usage, 252, 5. quisquis, inflection, 91, 8. quīvÄ«s, inflection, 91 quÅ, in purpose clauses, 282, 1, a., quoad, with ind., 293; ---- with subjv. 293, III, 2. quod, in causal clauses, 286, 1; ---- in substantive clauses, 299; 331, V, a; ---- 'as regards the fact, '299, 2, guod audierim, 283, 5; ---- guod sciam, 283, 5, guod (sī), adverbial acc., 185, 2. quom, early form of cum, 9, 1. quÅ minus, after verbs of hindering, 295, 3. quoniam, in causal clauses, 286, 1. quoque, post-positive, 347. -quus, decl. of nouns in, 24.

## R.

r, pron., 3, 3; ---- for s between vowels ('Rhotacism'), 8, 1. rapiÅ, conj., 100, 2 a). rÄ strum, plurals of, 60, 2. ratus, 'thinking,' 336, 5. Reciprocal pronouns, 85, 2; 245; cf. 253, 3. Reduplication in perf., 118, 4, a); ---- in pres., 117, 7. Reference, dat. of, 188. rÄ"fert, constr., 210; 211, 4. Reflexive pronouns, 85; 244; 249, 3. regÅ, conj., 105. Regular verbs, 101–113. rÄ•i, 362, 1, b). reiciÅ, quantity, 362, 5. Relative adverbs, in rel. clauses of purp., 282, 2. ---- clauses, of purp., 282, 2; ---- w. dignus, indignus, idÅ neus, 282, 3; ----- of characteristic, 283; ----- denoting cause or opposition, 283, 3; ----restrictive, 283, 5; ---- introduced by quīn, 283, 4; 284, 3; ---- conditional rel. clauses, 311; 312, 1 and 2; ---- relative as subj. of inf., 314, 4; ---- rel. clause standing first, 251, 4, a. ---pronouns, inflection, 89; ---- use, 250, ff.; ---- = Eng. demonstrative, 251, 6; ---agreement, 250; ---- not omitted as in Eng., 251, 5; ---- fondness for subordinate clauses, 355. reliquitur ut, 297, 2. reliquī, use, 253, 5. reliquum est, with subjv., 295, 6. rÄ"mex, decl., 32. Remembering, verbs of, cases used w., 206. Reminding, verbs of, const., 207. reminīscor, constr., 206, 2. Removing, verbs of, w. abl., 214, 2. reposcÅ, constr., 178, 1, a). RepraesentÄ tiÅ, 318. requiÄ"s, requiem, requiētem, 59, 2, c). rÄ"s, decl., 51. Resisting, verbs of, w. dat., 187, II. Restrictive clauses, 283, 5. Result, acc. of, 173, B; 176; ---- clauses of, 284; 297; ---- in dependent apodosis, 322, and a; -------- sequence of tense in, 268, 6. revertor, semi-deponent, 114, 3. Rhetorical questions, 162, 3; 277, a; ---- in indir. disc., 315, 2. Rhotacism, 8, 1; 36, 1. Rivers, gender of names of, 15, A, 1. rogÄ tÅ«, abl. of cause, 219, 2. rogÅ, constr., 178, 1, c); 178, 1, a). Roman pronunciation, 3. Root, 17, 3, footnote 12. -rs, decl. of nouns in, 40, 1, c). rūre, abl., place from which, 229, 1, b. rÅ«rÄ«, abl., place in which, 228, 1, c. rūs, 57, 7; ---- acc., limit of motion, 182, 1, b.

s, pron., 3, 3; ---- changed to r between vowels, 8, 1: ---- s, ss from dt, tt, ts, 8, 2. -s, decl. of monosyllables in, preceded by one or more consonants, 40, 1, b). s-stems, 36. sacer, decl., 65; ---comparison, 73, 3. saepe, compared, 77, 1. sÄ l, 57, 7; ---- sÄflÄ"s, 61. salÅ «bris, decl., 68, 3. salūtÄ ris, comp., 73, 4. salvÄ", salvÄ"te, 137, 4. SamnÄ-tÄ"s, 40, 1, d). sÄ nÄ", in answers, 162, 5. sapiÅ, conj., 109, 2, a). satur, decl., 65, 2. Saying, verbs of, w. inf. of ind. disc., 331, I. sciÅ, quod sciam, 283, 5. –scÅ –class of verbs, 117, 6; 155. scrÄ«bere ad alÄ«quem, 358, 2. sÄ", use, 244. sÄ"–, compounds of, 159, 3, e. Second conj., 103; ---- decl., 23; ---- peculiarities, 25; ---- second person indefinite, 280, 3; 356, 3; 302, 2. Secondary tenses, see Historical tenses. secundum, prep. w. acc., 141. secūris, decl., 38, 1. secus, compared, 77, 1. secus (virīle secus), 185, 1; 58. secÅ«tus, 'following', 336, 5. sed, sÄ", 85, 3. sēd–, compounds of, 159, 3, e. sÄ"d, 343, 1, a). sedÄ«le, decl., 39. sÄ"mentis, decl., 38, 1. Semi–deponent verbs, 114. Semivowels, 2, 8. senex, decl., 42; ---- compared, 73, 4. Sentences, classification, 160, f.; -simple and compound, 164; ---- sentence-structure, 351; ---- sentence questions, 162, 2. sententiÄ, abl. of accordance, 220, 3. Separation, dat. of, 188, 2, d); ---- gen., 212, 3; ---- abl., 214. Sequence of tenses, 267; 268. sequester, decl., 68, 1. sequitur ut, 297, 2. sequor, conj., 113. Serving, verbs of, w. dat., 187, II. servos, decl., 24. sÄ"sÄ", decl., 85. SextÄ «lis (= Augustus), 371. Sharing, adjs. of, w. gen., 204, 1. Short syllables, 5, B, 2; ---- vowels, 5, A, 2. Showing, verbs of, w. two accs., 177. sī, with indir. questions, 300, 3; ---- in protasis, 301; ---- omitted, 305. signifer, decl., 23, 2. silentiÅ, abl of manner, 220, 2. silvester, decl., 68, 3. similis, with dat., 204, 3; ---- with gen., 204, 3; ---- comp., 71, 4. sī minus, use, 306, 2. Simple sentences, 164. simul, as prep., w. abl., 144, 2. simul ac, w. ind., 287, 1; 2. sī nÅ n, usage, 306, 1 and 2. sīn, usage, 306, 3. sÄ«n minus, 306, 2, a. Singular, second person indefinite, 280, 3; 356, 3; 302, 2. sinÅ with inf., 331, III. sitis, decl., 38, 1. Smelling, verbs of, constr., 176, 5. Soft consonants, 2, 3, b), footnote 5. –sÅ, verbs in, 155, 2. socer, decl., 23, 2. socium, gen, plu., 25, 6, c). sÅ l, decl., 57, 7. soleÅ, semi-dep., 114, 1. solitus, used as present partic., 336, 5. sÅ lus, 66; ---- sÅ lus est qui with subjv., 283, 2. Sonant consonants, 2, 3, b), footnote 5. SÅ racte, decl., 39, 2. Sounds, classification, 2. ---- of the letters, 3. Source, abl., 215. Space, extent of, 181. Sparing, verbs of, w. dat., 187, II. Specification, abl. of, 226. spĕÄ«, quantity, 362, 1, b. Spelling, see Orthography. Spirants, 2, 7. Spondaic verses, 368, 2. Spondee, 368, 1. sponte suÄ, abl. accordance, 220, 3. spontis, –e, defective, 57, 2, b. Statutes, fut. imperative used in, 281, 1, b. Stem, 17, 3. ---- verb, 97; 117. Structure of sentences, see Sentences. Style, hints on, 352 f. su = sv, 3, 3. sub, prep. with acc. and abl., 143; ---- compounds of, w. dat., 187, III. Subject, 163; ---- nom., 166; ---acc., 184; ---- subject acc. of inf., 184; ---- omitted, 314, 5; ---- clauses as subject, 294; 295, 6; ---inf. as subj., 327; 330. Subjective gen., 199. Subjunctive, tenses in, 95, 3. ---- in independent sentences, 272: ---- by attraction, 324; ---- tenses of, 266 f.; ---- method of expressing future time in, 269; ---volitive (hortatory, jussive, probibitive, deliberative, concessive), 273 f.; ---- optative (wishes), 279; ---potential, 280; ---- in clauses of purpose, 282; ---- of characteristic, 283; ---- of result, 284; ---- of cause, 286; ---- temporal clauses with postquam, posteÄ quam, 287, 5; ---- temporal clauses with cum, 288-290; ---- with antequam and priusquam, 292; ---- with dum, dÅ nec, quoad, 293, III, 2; --substantive clauses, 294 f.; ---- indir. questions, 300; ---- in apodosis of first type conditions, 302, 4; ---- jussive subjunctive as protasis of condition, 305, 2; ---- with velut, tamquam, etc., 307; ---- with necesse est, opportet, etc., 295, 6 and 8; ---- with licet, 309, 4; ---- with quamvīs, quamquam, etsÄ«, cum 'although,' 309 f. sublÄ tus, 129, N. subm- = summ-, 9, 2. Subordinate clauses, 165. Substantive clauses, 294 f.; ---- developed from the volitive, 295, 1-8; ---- developed from the optative, 296; ---- with nÅ n dubitÅ, 298; ---- indir. questions, 300; ---- without ut, 295, 8; ----- of result, 297; ----- introduced by quod, 299. ---- use of adjs., 236-238. subter, prep, w. acc., 143, 1. Suffixes, 17, 3, footnote 12; 147 f. suī, 85; ---- as objective gen., 244, 2; ---- = possessive gen., 244, 2. sum, conj., 100; ---- omitted when auxiliary, 166, 3. summus, 'top of,' 241, 1. sunt quī, with subjv., 283, 2. suÅ pte, suÄ pte, 86, 3. supellex, decl., 42, 2. super, prep. w. acc., 143, 1. Superlative degree; ----- of adjs., 71, 1; ----- in -rimus, 91, 3; ----- in -limus, 71, 4; ----- irregular superl., 72; 73; ---- lacking, 73, 4; ---- formed w. maximÄ", 74; ---- of adverbs, 76, 2; ---irregular, 77, 1; ---- force of, 240, 2. superus, compared, 73, 2. Supine, 340. suprÄ, prep. w. acc., 141. -sūra, suffix, 147, 3, a. Surd consonants, 2, 3, a), footnote 4. sÅ«s, decl., 41. sustulÄ«, 129, N. suus, decl., 86, 1; 244; ---- suus quisque, 244, 4, a. Syllaba anceps, 366, 10. Syllables, division, 4; ---- quantity of, 5, B. Synapheia, 367, 6. Synaeresis, 367, 1. Synchysis, 350, 11, d. Syncope, 7, 4; 367, 8. Synecdochical acc.,

## 180. Synizesis, 367, 1. Syntax, 160 f. Systole, 367, 3.

T.

t, pron., 3, 3; ---- th, 2, 3, c; 3, 3; ---- changes, 8, 2; ---- dropped, 8, 3, taedet, 138, II; ---- w, gen., 209. Taking away, verbs of, w. dat., 188, 2, d. talentum, gen. plu., 25, 5, a. tamen, 343, 1, f. tametsī, 309, 2. tamquam, tamquam sī, w. subjv., 307. tantÅ n, 6, 4. -tas, 149; ---- gen. -tÄ tis, decl. of nouns in, 40, 1, e). Tasting, verbs of, constr., 176, 5. Teaching, verbs of, constr., 178, 1, b. tēd = tÄ", 84, 3. Temporal clauses, w. postquam, ut, ubi, simul ac, 287; ---- w. cum, 288; 289; ---- w. antequam and priusquam, 291; 292; ---- with dum, dÅ nec, quoad, 293. temporis (id temporis), 185, 2. Tendency, dat. of, 191. tener, decl., 64. Tenses, 94, 3; 257 ff.; ---- of inf., 270; ---- of inf. in indir. disc., 317; ---- of participles, 336; ---of subjv., 266; ---- sequence of, 266-268; ---- in indir. disc., 317; 318. Tenues (consonants), 2, 3, a), footnote 4. tenus, position, 142, 3. Terminations, 17, 3. ternA«, how used, 81, 4, b. -ternus, 154. terrA marīque, 228, 1, c. terrester, 68, 3. Tetrameter verses, 366, 11. Thematic verbs, 101–113. ---- vowels, 117, footnote 39. Thesis, 366, 6. Third conj., 105; 109 f.; ---- decl., 28 f.; ---- gender in, 43 f. Threatening, verbs of, 187, II. -tim, adverbs in, 157, 2. Time, at which, 230; ---- during which, 181; 231, 1; ---- within which, 231. timeŠnē and ut, 296, 2. -tinus, suffix, 154. -tiÅ, suffix, 147, 3. Tmesis, 367, 7. -to as suffix of verbs, 155, 2. -tor, use of nouns in, 353, 4. tÅ tus, 66; ---- preposition absent w., in expression of place relations, 228, 1, b). Towns, gender of names of, 15, 2; ---- names of, denoting limit of motion, 182, 1, a; ---- denoting place where, 228, 1, a; ---- place from which, 229, 1, a; ---- appositives of town names, 169, 4; 229, 2. trÄ ditur, trÄ ditum est, w. inf., 332, N. trÄ ns, prep, w. acc., 141; ---- constr. of verbs compounded with, 179. Transitive verbs, 174. Trees, gender of names of, 15, 2. trēs, decl., 80, 3. Tribrach, 370, 2. tribus, decl., 49, 3; ---- gender, 50. Trimeter verses, 366, 11. trīnÄ«, use, 81, 4, b). triumvir, gen. plu. of, 25, 6, b). -trīx, suffix, 147, 1. Trochee, 366, 2. -trum, suffix, 147, 4. Trusting, verbs of, w. dat., 187, II. tū, decl., 84. –tÅ«dÅ, suffix, 84. tuÄ«, as objective gen., 242, 2. –tÅ«ra, suffix, 147, 3, a). tÅ«s, decl., 57, 7. -tus, suffix, 147, 3; 151, 4. tussis, decl., 38. tūte, tÅ«temet, tÅ«timet, 84, 2. Two accusatives, 177; 178. Two datives, 191, 2.

U.

u, instead of i in some words, 9, 1; ---- instead of a, 9, 1; 9, 4. u, becomes v 367, 4. Å--stems, 48. ū-stems, 41. -ū, dat. sing., 4th decl, 49, 2. ūber, decl., 70, 1. ubi, with ind., 287, 1; 2; ---- with gen., 201, 3. – ubus, dat., plu., 4th decl., 49, 3. Å «llus, decl., 66. ulterior, compared, 73, 1. ultimus, use, 241, 2. ultrÄ, prep. w. acc., 141. –ulus, diminutive ending, 150, 2; ––– (a, um), 148, 1. –um, 1st decl., gen. plu. in, 21, 2, d); ---- 2d decl., 25, 6; ---- for -ium, 70, 7. -undus, -undī, in gerund and gerundive, 116, 2. ūnus, decl., 66; 92, 1; ---- Å«nus est qui, with subjv., 283, 2. -uriÅ, ending of desiderative verbs, 155, 3. -Å«rus, ending of fut. act. partic., 101; 103 ff.; ---- -Å«rus fuisse in apodosis of conditional sentences contrary-to-fact, in indir. disc., 321, 2; ---- -ūrus fuerim in indir. questions serving as apodoses, 322, b. -us, neuter nouns of 2d decl. in, 26, 2; ---- nom. in 3d decl., in -us, 36; ---- gender of nouns in -us of 3d decl., 43, 3; ---- exceptions in gender, 46, 4. -Å«s, nouns of 3d decl. in, 43, 2. Å«sque ad, w. acc., 141, 1. ūsus est, with abl., 218, 2. ut, temporal, 287, 1; 2; ---- ut, utÄ«, in purpose clauses, 282; ---- in result clauses, 284; ---- in substantive clauses, 295 f.; ---- substantive clauses without, 295, 8; ---- with verbs of fearing, 296, 2. ut nÄ" = nÄ", 282, 1, b; 295, 1, 4, 5. ut non instead of nÄ", 282, 1, c; ---- in clauses of result, 284, 297. ut quī, introducing clauses of characteristic, 283, 3. ut sÄ«, w. subjv., 307, 1. uter, decl., 66; 92, 1. ūter, decl., 40, 1, d). utercumque, decl., 92, 2. uterlibet, decl., 92, 2. uterque, decl., 92, 2; ---use, 355, 2. utervīs, decl., 92, 2. Å«tilius est = Eng. potential, 271, 1, b). utinam, with optative subjv., 279, 1 and 2. Å «tor, with abl., 218, 1; ---- in gerundive constr., 339, 4 utpote qui, introducing clauses of characteristic, 283, 3. utrÃ; que, 6, 5. utrum ... an, 162, 4; 300, 4.

V.

v, 1, 1; ---- pron., 3, 3: ---- developing from u, 367, 4. v, becomes u, 367, 5. valdē, by syncope, for

validē, 7, 4. valÄ•, 363, 2, b). Value, indefinite, in gen., 203, 3. vannus, gender of, 26, 1, b). Variations in spelling, 9. vÄ s, decl., 59, 1. -ve, 6, 3; 342, 1, b). vel, 342, 1, b); ---- with superl., 240, 3. velim, potential subjv., 280, 2, a. vellem, potential subjv., 280, 4. velut, velut sī, w. subjv., 307, 1. venter, decl., 40, 1, d). Verba sentiendī et dÄ"clÄ randÄ«, w. inf. of indir. disc., 331, I; ---- passive use of these, 332. Verbal adjs., 150, 1–4. Verbs, 94 f.; ---- personal endings, 96; ---- deponent, 112; ---- archaic and poetic forms, 116, 4; ---- irregular, 124; ---- defective, 133; ---- impersonal, 138; ---- with substantive clauses of result, 297, 2: ---- omission of, 166, 3: ---- transitive, 174; ---- used absolutely, 174, a: ---passives used as middles, 175, 2, d); ---- of smelling and tasting, constr., 176, 5; ---- not used in passive, 177, 3, a; ---- intransitives impersonal in passive, 187, II, b; 256, 3; ---- compounded with preps., constr., 187, III: ---- of judicial action, constr., 208; ---- derivation of, 155 f.; ---- inceptive or inchoative, 155, 1; ---- frequentative or intensive, 155, 2; ---- desiderative, 155, 3; ---- denominative, 156; ---agreement of, 254 f. Verb stems, 97; ---- formation of, 117 f. vereor, conj., 113; ---- with subst. clause in subjv., 296, 2. Vergilius, gen. of, 25, 1. veritus, with present force; 336, 5. vœrÅ, 343, 1, g); ---- in answers, 162, 5. Verse, 366, 3. Verse-structure, 366 f. Versification, 361. versus, prep. w. acc., 141; ---follows its case, 141, 2. vÄ"rum, 343, 1, b). vescor, with abl., 218, 1. vesper, decl., 23, 2. vesperÄ«, locative, 232, 2. vestrī, as obj. gen., 242, 2. vestrum, as gen. of whole, 242, 2; ---- as possessive gen., 242, 2, a. vetÅ, with inf. 331, II. vetus, decl., 70; ---- compared, 73, 3. vÄ«, 220, 2. vicem, used adverbially, 185, 1; ---- vicis, vice, 57, 5, b. victor, decl., 34. videÅ, with pres. partic., 337, 3. vigil, decl., 34. violenter, formation, 77, 4, a. vir, decl., 23. ---- gen. plu. of nouns compounded with, 25, 6, b). virīle seces, constr., 185, 1. vīrus, gender of, 26, 2. vÄ«s, decl., 41. vÄ«scera, used in plu. only, 56, 3. Vocative case, 17; 19, 1; ---- of Greek proper names in -Ä s, 47, 4; ---- of adjs. in -ius, 63, 1; 171; ---- in -Ä« for -ie, 25, 1; ---- position of, 350, 3. Voiced sounds, 2, 3, a). Voiced consonants, 2, 3, b). Voiceless consonants, 2, 3, a). Voices, 94; 256; ---- middle voice, 256, 1. Volitive subjunctive, 272 f. volnus, spelling, 9, 1. volÅ, 130; ---- with inf., 331, IV and a; 270, 2, a; ---- with subjv., 296, 1, a. volt, spelling, 9, 1. voltus, spelling, 8, 1. volucer, decl., 68, 1. voluntÄ te, 220, 2. -volus, comparison of adjs. in, 71, 5 Vowels, 2, 1; ---- sounds of the, 3, 1; ---- quantity of, 5, A; ---- contraction of, 7, 2; ---- parasitic, 7, 3. Vowel changes, 7. vulgus, gender of, 26, 2. -vum, -vus, decl. of nouns in, 24.

## W.

Want, verbs and adjs. of, w. abl., 214, 1, c; d. Way by which, abl. of, 218, 9. We, editorial, 242, 3. Whole, gen. of, 201. Wills, use of fut. imperative in, 281, 1, b. Winds, gender of names of, 15, 1. Wish, clauses with dum, etc., expressing a, 310. Wishes, subjunctive in, 279; ---- see Optative subjunctive. Wishing, verbs of, with subst. clause 296, 1; ---- with obj. inf., 331, IV. Word–formation, 146 f. Word–order, 348 f. Word questions, 162, 1.

# Х.

x, 2, 9; ---- = cs and gs, 32. -x, decl. of monosyllables in, preceded by one or more cons., 40, 1, b); ---- gender of nouns in -x of 3d decl., 43, 2; ---- exceptions, 45, 4.

# Y.

y, 1, 1. Yes, how expressed, 162, 5. 'You,' indefinite, 356, 3; 280, 3; 302, 2.

Z.

z, 1, 1; 2, 9. Zeugma, 374, 2, a).

\* \* \* \* \*

## FOOTNOTES

[1] Sometimes also called Aryan or \_Indo-Germanic\_.

[2] Cuneiform means "wedge-shaped." The name applies to the form of the strokes of which the characters consist.

[3] The name Zend is often given to this.

[4] For 'voiceless,' 'surd,' 'hard,' or 'tenuis' are sometimes used.

[5] For 'voiced,' 'sonant,' 'soft,' or 'media' are sometimes used.

[6] In this book, long vowels are indicated by a horizontal line above them; as,  $\ddot{A}$ ,  $\ddot{A}$ «,  $\dot{A}$ , etc. Vowels not thus marked are short. Occasionally a curve is set above short vowels; as,  $\ddot{A}$ •,  $\dot{A}$ -.

[7] To avoid confusion, the quantity of *syllables* is not indicated by any sign.

[8] But if the l or r introduces the second part of a compound, the preceding syllable is always long; as, abrumpÅ .

[9] Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.

[10] Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.

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

[12] 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.

[13] There is only one stem ending in -m:--hiems, hiemīs, *winter*.

[14] MÄ"nsis, *month*, originally a consonant stem (mēns–), has in the Genitive Plural both mÄ"nsium and mÄ"nsum. The Accusative Plural is mÄ"nsÄ"s.

[15] This is practically always used instead of alīus in the Genitive.

[16] A Dative Singular Feminine alterae also occurs.

[17] Supplied by vetustior, from vetustus.

[18] Supplied by recentior.

[19] For *newest*, recentissimus is used.

- [20] Supplied by minimus nÄ tÅ«.
- [21] Supplied by maximus nÄ tÅ«.
- [22] The final i is sometimes long in poetry.
- [23] Forms of hīc ending in -s sometimes append -ce for emphasis; as, hÅ«jusce, \_this ... here\_; hÅ sce,

hīsce. When -ne is added, -c and -ce become -ci; as huncine, hÅ scine.

[24] For istud, istūc sometimes occurs; for ista, istaec.

[25] For illud, illūc sometimes occurs.

[26] Sometimes quīs.

[27] An ablative quī occurs in quÄ«cum, with whom.

[28] Where the Perfect Participle is not in use, the Future Active Participle, if it occurs, is given as one of the Principal Parts.

[29] The Perfect Participle is wanting in sum.

[30] 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.

[31] For essem, essēs, esset, essent, the forms forem, forÄ"s, foret, forent are sometimes used.

[32] For futūrus esse, the form fore is often used.

[33] Declined like bonus, -a, -um.

[34] The Imperfect also means *I loved*.

[35] For declension of amÄ ns, see § 70, 3.

[36] Fuī, fuistÄ«, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc. So fueram, fuerÄ s, etc., for eram, etc.; fuerÅ , etc., for erÅ , etc.

[37] Fuerim, etc., are sometimes used for sim; so fuissem, etc., for essem.

[38] In actual usage passive imperatives occur only in deponents (§ 112).

[39] Strictly speaking, the Present Stem always ends in a Thematic Vowel ( $\ddot{A} \cdot$  or  $\ddot{A}$ ); as,  $d\ddot{A} \cdot c - \ddot{A} \cdot -$ ,  $d\ddot{A} \cdot c - \dot{A} -$ ; am $\ddot{A} - \ddot{A} \cdot -$ , am $\ddot{A} - \ddot{A} -$ . But the multitude of phonetic changes involved prevents a scientific treatment of the subject here. See the author's *Latin Language*.

[40] But the compounds of juvŠsometimes have \_-jūtÅ«rus\_; as, \_adjÅ«tÅ«rus\_.

[41] Used only impersonally.

[42] So \_impleÅ \_, \_expleÅ \_.

[43] Compounds follow the Fourth Conjugation: \_acciŠ\_, \_accīre\_, etc.

[44] Fully conjugated only in the compounds: \_exstinguÅ \_, \_restinguÅ \_, \_distinguÅ \_.

[45] Only in the compounds: \_Ä"vÄ dÅ \_, \_invÄ dÅ \_, \_pervÄ dÅ \_.

[46] It will be observed that not all the forms of ferÅ lack the connecting vowel. Some of them, as ferimus, ferunt, follow the regular inflection of verbs of the Third Conjugation.

[47] For the Predicate Genitive, see  $\hat{A}$  §  $\hat{A}$  § 198, 3; 203, 5.

[48] Many such verbs were originally intransitive in English also, and once governed the Dative.

[49] This was the original form of the preposition cum.

[50] Place from which, though strictly a Genuine Ablative use, is treated here for sake of convenience.

[51] Especially: moneÅ , admoneÅ ; rogÅ , Å rÅ , petÅ , postulÅ , precor, flÄ gitÅ ; mandÅ , imperÅ , praecipiÅ ; suÄ deÅ , hortor, cohortor; persuÄ deÅ , impellÅ .

[52] Especially: permittŠ, concēdÅ , nÅ n patior.

[53] Especially: prohibeÅ, impediÅ, dÄ"terreÅ.

[54] Especially: cŠnstituŠ, dēcernÅ , cÄ"nseÅ , placuit, convenit, pacÄ«scor.

[55] Especially: labÅ rÅ, dÅ operam, id agÅ, contendÅ, impetrÅ.

[56] Exclamations, also, upon becoming indirect, take the Subjunctive, as cÅ nsiderÄ quam variae sint hominum cupÄ«dinÄ"s, \_consider how varied are the desires of men.\_ (Direct: quam variae sunt hominum cupÄ«dinÄ"s!)

[57] TrÄ ditÅ«ri fuerint and errÄ tÅ«rus fuerÄ«s are to be regarded as representing trÄ ditÅ«ri fuÄ"runt and errÄ tÅ«rus fuistÄ« of Direct Discourse. (See § 304, 3, b.)

[58] Except in Sallust and Silver Latin.

[59] So named from a fancied analogy to the strokes of the Greek letter Χ (\_chi\_). Thus:---

multŠs laesī Χ dÄ"fendÄ« nÄ"minem

[60] The pronouns hic, hoc, and the adverb huc, probably had a short *vowel*. The syllable was made long by pronouncing hicc, hocc, etc.

[61] Ictus was not accent,—neither stress accent not musical accent,—but was simply the quantitative prominence inherent in the long syllables of *fundamental feet*.

[62] For explanation of the abbreviations, see p. 257.

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