Bought with the income from the gift of Stephen Salisbury, of Worcester, Mass. (Class of 1817.)

13 Jan. 1882.
STANDARD CLASSICAL WORKS.


Livy. Selections from the first five books, together with the twenty-first and twenty-second books entire, With a Plan of Rome, and a Map of the Passage of Hannibal, and English Notes for the use of Schools. By J. L. Lincoln, Prof. of the Latin Language and Literature in Brown University. 12mo. 320 pages.


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A LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

BY

ALBERT HARKNESS, PH. D., LL. D.,

PROFESSOR IN BROWN UNIVERSITY.

REVISED EDITION

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NOTE TO THE REVISED GRAMMAR.

Future editions of the author's Latin Reader and other text-books will be published with references to the new Grammar. With the help of the table on page 427, however, the corresponding references to either edition of the Grammar may be found without inconvenience.

language.

The volume now offered to the public has been prepared in view of these facts. It is the result of a thorough and complete revision of the author's Latin Grammar published in 1864. To a large extent, indeed, it is a new and independent work; yet the paradigms, rules of construction, and in general all parts intended for recitation, have been only slightly changed. The aim of the work in its present form is threefold.

1. It is designed to present a clear, simple, and convenient outline of Latin grammar for the beginner. It
accordingly contains, in large type, a systematic arrangement of the leading facts and laws of the language, exhibiting not only grammatical forms and constructions, but also those vital principles which underlie, control, and explain them. The laws of construction are put in the form of definite rules, and illustrated by carefully selected examples. To secure convenience of reference, and to give completeness and vividness to the general outline, these rules, after having been separately discussed, are collected in a body at the close of the Syntax. Topics which require the fullest illustration are first presented in their completeness in general outline, before the separate points are explained in detail. Thus a single page often foreshadows the leading features of an extended discussion, imparting, it is believed, a completeness and vividness to the impression of the learner impossible under any other treatment.

2. It is intended to be an adequate and trustworthy grammar for the advanced student. By brevity and conciseness of phraseology, and by compactness in the arrangement of forms and topics, an ample collection of the most important grammatical facts, intended for reference, has been compressed within the limits of a convenient manual. Care has been taken to explain and illustrate, with the requisite fullness, all difficult and intricate subjects. The Subjunctive Mood and the Indirect Discourse have received special attention.

3. In a series of foot-notes it aims to bring within the reach of the student some of the more important results of recent linguistic research. Brief explanations are given of the working of phonetic laws, of the nature of inflection, of the origin of special idioms, and of various facts in the growth of language. But the distinguishing feature of this part of the work consists in the abundant
references which are made to some of the latest and best authorities upon the numerous linguistic questions naturally suggested by the study of Latin grammar. 1

An attempt has been made to indicate, as far as practicable, the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant. 2

With this brief statement of its design and plan, this volume is now respectfully committed to the hands of classical teachers.

In conclusion, the author is happy to express his grateful acknowledgments to the numerous friends who have favored him with valuable suggestions.

1 See page xv. It is hardly necessary to add that acquaintance with the authorities here cited is by no means to be regarded as an indispensable qualification for the work of classical instruction. The references are intended especially for those who adopt the historical method in the study of language.

2 See page 4, foot-note 4; also page 9, note 3.

Brown University, Providence, R. I.,
July, 1881.
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1 The publication of this work in 1883 marked an era in philological studies.

2 See also BRAMBACH, W. Die Neugestaltung der lateinischen Orthographie. Leipzig, 1863.

3 An edition with modifications by J. Windeklide was published at Bonn, 1873.

4 Two other valuable works by the same author are:

2. Einleitung in das Sprachstudium. Leipzig, 1880. This last work forms the fourth volume in the series of Indo-European grammars now in course of publication.

5 This periodical contains the latest views upon numerous questions connected with comparative philology and linguistic science.
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1 This work of Stevers forms the first volume and that of Meyer the third in the
series of Indo-European grammars now in course of publication.
LATIN GRAMMAR.

1. LATIN GRAMMAR treats of the principles of the Latin language. It comprises four parts:
   I. ORTHOGRAPHY, which treats of the letters and sounds of the language.
   II. ETYMOLOGY, which treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.
   III. SYNTAX, which treats of the construction of sentences.
   IV. PROSODY, which treats of quantity and versification.

PART FIRST.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

ALPHABET.

2. The Latin alphabet is the same as the English with the omission of $w$.\footnote{The Romans derived their alphabet from the Greek colony at Cumae. In its original form it contained twenty-one letters: A, B, C, D, E, F, H, I, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, X, Z. $C$ was a modification of the Greek gamma, and $F$ of the digamma. $Q$ was the Greek koppa, which early disappeared from the Greek alphabet. $C$ had the sound afterward denoted by $g$; $K$, the sound afterward denoted by $c$. $Z$ early disappeared from the Latin alphabet, but was subsequently restored, though only in foreign words. Throughout the classical period only capital letters were used. On the Alphabet, see Whitney, pp. 59-70; Papillon, pp. 28-48; Wordsworth, pp. 5-10; Roby, I., pp. 21-22; Sievers, pp. 24-108; Corssen, I., pp. 1-848; Kühner, I., pp. 35-49.}
ALPHABET.

1. C in the fourth century B.C. supplied the place both of C and of G.

2. G, introduced in the third century B.C., was formed from C by simply changing the lower part of that letter.

3. Even in the classical period the original form C was retained in abbreviations of proper names beginning with G. Thus C. stands for Gaius, Cn. for Gnaeus. See 649.

4. J, j, modifications of I, i, introduced in the seventeenth century of our era to distinguish the consonant I, i from the vowel I, i, are rejected by many recent editors, but retained by others.¹

5. The letters u and v, originally designated by the character V,² are now used in the best editions, the former as a vowel, the latter as a consonant.

6. In classical Latin, k is seldom used, and y and s occur only in foreign words, chiefly in those derived from the Greek.

3. Letters are divided according to the position of the vocal organs at the time of utterance into two general classes, vowels and consonants,³ and these classes are again divided into various subdivisions, as seen in the following

CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS.

I. VOWELS.

1. Open vowel ⁴

2. Medial vowels

3. Close vowels ⁵

¹ Throughout the classical period, I, used both as a vowel and as a consonant, supplied the place of /I, I/ and /J, J/. As practical convenience has, however, already sanctioned the use of U, U, and V, characters unknown to the ancient Romans, may it not also justify the use of J, J in educational works, especially as the Romans themselves attempted to find a suitable modification of I to designate this consonant?

² Originally V, used both as a vowel and as a consonant, supplied the place of U, U and V, V, but it was subsequently modified to U.

³ If the vocal organs are sufficiently open to allow an uninterrupted flow of vocal sound, a vowel is produced, otherwise a consonant; but the least open vowels are scarcely distinguishable from the most open consonants. Thus A, sounded fully according to the ancient pronunciation as sa, is a vowel; but, combined with a vowel in the same syllable, it becomes a consonant with the sound of y: e=I (a'-ss, vowel), e'jus (a'-jus, consonant), almost identical in sound with a'-ss-us).

⁴ In pronouncing the open vowel a as in father, the vocal organs are fully open. By gradually contracting them at one point and another we produce in succession the medial vowels, the close vowels, the semivowels, the nasals, the aspirate, the fricatives, and finally the mutes, in pronouncing which the closure of the vocal organs becomes complete.

⁵ E is a medial vowel between the open a and the close a, a a medial vowel between the open a and the close r; i is a palatal vowel, u a labial; y was introduced from the Greek. The vowel scale, here presented, in the form of a triangle, may be represented as a line, with a in the middle, with i at the palatal extreme, and with u at the labial extreme:

i e a o u
II. CONSONANTS.

1. SEMIVOWELS, sonant  . . . .  i or j = y  
   GUTTURALS.  DENTALS.  LABIALS.

2. NASALS, sonant . . . .  n

3. ASPIRATES, surd  . . . .  h

4. FRICATIVES, comprising
   1. Liquids, sonant . . . .  l, r
   2. Spirants, surd . . . .  s, f

5. MUTES, comprising
   1. Sonant Mutes . . . .  g, d, b
   2. Surd Mutes . . . .  c, k, q, t, p

NOTE 1.—Observe that the consonants are divided,
I. According to the organs chiefly employed in their production, into
   1. Gutturals—throat letters, also called Palatales;  
   2. Dentals—teeth letters, also called Linguals;  
   3. Labials—lip letters.
II. According to the manner in which they are uttered, into
   1. Sonants, or voiced letters;  
   2. Surds, or voiceless letters.

NOTE 2.—X = χ, and s = δ, are double consonants, formed by the union
   of a mute with the spirant s.

4. DIPHTHONGS are formed by the union of two vowels
   in one syllable.

NOTE.—The most common diphthongs are ae, oe, au, and eu.  Ei, oi,
   and uι are rare.

ROMAN METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.

5. VOWELS.—The vowel sounds are the following:

   1 With the sound of a in concord, linger.  It occurs before gutturals: congresus, meeting.
   2 The distinction between a sonant and a surd will be appreciated by observing the
difference between the sonant b and its corresponding surd p in such words as bad, pad.
   B is vocalized, p is not.
   3 X often represents the union of g and s, but in such cases g is probably first assimilat-
ed to c; see 30, 33, 1.
   4 Proper diphthongs were formed originally by the union of an open or medial vowel,
a, e, or o, with a close vowel, i or u, as ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou.  An improper diphthong
   was also formed by the union of the two close vowels, as un.  For the weakening of these
   original diphthongs, see 23, note.
   5 In this country three distinct methods are recognized in the pronunciation of Latin.
They are generally known as the Roman, the English, and the Continental Methods.
The researches of Corsen and others have revealed laws of phonetic change of great
value in tracing the history of Latin words.  Accordingly, whatever method of pronun-
ciation may be adopted for actual use in the class-room, the pupil should sooner or
later be made familiar with the leading features of the Roman Method, which is at least
an approximation to the ancient pronunciation of the language.
**ROMAN METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Long.</th>
<th>Short.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a like æ in feather: a'ria.</td>
<td>a like a in Cuba: a'-mæt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e &quot; e &quot; prey: e'-dæ.</td>
<td>e &quot; e &quot; net: re'-get.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i &quot; i &quot; machine: i'-ræ.</td>
<td>i &quot; i &quot; cigar: vi'-det.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o &quot; o &quot; old: o'-ræ.</td>
<td>o &quot; o &quot; obey: mo'-net.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u &quot; u &quot; rule: u'-næ.</td>
<td>u &quot; u &quot; full: su'-mæs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. A short vowel in a long syllable is pronounced short: sumt, u as in sum, su'-mæs. But see 16, note 2.

2. Y, found only in Greek words, is in sound intermediate between the Latin ë and u, similar to the French u and the German a: Ny'-a.

3. I preceded by an accented a, e, o, or y, and followed by another vowel, is a semivowel with the sound of y in yet (?): A-chá'-ta (A-ká'-yá).

4. U in qu, and generally in gu and u before a vowel, has the sound of w: quæ (kwæ), lin'-gua (lin'-gwæ), su'-sit (swæ'-sit).

6. DIPHTHONGS.—In diphthongs each vowel retains its own sound:

- ae (for ai) like the English ay (aye): mën'-sæ.
- au like ow in how: cow'-sa.
- oo (for oi) like oi in oin: föd'-dua.

1. Ei as in veil, eu with the sounds of e and u combined, and oi = oe, occur in a few words: dein, neu'-ter, proin.

7. CONSONANTS. — Most of the consonants are pronounced nearly as in English, but the following require special notice:

- o like k in king: o'-tæs (kay-lace), ci'-wi (kê-wê).
- g " g " get: ré'-gunt, ré'-tis, gé'-mæs.

---

1 The Latin vowels marked with the sign — are long in quantity, i.e., in the duration of the sound (16); those not marked are short in quantity; see 16, note 8.

2 Or ë like æ in mode, t like ô in me, and ë like oo in moon.

3 The short vowels can be only imperfectly represented by English equivalents. In theory they have the same sounds as the corresponding long vowels, but occupy only half as much time in utterance.

4 Observe the difference between the length or quantity of the vowel and the length or quantity of the syllable. Here the vowel u is short, but the syllable sumt is long; see 16, li. In syllables long irrespective of the length of the vowels contained in them, it is often difficult and sometimes absolutely impossible to determine the natural quantity of the vowels; but it is thought advisable to treat vowels as short in all situations where there are not good reasons for believing them to be long.

5 This is sometimes called the parasitic u, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant, and as being dependent upon it. See Pappion, p. 50; Pella, p. 388; Corasan, li, pp. 69, 70, and 85.

6 Combining the sounds of a and 4.

7 When pronounced as monosyllables in poetry (608, III.); otherwise as disyllables: de'-4n, pro'-4n.
ENGLISH METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.

I like y in yet: jü-stum (yoo-stum), jā-cet.
• s “ s “ son: sa-cer, so-ror, A-si-a.
• t “ t “ time: ti-mor, ti-tus, òc-ti-d.
• v “ w “ we: va-dum, vi-ci, vi-ti-um. ¹

Note.—Before s and t, ḍ has the sound of p: urbs, sub-ter, pronounced wrps, sup-ter. ² Ch has the sound of k: cho-rus (ko-rus).

8. SYLLABLES.—In dividing words into syllables,

1. Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs: mō-re, per-sud-dē, mēn-sae.

2. Join to each vowel as many of the consonants which precede it—one or more—as can be conveniently pronounced at the beginning of a word or syllable: ³ pa-der, pa-trēs, ge-ne-rī, do-mi-nus, nō-scit, si-stis, cla-us-strā, mēn-sa, bōl-lum, tem-plum, ēmp-tus. But—

3. Compound words must be separated into their component parts, if the first of these parts ends in a consonant: ab-ès, ob-i-re.

ENGLISH METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.⁴

9. VOWELS.—Vowels generally have their long or short English sounds.⁵

10. LONG SOUNDS.—Vowels have their long English sounds—a as in fate, ɵ in mete, i in pine, o in note, u in tube, y in type—in the following situations:

1. In final syllables ending in a vowel:
Se, si, ser'-vi, ser'-vo, cor'-nu, mi'-sy.

2. In all syllables, before a vowel or diphthong:
De'-us, de-o'-rum, de'-ae, di'-ē, ni'-hi-lum.⁶

¹ There is some uncertainty in regard to the sound of v. Corssen gives it at the beginning of a word the sound of the English v, in all other situations the sound of w.
² On Assimilation in Sound in this and similar cases, see p. 17, footnote 1.
³ By some grammarians any combination of consonants which can begin either a Latin or a Greek word is always joined to the following vowel, as o'-mės, t'-pēs. Roby, on the contrary, thinks that the Romans pronounced with each vowel as many of the following consonants as could be readily combined with it.
⁴ Scholars in different countries generally pronounce Latin substantially as they pronounce their own languages. Accordingly in England and in this country the English Method has in general prevailed, though of late the Roman pronunciation has gained favor in many quarters.
⁵ These sounds in Latin, as in English, are somewhat modified by the consonants which accompany them. Thus, before r, when final, or followed by another consonant, a, ɵ, and u are scarcely distinguishable, while o and ɘ are pronounced as in for, fort. Between qu and dr, or rt, ɘ approaches the sound of o: qua-r'tus, as in quarter.
⁶ In these rules no account is taken of the aspirate ʰ: hence the first ʰ in nēthium is treated as a vowel before another vowel; for the same reason, ch, pʰ, and th are treated as single mutes; thus th in Athos and Othrys.
3. In penultimate syllables before a single consonant, or before a mute followed by a liquid:

*Pa'-ter, pa'-tres, ho-no'-ris, A'-thos, O'-thys.*

4. In unaccented syllables, not final, before a single consonant, or before a mute followed by a liquid:

*Do-lo'-ris, cor'-po-ri, con'-su'-lis, a-gri'-c-o-la.*

1) **A** unaccented has the sound of a final in America: *men'-sa, a-cu'-sus, a-ma'-mus.*

2) **I** and **Y** unaccented, in any syllable except the first and last, generally have the short sound: *no'b'-i'-lis (no'b'-e'-lis), Am'-y'-cus (Am'-e'-cus).*

3) **I** preceded by an accented **A**, **E**, **O**, or **Y**, and followed by another vowel, is a semivowel with the sound of **Y** in *yet*: *A'-cha'-ia (A'-ka'-ya), Pomp-pe'-ius (Pom-pc'-e'-us), La-to'-ia (La-to'-ya), Har-py'-ia (Har-py'-ya).*

4) **U** has the short sound before **l**t, and the other vowels before **gl** and **dl**: *Pub-li'-o-la, Ag-la'-o-pho-n, Al'-las.*

5) **U** in *qu*, and generally in *gu* and *su* before a vowel, has the sound of **w**: *qui (kwI), gua; lin'-gua (lin'-gwa), lin'-guis; sud'-de-o (swa'-de-o).*

6) **Compound Words.**—When the first part of a compound is entire and ends in a consonant, any vowel before such consonant has generally the short sound: **a** in *ab'-es, e in red'-it, i in in'-it, o in ob'-it, prod'-est.* But those final syllables which, as exceptions, have the long sound before a consonant (11, 1), retain that sound in compounds: *post'-quam, hos'-ce.* *E'ti-am and quo'-ni-am are generally pronounced as simple words.*

11. **Short Sounds.**—Vowels have their short English sounds—**a** as in *fat, e in met, i in pin, o in not, u in tub, y in myth*—in the following situations:

1. In final syllables ending in a consonant:

*A'-mat, a'-met, rex'-it, sol, con'-sul, To'-thys; except post, ex final, and os final in plural cases: res, di'-es, hos, a'gros.*

2. In all syllables before **x**, or any two consonants except a mute followed by a liquid (10, 3 and 4):

*Res'-it, bel'-lum, rex'-e'-rum, bel-lo'-rum.*

---

1 Penultimate, the last syllable but one.
2 Some give the same sound to a final in monosyllables: *da, qua;* while others give it the long sound according to 10, 1.
3 Sometimes written *j.*
4 This is sometimes called the parasitical *u*, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant and as being dependent upon it. See Papillon, p. 50; Peile, p. 388; Colesen, I, pp. 69, 70, and 85.
5 *Etiam* is compounded of **et** and *quam; quoniam, of quom = quum, cum, and jam.*
3. In all accented syllables, not penultimate, before one or more consonants:

_Dom'i-nus, pat'ri-bus._ But—

1) A, e, or o before a single consonant (or a mute and a liquid), followed by e, i, or y before another vowel, has the long sound: a'-ci-es, a'cri-a, me're-o, do'ce-o.

2) U, in any syllable not final, before a single consonant or a mute and a liquid, except bl, has the long sound: Pu'-ni-cus, sa-lu-bris.

3) Compounds; see 10, 6.

12. DIPHTHONGS.—Diphthongs are pronounced as follows:

_Ae_ like _e_: Ca'-sar, Daed'-a-lus.\(^1\) | _Au_ as in author: au'-rum.
_Oe_ like _e_: Oe'-ta, Oed'-i-pus.\(^1\) | _Eu_ as in neuter: neu'-ter.

1. _Ei_ and _oi_ are seldom diphthongs, but when so used they are pronounced as in height, coin: hei, proin; see Syncaerisis, 669, III.

2. _Ui_, as a diphthong with the long sound of _i_, occurs in oui, huí, huíc.

13. CONSONANTS.—The consonants are pronounced in general as in English. Thus—

I. _C_ and _G_ are soft (like _s_ and _j_) before _e_, _i_, _y_, _ae_, and _oe_, and hard in other situations: ce-do (se-do), ci'-vis, Cy'-rus, cae'-do, coe'-pi, a'-ge (a'-je), a'-'gi; ca'-do (ka'-do), co'go, cum, Ga'-des. But

1. _C_ has the sound of _sh_—
   
   1) Before _i_ preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel: so'-ci-us (so'-she-us);
   
   2) Before _eu_ and _yo_ preceded by an accented syllable: ca-du'-ce-us (ca-du'-she-us), Sié'-y-on (Sish'-y-on).

2. _Ch_ is hard like _k_: cho'-rus (ko'-rus), Chi'-os (Ki'-os).

3. _G_ has the soft sound before _g_ soft: ag'-ger.

II. _S_, _T_, and _X_ are generally pronounced as in the English words _son_, time, expect: sa'-cer, ti'-mor, rex'-i (rek'-si). But—

1. _S_, _T_, and _X_ are aspirated before _i_ preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel—_s_ and _t_ taking the sound of _sh_, and _x_ that of _ksh_: Al'-si-um (Al'-she-um), ar'-ti-um (ar'-she-um), anx'-i-us (ank'-she-us). But

   1) _T_ loses the aspirate—(1) after _e_, _i_, or _o_: Oe'-li-a, At'-ti-us, mic'-ti-o; (3) in old infinitives in _ter_: flec'-ti-or; (3) generally in proper names in _ton_ (tyon): Phi-le'-ti-on, Am-pho'-ty-on.

---

\(^1\) The diphthong has the long sound in Caes'-sar and Oe'-ta, according to 10, 3, but the short sound in Daed'-a-lus (Ded'-a-lus) and Oed'-i-pus (Ed'-i-pus), according to 11, 3, as _e_ would be thus pronounced in the same situations.
CONTINENTAL METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.

2. *S* is pronounced like *s*—

1) At the end of a word, after *e, ae, au, o, m, n, r*: *spee*, *praes*, *laus*, *urbs*, *mē-ene*, *monē*, *pars*;

2) In a few words after the analogy of the corresponding English words: *Caesar*, *Caou-sea*, *cause*; *mu-sea*, *muse*; *mī-er*, *miser*, *miserable*, etc.

3. *X* at the beginning of a word has the sound of *s*: *Xan-thus*.

14. SYLLABLES.—In dividing words into syllables—

1. Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs: *mo-re*, *per-suā-de*, *men-ae*.

2. Distribute the consonants so as to give the proper sound to each vowel and diphthong, as determined by previous rules (10–13): *pa-ter*, *pa-trēs*, *a-grō-rum*, *au-di-vi*; *gen-i-ri*, *dom-i-nus*; *bēl-lum*, *pa-li-bus*; *emp'-tus*, *tem-plum*; *rex'-i*, *anx'-i-us*; *post-quam*, *ho-sē*.

CONTINENTAL METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.*

15. For the Continental Method, as adopted in this country, take—

1. The Roman pronunciation of the vowels and diphthongs; see 5 and 6.

2. The English pronunciation of the consonants; see 13.

3. The Roman division of words into syllables; see 8.

QUANTITY.

16. Syllables are in quantity or length either long, short, or common.†

1. LONG.—A syllable is long in quantity—

1. If it contains a diphthong or a long vowel: *haec*, *rēs*.‡

---

1 Observe that compound words are separated into their component parts, if the first of these parts ends in a consonant (10, 4, 6), as *poet'- quam*; that in other cases, after a vowel with a long sound, consonants are joined to the following syllable, as in the first four examples, *pa'-ter*, etc., and that, after a vowel with a short sound, a single consonant is joined to such vowel, as in *gen'-er* and *dom'-i-nus*; that two consonants are separated, as in *bēl-lum*, etc.; that of three or four consonants, the last, or, if a mute and a liquid, the last two, are joined to the following syllable, as in *emp'-tus*, etc., but that the double consonant *z* is joined to the preceding vowel, as in *rex'-i*, *anx'-i-us*.

2 Strictly speaking, there is no Continental Method, as every nation on the Continent of Europe has its own method.

3 Though the pronunciation of the consonants varies somewhat in different institutions.

4 Common—i.e., sometimes long and sometimes short. For rules of quantity see Prosody. Two or three leading facts are here given for the convenience of the learner.

5 See note 8 below.
ACCENTUATION.

2. If its vowel is followed by *j*, *x*, or *z*, or any two consonants, except a mute and a liquid: ¹ *dux*, *rēx*, *sunt.*²

II. Short.—A syllable is short, if its vowel is followed by another vowel, by a diphthong, or by the aspirate *h*: *dī'-ēs*, *vi'-'ae*, *ni'-hil.*

III. Common.—A syllable is common, if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid: *a'-grī.*

Note 1.—Vowels are also in quantity either long, short, or common; but the quantity of the vowel does not always coincide with the quantity of the syllable.³

Note 2.—Vowels are long before *ne* and *nf*, generally also before *gn* and *j*: *cōn'-sul*, *in-fē'-īx*, *ref'-num*, *hū'-jus.*⁴

Note 3.—The signs ‘⁻’ are used to mark the quantity of vowels, the first denoting that the vowel over which it is placed is long, the second that it is common, i. e., sometimes long and sometimes short: *a-mē'-bb.* All vowels not marked are to be treated as short.⁶

Note 4.—Diphthongs are always long.

ACCENTUATION.*

.17. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first: *mēn'-sa.*

Note.—Monoyllables are also accented.

18. Words of more than two syllables are accented on

¹ That is, in the order here given, with the mute before the liquid; if the liquid precedes, the syllable is long.
² Observe that the vowel in such syllables may be either long or short. Thus it is long in *rēx*, but short in *dux* and *sunt.*
³ Thus in long syllables the vowels may be either long or short, as in *rēx*, *deox*, *sunt*; see foot-note 4, p. 4. But in short syllables the vowels are also short.
⁵ See p. 4, foot-note 4. In many works short vowels are marked with the sign ‘⁻’.
⁶ With the ancient Romans accent probably related not to force or stress of voice, as with us, but to musical pitch. It was also distinguished as acute or circumflex. Thus all monoyllables and all words in which the vowel of the penult is long and the final syllable short were said to have the circumflex accent, while all other accented words were said to have the acute. The distinction is of no practical value in pronunciation. On the general subject of Accent, see Ellis, pp. 8–10; Roby, I., pp. 98–100; Kühner, I., p. 148; Corssen, II., pp. 506–508.
PHONETIC CHANGES.

the Penult,\(^1\) if that is long in quantity,\(^9\) otherwise on the Antepenult: \(^1\) ho-nō'-ris, cōn'-su-lis.

1. Certain words which have lost a syllable retain the accent of the full form. Thus—

1) Genitivs in \(i\) for \(e\) and vocatives in \(i\) for \(ie\): insē'-ni for insē'-ni-i, Mer-cu'-ri for Mer-cu'-ri-e.

2) Certain words which have lost a final \(e\): ilidī' for ilidī'-ce, ilidā' for ilidā'-ce, isidī' for isidī'-ce, etc.; bo-nān' for bo-nā'-ne, il-lān' for il-lā'-ne, tan-tōn' for tan-tō'-ne, au-din' for au-dī'-ne, o-dūc' for o-dū'-ce.\(^2\)

**Norm 1.**—Prepositions standing before their cases are treated as Proclitics—i.e., are so closely united in pronunciation with the following word as to have no accent of their own: sub jā'-di-ce, in-ter rē'-qēs.

**Norm 2.**—Penults common in quantity take the accent when used as long.

2. Compounds are accented like simple words; but—

1) The enclitics, que, ve, ne, ce, met, etc., throw back their accents upon the last syllable of the word to which they are appended: ho'-mi-ne'-que,\(^4\) mēn-sa'-que,\(^6\) e-go'-met.

2) Facē, compounded with other words than prepositions, retains its own accent: ca-le-fa'-cit.\(^4\)

3. A secondary or subordinate accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the primary accent—on the second, if that is the first syllable of the word, or is long in quantity, otherwise on the third: mo'-nu-ē-runt, mo'-nu-e-rā'-mus,\(^6\) in-stau'-rā-wē'-runt.

**Norm.**—A few long words admit two secondary or subordinate accents: ho'-nō-rīs'-i con-tīs'-si-mus.\(^6\)

PHONETIC CHANGES.

19. Latin words have undergone important changes in accordance with phonetic laws.\(^7\)

---
\(^1\) The penult is the last syllable but one; the antepenult, the last but two.
\(^2\) Thus the quantity of the syllable, not of the conel, determines the place of the accent: regen'-tis, accented on the penult, because that syllable is long, though its conel is short; see 16, 1, 2.
\(^3\) According to Priscian, certain contracted words, as ves-ērā'-s, ves-ērā'-s, with the circumflex accent, ves-ērā'-s, Sam-nēs for Sam-nē-s, also retained the accent of the full form; but it is not deemed advisable to multiply exceptions in a school grammar. See Priscian, IV., 22.
\(^4\) By the English method, hom'-i-ne'-que, ca-l'-e-fa'-cit.
\(^5\) A word accented upon the penult thus loses its own accent before an enclitic: mēn-sa, mēn-sa'-que.
\(^6\) By the English method, mon'-u-ē-runt, mon'-u-e-rā'-mus, hom'-ī-rīs'-i con-tīs'-si-mus.
\(^7\) In the history of the ancient languages of the Indo-European family, to which the Latin, Greek, and English alike belong, the general direction of phonetic change has been from the extremes of the alphabetic scale—i.e., from the open a at one extreme and
PHONETIC CHANGES.

I. CHANGES IN VOWELS.

20. Vowels are often lengthened:

1. In compensation for the dropping of consonants:

_servōns, slaves;_ regem, reges, kings; posnō, pond, I place; magi-

2. In the inflection of verbs:

Legō, legi, I read; edō, edi, I eat, I have eaten; fugō, fugi,

21. Vowels are often shortened:

1. Regularly in final syllables before m and t:

Erām, eram, I was; monēm, monem, let me advise; audīam, audiam,

2. Often in other final syllables. Thus—

1) Final ā is shortened (1) in the Plural of Neuter nouns and adjectives, and (2) in the Nominative and Vocative Singular of Feminine nouns and adjectives of the first declension:

from the close mutes at the other—toward the middle of the scale, where the vowels and consonants meet; see 3. Accordingly, in Latin words we shall not unfrequently find e or o, or even ē or u, occupying the place of a primitive a; and we shall sometimes find a iquīd or a fricative occupying the place of a primitivus mutes. See Whitney, p. 68; Papillon, p. 49; Pelle, pp. 199 and 319.

1 O short in servōns is lengthened in servōs to compensate for the loss of m, and a short in magiōr is lengthened in māior, māior, to compensate for the loss of g.

2 The short vowel of the present tense is here lengthened in the perfect; see 255, II.

3 In ducīs, ducīs, and in regīs, régis, the variation is simply in the quantity of the vowel, but in tegō, tegā, the vowel itself is changed, appearing as e in tegō and o in tegā. Sometimes a single vowel appears in one form while a diphthong appears in another: fides, fides, foedus, treaty.

4 See Corssen, II., p. 438 seq.

5 In all these examples, the form with the long vowel in the final syllable is the earlier form, and, in general, is found only in inscriptions and in the early poets, as Plautus, Ennius, etc.; while the form with the short vowel belongs to the classical period.

6 Corssen regards numerals in -pinā, as tri-pinā, quadrā-pinā, etc., as Plural Neuters, and ē as the original ending. He recognizes also the Neuter Plural of the pronoun with d in antēdō, postēdō, interēdō, praeterēdō, ante-hādō, praeter-hādō. See Corssen, II., p. 455. For a different explanation, see 304, IV., N. 2.

7 In masculine nouns of the first declension α final was short in the Nominative even in early Latin: sertō, a scribe. But most stems in α weakened α to o, and thus passed into the second declension.
PHONETIC CHANGES.

Templā, templae, temples; genera, genera, kinds; gravā, gravia, heavy; māsē, māsa, muse; bonā, bona, good.

2) In ēr, ēr, and ēl final, ē and ē are regularly shortened:
Regār, regar, let me be ruled; audīr, audiar, let me be heard; audiōr, audiōr, I am heard; honōr, honor, honor; orātōr, orātōr, orator; monēr, monēr, I am advised; animāle, animal (27), animal, an animal.

3) Final ē, ī, and ē are sometimes shortened:
Bene, bene, well; nāde, nābe, with a cloud; nisi, nisi, unless; ībi, ībī, there; leē, leē, a lion; ego, ego, I.

22. Vowels are often weakened, i.e., are often changed to weaker vowels.¹

The order of the vowels, from the strongest to the weakest, is as follows:

a, o, u, e, i

Thus a is changed to o . . . u . . . e . . . i.

o to u . . . e . . . i.

u to e . . . i.

e to i.

Norm.—The change from a through o to u is usually arrested at u, while a is often changed directly through e to i without passing through o or u.²

1. Vowels are often weakened in consequence of the lengthening of words by inflection, composition, etc.:

Carmen, carmenis, carminis, a song; fructus, fructibus, fructībus, fruit, with fruits; faciō, con-faciō, con-ficiō, I make, I accomplish; factus, in-factus, in-factus, made, not made; damnō, con-damnō, condemnō, I doom, I condemn; tenē, con-tenē, con-tenēb, I hold, I contain; cadō, con-cadē, con-cidē, I fall, I have fallen; tuba, tuba-caen, tubi-caen, a flute, a flute-player.

¹ See Corssen, II., pp. 1-436. The process by which vowels are shortened (21), weakened, or dropped (27), and by which diphthongs are weakened to single vowels, and consonants assimilated, or otherwise changed, is generally known as PHONETIC DECAY. It may result from indistinct articulation, or from an effort to secure ease of utterance. For a difficult sound, or combination of sounds, it substitutes one which requires less physical effort.

² But u, a, and e differ so slightly in strength that they appear at times to be simply interchanged.

³ That is, the open a is changed either to the close u through the medial o, as seen on the right side of the following vowel-triangle, or to the close e through the medial a, as seen on the left side:

Open vowel . . . . . . . . . a
Medial vowels . . . . . e o
Close vowels . . . . . . . . . i u

⁴ The syllable men was originally mans. The original a has been weakened to e in carmen and to i in carmen-is.
PHONETIC CHANGES.

2. Vowels are often weakened without any such special cause: 1

Puerom, puerum, a boy; filios, filius, son; sunt, sunt, they are; regunt, regunt, they rule; decemus, decimus, tenth; maximus, maximus, greatest; legitimus, legitimus, lawful; aestum, aestim, I estimate.

23. Two successive vowels are sometimes contracted:
1. Into a dipthong: mēnsē, mēnsae, tables; see 4.
2. More generally into a long vowel. In this case the second vowel

disappears. Thus e and i often disappear after a, e, and o:

Amārat, amaerat, amārat, he had loved; amāisse, amaisse, amāse, to have loved; stārunt, stārunt, stārunt, they have wept; nōvisse, nōisse, nōsse, to know; servō, servō, for the slave.

Note.—The proper diphthongs of early Latin were changed or weakened as follows:

ai generally into ae; sometimes into ō or ĩ.
oi generally into oe; sometimes into ō or ĩ.
ei generally into ī; sometimes unchanged.
au sometimes into ō or ā; generally unchanged.
eu generally into ū; rarely unchanged.
ou regularly into ū.

Aidīlis, aestilis, an aedile; Rōmāi, Rōmae, at Rome; amainus, amāmus, let us love; in-caeō, in-cidē, he cuts into; mēnāis, mēnaĭs, with tables; fōidēs, fōedēs, treaty; coīra, coēra, care, care; lōidos, lōedēs, lūdēs, play; puēris, puēris, for the boys; cēvis, cīvis, citizen; lautus, lōtus, elegant; ex-claudē, ex-claudĭ, I shut out; doucit, dōcit, he leads; jōvēs, jōsēs, right.

24. Vowels are sometimes changed through the influence of the consonants which follow them. Thus—

1 That is, by the ordinary process of phonetic decay, a process which in many words has changed an original a of the parent language to e or o in Latin, and in some words to ā or u. Gesenius cites upward of four hundred Latin words in which he supposes a primitive a to have been weakened to o, e, or ā. Even the long vowels are sometimes weakened. Compare the following forms, in which the Sanskrit retains the vowel of the parent language.

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<td>daça.</td>
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<td>vācas.</td>
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<td>of a voice.</td>
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2 The forms ai, ei, ou, au, eu, and ou are all found in early Latin, as in inscriptions; but in the classical period ai had been already changed to ae, ei to eo, and ou to ē.

3 Lōidos, the earliest form, became loëdēs by weakening of to ae, and o to ē (23, 1); then loëdēs became lādēs by weakening of to ē.

4 Lautus, the earlier, is also the more approved form.

5 As eu and ou were both weakened to ē, it is not easy to give trustworthy examples of the weakening of eu to ē.
PHONETIC CHANGES.

1. E is the favorite vowel before r, z, or two or more consonants:

Cinīsīs, cinēris (31), of ashes; fādīr, fāder, judge; militēs, milēs, mīles, a soldier, a soldier.

Note.—E final is also a favorite vowel: servō, servē, O slave; monērīs, monērē, you are advised; māri, māre, sea.

2. I is the favorite vowel before a, e, and i:

Hominis, hominis, of a man; pūsēr or pūlīs, dust; salātēs, salātīs, of safety; vērōlēs, vērōlīs, truth; genētor, genētor, father.

3. U is the favorite vowel before i and m, especially when followed by another consonant:

Epīstolēs, epīstolēs, letter; volē, vult, he wishes; facīlīs, facīlīs (27), facīlīs, faculty; monēmentum, monumentum, monument; colōmens, colūmens, column.

25. ASSIMILATION.—A vowel is often assimilated by a following vowel. Thus—

1. A vowel before another vowel is often partially assimilated. I is thus changed to e before a, o, or u: ēsa, astra, this; ēsī, ēsi, I go; ēunt, eunt, they go; ēadem, ēadem, same; dīvus, dīvēs (36, 8), dīvē, god.

Note.—When the first vowel is thus adapted to the second, the assimilation is said to be progressive, but sometimes the second vowel is adapted to the first, and then the assimilation is regressive. Thus the ending īd (31, 2), instead of becoming ca as above, may become ād: tāvūrid (perhaps for lāvūridēs), lāvūridēs, luxury; māterīs, māterīs, material.

2. A vowel may be completely assimilated by the vowel of the following syllable from which it is separated by a consonant. Thus—

1) E is assimilated to i: mēhi, mēhi, for me; tebē, tebē, for you; sebē, sēbē, for himself; nēhi, nēhi, nothing.

2) U is assimilated to i: cónsulīum, cónsulīum, counsel; exīlium, exīlium, exile.

3) Other vowels are sometimes assimilated; o to e: bone, benē, bēnes (21, 2), well; e to u: tegurium, tegurium, hut; ē to ā: acōre, acōre, stupid.

26. DISSIMILATION.—A vowel is often changed by dissimulation,

1 Cinīsīs, from cinīsī, becomes cinēris by changing s to r between two vowels, making cinēris (31, 1), and by then changing t to e before r.

2 Observe that the vowel which appears as i in militēs before t, takes the form of a in militēs before ts, as also in miles for milīts.

3 Monērīs becomes monērē by dropping s (36, 5), and changing final t to e.

4 Observe that the form in r has a, while that in s has ē.

5 That is, it is made like it, adapted to it, but does not become identical with it. Thus i before a may be changed to a, but not to ë.

6 Thus from nouns in ēd of the first declension were developed nearly all nouns in ēd of the fifth.
PHONETIC CHANGES.

15

i. e., by being made unlike the following vowel: ʹi, ʹči, these; ʹiša, ʹčiša, for these.¹

Not. — The combination ʹiš is sometimes avoided by the use of $e$ in place of the second ʹi: pietas instead of pītēs, pleyth; sociēs, society; varēsē, variety.

27. Vowels are often dropped in the middle or at the end of words, sometimes even at the beginning:

Templum, templum, temple; vinculum, vīnculum, band; benignus, benigneus,² benignant; amād, amā, I love; templā, templā, temples; animālē, animālē, an animal; si-ne, sin, if not; dice, dic, say; eum, eum, I am; eumus, eumus, we are.

Not. — After a word ending in a vowel or in $e$, he is, often drops the initial $e$ and becomes attached to the preceding word: rēs optūma est, rēs optūmā, the thing is best; optūmum est, optūmum, it is best; domē est, domēst, he is at home. In the same way $e$, thou art, is sometimes attached to the preceding word, when that word ends in a vowel: homē est, homēs, you are a man. For the loss of a final $e$ from the preceding word, see 36, 5, 1, note.

II. INTERCHANGE OF VOWELS AND CONSONANTS.

28. The vowel ʹi and the consonant ʹi — also written ʹj — are sometimes interchanged:

Altīor,³ higher; majīor, mājīor or mājor, greater; ĵpūs, of himself; ţius or ţjus, of him.

29. The vowel ʹu and the consonant ʹu — generally written ʹv — are often interchanged:

Col-ŭv,⁴ I have cultivated; vocd-ve,⁵ I have called; nāvīta, nāvīta, nauta, sailor; volvēs, volvēs, rolled; lāvtus, lāvtus or lōvus,⁶ washed; movtus, movtus, moved.

Not. — The Liquids and Nasals are sometimes so fully vocalized as to develop vowels

¹ The combination ʹus was also avoided in early Latin either by retaining the second vowel in the form of $o$, instead of weakening it to $u$, or by changing $qu$ to $o$: equōs, afterward equs, a horse; quom, or cum, afterward, though not properly in classical times, quum, when. Observe that when $o$ becomes $u$, a preceding $qu$ becomes $o$: quom, cum; logūm, locūtus, having spoken. See Brambach, p. 6.

² See 16, note 2.

³ Observe that after $e$ is dropped, $i$ is shortened in the final syllable: animāl, ani-

⁴ In the comparative ending lor, as seen in altīor, ʹi is a vowel, but in the same ending, as seen in mājor, major, it is a consonant, and in this grammar is generally written ʹj. I thus becomes ʹj between two vowels; see 3, 4, foot-note. So in the genitive ending ʹi, ʹi is sometimes a vowel and sometimes a consonant.

⁵ The ending which appears as ʹi in col-ŭv becomes ʹi in vocd-ve. ʹU becomes ʹv between two vowels.

⁶ If a vowel precedes the ʹv thus changed to ʹu, a contraction takes place — $a-u$ becoming ʹau, rarely ʹo, $o-u$ becoming ʹō, and $u-u$ becoming ʹō: lāvtus, lāvtus, lōvus, washed; movtus, movtus, moved; jūtus, jūtus, jītus, assisted.
PHONETIC CHANGES.

before them. Thus agr (for agrus) becomes ager, field; dec (for doric), deor, sharp; regem, regem, king; em (for sem), sum, I am; est (for sent), sum, they are.

III. CHANGES IN CONSONANTS.

30. A Guttural—o, a, q (qu), or h—before s generally unites with it and forms x:

Duas, dux, leader; pas, paz, peace; regis, reca, rex, king; leges, loci, lex, law; coquis, coesi, coxi, I have cooked; trahis, tracci, traci, I have drawn.

Notes 1. V for qu in eieci, I live, is treated as a guttural: eieci, eieci, eieci, I have lived.

Notes 2. For the Dropping of the Guttural before s, see 36, 3.

31. S is often changed to x:

1. Generally so when it stands between two vowels: floes, florae, flowers; jusa, jura, rights; mensaeum, mensarium, of tables; agrorum, agrorum, of fields; exam, eram, I was; examus, erimus, we were; fuemus, fuerunt, they have been; fuesit, fuerit, he will have been; amasit, amaret, he would love; regis, regeris, you are ruled.

2. Often at the end of words: honis, honor, honor; robos, robus, robur, strength; puerus, puerus, puer, boy; regitus, regitur, regitur, he is ruled.

3. Sometimes before m, n, or v: casmen, carmen, song; veternus, veternus, old; hodie, hodie, of this day; Minerva, Minerva, the goddess Minerva.

32. D is sometimes changed to l:

Dacrima, lacrima, tear; dixua, lingua, language; odere, olere, to emit an odor.

Notes 1. D final sometimes stands in the place of an original t: id, this; itut, that; illum, what, which?

Notes 2. Do at the beginning of a word (1) sometimes becomes b: dulium, belium, war; deis, bis, twice; (2) sometimes drops d: decipit, dicipit, twenty; and (3) sometimes drops v: decis, dies, inseparable particle (308), in two, assured.

33. PARTIAL ASSIMILATION.—A consonant is often partially assimilated by a following consonant. Thus—

1. This occurs between consonants and at the end of words after consonants.
2. The ending us or is is dropped (36, 5, 9), note), and r final vocalized to or; m becomes em in regem, and sum in sum; n becomes us in sum.
3. Sometimes gu: extinguui, extinguui, extinguuit, I have extinguished.
4. For an original qa.
5. The process seems to be that the guttural before s first becomes c, and then unites with s and forms x: thus in coquus, qu becomes c.
6. Observe that s before s becomes c before r; see 24.
7. Here s was probably changed to r before the final vowel was dropped.
8. Literally, he rules himself.
9. For si, situt, etc. D stands for t also in the old Ablative in d: præsētā for præsētā, afterward præsētā, with booty; magistrātīd for magistrātīt, magistrātū, from the magistracy.
10. That is, it is adapted or accommodated to it, but does not become the same letter.
PHONETIC CHANGES.

1. Before the surd s or t, a sonant b or g is generally changed to its corresponding surd, p⁴ or c:

Scribi, scripsi, I have written; scriptus, scripturus, written; regi, reci, reti (30), I have ruled; regius, rectus, ruled. See also 35, 3, note.

Note.—Qu, h for gh, and v for uv are also changed to c before s and t: coquett,⁵ covet, covet, he has cooked; coquus, coactus, cooked; tractet,⁶ tracctet, tractit, he has drawn; tractus, tractus, drawn; vicit,⁷ viciit, vixit, he has lived; victurus, victarius, about to live.

2. Before a sonant l, m, n, or r, a surd c, p, or t is generally changed to its corresponding sonant, g, b, or d:

Nelego, neglego, I neglect; sec-mentum, segmentum, a cutting; poplicus,⁸ poplicus, publicus,⁹ public; quadra,¹ quadra, a square; quadrāgintā, quadrāgintā, forty.

3. Before a Labial p or b, n is generally changed to m:¹⁰

Inperō, imperō, I command; imperātor, imperātor, commander; imbēlis, imbēlis, unwarlike.

Note.—Before m, a Labial p or b is changed to m in a few words: sopnus, sumnus, sleep; Samnium, Samnium, the country of the Samnites.

4. M is changed to n—

1) Regularly before a Dental Mute:

Eundem, eundem, the same; oreundem, oreundem, of the same; quendam, quendam, a certain one; tamēs, tantēs, so great; quantēs, quantēs, how great, as great.

2) Often before a Guttural Mute:

Hunc, hunc, this; num-ces, nunc,¹¹ now; prim-ces, prīnceps, first; nīmquam or nānquam, never; quamquam or quamquam, although.

¹ But d is generally retained (1) before s in nouns in ds: urbs, not urpse, city, and in ads, from; and (2) before s and t in a, on account of, and sub, under, in compounds and derivatives: ob-serdins, observant; ob-tīsus, obtuse; sub-serdīd, I subscribe; sub-ter, under. In these cases, however, d takes the sound of p, so that assimilation takes place in pronunciation, though not in writing. It is probable also that in some other consonants assimilation was observed even when omitted in writing: imprimis and imprimis, both pronounced imprimis. See Roby, I, p. lvii.; Munro, p. 10.

¹ Qu, also written ge, is not a syllable; nor is w or v in this combination either a vowel or a consonant, but simply a parasitic sound developed by q, which is never found without it.

⁴ For tragheti; h is dropped, and g assimilated to c.
⁵ For geteessi; the first g and the second v are dropped: egest, ecest, exst.
⁶ From populus, the people.
⁷ P is changed to d, and c is weakened to u; see 22.
⁸ From quaetum, four.
⁹ That is, the dental n becomes the labial m.
¹⁰ “Or” placed between two forms denotes that both are in good use: nānquam or nānquam. In other cases the last is the only approved form: nunc, prīnceps.
PHONETIC CHANGES.

Norm 1.—Before the ending -que, m is generally retained: ¹ quioumque, whoever; quemque, every one; namque, for indeed.
Norm 2.—Quwm-tam or quwm-jam becomes quoniam, since.

34. A consonant is often completely assimilated by a following consonant. Thus—

1. T or d is often assimilated before n or s:
   Petna, penna, feather; mercedarius, mercedarius, mercenary; concussit, concussit, he has shaken.

Norm.—M before s is sometimes assimilated, and sometimes develops p:
   promeit, promet, he has pressed; simeit, simet, he has taken.

2. D, n, or r is often assimilated before l:
   Sedula, sedla (27), sella, seat; unulus, unlus (27), allus, any; puerula, puelia, pueula, girl.

3. B, g, or n is often assimilated before m:
   Sub-moved or sum-moved, I remove; supnum, summus, highest; flagma, flamme, flame; immotus or immotus, unmoved.

Note.—For Assimilation in Prepositions in Composition, see 344, 5.

35. DISSIPATION.—The meeting of consonants too closely related and the recurrence of the same consonant in successive syllables are sometimes avoided by changing one of the consonants. Thus—

1. Caeruleus becomes caeruleus, azure; meditiis, meridiis, midday.

2. Certain suffixes of derivation have two forms, one with r to be used after l, and one with l to be used after r: ² aris, dis; burum, brum; ³ bulum; ⁴ curum, crum, culum:
   Populāris, popular; regālis, kingly; delābrum, shrine; tribulum, threshing-sledge; sepulcrum, sepulchre; periculum, peril.

3. A Dental Mute—d or t—may unite with a following t in two ways:
   1) Dt or tt may become st: ⁵
      Edt, est, he eats; rōdtrum, rōtrum, a beak; equetris, equetries, equestrian.
   2) Dt or tt may become ss or s: ⁶
      Pudus, fōsus, dug; victus, vies, seen; plaudus, plausus, praised; metus, mesus, reaped; vertus, versus, turned.

¹ But probably with the sound of n; see p. 17, footnote 1.
² This distinction is, however, not always observed. The form with l, probably weakened from that with r, became the favorite form, and was generally used if l did not precede.
³ From burum are formed (1) brum by dropping u, and (2) bulum by weakening r into l. In the same way crum and culum are formed from bierum.
⁴ In populāris, aris is used because l precedes; but in regālis, dis is used because r precedes. When neither t nor r precedes, the weakened form dis is used.
⁵ Here d or t is changed to s by Dissimilation.
⁶ In regard to the exact process by which dt or tt becomes ss or s, there is a diversity of opinion among philologists. See Papillon, p. 75; Roby, p. 62; Corssen, I., p. 208.
PHONETIC CHANGES.

Noms. — Let may become is; 1 vid, re; 2 ill, las; 3 and rrt, re: 4 mulgus, muluus, milked; espargus, esparus, scattered; falsus, falsus, false; certus, corrus, swept.

36. OMISSION. — Consonants are sometimes dropped. Thus—

1. Some words which originally began with two consonants have dropped the first:
   Clâmentum, lâmentum, lamentation; gnâtus, nàtus, born; gnòtus, nòtus, known; doviginti, viginti, twenty; quattuor, quattuor, he deceives.

2. A Dental Mute—d or t—before s is generally dropped:
   Lapis, lapis, stone; aetâs, aetâs, age; mile, miles, soldier; clausi, clausi, I have closed.

Norns. — D is occasionally dropped before other consonants: hâd-os, hâd, hâc, this; quad-circa, quocirca, for which reason: ad-gnôsco, ignôsco, I recognize.

3. A Guttural Mute—c, g, or q (qu)—is generally dropped—
   1) Between a Liquid and s:
      Mulcis, multis, he has appealed; fulcis, fulcis, it has lightened.
   2) Between a Liquid and t:
      Fulcis, fulcis, propped; sacris, sartus, repaired.
   3) Between a Liquid and m:
      Fulmen, fulmen, lightning; tormentum, tormentum, engine for hurling missiles.

Norn 1.—A Guttural Mute is occasionally dropped in other situations. Thus—

1. C before m or n: lâmen, lâmen, light; lâna, lâna, moon.
   2. C between s and d or t: quintus, quintus, fifth; quindecim, quindecim, fifteen.

   3. G before m or r: 6 saxagmen, saxâmen (20, 1), a swarm; jugâmentum, jâmentum, beast of burden; magnûs, magnûs, he prefers; brevis, brevis, short.

   Norn 2.—X is sometimes dropped: sexdecim, sexâcim (20, 1), sixteen; sectâs, sectâs, six each; tactûs, tactûs, a web; axûs, axûs, a wing.

   Norn 3.—N, r, and s are sometimes dropped: in-gnôsco, ignôsco, unknown; formûs, formûs, beautiful; quôs, how often; decûs, decûs, ten

1 T is changed to s, and g is dropped.
2 T is changed to s, and one l is dropped in ùl, and one r in rrt.
3 Compare clâmâ, I cry out.
4 Seen in t-móitus, ignóitus, unknown.
5 Probably first assimilated and then dropped: lapid, lapis, lapis. But the dental is sometimes assimilated and retained: óstè, óstè, I have yielded: conconcussi, concussi, he has shaken.
6 O lengthened in compensation; see 20, 1.
7 Secundus becomes Sextus, a proper name; secundus, secundus, six hundred; and mixtus, mixtus, mixed, by dropping the mute contained in the double consonant s.
8 G has also been dropped in illis for apid, I say; major for major, greater, etc.
9 In numerals it is sometimes dropped: ductus, ductus, two hundred each; viginti-simus or vicent-simus, vigintius or vicentius, twentieth.
10 So in all numeral adverbs in ùsâ, ùsê. The approved ending in most numeral
PHONETIC CHANGES.

times; mulier-bris, multisbris, womanly; prōrea, prōea, prose; tēdem, idem, same; jās-dea, jādea, judge; audı̂sne, audı̂ne, audı̂n, do you hear? vįene, vįne, vįne, do you wish?

4. A Semivowel—J or V, also written L or U—is often dropped:

Bi-jugae, biugae, bigae, chariot with two horses; quadri-jugae, quadrīgæs, chariot with four horses; con-junctus, co-junctus, conjunctus, the whole; abiciō or abiciō, I throw away; diāvisor, diūtor, diūtor, richer; nevolō, necī̂ō, nōlī̂, I am unwilling; amāverat, amāserat, amārāt, he had loved.

Note.—Separate words are sometimes united after the loss of O: sī etsi, sīte, etsi, if you wish; si utsie, sūlīs, sūlīs, if you wish.

5. Final consonants are often dropped. Thus—

1) Final s is often dropped:

Monēs, monère (24, 1, note), you are advised; illus, illu, ille, that; itēs, itēs, itē, that of yours; ἵππος, ἵππος, ἵππος, self, he; pāricidēs, pāricidēs, pāricidēs, more; sīve, sīve, whether, lit., if you wish.

Note.—In the early poets es, thou art, and est, he is, after having dropped the initial s, sometimes become attached to the preceding word, which has lost its final s: serēs es, serēs, you feared; tempus est, tempēst, it is time; virtūs est, virtūst, it is virtue. See 27, note.

2) A final d or t is often dropped:

Cord, cor, heart; praeād, praēdā, with booty; intrād, intrā, within; faciāmēd, most easily; vēnīrunt, vēnīre, they have come; rēcārunt, rēcēre, they have ruled.

Note.—Sometimes both a vowel and a consonant disappear at the end of a word: puerus, puer, boy (51, 2, 4); deīnde or deīn, thereupon; athēum or athēi, nothing.

3) A final n³ is generally dropped in the Nominative Singular from stems in ON:

Leōn, leō, lion; praeōn, praeō, robber; homōn, homō, man.

adverbs is si, but in those formed from indefinite numerals, as tot, quot, it is tēs: totiēs, quotiēs.

1 This is the approved form in verbs compounded of fasō and monosyllabic prepositions; but abiciō is pronounced as if written abiciō or abiciō, i.e., s = š, pronounced ye by the Roman method. The syllable sō thus remains long.

2 Several adverbial forms were produced by the loss of s with the attendant changes: resonor, resorēs, rērēs, back; suæcōrēs, suæcōrum, suæcōrum, suæcōrum, from below, on high.

3 In early inscriptions proper names in oe, afterward u, occur without the s as often as with it: Rōcticus, Rōcticus; Gabinus, Gabinus.

4 This form actually occurs in early Latin.

5 The Ablative singular ended anciently in d, originally s. Many prepositions and adverbs in d and s are ablatives in origin, and accordingly ended in d.

6 Written with one t, afterward with two.

7 Here final s was first dropped, then n, having become final, also disappeared, and at last final u was weakened to s; see 24, 1, note.

8 In early inscriptions final m is often dropped.
ETYMOLOGY.

PART SECOND.

ETYMOLOGY.

37. ETYMOLOGY treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.

38. The Parts of Speech are—Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

39. A Noun or Substantive is a name, as of a person, place, or thing: Cicerō, Cicero; Rōma, Rome; domus, house.

1. A Proper Noun is a proper name, as of a person or place: Cicerō; Rōma.

2. A Common Noun is a name common to all the members of a class of objects: vir, man; equus, horse. Common nouns include—

1) Collective Nouns, designating a collection of objects: populus, people; exercitus, army.

2) Abstract Nouns, designating properties or qualities: virtūs, virtue; justitia, justice.

3) Material Nouns, designating materials as such: aurum, gold; lignum, wood; aqua, water.

40. Nouns have Gender, Number, Person, and Case.

I. GENDER.

41. There are three genders¹—Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

Note.—In some nouns gender is determined by signification; in others, by endings.

¹ In English, Gender denotes sex. Accordingly, masculine nouns denote males; feminine nouns, females; and neuter nouns, objects which are neither male nor female. In Latin, however, this natural distinction of gender is applied only to the names of males and females; while, in all other nouns, gender depends upon an artificial distinction according to grammatical rules.
42. General Rules for Gender.

I. Masculines.
1. Names of Males: Cicerō; vir, man; rēx, king.

II. Feminines.
1. Names of Females: mulier, woman; leaena, lioness.
2. Names of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees: Graecia, Greece; Rōma, Rome; Dēlos, Delos; pīrus, pear-tree.

Note.—Indeclinable nouns,\(^1\) infinitives, and all clauses used as nouns are neuter: alpha, the letter α.\(^2\) See also 532.

43. Remarks on Gender.

1. Exceptions.—The endings\(^3\) of nouns sometimes give them a gender at variance with these rules. Thus, some names of rivers, countries, towns, islands, trees, and animals take the gender of their endings; see 53, 1.

2. Masculine or Feminine.—A few personal appellatives applicable to both sexes and a few names of animals are sometimes masculine and sometimes feminine, but when used without distinct reference to sex they are generally masculine: civis, citizen (man or woman); bōs, ox, cow.

3. Epicene Nouns apply only to the inferior animals. They are used for both sexes, but have only one gender, and that is usually determined by their endings: anser, goose, masculine; aquila, eagle, feminine.

II. Person and Number.

44. The Latin, like the English, has three persons and two numbers. The first person denotes the speaker; the second, the person spoken to; the third, the person spoken of. The singular number denotes one, the plural more than one.

III. Cases\(^4\).

45. The Latin has six cases:

---

\(^1\) Except names of persons.

\(^2\) See 138, 1.

\(^3\) Gender as determined by the endings of nouns will be noticed in connection with the several declensions.

\(^4\) The case of a noun shows the relation which that noun sustains to other words; as, John's book. Here the possessive case (John's) shows that John sustains to the book the relation of possessor.
DECLENSION.

NAMES.  ENGLISH EQUIVALENTS.
Nominative, Nominative.
Genitive, Possessive, or Objective with of.
Dative, Objective with to or for.
Accusative, Objective.
Vocative, Nominative Independent.
Ablative, Objective with from, with, by, in.

1. OBlique CASES.—The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called the Oblique Cases.

2. LOCATIVE.—The Latin has also a few remnants of another case, called the Locative, denoting the place in which.

DECLENSION.

46. STEM AND SUFFIXES.—The process by which the several cases of a word are formed is called Declension. It consists in the addition of certain suffixes to one common base called the stem.

1. MEANING.—Accordingly, each case-form contains two distinct elements—the stem,¹ which gives the general meaning of the word, and the case-suffix, which shows the relation of that meaning to some other word. Thus, in reg- is, of a king, the general idea, king, is denoted by the stem reg; the relation of, by the suffix is.

2. CASES ALIKE.—But certain cases are not distinguished in form.

1) The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative in Neuters are alike, and in the plural end in a.

2) The Nominative and Vocative are alike, except in the singular of nouns in us of the second declension (51).²

3) The Dative and Ablative Plural are alike.

3. CHARACTERISTIC.—The last letter of the stem is called the Stem-Characteristic, or the Stem-Ending.

47. FIVE DECLENSIONS.—In Latin there are five declensions, distinguished from each other by the stem-characteristics or by the endings of the Genitive Singular, as follows:

¹ Moreover, in many words the stem itself is derived from a more primitive form called a Root. For the distinction between roots and stems, and for the manner in which the latter are formed from the former, see 319-318.
² And in some nouns of Greek origin.
FIRST DECLENSION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHARACTERISTICS</th>
<th>GENITIVE ENDINGS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEC. I.</td>
<td>ā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>i or a consonant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>ē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1.—The five declensions are only five varieties of one general system of inflection, as the case-suffixes are nearly identical in all nouns.

Note 2.—But these case-suffixes appear distinct and unchanged only in nouns with consonant-stems, while in all others, they are seen only in combination with the characteristic, i. e., with the final vowel of the stem.

Note 3.—The ending produced by the union of the case-suffix with the characteristic vowel may for convenience be called a Case-ending.

FIRST DECLENSION: A NOUNS.

48. Nouns of the first declension end in ā and ē—feminine; ās and ēs—masculine.

Nouns in ā are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXAMPLE</th>
<th>MEANING</th>
<th>CASE-ENDING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. mēnās</td>
<td>a table;²</td>
<td>ā³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mēnāse</td>
<td>of a table,</td>
<td>ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mēnāse,</td>
<td>to, for a table,</td>
<td>ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mēnāsām</td>
<td>a table,</td>
<td>am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. mēnās</td>
<td>O table,</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mēnās</td>
<td>from, with, by a table;⁴</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLURAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXAMPLE</th>
<th>MEANING</th>
<th>CASE-ENDING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. mēnās</td>
<td>tables,</td>
<td>ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. mēnāsārum,</td>
<td>of tables,</td>
<td>ārum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mēnās,</td>
<td>to, for tables,</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mēnāsās,</td>
<td>tables,</td>
<td>ās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. mēnās</td>
<td>O tables,</td>
<td>ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mēnās</td>
<td>from, with, by tables;⁴</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ That is, nouns of this declension in ā and ē are feminine, and those in ās and ēs are masculine.
² The Nom. mēnās may be translated a table, table, or the table; see 48, 6.
³ These case-endings will serve as a practical guide to the learner in distinguishing the different cases. The two elements which originally composed them have undergone various changes, and in certain cases, the one or the other has nearly or quite disappeared. Thus the suffix has disappeared in the Nominative and Vocative Singular, and appears only as a in four other case-forms, while the characteristic ā has disappeared in the ending īs, contracted from ā-īs, in the Dative and Ablative Plural; see 23, 2, note.
⁴ Still other prepositions, as ēs, on, ēt, are sometimes used in translating the Ablative.
FIRST DECLENSION.

1. STEM.—In nouns of the first declension, the stem ends in Æ.
2. In the Paradigm, observe that the stem is mēnes, and that the several cases are distinguished from each other by their case-endings.
3. EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.—Like mēnes decline:
   Aêa, wing; aqua, water; causa, cause; fortuna, fortune.
4. Locative.—Names of towns and a very few other words have a Locative Singular¹ in ae, denoting the place in which (45, 2), and are declined in the singular² number as follows:

   | Nom. Rōmae | Rome         | militia, | war,² |
   | Gen. Rōmae | of Rome,²    | militiae,| of war,² |
   | Dat. Rōmae | for Rome,²   | militiae,| for war,² |
   | Acc. Rōmam | Rome,²       | militiam,| war,² |
   | Voc. Rōmē  | O Rome,²     | militiam,| war,² |
   | Abl. Rōmē, | from Rome,²  | militiam| from war,² |
   | Loc. Rōmē, | at Rome,²    | militiam| in war,² |

5. EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.—1. A few nouns in Æ are masculine by signification: agricola, husbandman; see 42, I.—2. Hadria, Adriatic Sea, is masculine; sometimes also damma, deer, and talpa, mole.
6. ARTICLE.—The Latin has no article: corona, crown, a crown, the crown; aêa, wing, a wing, the wing.

49. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur:⁴
1. Æn in the Genitive of familia, in composition with pater, māter, filius, and filia: paterfamilias, father of a family.
2. Æ, an old form for the Genitive ending ae, in the poets: aulae, afterward aulae, of a hall.
3. Æm⁴ in the Genitive Plural: Dardanidum for Dardanidarum, of the descendents of Dardanus.
4. Æbus in the Dative and Ablative Plural, especially in dea, goddess, and filia, daughter, to distinguish them from the same cases of deus, god, and filius, son: deabus for deis, to goddesses.

¹ In the Plural of all nouns the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative: Athēnae, at Athens. Whether, however, the form Athēnae is in origin a Locative, an Ablative, or neither, is a disputed question. See Bopp, I, pp. 484 seq.; Schleicher, pp. 588, 587; Penka, p. 194; Delbrück, p. 97; Merguet, pp. 116, 117; Wordsworth, p. 59. In most nouns the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative in both numbers.
² The Plural when used is like the Plural of mēnes.
³ For the other prepositions which may be used in translating the Dative and the Ablative, see 45. Militia, war, warfare, military service.
⁴ To these must be added for early Latin Æ in the Nom. and Voc. Sing. and Æ in the Abl. Sing.; see 91, 2, 1), and 36, 5, 2).
⁵ Also in Inscriptions as the ending of the Genitive, Dative, and Locative.
⁶ Contracted from â-tām like the Greek â-tor, òv.
SECOND DECLENSION.

Nom.—Nouns in ἐς sometimes have τὸ for ἄς in the Dative and Ablative Plural: ἀργὸς for ἀργᾶ, from ἀργὸς, favor, kindness.

50. GREEK NOUNS.—Nouns of this declension in ἄς, ἐς, and ἐς are of Greek origin, and are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ἐπιτομῆς</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>Ἀενᾶς, Aeneas</td>
<td>Pyritēs, pyrites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ἐπιτομῆς</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>Ἀενᾶς</td>
<td>pyritēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ἐπιτομῆς</td>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>Ἀενᾶς</td>
<td>pyritēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ἐπιτομῆς</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>Ἀενᾶς, ἄν</td>
<td>pyritēs, a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>ἐπιτομῆς</td>
<td>Vocative</td>
<td>Ἀενᾶς</td>
<td>pyritē, a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ἐπιτομῆς</td>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>Ἀενᾶς</td>
<td>pyritēs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nom. ἐπιτομῶν
Gen. ἐπιτομῶν
Dat. ἐπιτομῶν
Acc. ἐπιτομῶν
Voc. ἐπιτομῶν
Abl. ἐπιτομῶν

Nouns 1.—In the Plural and in the Dative Singular, Greek nouns are declined like mēna.
Nouns 2.—In nouns in ἀς and ἐς, the stem-ending ἀς is changed to ἄς in certain cases.
Nouns 3.—Many Greek nouns assume the Latin ending a, and are declined like mēna. Many in ἅ have also a form in a: ἐπιτομῆ, ἐπιτομᾶ, ἐπιτομᾶ.

SECOND DECLENSION: O NOUNS.

51. Nouns of the second declension end in er, ir, us, and os1—masculine; um, and on—neuter.
Nouns in er, ir, us, and um are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>servus</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>puer</td>
<td>ager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>servus</td>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>puer</td>
<td>agrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>puerō</td>
<td>agrō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>servum</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>puerum</td>
<td>agrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>serve</td>
<td>Vocative</td>
<td>puer</td>
<td>ager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>puerō</td>
<td>agrō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Sometimes ἄς.
2 Sometimes written servō; see 59, 1.
3 In the Roman and in the Continental pronunciation, quantity furnishes a safe guide.
SECOND DECLENSION.

PLURAL.

Nom. servi
Gen. servorum
Dat. servis
Acc. servos
Voc. servi
Abl. servi

Pueri
Puerorum
Pueris
Pueros
Pueri
Pueris

Agri
Agrorum
Agris
Agrós
Agrí
Agrí

Templi
Temporum
Templis
Templos
Templo
Templos

1. STEM.—In nouns of the second declension, the stem ends in o.

2. In the Paradigms, observe—

1) That the stems are sero, puero, agro, and templo.

2) That the characteristic o becomes u in the endings us and um, and e in sero; that it disappears by contraction in the endings a, 3, and is (for o-a, o-i, and o-is); and is dropped in the forms puer and ager.

3) That the case-endings, including the characteristic o (47, N. 2), are as follows:

<p>|
| SINGULAR. | PLURAL. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MASC.</th>
<th>NEUT.</th>
<th>MASC.</th>
<th>NEUT.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. us</td>
<td>um</td>
<td>Nom. 1</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Gen. orum</td>
<td>orum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. o</td>
<td>um</td>
<td>Dat. is</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. um</td>
<td>um</td>
<td>Acc. os</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. o</td>
<td>um</td>
<td>Voc. 1</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. o</td>
<td>um</td>
<td>Abl. is</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4) That puer and ager differ in declension from servus in dropping the endings us and e in the Nominative and Vocative: Nom. puer for servus, Voc. puere for puere.

5) That e in ager is developed by the final r.

6) That templum, as a neuter noun, has the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative alike, ending in the plural in a; see 48, 2, 1).


to the sounds of the vowels; see 5. In the English method, on the contrary, the quantity of the vowels is entirely disregarded, except as it affects the accent of the word. Thus, a in ager is short in quantity, but long in sound (10, 8), while i in servus, puertos, agris, and templis is long in quantity but short in sound (11, 1). Accordingly, in this method, the sounds of the vowels must be determined by the rules given in 9, 10, and 11. Moreover, the learner must not forget that when the quantity of the vowel is known, the quantity of the syllable, as used in poetry, is readily determined by article 16.

1 See 29 and 24, 1, note.
2 Shortened from d; see 21, 2, 1).
3 See 23, note, and 27.
4 The endings of the Nom. and Voc. Singh. are wanting in nouns in er.
5 See 29, note.
4. Nouns in er and ir.—Most nouns in er are declined like ager, but the following in er and ir are declined like puer:

1) Nouns in er: vir, viri, man.

2) Compounds in fer and ger: armiger, armigeri, armor-bearer; signifer, signiferi, standard-bearer.

3) Adulter, adulterer; Celtiber, Celtiberian; gener, son-in-law; Iber, Spaniard; Liber, Bacchus; liber, children; Mulciber, Vulcan; presbyter, elder; sover, father-in-law; vesper, evening.

5. Nouns in us generally contract it in the Genitive Singular and is in the Vocative Singular into i without change of accent: Claudii for Claudius, filius for filii, of a son; Mercuриi for Mercurуй, Mercury, filius for filii, son. In the Genitive Singular of nouns in us the same contraction takes place: ingesii for ingesiti, of talent; see 18, 1.


7. Neuters in us.—The three neuter nouns in us, pelagus, sea, virus, poison, and vulgus, the common people, are declined in the singular as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom., Acc., Voc.</th>
<th>pelagus</th>
<th>virus</th>
<th>vulgus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>pelagт</td>
<td>virи</td>
<td>vulгт</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat., Abl.</td>
<td>pelагт</td>
<td>virо</td>
<td>vulго</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—Pelagus is a Greek noun (54, N. 2), and in general is used only in the singular, though pelagт occurs as an Acc. Plur. Virus and vulgus are used only in the singular. Vulgus has a masculine Acc., vulgum, in addition to the neuter form vulgus.

8. Locative.—Names of towns and a few other words have a Locative Singular in is, denoting the place in which (45, 2), and are declined in the singular number as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. Ephesus,</th>
<th>Ephesus,</th>
<th>bellll,</th>
<th>war,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. Ephesus,</td>
<td>of Ephesus,</td>
<td>bellll,</td>
<td>of war,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. Ephesο,</td>
<td>for Ephesus,</td>
<td>bellο,</td>
<td>for war,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. Ephesus,</td>
<td>Ephesus,</td>
<td>bellll,</td>
<td>war,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. Ephese,</td>
<td>O Ephesus,</td>
<td>bellll,</td>
<td>O war,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. Ephesο,</td>
<td>from Ephesus,</td>
<td>bellο,</td>
<td>from, by war,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loc. Ephesι,</td>
<td>at Ephesus,</td>
<td>bellι,</td>
<td>in war.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Celtiber and Iber have a long in the Gen., and Mulciber sometimes drops e.  
2 Nouns in us sometimes contract is in the Voc. Sing. into it; Pompēi or Pom- pēi, Pompey.  
3 Dit and dite are the approved forms, but det, dist and detes, dites also occur.  
4 Originally s-stems which by the loss of s in the oblique cases have become o-stems; see 63, 1, 1, foot-note.  
5 Also written colgus.  
6 In the Plural the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative: Gallienus, at Galli; see 48, 4, foot-note.  
7 The Plural, when used, is like the Plural of servus, puer, etc.
SECOND DECLENSION.

52. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur: ¹
1. os and om, old endings for us and um, sometimes used after v and u:² servos for servus, servum for servum; mortuos for mortuus, dead.
2. us for e in the Vocative of deus, god; rare in other words.
3. um in the Genitive Plural, especially common in a few words denoting money, weight, and measure: talentum for talentorum, of talents; also in a few other words: deum for deorum; liberum for liberorum; Argivum for Argivorum.

Note.—The ending um occurs also in the Genitive Plural of many other words, especially in poetry.

53. GENDER.—Nouns in er, ir, us, and os are masculine, those in um and on are neuter; except—

1. The Feminines:—(1) See 42; II., but observe that many names of countries, towns, islands, and trees follow the gender of their endings. (2) Most names of gems and ships are feminine: also albus, belly; carbasus, sail; colus, distaff; humus, ground; canus, sieve. (3) A few Greek feminines.
2. The Neuters:—pelagus, sea; virus, poison; vulgus, common people. For declension, see 51, 7.

54. GREEK NOUNS.—Nouns of this declension in os, òs, and on are of Greek origin, and are declined in the singular as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Delos</td>
<td>Androgeòs, Androgeos</td>
<td>Ilium</td>
<td>Ilium</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Delòs</td>
<td>Androgeòs</td>
<td>Ilius</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Delò</td>
<td>Androgeò</td>
<td>Iliò</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>Delonom</td>
<td>Androgeòn, òn</td>
<td>Ilión</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>Delè</td>
<td>Androgeòs</td>
<td>Iliòn</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>Delò</td>
<td>Androgeò</td>
<td>Iliò</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1.—The Plural of nouns in os and os is generally regular, but certain Greek endings occur, as os in the Nominative Plural, and on in the Genitive.

Note 2.—Most Greek nouns generally assume the Latin forms in us and um, and are declined like servus and tempulum. Many in os or on have also a form in us or um.

Note 3.—For Greek nouns in œs, see 68 and 68, 1.

Footnotes:
¹ To these must be added for early Latin: 1) òd in Abl. Sing., and òd in Nom., Acc., and Voc. of the Neut. Plur.; see 36, 5, 2), and 21, 3, 1; 2) òs in Gen. Sing.; œs, ès, este, and ès in Nom. Plur.: poplos—populi; plostrum—plurimi; virès—viri; leibereis or leibertis—liberis.
² Some recent editors have adopted voc, voc, voc, and voc, for vs, us, vum and vum, but the wisdom of such a course is at least questionable. See Brambach, p. 8.
³ M. stands for masculine, F. for feminine, and N. for neuter.
THIRD DECISION:

THIRD DECENSION: CONSONANT AND X NOUNS.

55. Nouns of the third declension end in
   a, e, i, o, y, c, l, n, r, s, t, and x.

56. Nouns of this declension may be divided into two classes:
   I. Nouns whose stem ends in a Consonant.
   II. Nouns whose stem ends in l.

CLASS I.—CONSONANT STEMS.

57. STEMS ENDING IN A LABIAL: B OR P.

Princeps, m., a leader, chief.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>CASE-SUFFIXES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. princeps,</td>
<td>a leader,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. principis,</td>
<td>of a leader,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. principi,</td>
<td>to, for a leader,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. principem,</td>
<td>a leader,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. princeps,</td>
<td>O leader,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. principe,</td>
<td>from, with, by a leader,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. principes,</td>
<td>leaders,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. principium,</td>
<td>of leaders,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. principibus,</td>
<td>to, for leaders,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. principes,</td>
<td>leaders,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. principes,</td>
<td>O leaders,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. principibus,</td>
<td>from, with, by leaders,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. STEM AND CASE-SUFFIXES.—In this Paradigm observe—

1) That the stem is princep, modified before an additional syllable to
   princip; see 22, 1, and 57, 2.

2) That the case-suffixes appear distinct and separate from the stem; see
   40, 1, and 47, note 2.

2. VARIABLE VOWEL.—In the final syllable of disyllabic consonant
   stems, short e or i generally takes the form of e in the Nominative and
   Vocative Singular and that of i in all the other cases. Thus princeps,

---

1 For Gender, see 98-115.
2 See foot-note 8, p. 29.
3 Thus, princeps, principis, etc. In the first and second declensions, on the contrary, the suffix cannot be separated from the final vowel of the stem in such forms as ménèsis, puert, agris, etc.
**THIRD DECLENSION.**

*principis,*¹ and *fādec, fādicis* (59), alike have *e* in the Nominative and Vocative Singular and *i* in all the other cases, though in *princeps* the original form of the radical vowel is *e*, and in *fādec, i*. For a similar change in the vowel of the stem, see *mīles, mīlitis* (58), and *carmen, carminis*² (60). See also *opus, operis* (61).

3. In monosyllables in *ē* the stem ends in *i*; see *urbs, 64.*
4. For the Locative in the Third Declension, see 66, 4.
5. For Synopsis of Declension, see 87, 89.

### 58. STEMS ENDING IN A DENTAL: D OR T.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lapis, m., stone.</th>
<th>Actās, f., age.</th>
<th>Miles, m., soldier.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. lapis</td>
<td>actās</td>
<td>mīles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. lapidēs</td>
<td>actātīs</td>
<td>mīlitīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. lapidī</td>
<td>actātī</td>
<td>mīlitī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. lapidēm</td>
<td>actātem</td>
<td>mīlitēm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. lapis</td>
<td>actās</td>
<td>mīles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. lapide</td>
<td>actātē</td>
<td>mīlitē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **PLURAL.**       |                |                    |
| Nom. lapidēs      | actātēs        | mīlitēs            |
| Gen. lapidūm      | actātum        | mīlitum            |
| Dat. lapidībus    | actātibus      | mīlitībus          |
| Acc. lapidēs      | actātēs        | mīlitēs            |
| Voc. lapidēs      | actātēs        | mīlitēs            |
| Abl. lapidībus    | actātibus      | mīlitībus          |


* **SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nepōs</th>
<th>virtūs</th>
<th>caput</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. nepōtīs</td>
<td>virtūtīs</td>
<td>capītīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. nepōtī</td>
<td>virtūtī</td>
<td>capītī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. nepōtem</td>
<td>virtūtem</td>
<td>caput</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. nepōs</td>
<td>virtūs</td>
<td>caput</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. nepōte</td>
<td>virtūtē</td>
<td>capīte</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **PLURAL.**     |                |                   |
| Nom. nepōtēs    | virtūtēs      | capita            |
| Gen. nepōtum    | virtūtum      | capitum           |
| Dat. nepōtūs    | virtūtūs      | capitūbus         |
### THIRD DECLENSION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>nepōtēs</td>
<td>virtūtēs</td>
<td>capitās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>nepōtēs</td>
<td>virtūtēs</td>
<td>capitās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>nepōtibus</td>
<td>virtūtibus</td>
<td>capitibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 1. STEMS AND CASE-SUFFIXES.—In these Paradigms observe—

1) That the stems are lapīs, actās, milit, nepōt, virtūt, and caput.
2) That miles has the variable vowel, a, i, and caput, u, i; see 57, 2.
3) That the dental d or t is dropped before s: lapīs for lapīdes, actās for actādes, miles for miletae, virtūt for virtūtae; see 56, 2.
4) That the case-suffixes, except in the neuter, caput (46, 2), are the same as those given above; see 57.
5) That the neuter, caput, has no case-suffix in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular, a in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural, and the suffixes of masculine and feminine nouns in the other cases.

**2. NEUTER STEMS IN AT DROP T IN THE NOMINATIVE SINGULAR AND END IN A:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>rēx</td>
<td>jūdēx</td>
<td>rādīx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>rēgīs</td>
<td>jūdīcis</td>
<td>rādīcis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>rēgī</td>
<td>jūdīci</td>
<td>rādīci</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>rēgēm</td>
<td>jūdīcem</td>
<td>rādīcem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>rēx</td>
<td>jūdēx</td>
<td>rādīx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>rēge</td>
<td>jūdice</td>
<td>rādice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR.**

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>rēgēs</td>
<td>jūdīces</td>
<td>rādīces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>rēgum</td>
<td>jūdīcum</td>
<td>rādīcum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>rēgibus</td>
<td>jūdīcibus</td>
<td>rādīcibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>rēgēs</td>
<td>jūdīces</td>
<td>rādīces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>rēgēs</td>
<td>jūdīces</td>
<td>rādīces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>rēgibus</td>
<td>jūdīcibus</td>
<td>rādīcibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 3. For Synopsis of Declension, see 59, 78-84.

#### 59. STEMS ENDING IN A GUTTURAL: C OR G.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>rēx</td>
<td>jūdēx</td>
<td>rādīx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>rēgīs</td>
<td>jūdīcis</td>
<td>rādīcis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>rēgī</td>
<td>jūdīci</td>
<td>rādīci</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>rēgēm</td>
<td>jūdīcem</td>
<td>rādīcem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>rēx</td>
<td>jūdēx</td>
<td>rādīx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>rēge</td>
<td>jūdice</td>
<td>rādice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR.**

**PLURAL.**

1. STEMS AND CASE-SUFFIXES.—In the Paradigms observe—

1) That the stems are rēg, jūdic, rādic, and duc; jūdic with the variable vowel, i, e; see 57, 2.
2) That the case-suffixes are those given in 57.
3) That s in the Nominative and Vocative Singular unites with c or g of the stem and forms x; see 50.

**2. For Synopsis of Declension, see Nouns in X, 91-98.**
## THIRD DECLENSION.

### 60. STEMS ENDING IN L, M, N, OR R.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>söl</th>
<th>cónsul</th>
<th>Passer</th>
<th>Pater</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>sölis</td>
<td>cónsulis</td>
<td>passeris</td>
<td>patris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>söl</td>
<td>cónsul</td>
<td>passer</td>
<td>patri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sölēma</td>
<td>cónsulema</td>
<td>passere</td>
<td>patrema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>söl</td>
<td>cónsul</td>
<td>passer</td>
<td>pater</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>sölē</td>
<td>cónsule</td>
<td>passere</td>
<td>patre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>sölēs</th>
<th>cónsules</th>
<th>passerēs</th>
<th>patrēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>sölēma</td>
<td>cónsulum</td>
<td>passerum</td>
<td>patrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>sölēbus</td>
<td>cónsulibus</td>
<td>passeribus</td>
<td>patribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sölēs</td>
<td>cónsules</td>
<td>passerēs</td>
<td>patrēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>sölēs</td>
<td>cónsules</td>
<td>passerēs</td>
<td>patrēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>sölēbus</td>
<td>cónsulibus</td>
<td>passeribus</td>
<td>patribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pāstor, m.,</th>
<th>Leō, m.,</th>
<th>Virgō, f.,</th>
<th>Carmen, n.,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shepherd.</td>
<td>lion.</td>
<td>maiden.</td>
<td>song.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>pāstor</th>
<th>leō</th>
<th>virgō</th>
<th>carmen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>pāstōris</td>
<td>leōnis</td>
<td>virginis</td>
<td>carminis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>pāstōr</td>
<td>leōn</td>
<td>virginē</td>
<td>carminī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>pāstōrem</td>
<td>leōnem</td>
<td>virginem</td>
<td>carmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>pāstor</td>
<td>leō</td>
<td>virgō</td>
<td>carmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>pāstōre</td>
<td>leōnem</td>
<td>virgine</td>
<td>carmine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>pāstōres</th>
<th>leōnes</th>
<th>virginēs</th>
<th>carmina</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>pāstōrum</td>
<td>leōnum</td>
<td>virginum</td>
<td>carminum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>pāstōribus</td>
<td>leōnibus</td>
<td>virginibus</td>
<td>carminibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>pāstōres</td>
<td>leōnes</td>
<td>virginēs</td>
<td>carmina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>pāstōres</td>
<td>leōnes</td>
<td>virginēs</td>
<td>carmina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>pāstōribus</td>
<td>leōnibus</td>
<td>virginibus</td>
<td>carminibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. STEMS AND CASE-SUFFIXES.—In the Paradigms observe—

1) That the stems are söl, cónsul, passer, pātr, pāstor, leōn, virgōn, and carmen.

---

1 Many monosyllables want the Gen. Plur.; see 133, 5.
2 That is, the stem is pātr when followed by a vowel; but when r becomes final, it develops e before it, and pātr becomes pater; see 29, note.
THIRD DECLENSION.

2) That *virgo* (virgon) has the variable vowel, o, e, and *carmen*, e, i.

3) That in the Nominative and Vocative Singulars, the usual case-suffix for masculine and feminine nouns, is omitted, and that in those cases the stem *pater* shortens o, while *leim* and *virgin* drop n; see 21, 2, 2), and 36, 5, 3).

2. *Hermes*, the only stem in m, takes s in the Nominative and Vocative Singular. Also *sanguis* (for *sanguis*), blood, and *Salamis* (for *Salamis*), Salamis, which drop n before s; see 36, 8, note 3.

3. *Passer, Pater.*—Most nouns in er are declined like *passer*, but those in ter, and a few others, are declined like *pater*; see 77, 2.

4. *Lauf, Vires.*—Most nouns in o are declined like lof, but those in do and go, with a few others, are declined like *virgo*; see 72, with exceptions.

5. Four stems in or change o to u; see 77, 4.

6. For the Locative in the Third Declension, see 66, 4.

7. For Synopsis of Declension, see 72, 75-77.

61. STEMS ENDING IN S.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flōs, m.,</th>
<th>Jūs, n.,</th>
<th>Opus, n.,</th>
<th>Corpus, n.,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>flōs</td>
<td>jūs</td>
<td>opus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>flōris</td>
<td>jūris</td>
<td>operis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>flōri</td>
<td>jūri</td>
<td>operi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>flōrem</td>
<td>jūs</td>
<td>opus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>flōs</td>
<td>jūs</td>
<td>opero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>flōre</td>
<td>jūre</td>
<td>opera</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular.**

**Plural.**

1. STEMS AND CASE-SUFFIXES.—In the Paradigms observe—

1) That the stems are flōs, jūs, opus, and corpus.

2) That *opus* has the variable vowel, e, u, and *corpus*, o, u.

3) That s of the stem becomes r between two vowels: flōs, jūris (for jūris); see 31, 1.

4) That the Nom. and Voc. Sing. omit the case-suffix; see 60, 1, 3).

2. For Synopsis of Declension, see 79, 80, 82-84.

---

1 Opus occurs in early Latin. In or, from the Primary Suffix *as* (320), o was weakened to u in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Sing. of *opus* and *corpus*, while in all the other case-forms it was weakened to e in *opus*, but retained unchanged in *corpus*; see 22.
THIRD DECLENSION.

CLASS II.—I STEMS.

62. STEMS ENDING IN I.—Nouns in is and ēs, not increasing in the Genitive.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tussis, f.,</th>
<th>Turris, f.,</th>
<th>Ignis, m.,</th>
<th>Hostis, m. &amp; f.,</th>
<th>Nūbēs, f.,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cough.</td>
<td>tower.</td>
<td>fire.</td>
<td>enemy.</td>
<td>cloud.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>tussis</th>
<th>turris</th>
<th>ignis</th>
<th>hostis</th>
<th>nūbēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tussis</td>
<td>turris</td>
<td>ignis</td>
<td>hostis</td>
<td>nūbēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tussi</td>
<td>turri</td>
<td>igni</td>
<td>hosti</td>
<td>nūbi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tussīm</td>
<td>turrim, em</td>
<td>ignem</td>
<td>hostem</td>
<td>nūbem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>tussis</td>
<td>turris</td>
<td>ignis</td>
<td>hostis</td>
<td>nūbēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>tussi</td>
<td>turri, ē</td>
<td>igni, ē</td>
<td>hoste</td>
<td>nūbe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>tussēs</th>
<th>turres</th>
<th>ignēs</th>
<th>hostēs</th>
<th>nūbēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tussīm</td>
<td>turrium</td>
<td>ignīum</td>
<td>hostīum</td>
<td>nūbīum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tussībus</td>
<td>turribus</td>
<td>ignibus</td>
<td>hostibus</td>
<td>nūbibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tussēs, ēs</td>
<td>turres, ēs</td>
<td>ignēs, ēs</td>
<td>hostēs, ēs</td>
<td>nūbēs, ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>tussēs</td>
<td>turres</td>
<td>ignēs</td>
<td>hostēs</td>
<td>nūbēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>tussībus</td>
<td>turribus</td>
<td>ignibus</td>
<td>hostibus</td>
<td>nūbibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**I. PARADIGMS.—Observe—**

1. That the stems are tussi, turri, igni, hosti, and nūbi.²

2. That the case-endings, including the characteristic i, which disappears in certain cases, are as follows:

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>is, ēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>īm, ēm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>īs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ī, ē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>is</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēs, ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ That is, having as many syllables in the Nom. Sing. as in the Gen. Sing.

² Observe (1) that tussīs, turris, ignīs, and hostīs differ in declension only in the Acc. and Abl. Sing., tussīs showing the final i of the stem in both those cases, turris sometimes in both, ignīs sometimes in the Abl., not in the Acc., hostīs in neither (3) that nūbēs differs from the other four in taking ēs instead of ēs in the Nom. and Voc. Sing.

³ Nouns in ēs, Gen. ēs, are best treated as ē-stems, although some of them were originally ī-stems (61). Thus, originally the stem of nūbēs was itself nūbēs, but ē was finally treated as the Nom. suffix, and the word was accordingly declined like the large class of ē-nouns mentioned under 69, V. The origin of ē-stems is obscure. A few correspond to ē-stems in the cognate tongues, as ignīs, ove, turris; a few are weakened from ā-stems or ē-stems, as fortis, a door, Gr. δυσα, imber—imbres, rain-storm, Gr. ἑμβρο; some are formed from ē-stems, as nūbēs, just mentioned. Upon the general subject of ē-stems, see Roby, pp. 136–149; Schleicher, pp. 354, 482, 483; Cornes, IV, 251, 611, 785 seq.; II, 237; Marguer, pp. 86–90, 51, 97, 99, etc.
THIRD DECLENSION.

II. Like russis—Acc. im, Abl. I—are declined—

1. Bēris, plough-tail; rōvis, hoarseness; sitis, thirst.
2. In the-Singular: (1) Names of rivers and places in is not increasing in the Genitive: Tiberis, Hispalis; see 532. (2) Greek nouns in is, Gen. is, and some others.

III. Like turris—Acc. im, em, Abl. I, e—are declined—

Clēvis, key; fēbris, fever; messis, harvest; nāvis, ship; puppis, stern; restis, rope; secūris, axe; sementis, sowing; strigilis, strigil.
1. Araris, or Arar (for Araris), the Saône, and Liger (for Ligeris), the Loire, have Acc. im, em, Abl. I, e.

IV. Like ionis—Acc. em, Abl. I, e—are declined—

Amnis, river; anguis, serpent; avis, bird; bilis, bile; civis, citizen; clāxis, fleet; collis, hill; finis, end; orbis, circle; postis, post; unguis, nail, and a few others.

Notes 1.—Adjectives in or (for oris) and those in is have the Ablative in I (153, 154). Accordingly, when such adjectives are used substantively, the is generally retained: September, September, September; familiāris, familiaris, friend. But adjectives used as proper names have e: Juvenālis, Juvenalis, Juvenal.

Notes 2.—Imber (for imbres), storm; coeper (for coeperis), evening, and a few others, sometimes have the Ablative in I.

V. Like hostis—Acc. em, Abl. e—are declined all nouns in is, Gen. is, not provided for under II., III., and IV. 3

VI. Like nūsēs are declined all nouns in es, Gen. es. 4

63. STEMS ENDING IN I.—Neuters in e, al, and ar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>mare</th>
<th>animal</th>
<th>calcar, spur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>maris</td>
<td>animalis</td>
<td>calcaris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>marī</td>
<td>animalī</td>
<td>calcarī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>mare</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>calcar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>mare</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>calcar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>marī</td>
<td>animalī</td>
<td>calcarī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case-Endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The shortening of Araris to Arar and of Ligeris to Liger is similar to the shortening of pueros to puer; see 51, 2, 4); 36, 5, 2), note.
2 Names of months are adjectives used substantively. Originally mēnsis, month, was understood.
3 Except canis and juvenis, which are consonant-stems, but have assumed e in the Nom. Sing. In the plural they have ser in the Gen. and es in the Acc. Apsis, mēnsis, and solōnae often have ser or ser in the Gen.
4 Except strīcis and cātās, which generally have ser in Gen. Pl., and cātēs, which has ser or ser. Compēs, Gen. cātēs, has also ser.
5 See 2 below.
6 The dash here implies that the case-ending is sometimes wanting.


**THIRD DECLENSION.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>maria</td>
<td>animālia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>marium</td>
<td>animālium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>maribus</td>
<td>animālibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>maria</td>
<td>animālia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>maria</td>
<td>animālia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>maribus</td>
<td>animālibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. **Paradigms.**—Observe—

1) That the stem-ending i is changed to e in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular of *maris*, and dropped in the same cases of *animal* (for *animāle*) and *calcar* (for *calcāre*); see 24, 1, note; 27; 31, 2, 2).

2) That the case-endings include the characteristic i.

2. The following have e in the Ablative Singular:—(1) Names of towns in e; *Praeneste.*—(2) Generally rēs, net, and in poetry sometimes *maris.*

**Norm.**—Neuters in *ar*, with a short in the Genitive, are consonant-stems: nectar, nectaris, nectar; also sēl, salt, and fōr, corn.

64. **STEMS ENDING IN L.**—**Nouns in s and x generally preceded by a consonant.**

| Clēns, M. & F., Urbs, F. | Arx, F. | Mūs, M. |
|———|———|———|
| client. | city. | citadel. |

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>clēns</th>
<th>urbs</th>
<th>arx</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>clientis</td>
<td>urbēs</td>
<td>arctis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>clienti</td>
<td>urbē</td>
<td>arct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>clientem</td>
<td>urbēm</td>
<td>arcem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>clēns</td>
<td>urbē</td>
<td>arx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>cliente</td>
<td>urbe</td>
<td>arce</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>clientēs</th>
<th>urbēs</th>
<th>arctēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>clientērum</td>
<td>urbērum</td>
<td>arctērum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>clientibus</td>
<td>urbībus</td>
<td>arctibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>clientēs, Is</td>
<td>urbēs, Is</td>
<td>arctēs, Is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>clientēs</td>
<td>urbēs</td>
<td>arctēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>clientibus</td>
<td>urbībus</td>
<td>arctibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1 *Clēns* is for *clientia*, *urbs* for *urbis*, *arx* for *arctis*, and *mūs* for *mūtes*; see 36, 6, 2, note. *Mūs,* originally an s-stem, Greek μῦς, became an t-stem in Latin by assuming e.

2 The vowel e is here short before *s*, but long before *s*; see 16, note 2. Indeed, it seems probable that *st* and *nd* shorten a preceding vowel, as *ns* lengthens it. See Müller, p. 27; Eitsch, Rhelm. Museum, xxxi, p. 489.

3 *Arx* is *arces*, e belonging to the stem, and *s* being the Nom. suffix.

4 *Mūries* is for *mūetes*; *s* changed to *r* between two vowels; see 31, 1.
THIRD DECLENSION.

1. Paradigms.—Observe—

1) That the stems are clienti, urbī, arcī, and māri.

2) That these nouns are declined in the singular precisely like consonant-stems, and in the plural precisely like all other masculine and feminine i-stems.¹

2. This class of i-stems includes—

1) Most nouns in ns and rs: cliēns, cliēntis, client; cohōra, cohōritis, cohort.

2) Monosyllables in s and z preceded by a consonant,² and a few in s and z preceded by a vowel: urbēs, city; arzē, citadel; ītēs, strīfe; noxē, night.

3) Names of nations in ās and īs, or, if plural, in āsēs and īsēs: Arpīnās, pl. Arpīnātēs, an Arpinian, the Arpinates; Samnītēs, pl. Samnītēs, the Samnites.

4) Optimātēs, the aristocracy; Penātēs, the household gods, and occasionally other nouns in ās.

Notes 1.—Card, flesh, has a form in ēs, carūnis (for carīnēs), from which are formed carūni, carūnum, etc.

Notes 2.—Part, part, sometimes has partēm in the Accusative.

Notes 3.—Rūs, country, sōs, lot, supālēs, furniture, and a few other words sometimes have the Ablative in Ī.

65. SUMMARY OF I-STEMS.—To i-stems belong—

1. All nouns in īs and ēs which do not increase in the Genitive; see 62. Here belong also—

1) Names of months in ērī (for brīs): September, October, etc.; see 62, N. 1.

2) The following nouns in ērī and ērī (for brīs and brīs): ūnberēs, storm; ēnberēs, boat; ētērēs, leathern sack; vēnterēs, belly; generally also Īnberēs, an Insularian.

2. Neuters in ē, āl (for ālīs) and ār (for ārīs); see §3; also §3, 2, note.

3. Many nouns in ēs and ēs—especially (1) nouns in ns and rs, and (2) monosyllables in s and z preceded by a consonant; see §4, 2.

¹ Nouns thus declined are most conveniently treated as i-nouns, though the stem appears to end in a consonant in the Sing., and in ī in the Plur. In some of these nouns the stem has lost its final ī in the Sing., while in others it ended originally in a consonant, but afterward assumed ī in the Plur., at least in certain cases; see §2, I, footnote.

² Some of these often have ūs in poetry and sometimes even in prose, as parēs, parent, generally has.

³ Except (opās) opēs and the Greek nouns, grīps, ὑμη, sphīnās.

⁴ Namely, ēxrēs, ēltēs, ēxēs, nēxēs, noxēs, os (ōsēs), ēs, generally ēxrēs and mūs.
### THIRD DECLENSION.

#### 66. SPECIAL PARADIGMS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sūs, m. &amp; f.,</th>
<th>Bōs, m. &amp; f.,</th>
<th>Nīx, f.,</th>
<th>Senex, m.,</th>
<th>Vis, f.,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>swine.</td>
<td>ox, cow.</td>
<td>snow.</td>
<td>old man.</td>
<td>force.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR.**

| Nom. sūs  | bōs¹  | nīx  | senex  | vis  |
| Gen. sūs  | bovis  | nīvis | senis  | vis ³ |
| Dat. sūl  | bōr  | nīl  | senīl  | vis ³ |
| Acc. sūm  | bōvem | nīvem | senem  | vim  |
| Voc. sūs  | bōs  | nīx  | senex  | vis  |
| Abl. sue  | bove | nīve | senē  | vi  |

**PLURAL.**

| Nom. suēs | boves | nīves | senēs | virēs  |
| Gen. suum | bovum | nīvium | senum | virium  |
| Dat. suibus | bōbus¹ | nīvibus | senibus | viribus |
| Acc. suēs | boves | nīves | senes  | virēs  |
| Voc. suēs | boves | nīves | senes  | virēs  |
| Abl. suibus | bōbus | nīvibus | senibus | viribus |

1. The Stems are su; bov; nīg (nīx=nīga), niv, nivi;² senec, sen; vi (sing.), viri (for visi, plur.);⁴ see 31, 1.

2. Sūs, and grūs, erēs, the only u stems in this declension, are declined alike, except in the Dative and Ablative Plural, where grūs is regular: grūbus.

3. Jūpīter, Jupiter, is thus declined: Jūpīter, Jovis, Jovi, Jovem, Jūpīter, Jove. Stems, Jūpīter and Jov.

4. Locative.—Many names of towns have a Locative Singular in i or e denoting the place in which (45, 2). Thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. Karthāgō</th>
<th>Carthage</th>
<th>Tibur,</th>
<th>Tibur,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. Karthāginis</td>
<td>of Carthage</td>
<td>Tiburis,</td>
<td>of Tibur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. Karthāginī</td>
<td>for Carthage</td>
<td>Tiburi</td>
<td>for Tibur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. Karthāginem</td>
<td>Carthage</td>
<td>Tibur,</td>
<td>Tibur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. Karthāgō</td>
<td>O Carthage</td>
<td>Tibur,</td>
<td>O Tibur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. Karthāgine</td>
<td>from Carthage</td>
<td>Tibure</td>
<td>from Tibur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loc. Karthāginī or e</td>
<td>at Carthage</td>
<td>Tiburu or e</td>
<td>at Tibur.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Bōs = bovs, bōs; bōbus = bovis, bōbus.
² The Gen. and Dat. Sing.—vis, vi—are rare.
³ For nīg, from which nīg is formed by first dropping i and then ūv; see 27, 36, 8, note 1.
⁴ Vi is formed from visi by first dropping i and then ūv.
GREEK NOUNS.

67. CASE-SUFFIXES AND CASE-ENDINGS.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONSONANT STEMS</th>
<th>I-STEMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. s,—²</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. is</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. 1</td>
<td>cré</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. em</td>
<td>èm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. s</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. e</td>
<td>è</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masc. and Fem.</th>
<th>Neut.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ès</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. um</td>
<td>um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. èbus</td>
<td>èbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. ès</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. ès</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. èbus</td>
<td>èbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.**—The following irregular case-endings occur:

1. è, for è, in the Dat. Sing.: ² aèrd for aèr.
2. Ès, for ès, in the Acc. Plur.: cèscè for cèscè, cèscè.
3. For GREEK ENDINGS, see 68.

GREEK NOUNS.

68. Most Greek nouns of the third declension are entirely regular, but a few retain certain peculiarities of the Greek. The following are examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lampas, f.,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>torch.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. lampas</th>
<th>Phryx</th>
<th>hérōs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. lampadís, os</td>
<td>Phrygíṣ, os</td>
<td>hérōís</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. lampadí, i</td>
<td>Phrygí, i</td>
<td>hérōi, i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. lampadex, è</td>
<td>Phrygéx, è</td>
<td>hérōexus, è</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. lampas</td>
<td>Phryx</td>
<td>hérōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. lampade</td>
<td>Phryge</td>
<td>hérōe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ On the distinction between Case-Suffixes and Case-Endings, see 46, 1, and 47, note 9.
² The dash denotes that the case-ending is wanting.
³ To these should be added for early Latin—1) us and ès in the Gen. Sing.: hóminus = hóminis; salúte = salútis; 2) èd and è in the Abl. Sing.: conveniendía = conveniendíae; padré = padrés; 3) ès and ès in the Nom. Plur. of è-nouns: fínes, finis = fínes. On the Case-Endings of the Third Declension in early Latin, see Wordsworth, pp. 63–73; Kühner, I., pp. 178–179.
⁴ This è is generally long.
SYNOPSIS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

PLURAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>lampadēs, es</th>
<th>Phrygēs, es</th>
<th>hērōēs, es</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>lampadum</td>
<td>Phrygum</td>
<td>hērōum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>lampadibus</td>
<td>Phrygibus</td>
<td>hērōibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>lampadēs, as</td>
<td>Phrygēs, as</td>
<td>hērōēs, as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>lampadēs, es</td>
<td>Phrygēs, es</td>
<td>hērōēs, es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>lampadibus</td>
<td>Phrygibus</td>
<td>hērōibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perīclēs, m., Pericles. Paris, m., Dīdō, f., Orpheus, m.,

SINGULAR.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom. Perīclēs</th>
<th>Paris</th>
<th>Dīdō</th>
<th>Orpheus.²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. Perīclēs, i</td>
<td>Paridēs, os</td>
<td>Dīdēs, önēs</td>
<td>Orph-ēs, ei, i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. Perīclēs, i</td>
<td>Paridēs, i</td>
<td>Dīdō, önī, önī</td>
<td>Orph-ēi, ei, i, eō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. Perīclēms, es, em</td>
<td>Paridēm, in</td>
<td>Dīdō, önem</td>
<td>Orphē, emm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. Perīclēs, es, ē</td>
<td>Pari</td>
<td>Dīdō</td>
<td>Orpheu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. Perīclēs</td>
<td>Paride</td>
<td>Dīdū, öne</td>
<td>Orpheō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Observe that these PARADIGMS fluctuate in certain cases—(1) between the Latin and the Greek forms: lampadēs, os; lampadēm, a; hērōēs, as:—(2) between different declensions: Perīclēs, between Dec. I., Periclēs, Periclēs, Dec. II., Periclēs (Gen.), and Dec. III., Periclēs, etc.: Orphēus, between Dec. II., Orphē, Orphēos, etc., and Dec. III., Orphēus, etc.


3. The Vocative SINGULAR drops s—(1) in nouns in eus, ye, and in proper names in es; Gen. antis: Aitēs, Aitē:—(2) generally in nouns in ise, and sometimes in other words: Paris.

4. In the GENITIVE PLURAL, the ending ön occurs in a few titles of books: Metamorphōsēn (title of a poem), Metamorphōseōn.

5. In the DATIVE AND ABLATIVE PLURAL the ending si, before vowels sin, occurs in poetry: Troadēs, Troadēn.

6. A few neuters used only in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative have os in the Singular and s in the Plural: poēmos, poēmos, song.

SYNOPSIS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

I. Nouns ending in a Vowel.

69. Nouns in a: Stem in at:
    | poēma, poem, | poēmatis, |
    | Genitive in atis: | poēmat. |

¹ The Plural is of course generally wanting; see 130, 2.
² Es is a diphthong in the Nom. and Voc.; ei sometimes a diphthong in the Gen. and Dat.
³ These are of Greek origin.
70. Nouns in ὕ: Genitive in ὕς: Stem in ἱ: 
    mare, see, 
    maris, marī.

71. Nouns in ἵ: Genitive in ἱς: Stem in ἱ: 
    sināpi, mustard, 
    sināpis, sināpi.

Note.—Many nouns in ἴ are indeclinable. Compounds of μῆλο have ἴττι in the Genitive: oxyμῆλο, oxyμῆλιττα, oxyμηλομήλος.

72. Nouns in ὰ or ὴ: Genitive in ὄνις: Stem in ὄν: 
    leō, lion, 
    leōnīs, leōn.

Exceptions.—Genitive in—
1. ὄνις:—most national names: Macedō, Macedonīs, Macedonian.
2. ὄνις: — Apollo; homō, man; nēnō, nobody; turbō, whirlwind; and nouns in ὅ and ὔ: grandō, grandinis, hall; virgō, virgīnis, maiden; except—harpaγγελ, ὄνις; ligō, ὄνις; praeagō, ὄνις, also comentō, cuddō, mangō, spedō, spinīs, ὄνις, ūbdō.
3. ὄνοια:—carō, carnis (for carinis), flesh; see 64, 2, note 1.
4. ὅνις:—Anīō, Anīnīs, river Anīō; Nerīō, Nerīnīs.
5. ὁ:—a few Greek feminines: Didō, Didūs; see 68.

73. Nouns in ὑ: Gen. in ὑς (yos, ὑς): Stem in ὑ: 
    misy, copperus, 
    misyis (yos, ὅς), misy.

II. Nouns Ending in a Mute or Liquid.

74. Nouns in σ: oλέκ, oλίσ, pickle; lακ, lατίς, milk.

75. Nouns in ι: Genitive in ις: Stem in ι: 
    σόλ, sun, 
    solis, solī.

Note.—Fell, fellō, fall; mel, mellīs, honey; sōl, saltē, salt. On neuters in σ, see 63.

76. Nouns in μ: Genitive in μίς: Stem in μ: 
    paeān, paeān, 
    paeānīs, paeān.

flūmen, stream, 
flūμinis, flūmen, in.

Note 1.—Nouns in σμ have the variable radical vowel—σ, 1; see 60, 1, 2).

Note 2.—There are a few Greek words in ήν, Gen. in onīs, ōntēs, St. in on, ōntē: aīdōn, aīdōnia, nightingale; Xenophōn, Xenophōntes, Xenophon.

77. Nouns in ρ: Genitive in ρίς: Stem in ρ: 
    carare, prisōn, 
    carare, ρίς, carare, 
    ρίς, carare.

1. Nouns in ρ, ar: (1) ar, G. aris; St. ari: lār, lāris, house; (2) par, pares, pair; fār, farīs, corn; kēpar, kēpāris, liver. For ar, G. ari, and ar, G. aris, see 63.

2. Nouns in ταρ: Gen. in τρίς: pater, patēris, father; except later, laterīs, tile; stēr, stēneris, way; Joppēler, Jovēris; and Greek nouns: crētrēr, crētrēris, bowl.

1 These are of Greek origin.
2 Stem in on, is, or oni, is, is; see 60, 1, 2).
3 Nouns in y are of Greek origin, and are often indeclinable.
4 The only nouns in σ.
SYNOPSIS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

NOMS.—Imber and names of months in ber have brix in the Genitive; tirber, tibors, shower; September, Septembris, September; see 62, IV., notes 1 and 2.

3. Nouns in or: G. Cork, St. or: paöst, paöös, shepherd; but a few have G. orix, St. or: arbor, arboris, tree; aequor, sea; marmor, marble. But cor, cordis, heart.

4. Four in ur: G. orix, St. or: ebur, ivory; femur, thigh; fecur, liver; redur, strength; but femur has also feminis, and fecur, fectoris, fectoris, and fectoris.

78. Nouns in ut: Genitive in itis: Stem in ut, it:

    caput, head, capitis, caput, it.

III. NOUNS ENDING IN S.

79. Nouns in as: Genitive in ãtis: Stem in ât:

    aetä, age, aetäsis, aetät.

Exceptions.—Genitive in
1. aris:—mas, maris, a male;—stem, mas, mari; see 31, 1.
2. ânis:—âds, âdis, vessel.¹
3. assis:—âs, âsis, an as (a coin).
4. ânis:—only masculine Greek nouns: adamâs, ânis, adamant.

Nota.—Anas, duck, and neuter Greek nouns in as have âsis: anas, anatis. Vas, surety, Arcas, Arcadian, and feminine Greek nouns in as have âsis: vas, vâdis, lampas, lampadis.²

80. Nouns in ãs: Genitive in is: Stem in i:³

    nûbës, cloud, nûbis, nûbi.

Exceptions.—Genitive in
1. õdis:—hërês, hërêdis, heir; mercês, reward.
2. edis:—pês, pedis, foot, and its compounds: compês, edis, a fetter.
3. eris:—Cerês, Cereris.⁴
4. ãtis:—quiës, rest, with compounds, inquiës, requiës, and a few Greek words: lebês, tapês.
5. ëtis:—âbiës, fir-tree; âriës, ram; pariës, wall.

Nota.—Bês, bêsês, two-thrds; aoe, aoris, copper; præses, prædes, surety.

81. Nouns in es: Genitive in itis: Stem in et, it:

    milex, soldier, militis, milet, it.

Exceptions.—Genitive in
1. etis:—interpres, interpreter; see 51, 2.
2. ëdis:—obses, hostage; praesex, president; see 51, 2.

¹ Vèst is the only stem in ë which does not change ë to â between two vowels; see 61, 1, 9.
² Greek nouns sometimes have âdis for âdis.
³ But see 64, 1.
⁴ See 61, 1, 9.
## Synopsis of the Third Declension

### 82. Nouns in is:
- Genitive in is:
  - avis, bird:
  - avis, avis

**Exceptions.** - Genitive in
1. *eris*:
   - cinis, cineris, ashes; cucumis, cucumber; pullis, dust; vomis, ploughshare.
2. *idis*:
   - cupis, cup; cassis, helmet; cupis, spear; lapis, stone; promolus, antepast, and a few Greek words: as tyrannis, idis, tyranny. Sometimes idis, and tigris.
3. *inis*:
   - pollis or pollen, flour; sanguis, blood.

**Note:** Gis, girus, dormouse; Isis, bitis, strike; semitas, semissela, half an ass; Ditis, Ditis; Quiris, Quirites; Samnis, Samnitia.

### 83. Nouns in òs:
- Genitive in oris:
  - mòs, custom:
  - mòris, mòs

**Exceptions.** - Genitive in
1. *òdis*:
   - còs, cotis, wheatstone; dòs, dowry; nepòs, grandson; sacerdòs, priest; and a few Greek words.
2. *òdis*:
   - custòs, custodicis, guardian; see 36, 2.
3. *òdis*:
   - a few masculine Greek nouns: hóros, hero; Minos, Trös.

**Note:** Ardòs or arboris, tree; os, ossis, bone; dòs, dobris, ox; see 66.

### 84. Nouns in ús, Gen. in úris or útis:
- Stem in Ús or Út.
1. *fùris*:
   - crùs, leg; jùs, right; jùs, soup; mùs, mouse; pùs, pus; rùs, country; tùs (thùs), incense; tellòs, earth.
2. *òtis*:
   - juvenitus, youth; salús, safety; senectúsa, old age; servítia, servitude; virtúta, virtue; see 36, 2.

**Exceptions.** - Genitive in
1. *ùdis*:
   - incis, anvil; palus, march; subsectis, dovetail.
2. *ulis*:
   - gruís, gruis, crane; sùs, swine.
3. *enis*:
   - a few Greek names of places: Trapezius, unsis.
4. *odis*:
   - Greek compounds in pùs: tripùs, tripodis, tripod.

**Note:** Frau, fraudis, fraud; laus, laudis, praise; see 64, 2, 3, foot-note. For Greek nouns in eus, see 68.

### 85. Nouns in us:
- Gen. in eris or oris:
1. *eris*:
   - latus, lateris, side:
   - stem, latos. So also: acus, foedus, funus, genus, glomus, manus, olus, onus, opus, pondus, rúdus, scelus, sidus, ulexus, vellus, Venus, viscus, vulnus.
2. *oris*:
   - corpus, corporis, body:
   - stem, corpors. So also decus, decemus,

---

1 Stem cintis, cimer for cineris with variable vowel i, o; see 24, 1; 31, 1; and 57. 2.
2 Greek nouns sometimes have idos or even isos for idis; Salamis has Salaminis; Simote, Simoentis.
3 See 61, 1, foot-note.
SYNOPSIS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

facinus, faenus, frigus, lepus, litus, nemus, pectus, pecus, pestus, pignus, stercus, tempus, tergus.

Nouns in *ys*: Genitive in *yis*, *yos*, *ýs*: Stem in *y*:

Othrys, Othryos, Othry.

Nouns in *bs*: Genitive in *bis*: Stem in *bi*:

urbs, city, urbis, urbi.

Nouns in *mas*: Genitive in *mis*: Stem in *m*:

hiems, winter, hiemis, hiem.

Nouns in *eps*: Genitive in *ips*: Stem in *ip*, *ip*

princeps, prince, principis, princeps, ip.

Nouns in *s* after *l*, *n*, or *r*: Gen. in *tis*: Stem in *ti*:

puls, broth, pultis, pulti.

mens, mind, mentis, menti.

ars, art, artis, arti.

Nouns in *frēns*, *frondis*, leaf; *glōna*, *glondis*, corn; *fōgilōna*, *fōglandis*, walnut; see 64, 2.

IV. Nouns ending in *x*.

91. Nouns in *x*: Genitive in *ācis*: Stem in *āc*:

pāx, peace, pācis, pāc.

Nouns in *āxes*: Genitive in *ācis* or *āgis*: Stem in *āc*, *āg*:

1. *ācis*:—ālex, pickle; *verbēx*, wether.

2. *āgis*:—āx, law; *rēx*, king, and their compounds.

93. Nouns in *ex*: Genitive in *ōcis*: Stem in *ōc*, *oc*:

jūdex, judge, jūdictis, jūdic, ec.

Exceptions.—Genitive in

1. *ēcis*:—ēx, murder; *fēnisex*, mower; (*prex*, *prēcis*, prayer.

2. *ēgis*:—ēx, flock; *aquēx*, water-inspector.

3. *īgis*:—rēmex, rēmīgis, rower; see 24, 1.

Nouns in *ex*: Genitive in *ōcis*: Stem in *ōc*, *oc*:

rādix, root, rādōcis, rādic.

1 These are of Greek origin; a few of them have *ydis*: *chlamys*, *chlamydis*, cloak.

2 Dissyllables have the stem in *ā*.

3 Dissyllables in *s* have the stem in *i*.
GENDER IN THIRD DECLENSION.

95. Nouns in *ix* : Genitive in *iōs* : Stem in *io* :
calix, cup, calicis, calic.
Note.—Nix, nicio (S6), exow, strix, striga, screech-owl; a few Gallic names also have the Genitive in *iōs* : Dumonoria, Orpétoria.

96. Nouns in *ōx* or *ox* : voc, vocis, voice; nox, noctis, night.
Note.—There are also a few national names in *ox* , Gen. in *ōcis* or *ógis* : Cappadocia, Cappadoctia; Allobroges, Allobroges.

97. Nouns in *ux* : Genitive in *uēs* : Stem in *uo* :
dux, leader, ducois, dua.
Note 1.—Lōx, lōs, light; Pollux, Pollōs, Pollux; fruit, frugia, fruit.
Note 2.—Greek nouns in *ōs* and *os* are variously declined: Eryx, Bryōs, Eryx; bombyx, bombūx, silkworm; Styx, Sty Olympia, suckoo; onyx, onychis, onyx.

98. Nouns in *x* after a or r: Genitive in *cis* : Stem in *ci* :
arcx, citadel, arcis, arc.
Note 1.—Conjunctus or conjugis, conjugus, spouse.
Note 2.—Most nouns in *o* preceded by a are of Greek origin: lynx, lynceis, lynx; phalana, phalantia, phalanx.

GENDER IN THIRD DECLENSION.

99. Nouns in the third declension ending in *ō*, *or*, *os*, *er*, and in *ēs* and *ēs* increasing in the Genitive, are masculine: sermō, discourse; dolor, pain; mōs, custom; agger, mound; pēs, Genitive pedis, foot.

100. Nouns in *ō* are masculine, except the Feminines, viz.:
2. Cardō, flesh, and the Greek Argyō, echō, echo.
3. Most abstract and collective nouns in *īd* : ratiō, reason; contiō, an assembly.

101. Nouns in *or* are masculine, except—
1. The Feminine:—arbor, tree.
2. The Neuters:—ador, spelt; aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.

102. Nouns in *ōs* are masculine, except—
1. The Feminines:—arbōs, tree; cōs, whetstone; dōs, dowry; sōs, dawn.
2. The Neuter:—ōs, mouth.
Note.—Os, bone, and a few Greek words in *os* are neuter: chaos, chaos.

103. Nouns in *īr* are masculine, except—

---

1 That is, having more syllables in the Genitive than in the Nominative.
1. The Feminine:—litter, boat (sometimes masc).
2. The Neuters:—(1) cadaver, corpse; iter, way; über, tumor; über, udder; vēr, spring; verber, scourge;—(2) botanical names in er, Gen. eris: acer, maple-tree; papaver, poppy.

104. Nouns in ēs and ūs increasing in the Genitive are masculine, except—
1. The Feminines:—compēs, fetter; mercēs, reward; mergēs, sheaf; quisēs, rest (with its compounds); seges, crop; tegēs, mat; sometimes ales, bird, and quadrupēs, quadruped.
2. The Neuter:—aēs, copper.

105. Nouns of the third declension ending in ēs, as, is, ūs, x, in ēs not increasing in the Genitive, and in s preceded by a consonant, are feminine:¹ aetās, age; nāvis, ship; chlamys, cloak; pāx, peace; nūbēs, cloud; urbs, city.

106. Nouns in ēs and ūs are feminine, except—
1. The Masculines:—as, an as (a coin), vas, surety, and Greek nouns in as, Gen. antis.
2. The Neuters:—vās, vessel, and Greek nouns in as, Gen. atis.

107. Nouns in is and ūs are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
1. Nouns in ēlis, ollis, cīs, mīs, nīs, guis, quis, quis: nātalēs, birthday; ignis, fire; sanguis, blood. But a few of these are occasionally feminine: canis, amnis, cinis, finis, anguis, torquis.
2. Axiēs, axile; bāris, plough-tail; callēs, path; ēnsis, sword; lapis, stone; mēnis, month; orbēs, circle; postēs, post; pulvis, dust; semitis, brier; torris, brand; vectēs, lever; and a few others.

108. Nouns in x are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
1. Greek masculines: corax, raven; thōrax, cuirass.
2. Nouns in ex and umx; except the feminines: facex, forfex, nāx, (prex), supellex.
3. Calix, cup; fornix, arch; phoenix, phoenix; tradux, vine-layer, and a few nouns in yx.
4. Sometimes: calx, heel; calx, lime; lynx, lynx.

109. Nouns in ūs not increasing in the Genitive are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:

¹ Nouns whose gender is determined by Signification (ēs) may be exceptions to these rules for gender as determined by Endings. Calix is sometimes feminine.
FOURTH DECISION.

Actinaeis, cimenter; sometimes palumbēs, dove; and vespēs, thorn-bush.

Note.—For Greek nouns in ὁ, see 111, note.

110. Nouns in S preceded by a CONSONANT are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
1. Dēns, tooth; fōns, fountain; mōns, mountain; pōns, bridge; generally adeps, fat, and rudēns, cable.
2. Some nouns in na, originally adjectives or participles with a masculine noun understood: oriēns (sol), east; confluēns (amnis), confluence; tridēns (raster), trident; quadrāns (ās), quarter.
3. Chalybē, steel; hydroscope, dropsy, and a few other Greek words.
4. Sometimes: forceps, forceps; serpent, serpent; stirps, stock. Animānus, animal, is masculine, feminine, or neuter.

111. Nouns of the third declension ending in a, e, i, y, o, l, n, t, ār, ar, ur, us, and us are neuter:1 poēma, poem; mare, sea; lāc, milk; animal, animal; carmen, song; caput, head; corpus, body.

Note.—A few Greek nouns in ὁ are also neuter: cacoēthēs, desire, passion.

112. Nouns in L, ĀR, and AR are neuter, except the Masculines, viz.: Mōsōl, mullet; salī, salt; solī, sun; lār, hearth; salār, trout.

113. Nouns in N are neuter, except—
1. The Masculines:—pedēn, comb; rēn, kidney; liōm, spleen; and Greek masculines in ān, ōn, ēn, ōn: paeōn, paean; canōn, rule.
2. The Feminines:—adōn, nightingale; aleōn (halyēn), kingfisher; icon, image; sindōn, muslin.

114. Nouns in UR are neuter, except the Masculines, viz.: Purpurā, bran; turtur, turtle-dove; vultur, vulture.

115. Nouns in US and US are neuter, except—
1. The Masculines:—lepus, hare; mōs, mouse; and Greek nouns in prōs.
2. The Feminines:—tellūs, earth; frōs, fraud; laus, praise; and nouns in ūs, Gen. ētis or ūdis: virtūs, virtue; polōs, marsh.

FOURTH DECISION: U NOUNS.

116. Nouns of the fourth declension end in us—masculine; ū—neuter.

They are declined as follows:

---

1 See foot-note, page 47. Sal is sometimes neuter in the singular.
FOURTH DECLENSION.

Fructus, fruit. Cornu, horn.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOM.</th>
<th>GEN.</th>
<th>DAT.</th>
<th>ACC.</th>
<th>VOC.</th>
<th>ABL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fructus</td>
<td>fructus</td>
<td>fructu</td>
<td>fructum</td>
<td>fructus</td>
<td>fructu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>CASE-ENDINGS.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fructus</td>
<td>fructus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
<th>CASE-ENDINGS.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fructus</td>
<td>fructus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The Stem in nouns of the fourth declension ends in u: fructu, cornu.
2. The Case-Endings here given contain the characteristic u, weakened to i in ibus, but retained in ubus; see 22.

117. The following Irregular Case-Endings occur:
1. Ubus for ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural—
2. Uis, the uncontracted form for us, in the Genitive: fructuis for fructus.
3. Ues, an old form of the Genitive ending: senatues, of the senate.

118. Nouns in us are masculine, those in ā are neuter, but the following in us are—

---

1 Thus ā is contracted into ā: fructu, fructa.
2 To these should be added the rare endings ūd for ē in the Abl. Sing., wus for ēs in the Gen. Sing., and wus for ēs in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Pl. See Wordsworth, pp. 60-62.
3 Generally plural, ēmēs.
4 It has been already mentioned (47, note 1) that the five declensions are only five varieties of one general system of inflection. The close relationship between the third declension and the fourth will be seen by comparing the declension of fructus, a u-noun of the fourth, with that of prōs (66, 2), a u-noun of the third. In fact, if the old Genitive ending ēs had not been contracted into ēs, there would have been no fourth declension whatever. All u-nouns would have belonged to the third declension.
5 Compare the Greek Genitive in or: ἵδεις, ἵδεος, ἵδη.
6 This was first weakened to senātuis (39), and then contracted to senātus (33, 2), the classical form.
FIFTH DECLENSION.

Feminine by Exception:—(1) acus, needle; colus, distaff; domus, house; manus, hand; porticus, portico; tribus, tribe;—(2) Idās, Ides; Quinquādr̄īs, feast of Minerva; generally pennis, store, when of this declension; rarely specus, den;—(3) see 42, II.

Note.—The only neuter nouns in common use are cornū, genū, and verū.¹

119. Second and Fourth Declensions.—Some nouns are partly of the fourth declension and partly of the second.

1. Domus, f., house, has a Locative form domī, at home, and is otherwise declined as follows:²

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. domus</td>
<td>domūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. domūs</td>
<td>domuōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. domūt (domū)</td>
<td>domibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. domum</td>
<td>domūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. domus</td>
<td>domūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. domō (domū)</td>
<td>domibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Certain names of trees in us, as cupressus, ficus, laurus, pinus, though generally of Decl. II., sometimes take those cases of the fourth which end in us, us, and ̄: N. laurus, G. laurūs, D. laurō, A. laurūm, V. laurus, A. laurū; etc. So also colus, distaff.

3. A few nouns, especially senātus, senate, and tumuli, tumult, though regularly of Decl. IV., sometimes take the Genitive ending i of the second; senātī, tumūlī.


FIFTH DECLENSION: Ɛ NOUNS.

120. Nouns of the fifth declension end in Ɛs—feminine, and are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diēs, day.</th>
<th>Rēs, thing.</th>
<th>Case-Endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. diēs</td>
<td>rēs</td>
<td>Ɛs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. diē or diē</td>
<td>rēx or rē</td>
<td>Ɛt, Ɛ̄</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. diē or diē</td>
<td>rēx or rē</td>
<td>Ɛt, Ɛ̄</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. diēm</td>
<td>rem</td>
<td>em</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. diēs</td>
<td>rēs</td>
<td>Ɛs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. diē</td>
<td>rē</td>
<td>Ɛ̄</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ But neuter forms occur in certain cases of other words. Thus, Dat. pecū, Abl. pecū, Nom., Acc., and Voc. Pl. pecūa, from obsolete pecū, cattle; also artuṣa from artuṣ; osuṣa from obsolete osuṣ, bone; specuṣa from specuṣ.

² Combining forms of the second declension with those of the fourth.
FIFTH DECLENSION.

Nom. diēs  
Gen. diērum  
Dat. diēbus  
Acc. diēs  
Voc. diēs  
Abl. diēbus  

PLURAL.
res  
referum  
rebūs  
res  
res  
rebūs  

CASE-ENDINGS.
ēs  
ērum  
ēbus  
ēs  
ēs  
ēbus

1. The Stem of nouns of the fifth declension ends in ē: diē, rēs.1

2. The Case-Endings here given contain the characteristic ē, which appears in all the cases. It is shortened (1) generally in the ending ēi, when preceded by a consonant, and (2) regularly in the ending em.

Note.—Traces of a Locative in ē are preserved in certain phrases found in early Latin, as diē septēnt, on the seventh day; diē erat, on the morrow; diē prōxīmus, on the next day. Cōttīdē, hōdī, prītīdē, and the like are doubtless Locatives in origin.

121. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur:
1. I ē or ēī for ēi in the Gen. and Dat.: acē or acēī, of sharpness; diēī for diēi; rēī for rēi; perniciēī for perniciēi, of destruction.
2. Ēs in the Gen. in early Latin: diēs, of a day; rabēs, of madness.

122. DEFECTIVE.—Nouns of this declension want the plural, except 2—
1. Diēs and res, complete in all their parts.
2. Acēs, sharpness; offigēs, image; facēs, face; serēs, series; spēs, appearance; spēs,3 hope, used in the Sing., and in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Plur.
3. Bluēsēs, used in the Sing. and in the Nom. Plur., and glaciēs in the Sing. and in the Acc. Plur.

123. GENDER.—Nouns of the fifth declension are feminine—
Except diēs, day, and meridēsēs, midday, masculine, though diēs is sometimes feminine in the singular, especially when it means time.

124. GENERAL TABLE OF GENDER.
I. Gender independent of ending.4 Common to all declensions.

---

1 Originally most ē-stems appear to have been either ē-stems or ē-stems. Thus: 1) Most stems in ēō are modified from ēō: māterēs, māterēs, Nom. māterēs, material; see 25, 1, note, with foot-note 6. In this class of words the Gen. and Dat. Sing. are formed from the stem in ēō, not from that in ēē: māterēs, not māterēēs. 2) Diēs, jōsēs, pīēsēs, and spēs appear to have been ē-stems, modified to ē-stems, as many ē-stems in the third declension were modified to ē-stems; see 63, L, 1, foot-note.

2 In early Latin spēs occurs in the Nom. and Acc. Plur., formed from spēs treated as a stem in s. Thus: spēs, spēsēs, spēsēs (31, 1).

3 For exceptions, see 43.
## COMPOUND NOUNS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine.</th>
<th>Feminine.</th>
<th>Neuter.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Names of Males, of Rivers, Winds, and Months.</td>
<td>Names of Females, of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees.</td>
<td>INDECLINABLE NOUNS,1 INFINITIVES, and CLAUSES used as Nouns.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. Gender determined by Nominative ending.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine.</th>
<th>Feminine.</th>
<th>Neuter.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>şas, şas.</td>
<td>a, ş.</td>
<td>um, on.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Declension II. | | |
|----------------|---------|
| ș, or, șs, er, șs and as increasing in the Genitive. | | a, e, i, y, c, l, n, t, ār. |
| as, as, șs, șs, x, șs and as not increasing in the Genitive, preceded by a consonant. | | ar, ur, șs, us. |

| Declension IV. | | *
|----------------|---------|
| us. | | *

| Declension V. | | *
|----------------|---------|
| șs. | | *

### COMPOUND NOUNS.

125. Compounds present in general no peculiarities of declension. But—

1. If two nominatives unite, they are both declined: *rēspūlica = rēs pública*, republic, the public thing; *jūs jūrandum = jūs jūrandum*, oath.

2. If a nominative unites with an oblique case, only the nominative is declined: *paterfamilīās = pater familīās* (59, 1), or *pater familīae*, the father of a family.

#### 126. Paradigms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. rēspūlica</td>
<td>jūs jūrandum</td>
<td>paterfamilīās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. rēspūlicae</td>
<td>jūris jūrandī</td>
<td>patrisfamilīās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. rēspūlica</td>
<td>jūris jūrandō</td>
<td>patrisfamilīās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. remūlīcam</td>
<td>jūs jūrandum</td>
<td>patremfamilīās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. rēspūlica</td>
<td>jūs jūrandum</td>
<td>paterfamilīās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. rēspūlica</td>
<td>jūris jūrandō</td>
<td>patremfamilīās</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1 Except names of persons.
2 For exceptions, see under the several declensions.
3 Words thus formed, however, are not compounds in the strict sense of the term; see 340, 1., note.
IRREGULAR NOUNS.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

127. Irregular nouns may be divided into four classes:
I. **Indeclinable Nouns** have but one form for all cases.
II. **Defective Nouns** want certain parts.
III. Heteroclites (heteroclita<sup>1</sup>) are partly of one declension and partly of another.
IV. Heterogeneous Nouns (heterogenea<sup>2</sup>) are partly of one gender and partly of another.

I. **INDECLINABLE NOUNS.**

128. The Latin has but few indeclinable nouns. The following are the most important:
1. The letters of the alphabet, a, b, e, alpha, beta, etc.
2. Foreign words: Jācob, Hibert; though foreign words often are declined.

II. **DEFECTIVE NOUNS.**

129. Nouns may be defective in **Number**, in **Case**, or in both **Number** and **Case**.

130. **Plural wanting.**—Many nouns from the nature of their signification want the plural: Rōma, Rome; justitia, justice; aurum, gold; famēs, hunger; sanguis, blood.

1. The principal nouns of this class are:
1) Most names of persons and places: Ockerb, Rōma.
2) Abstract Nouns: fides, faith; justitia, justice.
3) Names of materials: aurum, gold; ferrum, iron.
4) A few others: meridies, midday; specimen, example; suppellex, furniture; vér, spring; vespera, evening, etc.

2. Proper names admit the plural to designate *families, classes*; names of materials, to designate *pieces* of the material or *articles* made of it; and abstract nouns, to designate *instances*, or *kinds*, of the quality: Scipionēs, the Scipios; aera, vessels of copper; avāritiae, instances of avarice; odivia, hatreds.

3. In the poets, the **plural** of abstracts occurs in the sense of the singular.

---

<sup>1</sup> From ērēsos, another, and κλίσις, *infection*, i. e., of different declensions.

<sup>2</sup> From ērēsos, another, and γένος, *gender*, i. e., of different genders.
131. Singular wanting.—Many nouns want the singular.

1. The most important of these are:
   1) Certain personal appellatives applicable to classes: majores, forefathers; posteri, descendants; gemini, twins; liberi, children.
   2) Many names of cities: Athenae, Athens; Thebae, Thebes; Delphii, Delphi.

3) Many names of festivals: Bacchanalia, Olympia, Saturnalia.

4) Arma, arms; divitiae, riches; exequiae, funeral rites; exuviae, spoils; Idae, Ides; inditas, truce; insidiae, ambuscade; mantes, shades of the dead; minae, threats; moenia, walls; mactae, duties; nuptiae, nuptials; reliquiae, remains.

2. An individual member of a class designated by these plurals may be denoted by unus ex with the plural: unus ex liberis, one of the children, or a child.

Note.—The plural in names of cities may have reference to the several parts of the city, especially as ancient cities were often made up of separate villages. So in the names of festivals, the plural may refer to the various games and exercises which together constituted the festival.

132. Plural with Change of Meaning.—Some nouns have one significance in the singular and another in the plural. Thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aedes, temple;</td>
<td>aedes, (1) temples, (2) a house.¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auxilium, help;</td>
<td>auxilia, auxiliaries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carcer, prison, barrier;</td>
<td>carceres, barriers of a race-course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Castrum, castle, hut;</td>
<td>castra, camp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comitium, name of a part of the Roman forum;</td>
<td>comitia, the assembly held in the comitium.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copia, plenty, force;</td>
<td>copiae, (1) stores, (2) troops.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facultas, ability;</td>
<td>facultates, wealth, means.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finis, end;</td>
<td>fines, borders, territory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortuna, fortune;</td>
<td>fortunae, possessions, wealth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gratia, gratitude, favor;</td>
<td>gratiae, thanks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hortus, garden;</td>
<td>horti, (1) gardens, (2) pleasure-grounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impedimentum, hindrance;</td>
<td>impedimenta, (1) hindrances, (2) baggage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Littera, letter of alphabet;</td>
<td>litterae, (1) letters of alphabet, (2) epistles, writing, letters, literature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ludi, play, sport;</td>
<td>ludii, (1) plays, (2) public spectacles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mos, custom;</td>
<td>morae, manners, character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natalis (diis), birth-day;</td>
<td>natalia, pedigrees, parentage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opera, work, service;</td>
<td>operae, workmen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pars, part;</td>
<td>partes, (1) parts, (2) a party.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rostrum, beak of ship;</td>
<td>rostra, (1) beaks, (2) the rostra or tribune in Rome (adorned with beaks).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sal, salt;</td>
<td>salae, witty sayings.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Aedes and some other words in this list, it will be observed, have in the plural two significations, one corresponding to that of the singular, and the other distinct from it.
133. Defective in Case.—Some nouns are defective in case:

1. In the Nom., Dat., and Voc. Sing.: —, opis, —, opem, —, ops, help; —, vicis, —, vicem, —, vise, change.
2. In the Nom., Gen., and Voc. Sing.: —, preci, precem, —, preco, prayer.
3. In the Nom. and Voc. Sing.: —, dopis, —, dapi, dopem, —, dope, food; —, frugis, frugi, frugem, —, fruge, fruit.
4. In the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur.: Most nouns of the fifth Decl.; see 122.

Note.—Many neuters are also defective in the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur.: fūr, fōl, mé, pīs, rīs, sūs, etc., especially Greek neuters in os, which want these cases also in the singular: epos, mēkos; also a few nouns of Decl. IV.: mētus, sītus, etc.

5. In the Gen. Plur.: many nouns otherwise entire, especially monosyllables: nēx, pāx, pīx; orī, oēs, rōs; sāl, sōl, lūx.

134. Number and Case.—Some nouns want one entire number and certain cases of the other. The following forms occur: fores, fortes, chance; luēs, luem, lue, pestilence; dicōnis, dicioni, dicionem, diconem, sway. Fās, right, and nefās, wrong, are used in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Sing.; instar, likeness, nihil, nothing, and opus, need, in the Nom. and Acc.; secus, sex, in the Acc. only. Many verbal nouns in us and a few other words have only the Ablative Singular: jusūs, by order; mandātu, by command; rogātu, by request; spōnte, by choice, etc.

III. Heteroclites.

135. Of Declensions II. and IV. are a few nouns in us; see 119.

136. Of Declensions II. and III. are—

1. Jūgerum, an acre; generally of the second Decl. in the Sing., and of the third in the Plur.: jūgerum, jūgeri; plural, jūgēra, jūgerum, jūgeribus.
2. Vās, a vessel; of the third Decl. in the Sing. and of the second in the Plur.: vās, vāsi; plural, vāsa, vāsorum.
3. Plural names of festivals in ālia: Bacchānālia, Saturnālia; which are regularly of the third Decl., but sometimes form the Gen. Plur. in ārum of the second. Ancūs, a shield, and a few other words have the same peculiarity.

137. Of Declensions III. and V. are—

1. Requiēs, rest; which is regularly of the third Decl., but also takes the forms requiem and requiēs of the fifth.
2. Fāmēs, hunger; regularly of the third Decl., except in the Ablative, famē, of the fifth (not famē, of the third).

138. Forms in us and āus.—Many words of four syllables have one form in us of Decl. I., and one in āus of Decl. V.: luxūria, luxuriās, luxury; materia, materiās, material.

139. Forms in us and um.—Many nouns derived from verbs have one form in us of Decl. IV., and one in um of Decl. II.: concūsus, concūsum, attempt; ēventus, ēventum, event.

1 Defective also in the Gen. Plur.
ADJECTIVES.

140. Many words which have but one approved form in prose, admit another in poetry: *juvenis* (ātis), youth; poetic, *juvenis* (ātis), old age; poetic, *senecta* (āe): *pauperis* (ātis), poverty; poetic, *pauperis* (ātis).

IV. HETEROGENEOUS NOUNS.

141. Masculine and Neuter.—Some *masculines* take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

- *Jocus*, m., jest;
- *Locus*, m., place;
plurals: *joci*, m., *joca*, n.;
plurals: *locti*, m., *locus*, n., places.

142. Feminine and Neuter.—Some *feminines* take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

- *Carbasus*, f., linen;
- *Margarita*, f., pearl;
- *Ostrea*, f., oyster;
plurals: *carbas*, f., *carbas*, n.;
plurals: *margaritas*, f., *margarita*, n.;
plurals: *ostreas*, f., *ostrea*, n.

143. Neuter and Masculine or Feminine.—Some *neuters* take in the plural a different gender. Thus:

1. Some *neuters* become *masculine* in the plural:

- *Caestum*, n., heaven;
plurals: *caeli*, m.

2. Some *neuters* generally become *masculine* in the plural, but sometimes remain *neuter*:

- *Frēnum*, n., bridle;
- *Rāstrum*, n., rake;
plurals: *frēni*, m., *frēna*, n.;
plurals: *rāstrī*, m., *rāstrā*, n.

3. Some *neuters* become *feminine* in the plural:

- *Eπulum*, n., feast;
plurals: *epulae*, f.

144. Forms in *us* and *um*.—Some nouns of the second declension have one form in *us* masculine, and one in *um* neuter: *clipeus*, *clipeum*, shield; *commentarium*, *commentarium*, commentary.

145. Heterogeneous Heteroclites.—Some heteroclites are also heterogeneous: *cōnātus* (ās), *cōnātum* (ātus), effort; *menda* (āe), *mendum* (ātus), fault.

CHAPTER II.

ADJECTIVES.

146. The adjective is the part of speech which is used to qualify nouns: *bonus*, good; *māgnus*, great.

Note.—The form of the adjective in Latin depends in part upon the gender of the noun which it qualifies: *bonus puēr*, a good boy; *bona puella*, a good girl; *bonum templum*, a good temple. Thus, in the Nom. Sing., *bonus* is the form of the adjective when used with masculine nouns, *bona* with feminine, and *bonum* with neuter.
ADJECTIVES.

147. Some adjectives are partly of the first declension and partly of the second, while all the rest are entirely of the third declension.

FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS: A AND O STEMS.

148. Bonus, good.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masc.</th>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>Fem.</th>
<th>Neut.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. bonus</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. bonus</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. bonūs</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bonūs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. bonum</td>
<td>bonum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. bone</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. bonūs</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. bonī</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gen. bonorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. bonis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. bonōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. bonis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. bonīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

149. Liber, free.²

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masc.</th>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>Fem.</th>
<th>Neut.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. liber</td>
<td>libera</td>
<td>liberum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. liberī</td>
<td>liberae</td>
<td>liběrē</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. liberō</td>
<td>liberae</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. liberum</td>
<td>liberam</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. liber</td>
<td>libera</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. liberō</td>
<td>liberē</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. liberī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. liberōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. libēris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. liberōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. liberī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. liberīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Bonus is declined in the Masc. like servus of Decl. II. (51), in the Fem. like mēnea of Decl. I. (48), and in the Neut. like templum of Decl. II. (51). The stems are bono in the Masc. and Neut., and bonā in the Fem.

² Liber is declined in the Masc. like peuer (51), and in the Fem. and Neut. like bonus.
ADJECTIVES.

150. Aeger, sick.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. aeger</td>
<td>aegra</td>
<td>aegram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. aegrī</td>
<td>aegrīae</td>
<td>aegrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. aegrō</td>
<td>aegrāe</td>
<td>aegrō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. aegrum</td>
<td>aegrām</td>
<td>aegrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. aeger</td>
<td>aegrā</td>
<td>aegrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. aegrō</td>
<td>aegrā</td>
<td>aegrō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>aegra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. aegrōrum</td>
<td>aegrōrum</td>
<td>aegrōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. aegrīs</td>
<td>aegrīs</td>
<td>aegrīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. aegrōs</td>
<td>aegrās</td>
<td>aegra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. aegrī</td>
<td>aegrāe</td>
<td>aegras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. aegrīs</td>
<td>aegrīs</td>
<td>aegris</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—Most adjectives in er are declined like aeger, but the following in er and ur are declined like liber:

1) Aesper, rough; lacer, torn; miser, wretched; prōesper, prosperous; tener, tender; but aesper sometimes drops the e, e.g., and dexter, right, sometimes retains it: dexter, dextera, or dextra.
2) Satur, seated; satur, satura, saturum.
3) Compounds in fer and ger: mortifer, deadly; algiger, winged.

151. IRREGULARITIES.—Nine adjectives have in the singular fus in the Genitive and i in the Dative, and are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. alius</td>
<td>alia</td>
<td>alid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. alius</td>
<td>alius</td>
<td>alius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. alī</td>
<td>alī</td>
<td>alī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. allum</td>
<td>aliam</td>
<td>alid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. aliō</td>
<td>alia</td>
<td>aliō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sūlus, alone.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. sōlus</td>
<td>sōla</td>
<td>sōla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. sōlus</td>
<td>sōlus</td>
<td>sōlus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. sōlī</td>
<td>sōlī</td>
<td>sōlī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. sōlum</td>
<td>sōlām</td>
<td>sōlum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>sōle</td>
<td>sōla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. sōlō</td>
<td>sōlā</td>
<td>sōlo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Aeger is declined in the masculine like aeger (151), and in the feminine and neuter like bonus.
2 i in ius is often shortened by the poets; regularly so in alius in dactylic verse (609).
3 Rarely alius and alid. The same stem appears in all-quis (190, 2), some one; all-ter, otherwise.
4 For aliud by contraction. Alterius often supplies the place of alius.
ADJECTIVES.

PLURAL.

Nom. alit      alices      alicae     sōlit      sōlcae     sōla
Gen. allōrum  allārum     allōrum    sōlōrum    sōlārum    sōlōrum
Dat. allis     allis       allis      sōlis      sōlis      sōlis
Acc. allōs    alices      alia       sōlōs      sōlās      sōla
Voc. alia      alia        alia       sōla      sōlcae     sōla
Abl. allis     allis       allis      sōlis      sōlis      sōlis

1. These nine adjectives are: alius, a, ud, another; nullus, a, um, no one;
nullus, alone; totus, whole; illus, any; unus, one; alter, -era, -erum, the
other; uer, -era, -erum, which (of two); neuter, -era, -erum, neither.

Notes 1.—The regular forms occasionally occur in the Gen. and Dat. of some of these
adjectives.

Notes 2.—Like uer are declined its compounds: uerque, uervis, uerilibet, uer-
cunque. In alteruter sometimes both parts are declined, as alterius uerius; and
sometimes only the latter, as alterutrius.

THIRD DECLENSION: CONSONANT AND I STEMS.

152. Adjectives of the third declension may be divided
into three classes:
I. Those which have in the Nominative Singular three
different forms—one for each gender.

II. Those which have two forms—the masculine and
feminine being the same.

III. Those which have but one form—the same for all
genders.

153. ADJECTIVES OF THREE ENDINGS in this declension
have the stem in 1, and are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acr, sharp.</th>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. Acr</td>
<td>Acris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. Acris</td>
<td>Acris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. Acri</td>
<td>Acri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. Acrem</td>
<td>Acrema</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. Acr</td>
<td>Acris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. Acri</td>
<td>Acri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 See declension, 175.
2 Gen. alterius, Dat. alteri; otherwise declined like liber (149).
3 Or one of two, the one.
4 Gen. uerius, Dat. uer; otherwise like acer (150). Neuter like uer.
5 Acr is declined like licens in the Masc. and Fem., and like maris (63) in the Neut.,
except in the Nom. and Voc. Sing., Mas., and in the Abl. Sing.
6 These forms in or are like those in or of Decl. II. in dropping the ending in the
Nom. and Voc. Sing. and in developing final r into or: aecer for acris, stem, acri.
ADJECTIVES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. acrés</td>
<td>acrés</td>
<td>acría</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. acrīum</td>
<td>acrīum</td>
<td>acrīum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. acrubus</td>
<td>acrubus</td>
<td>acrubus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. acrés, Is</td>
<td>acrés, Is</td>
<td>acría</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. acrés</td>
<td>acrubus</td>
<td>acrubus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. acrubus</td>
<td>acrubus</td>
<td>acrubus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes 1.—Like acrés are declined:
1) Alacer, lively; campester, level; celeber, famous; color, swift; equester, equestrian; palatex, marshy; pedestrian, pedestrian; puter, putrid; salubr, healthful; silvester, woody; terrestre, terrestrial; colusor, winged.
2) Adjectives in er designating the months: October,bris.3

Note 2.—In the poets and in early Latin the form in er, as acrés, Is sometimes feminine, and the form in Is, as acrés, is sometimes masculine.

154. ADJECTIVES OF TWO ENDINGS are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tristis, sad.¹</th>
<th>Tristior, sadder.⁴</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M. and F.</td>
<td>N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. tristis</td>
<td>triste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. tristis</td>
<td>tristis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. tristi</td>
<td>tristī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. tristem</td>
<td>triste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. tristis</td>
<td>triste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. tristi</td>
<td>tristi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. tristēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. tristium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. tristibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. tristēs, Is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. tristēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. tristibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes 1.—Like tristus, comparatives, as consonant stems, generally have the Abl. Sing. in e, sometimes in i, the Nom. Plur. Neut. in a, and the Gen. Plur. in um. But complēris, several, has Gen. Plur. complūrium; Nom., Acc., and Voc. Plur. Neut. complūris or complēris; see Plu, 165.

Note 2.—In poetry, adjectives in Is, e, sometimes have the Abl. Sing. in e: cognōmine, of the same name.

¹ This retains e in declension: color, coloris, color; and has um in the Gen. Plur.
² See also 77, 3, note.
³ Tristis and triste are declined like acrés and acrés; the stem is tristī.
⁴ Tristior is the comparative (160) of tristius; the stem was originally tristius, but it has been modified to tristius (61, 1) and tristior (31).
⁵ Enclosed endings are rare.
ADJECTIVES.

155. ADJECTIVES OF ONE ENDING generally end in s or z, but sometimes in l or r.

156. Audax, audacious. Felix, happy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. audax</td>
<td>audax</td>
<td>felix</td>
<td>felix</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gen. audacis</td>
<td>audacis</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. audaci</td>
<td>audaci</td>
<td>felici</td>
<td>felici</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. audacieum</td>
<td>audax</td>
<td>felicem</td>
<td>felix</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. audax</td>
<td>audax</td>
<td>felix</td>
<td>felix</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abl. audaci(e)</td>
<td>audaci(e)</td>
<td>felici(e)</td>
<td>felici(e)</td>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. audaces</td>
<td>audacia</td>
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<td>felicia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. audiaceum</td>
<td>audiaceum</td>
<td>felicium</td>
<td>felicium</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. audacibus</td>
<td>audacibus</td>
<td>felicibus</td>
<td>felicibus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>audacia</td>
<td>felices(1s)</td>
<td>felicia</td>
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<td>Voc. audaces</td>
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<td>felices</td>
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<td>prudens</td>
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<tr>
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<td>prudens</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. amans</td>
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<td>prudentem</td>
<td>prudens</td>
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<tr>
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<td>amante(1)</td>
<td>prudentem(1)</td>
<td>prudentem</td>
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</table>

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<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>amantem</td>
<td>prudentes</td>
<td>prudentia</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>amantium</td>
<td>prudentium</td>
<td>prudentium</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>amantibus</td>
<td>prudentibus</td>
<td>prudentibus</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>amantem</td>
<td>prudentes(1s)</td>
<td>prudentia</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Voc. amantes</td>
<td>amantem</td>
<td>prudentes</td>
<td>prudentia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>amantibus</td>
<td>prudentibus</td>
<td>prudentibus</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—The participle amans differs in declension from the adjective prudent only in the Abl. Sing., where the participle usually has the ending e, and the adjective, i.
ADJECTIVES.

Particules used adjectively may of course take 1. A few adjectives have only e in general use:—(1) pauper, paupera, poor; pudc, pudera, mature;— (3) those in es, G. itis or idis: alce, alces, alceae, alceas, supereas; (3) caelebs, compus, impee, princeps.

158. Vetus, old. Memor, mindful.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M. AND F.</td>
<td>NEUT.</td>
<td>M. AND F.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>vetus</td>
<td>vetus</td>
<td>memor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>veteris</td>
<td>veteris</td>
<td>memoris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>veteri</td>
<td>veteiri</td>
<td>memorii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aec.</td>
<td>veterem</td>
<td>vetus</td>
<td>memorem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>vetus</td>
<td>vetus</td>
<td>memori</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>veteere (t)</td>
<td>veteere (t)</td>
<td>memori</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>veteres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>veterem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>veteribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aec.</td>
<td>veteres (Is)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>veteres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>veteribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Neuter Plural.—Many adjectives, like memor, from the nature of their signification, want the Neuter Plural; all others have the ending ia, as felicia, prudencia, except über, übera, fertile, and vetus, vetera.

2. Genitive Plural.—Most adjectives have Isum, but the following have um:

1) Adjectives of one ending with only e in the Ablative Singular (157, note): pauper, pauperum.

2) Those with the Genitive in oris, oris, uris: vetus, veterum, old; memori, memorium, mindful; cieur, cieurum, tame.

3) Those in ceps: anceps, ancepitum, doubtful.

4) Those compounded with substantives which have um: inops (ops, opum), inopum, helpless.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

159. Irregular adjectives may be—

I. INDECLINABLE: frugi, frugal, good; nèquam, worthless; mille, thousand; see 176.

II. DELECTIVE: (œturus) oetera, oeterum, the other, the rest; (ludicer) ludica, ludicrum, sportive; (sōns) sōnis, guilty; (sēminex) sēmincis, half dead; pauci, ae, a, few, used only in the Plural; see also 158, 1.

III. HETEROCLITE.—Many adjectives have two distinct forms, one in us, a, um, of the first and second declensions, and one in is and e of the third: hilarus and hilaris, joyful; exanimus and exanimis, lifeless.
COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

160. Adjectives have three forms, called the Positive degree, the Comparative, and the Superlative: altus, altior, altissimus, high, higher, highest. These forms denote different degrees of the quality expressed by the adjective.

161. The Latin, like the English, has two modes of comparison:

I. TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON—by endings.

II. ADVERBIAL COMPARISON—by adverbs.

I. TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON.

162. Adjectives are regularly compared by adding to the stem of the positive the endings:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPARATIVE</th>
<th>SUPERLATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ior</td>
<td>ius</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

altus, altior, altissimus, high, higher, highest,
levis, levior, levissimus, light, lighter, lightest.

NOTE.—VOWEL STEMS lose their final vowel: alto, altior, altissimus.

163. IRREGULAR SUPERLATIVES.—Many adjectives with regular comparatives have irregular superlatives. Thus:

1. Those in or add rimus to this ending: 1 acer, acrior, acerrimus, sharp.

NOTE.—Vetus has cesterrimus; mātīrūs, both maderrimus and madīrissimus; dexter, dextīmus.

2. Six in ills add limus to the stem: 1

facilis, difficilis, easy, difficult,
similis, dissimilis, like, unlike,
gracilis, humilis, slender, low;

facilis, facillor, facillimus. Imbècillis has imbècillimus.

3. Four in rus have two irregular superlatives:

exterus, exterior, extrēmus and extimus, outward,
inferus, inferior, infimus and imus, lower,
superus, superior, suprēmus and summus, upper,
posterus, posterior, postrēmus and postimus, next.

1 The superlative ending -e-simus is probably compounded of e, from the original comparative ending (154, foot-note 4), and simus for tēmus; iō-simus = iō-simus = tē-simus. After i and r, the first element is omitted, and e assimilated: facilis, facilissimus, facil-illimus; acer, acerrimus, acerrimus; but those in ills drop the final vowel of the stem. See Bopp, §§ 391-307; Schleicher, pp. 486-494; Roby, p. lxvi.
164. *Egēnus*, prōvidus, and compounds in dicus, ficus, and volus, are compared with the endings entior and entissimus, as if from forms in èns:

egēnus, 
prōvidēns, 
maledicus, 
mūnificus, 
benevolus,
egentior, 
prōvidentior, 
maledicientior, 
mūnificientior, 
benevolentior,
egentissimus, 
prōvidentissimus, 
maledicientissimus, 
mūnificientissimus, 
benevolentissimus,
entior, 
prōvidentior, 
maledicientior, 
mūnificientior, 
benevolentior,
entissimus, 
prōvidentissimus, 
maledicientissimus, 
mūnificientissimus, 
benevolentissimus,
entior, 
prōvidentior, 
maledicientior, 
mūnificientior, 
benevolentior,
noted,
prudent, 
slanderous, 
liberal,
benevolent.

Note.—Mirōssiommus occurs as the superlativ of mirīficus, wonderful.

165. Special Irregularities of Comparison.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>bonus</th>
<th>melior</th>
<th>optimus</th>
<th>good</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>malus</td>
<td>pājor</td>
<td>pessimus</td>
<td>bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>māgnus</td>
<td>mājor</td>
<td>māximus</td>
<td>great</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parvus</td>
<td>minor</td>
<td>mīnimus</td>
<td>small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multus</td>
<td>plus</td>
<td>plērīmus</td>
<td>much</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1.—Pīsē is neuter, and has in the singular only Nom. and Acc. pīsē, and Gen. pītēra. In the plural it has Nom. and Acc. pītērms (m. and f.), pītēra (n.), Gen. plēris-

uēm, Dat. and Abl. plēbris.

Note 2.—Dives, frūtī, and nēqum are thus compared:

dives, divided, 
frūtī, frūgāllor, 
nēqum, nēquior, 
{dīvītiānum, } 
{dītior, } 
{frīgāllisnum, } 
{nēqisnum, }
rich, 
frugal, 
worthless.

166. Positive Wanting.

citior, citimus, nearer, prior, primus, former,
dētior, dētērimus, worse, propior, prōximus, nearer,
intior, intimus, inner, ulterior, ultimus, farther,
ōcior, ōcissimus, suīter,

167. Comparative Wanting.

1. In a few participles used adjectively: meritus, merissimus, deserving.
2. In these adjectives:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>diversus</th>
<th>diversissimus</th>
<th>different</th>
<th>novus</th>
<th>novissimus</th>
<th>new</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>falsus</td>
<td>falsissimus</td>
<td>false</td>
<td>sacer</td>
<td>sacrērīmus</td>
<td>sacred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inclutus</td>
<td>inclutissimus</td>
<td>renowned</td>
<td>vētus</td>
<td>vetērīmus</td>
<td>old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>invitus</td>
<td>invittissimus</td>
<td>unwilling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—Many participles used adjectively are compared in full: amāns, amantior, amantisissimus, loving; dōctus, dōctor, doctissimus, instructed, learned.

168. Superlative Wanting.

1. In most verbals in illis and billis: docilis, docilior, docile.
2. In many adjectives in illis and illis: capitalis, capillātor, capital.
3. In alacrer, alacrēr, active; caeceus, blind; diērurms, lasting; longins-

us, distant; optimus, rich; prodiēvis, steep; propinquus, near; salutāris, salutary, and a few others.
4. Three adjectives supply the superlative thus:
NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

adelæscens, adelæscensor, minimus nâtus,1 young,
juvenis, június, minimus nâtus, young,
senex, senior, maximus nâtus, old.

169. Without Terminational Comparison.

1. Many adjectives, from the nature of their signification, especially such as denote material, possession, or the relations of place and time: auræus, golden; paternus, paternal; Rómânius, Roman; aestivus, of summer.
2. Most adjectives in us preceded by a vowel: idóneus, suitable.
3. Many derivatives in ālis, āris, ālis, ulus, icus, tinus, órus: mortális (more), mortal.
4. Albus, white; claudus, lame; fœrus, wild; laesus, weary; mírus, wonderful, and a few others.

II. Adverbial Comparison.

170. Adjectives which want the terminational comparison, form the comparative and superlative, when their signification requires it, by prefixing the adverbs magis, more, and máxime, most, to the positive: ardusus, magis ardusus, máxime ardusus, arduous.

1. Other adverbs are sometimes used with the positive to denote different degrees of the quality: admodum, valde, oppídó, very; imprimis, apprime, in the highest degree. Fér and præ in composition with adjectives have the force of very: perdifficilis, very difficult; præclárus, very illustrious.
2. Strengthening particles are also sometimes used—(1) With the comparative: etiam, even, multó, longó, much, far: etiam diligentior, even more diligent; multó diligentior, much more diligent—(2) With the superlative: multó, longó, much, far; quam, as possible: multó or longó diligentissimus, by far the most diligent; quam diligentissimus, as diligent as possible.

NUMERALS.

171. Numerals comprise numeral adjectives and numeral adverbs.2

172. Numerical adjectives comprise three principal classes:
1. Cardinal Numbers: unus, one; duo, two.
2. Ordinal Numbers: primus, first; secundus, second.
3. Distributives: singuli, one by one; bini, two by two, two each, two apiece.

173. To these may be added—

1 Smallest or youngest in age. Nátus is sometimes omitted.
2 The first ten cardinal numbers, multa, primus, secundus, and senex (once), fourteen words in all, furnish the basis of the Latin numeral system. All other numerals are formed from these either by derivation or by composition.
1. **Multiplicatives**, adjectives in plex, Gen. plicis, denoting so many fold: *simplicium, single; duplex, double; triplex, threefold.

2. **Proportionals**, declined like bonus, and denoting so many times as great: *duplus, twice as great; triplus, three times as great.

### Table of Numeral Adjectives:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Cardinals</strong></th>
<th><strong>Ordinals</strong></th>
<th><strong>Distributives</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. unus, una, unum</td>
<td>primus, first</td>
<td>singuli, one by one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. duo, duae, duo</td>
<td>secundus, second</td>
<td>bini, two by two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. tres, tria</td>
<td>tertius, third</td>
<td>terni (trini)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. quattuor</td>
<td>quartus, fourth</td>
<td>quaterni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. quinque</td>
<td>quintus, fifth</td>
<td>quinque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. sex</td>
<td>sextus</td>
<td>seni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. septem</td>
<td>septimus</td>
<td>septenni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. octo</td>
<td>octavus</td>
<td>octeni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. novem</td>
<td>nonus</td>
<td>novem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. decem</td>
<td>decimus</td>
<td>decem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. undecim</td>
<td>undecimus</td>
<td>undem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. duodecim</td>
<td>duodecimus</td>
<td>duodeni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. tredecim</td>
<td>tertius decimus</td>
<td>terni dem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. quattuordecim</td>
<td>quartus decimus</td>
<td>quaterni dem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. quindecim</td>
<td>quintus decimus</td>
<td>quinque dem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. sedecim or sexdecim</td>
<td>sextus decimus</td>
<td>semi dem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. septendecim</td>
<td>septimus decimus</td>
<td>septem dem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. duodéviginti</td>
<td>duodécésimus</td>
<td>duódéceni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. undéviginti</td>
<td>undécésimus</td>
<td>undéceni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. viginti</td>
<td>vicésimus</td>
<td>viceni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. viginti unus</td>
<td>vicésimus primus</td>
<td>viceni singuli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. viginti duo</td>
<td>vicésimus secundus</td>
<td>viceni bini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. viginti unus et viginti</td>
<td>vicésimus tercius</td>
<td>viceni bini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. triginta</td>
<td>tricésimus</td>
<td>triceni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. quadragesimae</td>
<td>quadragesimus</td>
<td>quadrageseni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. quinquagintae</td>
<td>quinquagésimus</td>
<td>quinquageseni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. sexagintae</td>
<td>sexagésimus</td>
<td>sexageni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. septuagintae</td>
<td>septuagésimus</td>
<td>septuageni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. octoginta</td>
<td>octogésimus</td>
<td>octogeni</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Sometimes with the parts separated: *decem et tres; decem et sex*, etc.
2. Literally two from twenty, one from twenty, by subtraction; but these numbers may be expressed by addition: *decem et octo; decem et novem;* so 28, 29, 38, 39, etc., either by subtraction from *triginta*, etc., or by addition to *viginti*.
3. If the tens precede the units, *et* is omitted, otherwise it is generally used. So in English cardinals, twenty-one, one and twenty.
4. *Alter* is often used for *secundus*.
5. *Decimus*, with or without *et*, may precede: *decimus et tertius or decimus tertius*.
6. Sometimes expressed by addition: *octavus decimus and nonus decimus*.
7. Sometimes written with *g*: *vigésimus; tricésimus*. 
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numerals</th>
<th>Cardinals</th>
<th>Ordinals</th>
<th>Distributives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>nónágintā</td>
<td>nónágēsimus</td>
<td>nónágēni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>centum</td>
<td>centēsimus</td>
<td>centēni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>centum ūnus</td>
<td>centēsimus prīmus</td>
<td>centēni singūlī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>ducentī, ae, a</td>
<td>ducentēsimus</td>
<td>ducentī et singūlī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>trecentī</td>
<td>trecentēsimus</td>
<td>trecentī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>quadringentī</td>
<td>quadringentēsimus</td>
<td>quadringentēni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>quingentī</td>
<td>quingentēsimus</td>
<td>quingēni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600</td>
<td>sēcentī</td>
<td>sēcentēsimus</td>
<td>sēcentī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700</td>
<td>septingentī</td>
<td>septingentēsimus</td>
<td>septingēni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800</td>
<td>octingentī</td>
<td>octingentēsimus</td>
<td>octingēni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900</td>
<td>nōnagintī</td>
<td>nōnagentēsimus</td>
<td>nōngēni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>mīllēsimus</td>
<td>singula mīlia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>duo mīlia</td>
<td>bīs mīlia</td>
<td>bīna mīlia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>centum mīlia</td>
<td>centēna mīlia</td>
<td>centēna mīlia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>decēna centēna mīlia</td>
<td>decēna centēna mīlia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. **Ordinals** with *pars*, part, expressed or understood, may be used to express fractions: *tertia pars*, a third part, a third; *quarta pars*, a fourth; *duae tertiae*, two thirds.

2. **Distributives** are used—

1) To show the number of objects taken at a time, often best rendered by adding to the cardinal *each* or *apiece*: *ternos denarios accoperunt*, they received each three denarii, or three apiece. **Hence**—

2) To express **Multiplication**: *decēna mīlia*, ten times a hundred thousand, a million.

3) Instead of **Cardinals**, with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: *bīna castra*, two camps. Here for *singuli* and *terni*, *ānī* and *trīnī* are used: *unae litterae*, one letter; *trīnas litterae*, three letters.

4) Sometimes of objects spoken of in pairs: *bīni ocyphi*, a pair of goblets; and in the poets with the force of cardinals: *bīna hastīa*, two spears.

3. Poets use numeral adverbs (181) very freely in compounding numbers: *bīs sex*, for *duodecim*; *bīs septem*, for *quattuordecim*.

4. **Sēcentī** and *mīlia* are sometimes used indefinitely for any large number, as *one thousand* is used in English.

---

1. In compounding numbers above 100, units generally follow tens, tens hundreds, etc., as in English; but the connective *et* is either omitted, or used only between the two highest denominations: *mīlia centum vigintī* or *mīlia et centum vigintī*, 1120.

2. Often incorrectly written *sescentī*, *sescentēsimus*, and *sescentī*.

3. Often written *mīlia*. For *duo mīlia*, *bīna mīlia* or *bīs mīlia* is sometimes used.

4. Literally “ten times a hundred thousand”; the table might be carried up to any desired number by using the proper numeral adverb with *centēna mīlia*: *centēna centēna mīlia*, 10,000,000; sometimes in such combinations *centēna mīlia* is understood, and the adverb only is expressed, and sometimes *centum mīlia* is used.
DECLENSION OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

175. ūnus, Duo, and Trēs are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>ūnus, one.</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ūna</td>
<td>ūnum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ūnus</td>
<td>ūnus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ūnī</td>
<td>ūnī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ūnum</td>
<td>ūnum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>ūna</td>
<td>ūnum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ūnō</td>
<td>ūnō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Duo, two. | | Trēs, three. |
|-----------|--------------|
| Nom.      | duo          | trēs, m. and f. |
| Gen.      | duōrum       | trium |
| Dat.      | duōbus       | tribus |
| Acc.      | duōs, duo    | trēs, trīs |
| Voc.      | duo          | trēs |
| Abl.      | duōbus       | tribus |

Note 1.—The plural of ūnus in the sense of alone may be used with any noun: ūnī ūbi, the Ubi alone; but in the sense of one, it is used only with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: ūnas castra, one camp; ūnas litterae, one letter.

Note 2.—Like duo is declined ambo, both.

Note 3.—Multi, many, and plurimi, very many, are indefinite numerals, and as such generally want the singular. But in the poets the singular occurs in the sense of many a: multa hostia, many a victim.

176. The Cardinals from quattuor to centum are indeclinable.

177. Hundreds are declined like the plural of bonus: ducenti, ae, a.

178. Milī as an adjective is indeclinable; as a substantive it is used in the singular in the Nominative and Accusative, but in the plural it is declined like the plural of mare (65): milia, milium, milibus.

Note.—With the substantives milī, milia, the name of the objects enumerated is generally in the Genitive: milī hominum, a thousand men (of men); but if a declined numeral intervenes it takes the case of that numeral: trīs milia trecenti milītēs, three thousand three hundred soldiers.

179. Ordinals are declined like bonus, and distributives like the plural of bonus, but the latter often have ūm instead of ūrum in the Genitive: binum for binōrum.

1 In the ending o in duo and ambo (175, note 2), we have a remnant of the dual number which has otherwise disappeared from the Latin, though preserved in Greek and Sanskrit. Compare the Sanskrit duas, the Greek δια, the Latin duo, and the English two.

2 Instead of duōrum and duōrum, duōm is sometimes used.

3 Rarely in other cases in connection with milium or milibus.

4 Generally written with one l: milīa, but sometimes with two: milīa.
180. NUMERAL SYMBOLS:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic</th>
<th>Roman</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
<th>Roman</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
<th>Roman</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>XII</td>
<td>L</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>XIII</td>
<td>LX</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>LX</td>
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<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>III</td>
<td>XIV</td>
<td>LXX</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>LXX</td>
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<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>IV</td>
<td>XV</td>
<td>LXXX</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>LXXX</td>
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<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>XVI</td>
<td>XC</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>XC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>XVII</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>VII</td>
<td>XVIII</td>
<td>CC</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>CC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>XIX</td>
<td>IO, or D</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>IO, or D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX</td>
<td>IX</td>
<td>XX</td>
<td>DC</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>DC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td>CL</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>CL, or M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XI</td>
<td>XI</td>
<td>XL</td>
<td>CCIX</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>CCIX</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Latin Numeral Symbols are combinations of: I = 1; V = 5; X = 10; L = 50; C = 100; IO or D = 500; CL or M = 1,000.

2. In the Combination of these symbols, except IO, observe—
   1) That the repetition of a symbol doubles the value: II = 2; XX = 20.
   2) That any symbol standing before one of greater value, subtracts its own value, but that after one of greater value, it adds its own value: V = 5; IV = 5 - 1 = 4; VI = 5 + 1 = 6.

3. In the Combination of IO observe—
   1) That each O (inverted O) after IO increases the value tenfold: IO = 500; IOO = 500 × 10 = 5,000; IOOO = 5,000 × 10 = 50,000.
   2) That these numbers are doubled by placing C the same number of times before I as O stands after it: IO = 500; CIO = 500 × 2 = 1,000; IOO = 5,000; CCIO = 5,000 × 2 = 10,000.
   3) That smaller symbols standing after these add their value: IO = 500; IOC = 600; IOCC = 700.

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

181. To numerals belong also numeral adverbs:

1. semel, once
2. bis, twice
3. ter, three times
4. quater
5. quinqueis
6. sexies
7. septies
8. octies
9. novies
10. decies
11. undecies
12. duodecies

1 Thousands are sometimes denoted by a line over the symbol: II = 2,000; III = 3,000.
2 The origin of these symbols is uncertain. According to Mommsen, I is the outstretched finger; V, the open hand; X, the two hands crossed; L, the open hand like V, but in a different position; CI is supposed to be a modification of the Greek Ο, not otherwise used by the Romans, afterward changed to M; D, afterward changed to D, is a part of CIO; C is also supposed to be a modification of the Greek Ο, but it may be the initial letter of centum, as M may be that of millis.
3 In adverbs formed from cardinal numbers, ies is the approved ending, though ies is often occurs. In adverbs from indefinite numeral adjectives ies is the approved ending: toties (from tot), so often; quotiens (from quot), how often. See Brambach, p. 14.
CHAPTER III

PRONOUNS.

182. In construction, Pronouns* are used either as Substantives: ego, I, tū, thou; or as Adjectives: meus, my, tuus, your.

183. Pronouns are divided into six classes:
1. Personal Pronouns: tū, thou.
3. Demonstrative Pronouns: hic, this.
5. Interrogative Pronouns: quis, who?
6. Indefinite Pronouns: alīquis, some one.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

184. Personal Pronouns,* so called because they designate the person of the noun which they represent, are:

---

1. *Milīes* is often used indefinitely like the English *a thousand times*.
2. But in their signification and use, Pronouns differ widely from ordinary substantives and adjectives, as they never name any object, action, or quality, but simply point out its relation to the speaker, or to some other person or thing; see 314, II, with foot-note.
3. Also called *Substantive Pronouns*, because they are always used *substantively*.
**PRONOUNS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>ego 1</td>
<td>nōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mé</td>
<td>nostrōm</td>
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<tr>
<td>méh or mé</td>
<td>nōbris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>méh</td>
<td>nōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>méh</td>
<td>nostrī</td>
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<tr>
<td>méh</td>
<td>vōbis</td>
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<tr>
<td>méh</td>
<td>nos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>méh</td>
<td>vestrōm</td>
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<tr>
<td>méh</td>
<td>vestrī</td>
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<tr>
<td>méh</td>
<td>vestrī</td>
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<tr>
<td>méh</td>
<td>vestrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>méh</td>
<td>vestrī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The Case-Endings of Pronouns differ considerably from those of Nouns.
2. Suī, of himself, etc., is often called the Reflexive pronoun.
3. Emphatic Forms in met occur, except in the Gen. Plur. : egōmet, I myself;ême, etc. But the Nom. tē has tēs and tētemet, not tētemet.
4. Reduplicated Forms.—Seā, tāē, māēm, for sē, tē, mē.
5. Ancient and Rare Forms.—Mis for met; its for tuī; mēd and mepī for mēd; tēd for tē; sēd, sēpeī, for sē.
6. Cum, when used with the ablative of a Personal Pronoun, is appended to it: mācum, tācum.

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

185. From Personal pronouns are formed the Possessives:

meus, a, um, my; noster, tra, trum, our;
tuus, a, um, thy, your; vester, tra, trum, your;
suus, a, um, his, here, its; suus, a, um, their.

---

1 *Of himself, herself, itself.* The Nominative is not used.
2 *Ego* has no connection in form with mé, méh, etc., but it corresponds to the Greek ἐγὼ, ἐγέ. The oblique cases of ego and étō in the singular are derived from the Indo-European roots meh and eva. Compare the Accusative Singular of each in—

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mē-m or mē</td>
<td>μή</td>
<td>mé</td>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tē-m or tē</td>
<td>τῇ or τί</td>
<td>tē</td>
<td>thee</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Suī, sībī, sē, in both numbers are formed from the root eva. The origin of the plural forms of ego and étō is obscure. See Papillon, pp. 142–149; Köhner, I., pp. 378–389.

3 *Vestrōm and vestrī are also written costrōm and costrī, though less correctly. Met, tuī, suī, nostrī, and costrī, are in form strictly Possessives in the Gen. Sing., but by use they have become Personal. Nostrī and costrī have also become Plural. Thus, memōr costrī, 'mindful of you,' means literally menād of yours, i. e., of your welfare, interest. Nostrōm and costrōm, for nostrōrum and costrōrum, are also Possessives; see 185.*
PRONOUNS.

186. Demonstrative Pronouns, so called because they specify the objects to which they refer, are declined as follows:

I. Hiæ, this.

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<tr>
<td><strong>MASC.</strong></td>
<td><strong>FEM.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Nom. hio | haeco | hocc | hi | haec | haec'
| Gen. hujus | hujus | hujus, horum | harrum | harrum | harrum
| Dat. huic | huic | hui | his | his | his
| Acc. hunc | hanc | hoc | hos | has | hasc
| AbL hoc | hoæ | hoc | his | his | his

II. Iste, that, that of yours; see 450.

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<th>PLURAL</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MASC.</strong></td>
<td><strong>FEM.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Nom. iste | ista | istud | isti | istae | ista
| Gen. istius | istius | istium | istorum | istorum | istorum
| Dat. isti | isti | isti | istis | istis | istis
| Acc. istum | istam | istud | istos | istas | ista
| AbL isto | ista | isto | istis | istis | istis

1 In early Latin tuum is, sometimes written toco, and suum, sorce.
2 From the relative qui, cuius (187), also written quodum.
3 From the Interrogative quiis, cuius (188), also written quodum.
4 The stem of hic is ho, ha, which by the addition of ë, another pronominal stem, seen in i-æ, 'ha,' becomes in certain cases li (for ho-i), haes (for ho-i), as in li-co, haes-co. The forms ho, ha, appear in hæ-c, ha-no. Ancient and rare forms of this pronoun are hæs (for hoic), hæs (for hæfii), hœc, hœc (for hœc), hœc (for hœc), hœc, hœc, hœc (for hœc, hœc), hœc (for hœc).
5 The Genitive suffix is us, appended to the stem after the addition of ë (foot-note 4): ho-i-us, hæfii (i changed to j between two vowels, 28); iatc-i-us, istius (i retained after a consonant). The suffix us, originally us, is, in origin the same as the suffix ë in the third declension. In one the original vowel ë is weakened to a, and in the other to ë. See Wordsworth, p. 93; Corssen, I., p. 807.
6 The Vocative is wanting in Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns.
7 Here the form with c, haec, is sometimes used.
8 The stem of istic (for istius) is istic in the Masc. and Neut., and istic in the Fem. Old is weakened to e in istic (26, 1, note) and to us in istic-us. Ancient and rare forms of istic
### PRONOUNS.

III. *Ille, that,*¹ *that one,* he, is declined like *iste,* see II. on the preceding page.

IV. Is, he, *this,* that.²

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<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Masc.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>is</em></td>
<td><em>ea</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gen.</em></td>
<td><em>eius</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Dat.</em></td>
<td><em>ēt</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Acc.</em></td>
<td><em>eum</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>AbL.</em></td>
<td><em>eō</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V. *Ipse,* self; he.³

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<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Masc.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ipse</em></td>
<td><em>ipsa</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Gen.</em></td>
<td><em>ipsum</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Dat.</em></td>
<td><em>ipsī</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Acc.</em></td>
<td><em>ipsam</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>AbL.</em></td>
<td><em>ipsā</em></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

are *itas* (for *iete*), forms in *i,* *ae,* *ī* (for *ueu*) in the Genitive, and in *ā,* *ae,* *ō* (for *t*) in the Dat.: *ītā* (for *itā*), *ītā* (for *itā*), *ītā* (for *itē* or *itē*).

¹ The stem of *ille* (for *ille*) is *illa,* *illa.* Ancient and rare forms are *1. ille* (for *ille*), forms in *i,* *ae,* *ī* (for *ueu*) in the Genitive Singular, and in *ā,* *ae,* *ō* (for *t*) in the Dative Singular: *ūllā* (for *ūllius*), etc.; (2) forms from *ollus* or *olla* (for those from *ille*): *ollūs, olla, olla,* etc.

² The stem of *is* is *i,* strengthened in most of its case-forms to *ei,* *ei.* Ancient or rare forms of *is* are, *eis* (for *i*); *e-i-es, e-i-es, e-i-es* (for Dative Singular *ēt*); *ēm, ēm* (for *eum*); *e-ēs, e-ēs, eis* (for Nominative Plural *ēt*); *ē-ēs, e-ēs, e-ēs, ibus, ebus* (for *eis*). To these may be added a few rare forms from a root of kindred meaning, *eis,* *eis:* *sum, sain=sum, sam; eis, eis=ōs, ēs*). This root appears in *ip-sus, ip-oe, ip-sum.* *Si, if, and et-i, thus, are probably Locatives from this root or from *eo,* the root of *uit* (134).

³ Sometimes a diphthong in poetry. In the same way the plural forms *ei, ei, eti, eti,* are sometimes monosyllables. Instead of *eis* and *eis,* *e* and *is* are sometimes written.

⁴ See page 72, foot-note 6.

⁵ *Ipse* (for *ipsum* = *i-pu-sus*) is compounded of *is* or its stem *i,* the intensive particle *pu,* 'even,' 'indeed,' and the pronominal root *eo,* *eis,* mentioned in foot-note 2 above. The stem is *ipsē,* *ipsē,* but forms occur with the first part declined and *psē* unchanged: *sum-ipsē, sum-ipsē,* etc.; sometimes combined with *re:* *re-ipsē = re-ipsae = re-ipsae,* 'in reality.' *Ipus* (for *ipsum*) is not uncommon.

⁶ In *idem,* compounded of *is* and *dem,* only the first part is declined. *Idem* is shortened to *idem,* *iddem* to *iddem,* and *is* is changed to *a* before *dem* (33, 4). In early Latin *iddem* and *iddem* occur for *idem,* *iddem* and *iddem* for *idem,* *iddem* and *iddem* in the Nominative Plural for *iddem.*
PRONOUNS.

SINGULAR.

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<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>eadem</td>
<td>idem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>eðudem</td>
<td>eðusdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>eðdem</td>
<td>eðdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>eandem</td>
<td>eadem</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>eðem</td>
<td>eðem</td>
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PLURAL.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>eadem</td>
<td>idem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>eðusdem</td>
<td>eðusdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>eðdem</td>
<td>eðdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>eandem</td>
<td>eadem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>eðem</td>
<td>eðem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Hīc (for Hī-ce) is compounded with the demonstrative particle ce, meaning here. The forms in c have dropped a, while the other forms have dropped the particle entirely. But ce is often retained for emphasis; Hīce, hājusce, hôce, hōrunc ce (m changed to n), hōrunc (e dropped). Ce, changed to ci, is generally retained before the interrogative me: hicīne, hôsecīne.

2. Illic and Istitc, also compounded with the particle ce, are declined alike, as follows:

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>illic</td>
<td>illic (illloc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>illusce</td>
<td>illusce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>illic</td>
<td>illisc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>illano</td>
<td>illisc (illloc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>illloc</td>
<td>illisc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Syncopated Forms, compounded of eos or èn, 'lo,' 'see,' and some cases of demonstratives, especially the Accusative of ille and is, occur: eosum for eos sum; eos for eos ès; èllum for èn èllum; èllam for èn èllam.

4. Demonstrative Adjectives: tālis, a, such; tantus, a, um, so great; tot, so many; totus, a, um, so great. Tot is indeclinable; the rest regular.

Note.—For illus, the Genitive of a demonstrative with modt (Genitive of modus, measure, kind) is often used: hājusmodt, ējusmodt, of this kind, such.

IV. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

187. The Relative qui, 'who,' so called because it relates to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, called its antecedent, is declined as follows:

1 Sometimes a disyllable.
2 Etdem and eðadem are the approved forms. Instead of eðdem and eðadem, disyllables in poetry, tīdem and eīdem are often written.
3 Hīce and tālic are formed from the stems of illic and ílis in the same manner as Hīce is formed from its stem; see page 73, foot-note 4.
4 Observe that ce is retained in full after a, but shortened to c in all other situations.
5 The stem of qui is quo, quo, which becomes oc, cu in cōfus and cut. Qui and
PRONOUNS.

SINGULAR.  
**MASC.**  **FEM.**  **NEUT.**  **MASC.**  **FEM.**  **NEUT.**

**Nom.** qui  quae  quod  qui  quae  quae

**Gen.** cuius  caeius  cius  quorum  quorum  quorum

**Dat.** cui  cui  cui  quibus  quibus  quibus

**Acc.** quem  quam  quod  quos  quas  quae

**Abl.** quo  quae  quod  quibus  quibus  quibus

1. **Quis** = qui, quae, 'with which,' 'wherewith,' is a Locative or Ablative of the relative qui.

2. **Cum,** when used with the Ablative of the relative, is generally appended to it: quibuscum.

3. **Quicumque** and **Quisquis,** 'whoever,' are called from their signification general relatives.** Quicumque** (quicumque) is declined like qui. **Quisquis** is rare except in the forms, quisquis, quidquid (quiquid), quidquid.

**Note.**—The parts of **Quicumque** are sometimes separated by one or more words: qui rī cumque.

4. **Relative Adjectives:** quālis, e, such as; quantus, a, um, so great; quōt, as many as; quotus, a, um, of which number; and the double and compound forms: quālisēqualis, quālicumque, etc.

**Note.**—For **Quālis** the Genitive of the relative with modi is often used: cūjusmodī, of what kind, such as; cūjuscumquēmodi, cūjiscumodi (for cūjuscumquēmodi), of whatever kind.

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

188. The Interrogative Pronouns **quis** and **quī,** with their compounds,* are used in asking questions. They are declined as follows:

**Quae** are formed from quos and qua like ās and has in āsc and has-c from has and ha; see 186, I., foot-note 4. Ancient or rare forms are quiē, quiēs (for quiē), Nom. Sing.; quōtus (t = j); quōt, cui (for cūjus, as in cūjusmodī = cūjusmodī), quōtis, quiōtis (for cuiōtis); quēs (for quēs), Nom. Plur.; quae (for quaēs), Fem. and Neut. Plur.; quiōtis, quiōtis (for quōtis).

* An **Accusative** quōm, also written quōm and cum, formed directly from the stem quo, became the conjunction quōm, qum, cum, 'when,' lit. *during which,* i.e., during which time. Indeed, several conjunctions are in their origin Accusatives of pronouns: quōm, 'in what way,' 'how,' is the Accusative of quiō; quamquam, 'however much,' the Accusative of quiō-quiōs (187, 8); tum, 'then,' and tam, 'so,' Accusatives of the pronounal stem to, ta, seen in te-ta, te-ta (186, II., foot-note 8).

* This is an element in quiēs = quiēs, 'by which not,' 'that not,' and in quēppes = quiēpes, 'indeed.'

* Relative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs may be made general in signification by taking cumquēs, like quiēs-cumquēs, or by being doubled like quiēs-quiēs: quālis-cumquēs, quālis-quālis, of whatever kind; uēt-cumquēs, uēt-uēt, wheresoever.

* The relative quiē, the Interrogatives quiēs, quiēs, and the indefinites quiēs, quiēs, are all formed from the stem quiē, quiē. The ancient and rare forms are nearly the same in all; see page 74, foot-note 5.
PRONOUNS.

1. Quis, who, which, what?

SINGULAR.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. quis</td>
<td>quae</td>
<td>quid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. cuijus</td>
<td>cuijus</td>
<td>cuijus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. cui</td>
<td>cui</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. quem</td>
<td>quam</td>
<td>quid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. quō</td>
<td>quá</td>
<td>quō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLURAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. qui</td>
<td>quae</td>
<td>quae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. quorum</td>
<td>quorum</td>
<td>quorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. quibus</td>
<td>quibus</td>
<td>quibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. quos</td>
<td>quaes</td>
<td>quae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. quibus</td>
<td>quibus</td>
<td>quibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. Qui, which, what? is declined like the relative qui.

1. Quis is generally used substantively, and Qui, adjectively. The forms quis and quæm are sometimes feminine.

2. Quis, how? in what way? is a Locative or Ablative of the interrogative qui; see 187, 1.

3. Compounds of quis and qui are declined like the simple pronouns: quisnam, quinam, equis, etc. But equis has sometimes equae for equae.

4. Interrogative Adjectives: quālis, a, what? quantus, a, um, how great? quōis, how many? quōtus, a, um, of what number? uter, utra, utrum, which (of two) see 181.

VI. Indefinite Pronouns.

189. Indefinite Pronouns do not refer to any definite persons or things. The most important are quis and qui, with their compounds.

190. Quis, 'any one,' and qui, 'any one,' 'any,' are the same in form and declension as the interrogatives quis and qui. But—

1. After et, nisi, nē, and num, the Fem. Sing. and Neut. Plur. have quae or qua: sī quae, et qua.

2. From quis and qui are formed—

1) The Indefinites:

| aliquis | aliquas | aliquid or aliquod | sīme, some one. |
| quispiam | quaequapiam | quidpia or quodpia | sīme, some one. |
| quidam | quaedam | quiddam or quoddam | sīme, certain one. |
| quisquam | quaequam | quiquam or quidquam | sīme, any one. |

1 Aliquis is compounded of all, seen in all-e-us; quisquam, of quæ and quam; quis-gue, of quis and qua (from qui); quif, of qui and the verb vis (293), 'you wish'—hence qui-es, 'any you wish'; qui-iset, of qui and the impersonal ites, 'it please.'

2 Also written quipiam, quoppiam.

3 Quidam changes m to n before d: quendam for quendam.

4 Quisquam generally wants the Fem. and the Plur.
PRONOUNS.

2) The General Indefinites:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERROGATIVE</th>
<th>INDEFINITE</th>
<th>DEMONSTRATIVE</th>
<th>RELATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quis, qui, who? what?</td>
<td>quis, qui, any one, any; aliquis, some one, some; quidam, certain one, certain;</td>
<td>hic, this one, this;</td>
<td>qui, who.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uter, which of two?</td>
<td>uter or alter uter, either of two;</td>
<td>uterque, each, both;</td>
<td>qui, who.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quælis, of what kind?</td>
<td>quælibet, of any kind;</td>
<td>talis, such;</td>
<td>quælis, as.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quantus, how great?</td>
<td>aliquantus, somewhat great; quantus, as great as you please;</td>
<td>tantus, so great;</td>
<td>quantus, as, as great.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quot, how many?</td>
<td>aliquot, some;</td>
<td>tot, so many;</td>
<td>quot, as, as many.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—Nescit quis, 'I know not who,' has become in effect an indefinite pronoun = quidam, 'some one.' So also nescit qui, 'I know not which' or 'what' = 'some'; nescit quot = aliquot, 'some,' 'a certain number.'

1 In unus-guisque both parts are regularly declined.
2 Observe that the question quis or qui, who or what? may be answered indefinitely by quis, qui, aliquis, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative, either alone or with a relative, as by hic, this one, or hic qui, this one who; tu, he, or tu qui, he who, etc.
3 In form observe that the indefinite is either the same as the interrogative or is a compound of it: quis, all-quis, qui, qui-dam, and that the relative is usually the same as the interrogative.
4 On hic, tibi, illi, and te, see 450; 451, 1.
5 Or one of the demonstratives, hic, tibi, etc.
CHAPTER IV.

VERBS.

192. Verbs in Latin, as in English, express existence, condition, or action: est, he is; dormit, he is sleeping; legit, he reads.

193. Verbs comprise two principal classes:

I. Transitive Verbs admit a direct object of the action: servum verberat, he beats the slave.¹

II. Intransitive Verbs do not admit such an object: puer currit, the boy runs.²

194. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

I. VOICES.

195. There are two voices:

I. The Active Voice represents the subject as acting or existing: pater filium amat, the father loves his son; est, he is.

II. The Passive Voice represents the subject as acted upon by some other person or thing: filius a patre amat, the son is loved by his father.

1. Intransitive Verbs generally have only the active voice, but are sometimes used impersonally in the passive; see 301, 1.

2. Deponent Verbs are Passive in form, but not in sense: loquor, to speak. But see 231.

II. MOODS.

196. There are three moods:³

¹ Here servum, 'the slave,' is the object of the action: beats (what?) the slave. The object thus completes the meaning of the verb. He beats is incomplete in sense, but the boy runs is complete, and accordingly does not admit an object.

² Voice shows whether the subject acts (Active Voice), or is acted upon (Passive Voice). Thus, with the Active Voice, 'the father loves his son,' the subject, father, is the one who performs the action, loves, while with the Passive Voice, 'the son is loved by the father,' the subject, son, merely receives the action, is acted upon, is loved.

³ So called from dépono, to lay aside, as they dispense, in general, with the active form and the passive meaning. For deponent verbs with the sense of the Greek Middle, see 485.

⁴ Mood, or Mode, means manner, and relates to the manner in which the meaning of the verb is expressed, as will be seen by observing the force of the several Moods.
VERBS.

I. The **Indicative Mood** either asserts something as a fact or inquires after the fact:

*Leo*, he is reading. *Legit, is he reading? Servius regnavit, Servius reigned. Quis ego sum, who am I?*

II. The **Subjunctive Mood** expresses not an actual fact, but a possibility or conception. It is best translated¹—

1. Sometimes by the English auxiliaries,² *let, may, might, should, would* :

   *Amòmus patriam, let us love our country. Sint beáti, may they be happy. Quaerat quispiam, some one may inquire. Híc nemo dixerit, no one would say this. Ego cónseam, I should think, or I am inclined to think. Éditur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer.³ Domum ubi habitàret, legit, he selected a house where he might dwell.*

2. Sometimes by the English *Indicative*, especially by the Future forms with *shall* and *will* :

   *Huic cédámus, shall we yield to this one? Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Dubitó sum dēbeam, I doubt whether I ought. Quaesivit si licēret, he inquired whether it was lawful.*

3. Sometimes by the *Imperative*, especially in prohibitions :

   *Scribere ne pigrère, do not neglect to write. Nè trāñsiert Iberum, do not cross the Ebro.*

4. Sometimes by the English *Infinitive* :⁴

   *Contendit ut vincat, he strives to conquer.⁴ Missi sunt qui cōnsulērent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo.*

III. The **Imperative Mood** expresses a command or an entreaty :

*Justitiam coele, præcītāte justice. Tu ne cēde malis, do not yield to misfortunes.*

---

¹ The use and proper translation of the Subjunctive must be learned from the Syntax. A few illustrations are here given to aid the learner in understanding the Paradigms of the Verbs; see 477–530.

² This is generally the proper translation in simple sentences and in principal clauses (483), and sometimes even in subordinate clauses (490).

³ Or, *he strives to conquer;* see 4 below, with foot-note 4.

⁴ The English has a few remnants of the Subjunctive Mood, which may also be used in translating the Latin Subjunctive: Utinam possem, would that I were able.

⁵ Observe, however, that the Infinitive here is not the translation of the Subjunctive alone, but of the Subjunctive with its subject and connective: ut vincat, to conquer (lit., that he may conquer); qui cōnsulērent, to consult (lit., who should or would consult).
III. TENSES.

197. There are six tenses:

I. THREE TENSES FOR INCOMPLETE ACTION:
1. Present: amē, I love, I am loving.¹
2. Imperfect: amābam, I was loving, I loved.
3. Future: amābb, I shall love, I will love.

II. THREE TENSES FOR COMPLETED ACTION:
1. Perfect: amāvī, I have loved, I loved.
2. Pluperfect: amāveram, I had loved.
3. Future Perfect: amāverb, I shall have loved.

Note 1.—The Latin Perfect sometimes corresponds to our Perfect with have (have loved), and is called the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite; and sometimes to our Imperfect or Past (loved), and is called the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite.²

Note 2.—The Indicative Mood has all the six tenses; the Subjunctive has the Present, Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect; the Imperative, the Present and Future only.³

198. PRINCIPAL AND HISTORICAL.—Tenses are also distinguished as—

I. PRINCIPAL OR PRIMARY TENSES:
1. Present: amē, I love.
2. Present Perfect: amāvī, I have loved.⁴
4. Future Perfect: amāverb, I shall have loved.

II. HISTORICAL OR SECONDARY TENSES:
1. Imperfect: amābam, I was loving.
2. Historical Perfect: amāvī, I loved.⁵
3. Pluperfect: amāveram, I had loved.

¹ Or, I do love. The English did may also be used in translating the Imperfect and Perfect: I did love.
² Or, I will have loved.
³ Thus the Latin Perfect combines within itself the force and use of two distinct tenses—the Perfect proper, seen in the Greek Perfect, and the Aorist, seen in the Greek Aorist: amāvī = ἔφιλα, I have loved; amāvī = ἔφιλε, I loved. The Historical Perfect and the Imperfect both represent the action as past, but the former regards it simply as a historical fact—I loved; while the latter regards it as in progress—I was loving.
⁴ The nice distinctions of tense have been fully developed only in the Indicative. In the Subjunctive and Imperative, the time of the action is less prominent and is less definitely marked.
199. **Numbers and Persons.**—There are two numbers, **Singular** and **Plural,** and three persons, **First,** **Second,** and **Third.**

Note.—The various verbal forms which have voice, mood, tense, number, and person, make up the *finit verb.*

200. Among verbal forms are included the following verbal nouns and adjectives:

I. The **Infinitive** is a verbal noun. It is sometimes best translated by the English **Infinitive,** sometimes by the verbal noun in *ing,* and sometimes by the **Indicative**:

*Exire ex urbe volō, I wish to go out of the city.* Gestiō scire omnia, *I long to know all things.* Haec scire jucat, *to know these things affords pleasure.* *Pecūriae licet nāmini, to sin is lawful for no one.* *Vincere* scis, *you know how to conquer,* or *you understand conquering.* *Tā dicunt esse* sapientem, *they say that you are wise.* *Sentimus calère ignem,* *we perceive that fire is hot.* See also Syntax, 532–539.

II. The **Gerund** gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the second declension; used only in the **genitive,** **dative,** **accusative,** and **ablative singular.** It corresponds to the English verbal noun in *ing:*


III. The **Supine** gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the fourth declension. It has a form in *um* and a form in *ā:*

*Amābīūm,* to love, for loving. *Amābīū,* to be loved, for loving, in

1 As in Nouns; see 44.
2 The Infinitive has the characteristics both of verbs and of nouns. As a verb, it governs oblique cases and takes adverbial modifiers; as a noun, it is itself governed. In origin it is a verbal noun in the Dative or Locative. See Jolly, pp. 179–200.
3 Observe that the infinitive *vincere* may be translated by the English infinitive, to conquer, or by the verbal noun, conquering.
4 Observe that the infinitives *esse* and *calère* are translated by the indicative *arē* and *ēs (is hot);* and that the Acc. *ē,* the subject of *esse,* is translated by the Nom. *you,* the subject of *arē;* and that the Acc. *igneum,* the subject of *calère,* is translated by the Nom. *fire,* the subject of *ēs.*
5 Occasionally the Gerund, especially with a preposition, may be thus translated by the English infinitive.
VERBS.

LOVING. Auxilium postulatum vénit, he came to ask aid. Difficile dicit est, it is difficult to tell. See Syntax, 545–547.

Note.—The Supine in am is an Accusative in form, while the Supine in a may be either a Dative or an Ablative; see 116.

IV. The Participle in Latin, as in English, gives the meaning of the verb in the form of an adjective.¹ It is sometimes best translated by the English Participle or Infinitive, and sometimes by a Clause:

Amáns, loving. Amátorius, about to love. Amáteus, loved. Amáxis, deserving to be loved. Plato scribés mortuus est, Plato died while writing, or while he was writing. Sol ortus dies, the sun rising, or when it rises, causes the day. Rediti bello cásum tentátur, he returned to try (lit., about to try) the fortune of war. In amicos eligéndis,¹ in selecting friends. See Syntax, 548–550.

Note.—A Latin verb may have four participles: two in the Active, the Present and the Future, amáns, amátorius; and two in the Passive, the Perfect and the Gerundive,² amáxis, amáteus.

CONJUGATION.

201. Regular verbs are inflected, or conjugated, in four different ways, and are accordingly divided into Four Conjugations,³ distinguished from each other by the stem characteristics or by the endings of the Infinitive, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Infinitive Endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONJ. I.</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

202. Principal Parts.—The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Supine are called from their importance the Principal Parts of the verb.

¹ Participles are verbs in force, but adjectives in form and inflection. As verbs, they govern oblique cases; as adjectives, they agree with nouns.
² Or by its rising.
³ Sometimes called the Future Passive Participle. In agreement with a noun, it is often best translated like a gerund governing that noun; see 544.
⁴ The Four Conjugations are only varieties of one general system of inflection, as the differences between them have been produced in the main by the union of different final letters in the various stems with one general system of suffixes; see Comparative View of Conjugations, 213–216.
VERBS.

Note 1.—In the inflection of verbs it is found convenient to recognize four stems:

1) The Verb-Stem, which is the basis of the entire conjugation. This is often called simply the Stem.

2) Three Special Stems, the Present Stem, the Perfect Stem, and the Supine Stem.

Note 2.—The Special Stems are formed from the Verb-Stem, unless they are identical with it.¹

208. The Entire Conjugation of any regular verb may be readily formed from the Principal Parts by means of the proper endings.²

1. Sum, I am, is used as an auxiliary in the passive voice of regular verbs. Accordingly, its conjugation, though quite irregular, must be given at the outset. The Principal Parts are—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sum, I am</td>
<td>esse, to be</td>
<td>ful, I have been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1.—Sum has no Supine.

Note 2.—Two independent stems or roots³ are used in the conjugation of this verb, viz.: (1) es, seen in s-um (for es-um) and in es-es, and (2) fu, seen in fu-t.

¹ For the treatment of Stems, see 249–256. In many verbs the stem is itself derived from a more primitive form called a Root. For the distinction between roots and stems, and for the manner in which the latter are formed from the former, see 313–318.

² In the Paradigms of regular verbs, the endings which distinguish the various forms are separately indicated, and should be carefully noticed. In the parts derived from the present stem (292, I.) each ending contains the characteristic vowel.

³ The forms of irregular verbs are often derived from different roots. Thus in English, am, was, been; go, went, gone. Indeed, the identical roots used in the conjugation of sum are in constant use in our ordinary speech. The root es, Greek ἐσ, originally ae, is seen in am (for ae-mi), art (for ae-t), are (for ae-e); the root fu, Greek ἓ, originally ἑ, is seen in be (for ἑ), been. The close relationship existing between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English is seen in the following comparative forms; ἐσ-ετ is Homeric, and ἐ-ἐτ Doric:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as-mi</td>
<td>ἐσ-ετ</td>
<td>s-um</td>
<td>s-m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as-i</td>
<td>ἐσ-ετ</td>
<td>es</td>
<td>ar-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as-ti</td>
<td>ἐσ-ετ</td>
<td>es-t</td>
<td>is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s-mas</td>
<td>ἐσ-ετ</td>
<td>s-umus</td>
<td>ar-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s-tha</td>
<td>ἐσ-ετ</td>
<td>es-dis</td>
<td>ar-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s-anti</td>
<td>ἐ-ἐτ</td>
<td>s-unt</td>
<td>ar-e</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Every verbal form is thus made by appending to the stem, or root, a pronominal ending meaning I, thou, he, etc. Thus mi, seen in the English me, means I. It is retained in as-mi and ei-μι, but shortened to m in s-u-m and a-m. ἐτ, meaning he, is preserved in av-ετ and ἐσ-ετ, but shortened to ε in es-ετ and lost in ε. The stem also undergoes various changes: in Sanskrit it is ae, sometimes shortened to a; in Greek ε, sometimes shortened to ε; in Latin es, sometimes shortened to e, as in Sanskrit; in English a, or, or ε.
## VERBS.


**Principal Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUMM</td>
<td>ES</td>
<td>FUI</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Tense</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUMM</td>
<td>SUMMAS,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>ESTIS,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUI</td>
<td>SUMT,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERAM</td>
<td>ERAMUS,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERAT</td>
<td>ERATIS,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERAT</td>
<td>ERAT,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERÜ</td>
<td>ERÜMUS,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERIS</td>
<td>ERÜTIS,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERIT</td>
<td>ERÜT,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUI</td>
<td>FÜMUS,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FÜSTI</td>
<td>FÜSTIS,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FÜT</td>
<td>FÜERE,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

| Füeram | füerimus, we had been, |
| Füeras | füeratis, you had been, |
| Füerat | füerant, they had been, |

**Future Perfect.**

| Füerü | füerimus, we shall have been, |
| Füeris | füeritis, you will have been, |
| Füerit | füerint, they will have been, |

---

1 The Supine is wanting.
2 *Sum* is for *sumus, eram for es eram.* Whenever *e* of the stem *es* comes between two vowels, *e* is dropped, as in *sum, sumt, or e* is changed to *r*, as in *eram, erü*; see § 31, 1. The pupil will observe that the endings which are added to the roots *es* and *fu* are distinguished by the type.
3 Or *you are,* and in the Imperfect, *you were,* *thou* is confined mostly to solemn discourse.
4 In verbs, final *a,* marked *ū,* is generally long.
5 Or, Future, *I will be,* Perfect, *I was,* see 197, note 1.
### SUBJUNCTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sim,</td>
<td>may I be,¹</td>
<td>simus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sis,</td>
<td>mayest thou be,²</td>
<td>sitis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sit,</td>
<td>let him be, may he be;</td>
<td>sint,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>essem,</td>
<td>I should be,¹</td>
<td>essēmus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>essēs,</td>
<td>thou wouldst be,²</td>
<td>essētis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>essēt,</td>
<td>he would be;</td>
<td>essēnt,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuerim,</td>
<td>I may have been,¹</td>
<td>fuerimus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fueris,</td>
<td>thou mayest have been,²</td>
<td>fuerit,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuerit,</td>
<td>he may have been;</td>
<td>fuerint,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pluperfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fuissēm, I should have been,²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuissēs, thou wouldst have been,²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuissēt, he would have been;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative.

- Pres. esse, be thou, | estē, ye.¹
- Fut. estē, thou shalt be,² | estōte, ye shall be,²
- estē, he shall be;² | suntē, they shall be.

### Infinitive.

- Pres. esse, to be.
- Perf. fuisse, to have been.
- Fut. futūrūs esse,¹ to be about to be.

### Participle.

- Fut. futūrūs,² about to be.

---

¹ On the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II., and remember that it is often best rendered by the Indicative. Thus, sim may often be rendered I am, and fuerim, I have been.

² Or be thou, or may you be.

³ The Fut. may also be rendered like the Pres., or with lest: be thou; let him be.

⁴ Futūrūs is declined like bonus. So in the Infinitive: futūrūs, a, um esse.

⁵ Es and fu are roots as well as stems. As the basis of this paradigm they are properly stems, but as they are not derived from more primitive forms, they are in themselves roots.
FIRST CONJUGATION: A VERBS.

205. ACTIVE VOICE.—Amō, I love.

**Verb Stem and Present Stem, amō.**

**Principal Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passive Ind.</th>
<th>Present Ind.</th>
<th>Perfect Ind.</th>
<th>Supine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amō</td>
<td>amāre</td>
<td>amāvi</td>
<td>amātēris</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amō, 1st</td>
<td>I love, 2nd</td>
<td>amāmus, we love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amās, 2nd</td>
<td>you love, 3rd</td>
<td>amātis, you love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāt, 3rd</td>
<td>he loves;</td>
<td>amātus, they love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābām, I was loving,</td>
<td>amābāmus, we were loving,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābās, you were loving,</td>
<td>amābātis, you were loving,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābāt, he was loving;</td>
<td>amābātus, they were loving.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābō, I shall love, 4th</td>
<td>amābōmus, we shall love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābis, you will love, 5th</td>
<td>amābitis, you will love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābit, he will love;</td>
<td>amābitus, they will love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāvī, I have loved, 5th</td>
<td>amāvīmus, we have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvisti, you have loved,</td>
<td>amāvistis, you have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvit, he has loved;</td>
<td>amāverunt, ōre, they have loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāveram, I had loved, 6th</td>
<td>amāverāmus, we had loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverās, you had loved,</td>
<td>amāverātis, you had loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverat, he had loved;</td>
<td>amāverant, they had loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāverō, I shall have loved, 6th</td>
<td>amāverōmus, we shall have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverīs, you will have loved,</td>
<td>amāverītis, you will have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverit, he will have loved;</td>
<td>amāverint, they will have loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1 The final ē of the stem disappears in amā-ē for ama-ē, amem, amēs, etc., for ama-im, ama-le, etc. Also in the Passive, in amor for ama-or, amer, etc., for ama-ér, etc.; see 23; 27. Final ō, marked ē, is generally long.

2 Or I am loving, I do love. So in the Imperfect, I loved, I was loving, I did love.

3 Or thou lovest. So in the other tenses, thou wast loving, thou wilt love, etc.

4 Or I shall love. So in the Future Perfect, I shall have loved or I will have loved.

5 Or I loved; see 197, note 1.
## ACTIVE VOICE

### SUBJUNCTIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amem</td>
<td>may I love;</td>
<td>amemus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ames</td>
<td>may you love;</td>
<td>ametis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amet</td>
<td>let him love;</td>
<td>amem, let</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amarem</td>
<td>I should love;</td>
<td>amaremus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amaret</td>
<td>you would love;</td>
<td>amaretis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amaret</td>
<td>he would love;</td>
<td>amarem, they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IMPERFECT

| amaverem   | I may have loved; | amaveremus, |
| amaverit   | you may have loved; | amaveritis, |
| amaverit   | he may have loved; | amaverint,  |

### PERFECT

| amavissem  | I should have loved, | amavissemus, |
| amavissee  | you would have loved,| amavissetis, |
| amavisset  | he would have loved; | amavisset,   |

### IMPERATIVE

| Pres. amae | love thou; | amate, love ye. |
| Fut. amatō | thou shalt love; | amatōte, ye shall love; |
| amatō  | he shall love; | amatō, they shall love; |

### INFINITIVE

| Pres. amāre  | to love. |
| Perf. amāisse | to have loved. |
| Fut. amatūrus esse | to be about to love. |

### PARTICIPLE

| Pres. amans | loving. |
| Fut. amatūrus | about to love. |

### GERUND

| Gen. amandī | of loving. |
| Dat. amandō | for loving. |
| Acc. amandum | loving. |
| Abl. amandō | by loving. |

### SUPINE

| Acc. amatūm | to love. |
| Abl. amatūm | to love, be loved. |

---

1. On the translation of the Subjunctive, see 106, II.
2. Often best rendered 'I have loved.' So in the Pluperfect, 'I had loved'; see 106, II.
3. Decline like bonus, 148.
4. For declension, see 157.
FIRST CONJUGATION: A VERBS.

206. PASSIVE VOICE.—Amor, *I am loved*.

**Verb Stem and Present Stem, *amā*.

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

**Principal Parts.**

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amor</td>
<td>amāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāri, or re</td>
<td>amāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātur</td>
<td>amāntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābar</td>
<td>amābāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābāri, or re</td>
<td>amābāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābātur</td>
<td>amābāntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābor</td>
<td>amābimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāberi, or re</td>
<td>amābimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābitur</td>
<td>amābintur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus sum¹</td>
<td>amātī sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus es</td>
<td>amātī estis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus est</td>
<td>amātī sumt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus eram¹</td>
<td>amātī erāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erās</td>
<td>amātī erātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erat</td>
<td>amātī erant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus erō¹</td>
<td>amātī erōmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus eris</td>
<td>amātī eriūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erit</td>
<td>amātī erunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ *Fest, festē, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc.: amātus fest for amātus sum.* So fueram, fuerēs, etc., for eram, etc.: also fuerō, etc., for erō, etc.
### PASSIVE VOICE

#### SUBJUNCTIVE

#### Present

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amer</td>
<td>amāemur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amēris, or re</td>
<td>amēmint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amētūr</td>
<td>amentūr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Imperfect

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

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāer</td>
<td>amāeμur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amērēris, or re</td>
<td>amērimint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amētūr</td>
<td>amentūr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Perfect

*I may have been loved, or I have been loved.*

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus sim</td>
<td>amātī simus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus sis</td>
<td>amātī sitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus sit</td>
<td>amātī sint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### PlusPerfect

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

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus esse</td>
<td>amātī essēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus essēs</td>
<td>amātī essētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus esset</td>
<td>amātī essent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Imperative

**Present**

*amāre, be thou loved; amāmini, be ye loved.*

**Future**

*amātor, thou shalt be loved, amātor, he shall be loved; amanton, they shall be loved.*

#### Infinitive

**Present**

*amāre, to be loved.*

**Perfect**

*amātus esse, to have been loved.*

**Future**

*amātum irt, to be about to be loved.*

#### Participle

**Perfect**

*amātus, having been loved.*

**Gerundive**

*amandus, to be loved, deserving to be loved.*

---

1. But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.
2. *Fuisse, fuisse, etc., are sometimes used for sim, etc, etc.—So also fussem, fussee, etc., for essem, essēs, etc., for essam, essēs, etc.: rarely fussee for esse.
SECOND CONJUGATION.

SECOND CONJUGATION: Ε VERBS.

207. ACTIVE VOICE.—Moneō, I advise.

Verb Stem, mon, moni; Present Stem, monē.

Principal Parts.

---|---|---|---
moneō | monēre | monērē | monētum

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.

monēō | monēmus
monēs | monētis
monēt

Imperfect.

I was advising, or I advised.

monēbam | monēbamus
monēbās | monēbātis
monēbat

Future.

I shall or will advise.

monēbō | monēbimus
monēbis | monēbitis
monēbit

Perfect.

I have advised, or I advised.

monēi | monēimus
monēisti | monēistis
monēit

Pluperfect.

I had advised.

monēueram | monēueramus
monēuerēs | monēuerētis
monēuerat

Future Perfect.

I shall or will have advised.

monēerō | monēerimus
monēerīs | monēerītis
monēerit
**ACTIVE VOICE.**

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

**PRESENT.**

*May I advise, let him advise.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēam</td>
<td>monēámus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēás</td>
<td>monēátis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēat</td>
<td>monēant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERFECT.**

*I should advise, he would advise.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monērem</th>
<th>monēémus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monērés</td>
<td>monēétis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēret</td>
<td>monērent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PERFECT.**

*I may have advised, or I have advised.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monuerim</th>
<th>monuerímus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monuerís</td>
<td>monuerítis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerit</td>
<td>monuerínt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLUPERFECT.**

*I should have advised, he would have advised.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monuíssem</th>
<th>monuísémus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monuísés</td>
<td>monuísétis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuísset</td>
<td>monuíssett</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE.**

*Pres.* monē, advise thou; monēte, advise ye.

*Fut.* monētō, thou shalt advise, monētōte, ye shall advise, monēntō, they shall advise.

**INFINITIVE.**

*Pres.* monēre, to advise.

*Participle.*

**Present.* monēns, advising.

*Fut.* monētārūs esse, to be about to advise.

*Fut.* monētārūs, about to advise.

**GERUND.**

Gen. monēndi, of advising, monēndum, for advising.

Acc. monēndum, advising, monēndum, to advise.

Abl. monēndō, by advising, monēndō, to advise, by advised.

1 But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

2 The Pluperfect, like the Perfect, is often rendered by the Indicative: *I had advised, you had advised, etc.*
SECOND CONJUGATION:

208. PASSIVE VOICE.—Monœor, I am advised.

Verb Stem, monœ, monœ; Present Stem, monœ-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal Parts</th>
<th>Principal Parts</th>
<th>Principal Parts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monœor,</td>
<td>monœri,</td>
<td>monitus sum.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am advised.</td>
<td>monœmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monœris, or re</td>
<td>monœmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monœtur</td>
<td>monœtur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Imperfect.

I was advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monœbar</th>
<th>monœbämur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monœbäris, or re</td>
<td>monœbämmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monœbätur</td>
<td>monœbantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future.

I shall or will be advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monœbor</th>
<th>monœbimur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monœberis, or re</td>
<td>monœbimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monœbitur</td>
<td>monœbantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perfect.

I have been advised, I was advised.

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

Pluperfect.

I had been advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monitus eram.†</th>
<th>moniti erāmus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus erās</td>
<td>moniti erātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erat</td>
<td>moniti erant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future Perfect.

I shall or will have been advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>monitus erō.†</th>
<th>moniti erimus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus erīs</td>
<td>moniti erītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erīt</td>
<td>moniti erīnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

† See 206, foot-notes.
### PASSIVE VOICE.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

**Present.**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēar</td>
<td>monēāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēāris, or re</td>
<td>monēāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēātur</td>
<td>monēcantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

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

| monērēr | monērēmur |
| monērēris, or re | monērēmini |
| monērētur | monērentur |

**Perfect.**

*I may have been advised, or I have been advised.*

| monitus sim | monitus simus |
| monitus sis | monitus sitis |
| monitus sit | monitus sint |

**Pluperfect.**

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

| monitus essem | monitus essēmus |
| monitus essēs | monitus essētis |
| monitus esset | monitus esset |

### IMPERATIVE.

**Present.** monēre, be thou advised; | monēmini, be ye advised.

**Future.** monētor, thou shalt be advised; monētor, he shall be advised; monēmentor, they shall be advised.

### INFINITIVE.

**Present.** monēri, to be advised.

**Perfect.** monitus esse, to have been advised.

**Future.** monītum irti, to be about to be advised.

### PARTICIPLE.

**Present.** monendus, to be advised, deserving to be advised.

---

1 See 206, foot-notes.
2 Or I had been advised, you had been advised, etc.
THIRD CONJUGATION.

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS.

209. ACTIVE VOICE.—Regō, I rule.

Verb stem, reg; present stem, regē.

Principal Parts:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREP. IND.</th>
<th>PREP. INF.</th>
<th>PREP. IND.</th>
<th>SUPINE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regō</td>
<td>regere,</td>
<td>regē,</td>
<td>rectum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

I rule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regō</td>
<td>regimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regēs</td>
<td>regētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regēt</td>
<td>regēnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Imperfect.

I was ruling, or I ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regēbām</td>
<td>regēbāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regēbās</td>
<td>regēbātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regēbat</td>
<td>regēbant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future.

I shall or will rule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regēnus</td>
<td>regētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regēnt</td>
<td>regēnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perfect.

I have ruled, or I ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēxī</td>
<td>rēximus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxistī</td>
<td>rēxistis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxit</td>
<td>rēxīrant, or ēre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pluperfect.

I had ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēxerēm</td>
<td>rēxerēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxeras</td>
<td>rēxeras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxerat</td>
<td>rēxerant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future Perfect.

I shall or will have ruled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēxerō</td>
<td>rēxerōm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxerēs</td>
<td>rēxerēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxerit</td>
<td>rēxerit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The characteristic is a variable vowel—d, u, e, é: regō, regunt, regere, regēs; Curtius calls it the thematic vowel; see Curtius, I., p. 199, but on d, see also Meyer, 441.

2 See 254; 30; 33, 1.
**ACTIVE VOICE.**

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

**Present.**

*MAY I RULE, LET HIM RULE.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regam</td>
<td>regámus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regás</td>
<td>regátis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regat</td>
<td>regant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

*I SHOULD RULE, HE WOULD RULE.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regerem</td>
<td>regerémus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regerés</td>
<td>regerétis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regeret</td>
<td>regerent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

*I MAY HAVE RULED, OR I HAVE RULED.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>réxerim</td>
<td>réxerimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>réxerís</td>
<td>réxerítis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>réxerit</td>
<td>réxerint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

*I SHOULD HAVE RULED, HE WOULD HAVE RULED.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>réxissem</td>
<td>réxissemus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>réxisés</td>
<td>réxisétis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>réxisset</td>
<td>réxisent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative.**

*Pres. rege, rule thou;* |

*Regite, rule ye.*

*Fut. regité, thou shalt rule,* |

*Regitéte, ye shall rule,* |

*Regunté, they shall rule.*

**Infinitive.**

*Pres. regere, to rule.* |

*Pres. regéns, ruling.*

*Perf. réxisse, to have ruled.* |

*Fut. récturus esse, to be about to rule.* |

*Fut. récturus, about to rule.*

**Gerund.**

*Gen. regendi, of ruling,* |

*Acc. réctum, to rule,* |

*Dat. regendó, for ruling,* |

*Acc. regendum, ruling,* |

*Abl. regendó, by ruling.* |

**Supine.**

*Abl. récta, to rule, be ruled.*

---

1 But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.
### THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS.

#### 210. PASSIVE VOICE.—Regor, *I am ruled.*

**Verb Stem, reg; Present Stem, rege.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regor</td>
<td>regis, or re</td>
<td>regitur</td>
<td>rēctūs sūm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Indicative Mood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Tense</th>
<th>I am ruled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sing.</td>
<td>regor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>regēris, or re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>regētar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperfect</th>
<th>I was ruled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sing.</td>
<td>regēbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>regēbaris, or re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>regēbātar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future</th>
<th>I shall or will be ruled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sing.</td>
<td>regīrar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>regēris, or re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>regētar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>I have been ruled, or I was ruled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sing.</td>
<td>rēctūs sūm¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rēctūs es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rēctūs est</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pluperfect</th>
<th>I had been ruled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sing.</td>
<td>rēctūs eram²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rēctūs erās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rēctūs erat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future Perfect</th>
<th>I shall or will have been ruled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sing.</td>
<td>rēctūs erō³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rēctūs erōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rēctūs erōt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ See 209, foot-notes. ² See 206, foot-notes.
PASSIVE VOICE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be ruled, let him be ruled.

SINGULAR.                  PLURAL.
regar                      regamur
regaris, or re             regamin
regatur                    regantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be ruled, he would be ruled.

regerer                    regeremur
regeresis, or re           regeremini
regeretur                  regerentur

PERFECT.

I may have been ruled, or I have been ruled.

rectus sim¹                 recti simus
rectus sis                  recti sitis
rectus sit                  recti sint

PLUPERFECT.

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

rectus essem¹              recti essemus
rectus essei               recti essetis
rectus esset               recti essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. regere, be thou ruled;       regimini, be ye ruled.
Fut. regiter, thou shalt be ruled, reguntor, they shall be ruled.

INFinitive.

Pres. regi, to be ruled.
Perf. rectus esse,¹ to have been ruled.
Fut. rectum iri, to be about to be ruled.

PARTICIPLE.

Perf. rectus, ruled.
Ger. regendus, to be ruled, deserving to be ruled.

¹ See 206, foot-notes.
FOURTH CONJUGATION.

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I VERBS.

211. ACTIVE VOICE.—Audīō, I hear.

**Verb Stem and Present Stem, audīō.**

**Principal Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīō</td>
<td>audīre</td>
<td>audīvī</td>
<td>audītūre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīō</td>
<td>audīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīs</td>
<td>audītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīt</td>
<td>audīunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

I was hearing, or I heard.

| audībām | audībāmus |
| audībās | audībātis |
| audībat | audībant  |

**Future.**

I shall or will hear.

| audīam | audīamus |
| audīēs | audīētis |
| audīet | audīent  |

**Perfect.**

I have heard, or I heard.

| audīvī | audīvimus |
| audīvīstī | audīvīstis |
| audīvīt | audīvīrunt, or ēre |

**Pluperfect.**

I had heard.

| audīverām | audīverāmus |
| audīverās | audīverātis |
| audīverāt | audīverānt |

**Future Perfect.**

I shall or will have heard.

| audīverēō | audīverēimus |
| audīverētis | audīverēnt |
ACTIVE VOICE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I hear, let him hear.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiam</td>
<td>audiāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīs</td>
<td>audiātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiat</td>
<td>audiānt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

I should hear, he would hear.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīrem</td>
<td>audiēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīres</td>
<td>audiētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīret</td>
<td>audiērent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PERFECT.

I may have heard, or I have heard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīverim</td>
<td>audiēverimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīverīs</td>
<td>audiēverītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīverit</td>
<td>audiēverint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLUPERFECT.

I should have heard, he would have heard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīvissem</td>
<td>audiēvissemus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvisśes</td>
<td>audiēvisśētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvisset</td>
<td>audiēvisśent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audī, hear thou;  audīte, hear ye.
Fut. audītō, thou shalt hear, audītōte, ye shall hear, audīuntō, they shall hear.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. audīre, to hear.
Perf. audīvīsse, to have heard.
Fut. audītūrus esse, to be about to hear.

GERUND.

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

PARTICIPE.

Pres. audīēns, hearing.
Fut. audītūrus, about to hear.

SUPINE.

Acc. audītum, to hear, Abl. audītō, to hear, be heard.

¹ But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.
FOURTH CONJUGATION.

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I VERBS.

212. PASSIVE VOICE.—Audior, I am heard.

Verb Stem and Present Stem, audīt.

**Principal Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREP. IND.</th>
<th>PREP. INF.</th>
<th>PERF. IND.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audītor</td>
<td>audīi,</td>
<td>audītus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audītor</td>
<td>audīmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītis, or re</td>
<td>audīmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītūr</td>
<td>audīuntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

| audībēbar | audībāmur |
| audībētis, or re | audībāmini |
| audībētūr | audībantur |

**Future.**

| audīar | audīerum |
| audīēris, or re | audīemini |
| audīētūr | audīentur |

**Perfect.**

| audītus sum | audītsum | audītsumus |
| audītus es | audītestis | audītsum |
| audītus est | | |

**Pluperfect.**

| audītus eram | audītserāmus |
| audītus erās | audītserātis |
| audītus erat | audītserant |

**Future Perfect.**

| audītus erā | audītserēmus |
| audītus erīs | audītserītis |
| audītus erīt | audītserīnt |

---

1 See 206, foot-notes.
PASSIVE VOICE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.
audiār audiāmur
audiāris, or re audiāmini
audiātur audiāntur

IMPERFECT.

I should be heard, he would be heard.

audiēr audiēmur
audiēris, or re audiēmini
audiētūr audiēntur

PERFECT.

I may have been heard, or I have been heard.

auditus sim1 auditus simus
auditus sīs auditus sītis
auditus sīt auditus sīnt

PLUPERFECT.

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

auditus essem1 auditus essemus
auditus esseś auditus esseūtis
auditus essēt auditus essēnt

IMPERATIVE.

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

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

INFINITIVE.

Pres. audiēri, to be heard.

Perf. auditus esse,1 to have been heard.

Fut. auditum iri, to be about to be heard.

PARTICIPE.

Perf. auditus, heard.

Ger. audiēndus, to be heard, deserving to be heard.

1 See 206, foot-notes.
VERBS.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

218. ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT SYSTEM.¹

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>-s,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MON</td>
<td>-ē,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REG</td>
<td>-ē,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUD</td>
<td>-ē,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>-ābam,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MON</td>
<td>-ābam,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REG</td>
<td>-ābam,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUD</td>
<td>-ābam,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FUTURE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>-ēbō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MON</td>
<td>-ēbō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REG</td>
<td>-am,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUD</td>
<td>-iam,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>-em,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MON</td>
<td>-em,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REG</td>
<td>-am,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUD</td>
<td>-iam,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>-ārem,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MON</td>
<td>-ārem,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REG</td>
<td>-erem,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUD</td>
<td>-erem,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERATIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>-ā,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MON</td>
<td>-ē,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REG</td>
<td>-ē,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUD</td>
<td>-ē,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PRES. INFINITIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>-āre;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MON</td>
<td>-ēre;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REG</td>
<td>-ere;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUD</td>
<td>-ere;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PRE. PARTICIPLE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM</td>
<td>-āns;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MON</td>
<td>-ēns;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REG</td>
<td>-ēns;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUD</td>
<td>-ēns;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GERUND.

Note.—Verbs in -ē of Conj. III. have certain endings of Conj. IV.; see 217.

¹ For the Present System, see 222, I.
## VERBS.

### COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

#### 214. PASSIVE VOICE.

**PRESENT SYSTEM.**

### INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### Present.

| Present | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| am -or  | -árás or áre, | -ástur; | -ámur, | -ámín, | -ántur. |
| mon -er, | -érís or ère, | -éstur; | -émur, | -émín, | -éntur. |
| reg -or, | -érís or ère, | -éstar; | -ímur, | -ímin, | -íntur. |
| aud -ior, | -íris or íre, | -ístur; | -ímur, | -ímin, | -íntur. |

#### Imperfect.

| Present | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| am -ábbar, | -ábarís or ábáre, | -ábástur; | -ábánum, | -ábánum, | -ábántur. |
| mon -ébar, | -ébarís or ébáre, | -ébástur; | -ébánum, | -ébánum, | -ébántur. |
| reg -ébar, | -ébarís or ébáre, | -ébástur; | -ébánum, | -ébánum, | -ébántur. |
| aud -iébar, | -iébarís or íébáre, | -iébástur; | -iébánum, | -iébánum, | -iébántur. |

#### Future.

| Present | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| am -ábbor, | -áberís or áberé, | -ábitur; | -ábínum, | -ábínum, | -ábuntur. |
| mon -ébor, | -éberís or éberé, | -ébitur; | -ébínum, | -ébínum, | -ébuntur. |
| reg -ar, | -árís or áre, | -éstar; | -énum, | -émin, | -éntur. |
| aud -iar, | -íárís or íare, | -íétur; | -ínum, | -ímin, | -íntur. |

### SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### Present.

| Present | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| am -ér, | -érís or ére, | -érastur; | -érmur, | -érmín, | -érantur. |
| mon -er, | -erís or ère, | -éstar; | -érmur, | -érmín, | -éntur. |
| reg -ar, | -árís or áre, | -éstar; | -ármur, | -ármín, | -ántur. |
| aud -iar, | -íárís or íare, | -íétur; | -íámur, | -íámín, | -íántur. |

#### Imperfect.

| Present | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| am -érer, | -érérís or érérer, | -éreréstar; | -érérémur, | -érérémín, | -éréréntur. |
| mon -ére, | -éreis or érérer, | -érestar; | -éremur, | -éremín, | -érentur. |
| reg -ere, | -éreis or ère, | -érestar; | -éremur, | -éremín, | -érentur. |
| aud -ier, | -íréris or írére, | -íréstar; | -íremur, | -íremín, | -írentur. |

### IMPERATIVE.

| Present | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| am -áre, | -áminf; | -átor; | -átor; | -ántor. |
| mon -ér, | -érinf; | -étor; | -étor; | -éntor. |
| reg -ere, | -éminf; | -étor; | -étor; | -éntor. |
| aud -ére, | -éninf; | -étor; | -étor; | -éntor. |

### PRES. INFINITIVE.

| Present | | | | | |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| am -árt; | -andus. |
| mon -ár| -endus. |
| reg -í; | -endus. |
| aud -ír; | -iendus. |

---

1 In these and the following endings re takes the place of ré in: áris or áre, ábáris or ábáre. Re is formed from ré by dropping final é and then changing final é to e; see 105, 5; 25, 1, note; also 237.

---

31x37 to 368x536
COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

215. ACTIVE VOICE.

PERFECT SYSTEM.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>amāv</th>
<th>monu</th>
<th>rēx</th>
<th>audīv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>l,</td>
<td>-ēst,</td>
<td>-it;</td>
<td>-imus,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pluperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>amāv</th>
<th>monu</th>
<th>rēx</th>
<th>audīv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ēram,</td>
<td>-ērās,</td>
<td>-erat;</td>
<td>-ēramus,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future Perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>amāv</th>
<th>monu</th>
<th>rēx</th>
<th>audīv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ērī,</td>
<td>-ērīs,</td>
<td>-erit;</td>
<td>-ērīmus,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subjunctive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>amāv</th>
<th>monu</th>
<th>rēx</th>
<th>audīv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ērim,</td>
<td>-ērīs,</td>
<td>-erit;</td>
<td>-ērimus,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pluperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>amāv</th>
<th>monu</th>
<th>rēx</th>
<th>audīv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-īssem,</td>
<td>-īsās,</td>
<td>-īset;</td>
<td>-īsāmus,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perfect Infinitive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>amāv</th>
<th>monu</th>
<th>rēx</th>
<th>audīv</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-īs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUPINE SYSTEM.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>amāt</th>
<th>monit</th>
<th>rēct</th>
<th>audit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ārus esse.</td>
<td>-ārus.</td>
<td>-um, -ā.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ For the Perfect System, see 222, II.; for the Supine System, 222, III.
² From the comparative view presented in 213–216, it will be seen that the four conjugations differ from each other only in the formation of the Principal Parts and in the endings of the Present System. See also 201, foot-note.
VERBS. 105

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

216. PASSIVE VOICE.

SUPINE SYSTEM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Perfect.
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{amāt} & \quad \text{monit} \\
\text{rect} & \quad \text{audit} \\
-\text{us sum}, & \quad -\text{us es}, \quad -\text{us est}; \quad -\text{i sumus}, \quad -\text{i estis}, \quad -\text{i sunt}. \\
\end{align*}
\]

Pluperfect.
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{amāt} & \quad \text{monit} \\
\text{rect} & \quad \text{audit} \\
-\text{us eram}, & \quad -\text{us eras}, \quad -\text{us erat}; \quad -\text{i eramus}, \quad -\text{i erátis}, \quad -\text{i erant}. \\
\end{align*}
\]

Future Perfect.
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{amāt} & \quad \text{monit} \\
\text{rect} & \quad \text{audit} \\
-\text{us erē}, & \quad -\text{us eris}, \quad -\text{us erit}; \quad -\text{i erimus}, \quad -\text{i eritis}, \quad -\text{i erunt}. \\
\end{align*}
\]

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perfect.
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{amāt} & \quad \text{monit} \\
\text{rect} & \quad \text{audit} \\
-\text{us sim}, & \quad -\text{us sis}, \quad -\text{us sit}; \quad -\text{i simus}, \quad -\text{i sitis}, \quad -\text{i sint}. \\
\end{align*}
\]

Pluperfect.
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{amāt} & \quad \text{monit} \\
\text{rect} & \quad \text{audit} \\
-\text{us essem}, & \quad -\text{us essēs}, \quad -\text{us esset}; \quad -\text{i essēmus}, \quad -\text{i essētis}, \quad -\text{i essēnt}. \\
\end{align*}
\]

INFINITIVE.

Perfect.
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{amāt} & \quad \text{monit} \\
\text{rect} & \quad \text{audit} \\
-\text{us esse}. & \quad \text{FUTURE.} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Future.
\[
\begin{align*}
-\text{um irf}. & \quad \text{FUTURE.} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Perfect Participle.
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{amāt} & \quad \text{monit} \\
\text{rect} & \quad \text{audit} \\
-\text{us}. & \quad \text{FUTURE.} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[1 \text{ In the plural, -us becomes -i: amāt-i sumus, etc.}\]
217. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form the Present Indicative in iō, ior, like verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. They are inflected with the endings of the Fourth wherever those endings have two successive vowels. These verbs are—

1. capiō, to take; cupiō, to desire; faciō, to make; sodiō, to dig; fugiō, to flee; faciō, to throw; pariō, to bear; quatī, to shake; capiō, to be wise, with their compounds.

2. The compounds of the obsolete verbs, laciō, to entice, and speciō, to look; alliciō, liciō, illiciō, pelliciō, etc.; capiciō, cōspeciō, etc.

3. The Deponent Verbs: gradior, to go; morior, to die; patior, to suffer; see 231.

218. ACTIVE VOICE.—Capiō, I take.

Verb Stem, capr; Present Stem, capr.

Principal Parts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiō</td>
<td>capere</td>
<td>cēpiō</td>
<td>captum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiō, capis, capit;</td>
<td>capimus, capitās, capiunt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Imperfect.

| capiēbam, -ībās, -ībat; | capiēbāmus, -ībātis, -ībant. |

Future.

| capiam, -īs, -iet; | capiāmus, -ītis, -īrent. |

Perfect.

| cēpiō, -īst, -īt; | cēpimus, -ītis, -īrunt, or ārunt. |

Pluperfect.

| cēperam, -ēras, -erat; | cēperāmus, -ērātis, -ērunt. |

Future Perfect.

| cēperēd, -ēris, -erit; | cēperīmus, -ēritis, -ērint. |

Subjunctive.

Present.

| capiam, -īs, -iēt; | capiāmus, -ītis, -iēnt. |

Imperfect.

| caperem, -ēris, -eret; | caperāmus, -ērētis, -erent. |

Perfect.

| cēperim, -ēris, -erit; | cēperīmus, -ēritis, -erint. |

Pluperfect.

| cēpissem, -īssēs, -iisset; | cēpissemus, -īssētis, -iissent. |

1 Speciō occurs, but is exceedingly rare.
2 With variable vowel—e, i: capō, capā.
### VERBS IN IO.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>SINGULAR</strong></th>
<th><strong>IMPERATIVE</strong></th>
<th><strong>PLURAL</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. cape;</td>
<td></td>
<td>capite.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. capitō,</td>
<td></td>
<td>capitōte,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>capiuntō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>INFINITIVE</strong></th>
<th><strong>PARTICIPLE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. capere.</td>
<td>Pres. capiēns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. cōpiisse.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. captūrus esse.</td>
<td>Fut. captūrus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>GERUND</strong></th>
<th><strong>SUPINE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. capiendī</td>
<td>Acc. captum,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. capiendō</td>
<td>Abl. captā.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 219. PASSIVE VOICE.—Capior, *I am taken*.

#### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. Ind.</th>
<th>Pres. Inf.</th>
<th>Perf. Ind</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiōr,</td>
<td>capī,</td>
<td>captus sum.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### Present Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>SINGULAR</strong></th>
<th><strong>PLURAL</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiōr, caperis, capitur;</td>
<td>capimur, capimīnī, capiuntur.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>IMPERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiēbar, -iēbaris, -iēbātur;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>FUTURE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiār, -iēris, -iētur;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>captus sum, es, est;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PUPERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>captus eram, erās, erat;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>FUTURE PERFECT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>captus erō, eris, erit;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VERBAL INFLECTIONS.

SINGULAR.  
PRESENT.  
capiar, -āris, -ātur;  | capiāmur, -āmini, -āntur.  
IMPERFECT.  
caperer, -erēris, -erētur;  | caperēmur, -erēmini, -erentur.  
PERFECT.  
captus sim, sis, sit;  | captī simus, sitis, sint.  
PLUPERFECT.  
captus essēm, essēs, esset;  | captī essēmus, essētis, essent.  

IMPERATIVE.  
Pres. capere;  | capimint.  
Fut. capitor,  | capiuntor.  
capitor;  

INFINITIVE.  
Pres. capi.  
Perf. captus esse.  | Perf. captus.  
Fut. captum iri.  | Fut. capiendus.  

PARTICIPE.  

VERBAL INFLECTIONS.

220. The Principal Parts are formed in the four conjugations with the following endings, including the characteristic vowels, ā, ē, e, ī:

Conj. I.  
ō, ēre, ēvi, ētum,
amō, amāre, amāvi, amātum, to love.

Conj. II. In a few verbs:  
ōō, ēre, ēvi, ētum,
dēlō, dēlere, dēlevi, dēlētum, to destroy.

In most verbs:  
ōō, ēre, uī, ītum,
moneō, monēre, monēi, monētum, to advise.

Conj. III. In consonant stems:  
ō, ēre, uī, ītum,
carpō, carpere, carpeī, carptum, to pluck.

In vowel stems:  
ō, ēre, iū, ītum,
acuō, acuere, acui, acūtum, to sharpen.

Conj. IV.  
īō, ēre, īvi, ītum,
audīō, audire, audīvi, audītum, to hear.

221. Compounds of verbs with dissyllabic Supines generally change the stem-vowel in forming the principal parts:

I. When the Present of the compound has ī for ā of the simple verb:
VERBAL INFDCTIONS. 109

1. The Perfect and Supine generally resume the e: ¹

regō, regere, réxi, réctum, to rule.
dirigō, dirigere, diréxi, diréctum, to direct.

2. But sometimes only the Supine resumes the e: ¹

teneō, tenēre, tenui, tentum, to hold.
dē-tineō, dēstinēre, dēstinui, dēstentum, to detain.

II. When the Present of the compound has i for a of the simple verb:

1. The Perfect generally resumes the vowel of the simple perfect, and
the Supine takes e, ¹ sometimes a:

capīō, capere, cēpi, captum, to take.
ac-cipiō, accepere, accepit, acceptum, to accept.

2. But sometimes the Perfect retains i and the Supine takes e: ¹

rapīō, rapere, rapui, raptum, to seize.
diripīō, diripere, diripuit, direptum, to tear asunder.

Note.—For Reduplication in compounds, see 255, 1, 4; other peculiarities of
compounds will be noticed under the separate conjugations.

222. All the forms of any regular verb arrange themselves in
three distinct groups or systems:

I. The Present System, with the Present Infinitive as its basis,
comprises—

2. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive—Active and Passive.
3. The Imperative—Active and Passive.
5. The Present Active Participle.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the Present Stem, found in the
Present Infinitive Active by dropping the ending re: amāre, present stem
amā; monēre, monē; regere, regē; audīre, audī.

II. The Perfect System, with the Perfect Indicative Active as
its basis, comprises in the Active Voice—

1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.
2. The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.
3. The Perfect Infinitive.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the Perfect Stem, found in the
Perfect Indicative Active, by dropping i: amāvī, perfect stem amāvī;
monuī, monu.

III. The Supine System, with the Supine as its basis, comprises—

¹ The favorite vowel before a, or two or more consonants; see 24, 1.
1. The Supines in am and ã, the former of which with ãr forms the Future Infinitive Passive.

2. The Future Active and Perfect Passive Participles, the former of which with esse forms the Future Active Infinitive, and the latter of which with the proper parts of the auxiliary sum forms in the Passive those tenses which in the Active belong to the Perfect System.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the Supine Stem, found in the Supine by dropping um: amátum, supine stem amãt; monitum, monit.

SYNOPSIS OF CONJUGATION

FIRST CONJUGATION.

223. ACTIVE VOICE.—Amã, I love.

1. Principal Parts.

    amã, amãre, amãvi, amãtum.

2. Present System; Stem, amã.

    | Indicative | Subjunctive | Imper. | Infinitive | Participle |
    | Pres. amã | amem | amã | amãre | amãns |
    | Imp. amãbam | amãrem | | | |
    | Fut. amãbo | | amãtã | | |

    Gerund, amandi, dã, etc.

3. Perfect System; Stem, amãv.

    | Perf. amãvi | amãverim | amãvisse |
    | Ptp. amãveram | amãvissem | |
    | F. P. amãverô | | |

4. Supine System; Stem, amãt.

    Fut. | | amãturus esse | amãturus

    Supine, amãtum, amãtã.

224. PASSIVE VOICE.—Amor, I am loved.

1. Principal Parts.

    amor, amãri, amãtus sum.

2. Present System; Stem, amã.

    | Pres. amor | amer | amãre | amãri |
    | Imp. amãbar | amãrer | | |
    | Fut. amãbor | amãtor | | |

    Gerundive, amandus.
**SYNOPSIS OF CONJUGATION.**

### 3. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, amāt.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
<th>Imper.</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf. amātus sum</td>
<td>amātus sim</td>
<td>amātus esse</td>
<td>amātus esse</td>
<td>amātus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. amātus eram</td>
<td>amātus essem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. amātus erō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>amātum irī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SECOND CONJUGATION.

#### 225. ACTIVE VOICE.—Moneō, I advise.

1. **Principal Parts.**

- moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum.

2. **Present System; Stem, monē.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. moneō</th>
<th>monēam</th>
<th>monē</th>
<th>monēre</th>
<th>monēns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imp. monēbam</td>
<td>monērem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. monēbō</td>
<td>monētō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gerund,** monēndum, do, etc.

3. **Perfect System; Stem, monu.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perf. monuī</th>
<th>monuerim</th>
<th></th>
<th>monuisse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plup. monueram</td>
<td>monuissem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. monuerō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. **Supine System; Stem, monit.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fut.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>monitūrus esse</th>
<th>monitūrus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Supine, monitum, monitā.**

### 226. PASSIVE VOICE.—Moneor, I am advised.

1. **Principal Parts.**

- moneor, monērī, monitus sum.

2. **Present System; Stem, monē.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. moneor</th>
<th>monēar</th>
<th>monēre</th>
<th>monērī</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imp. monēbar</td>
<td>monērer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. monēbor</td>
<td>monētor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gerundive,** monēndus.

3. **Supine System; Stem, monit.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perf. monitus sum</th>
<th>monitus sim</th>
<th></th>
<th>monitus esse</th>
<th>monitus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plup. monitus eram</td>
<td>monitus essem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. monitus erō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>monitum irī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SYNOPSIS OF CONJUGATION.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

227. ACTIVE VOICE.—Regō, I rule.

1. Principal Parts.

regō, regere, rēxi, rēctum.

2. Present System; Stem, rege.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. regō</td>
<td>regam</td>
<td>rege</td>
<td>regere</td>
<td>regēns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. regēbam</td>
<td>regerem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. regam</td>
<td></td>
<td>regiterō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gerund, regendūs, dō, etc.

3. Perfect System; Stem, rēx.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perf. rēxi</th>
<th>rēxeām</th>
<th>rēxērō</th>
<th>rēxisesse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plup. rēxeām</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. rēxeō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Supine System; Stem, rēct.

Fut. | rēctūs esse | rēctūs

Supine, rēctum, rēctū.

228. PASSIVE VOICE.—Regor, I am ruled.

1. Principal Parts.

regor, regi, rēctus sum.

2. Present System; Stem, rege.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. regor</th>
<th>reger</th>
<th>regere</th>
<th>regi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imp. regēbar</td>
<td>regērēr</td>
<td></td>
<td>regitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. regar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gerundive, regendūs.

3. Supine System; Stem, rēct.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perf. rēctus sum</th>
<th>rēctūs sim</th>
<th>rēctus esse</th>
<th>rēctus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plup. rēctus eram</td>
<td>rēctus esse</td>
<td>rēctus esse</td>
<td>rēctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. rēctus erō</td>
<td></td>
<td>rēctum esse</td>
<td>rēctum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Fut. | rēctum | rēctum | rēctum |
SYNOPSIS OF CONJUGATION.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

229. ACTIVE VOICE.—Audiō, I hear.

1. Principal Parts.

| audiō | audire | audīvi | auditum |

2. Present System; Stem, audiō.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBLJUNCTIVE</th>
<th>IMPER.</th>
<th>INFINITIVE</th>
<th>PARTICIPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. audiō</td>
<td>audiam</td>
<td>audit</td>
<td>audire</td>
<td>audiēns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. audiem</td>
<td>audrem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. audiam</td>
<td>audō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gerund, audiendī, dō, etc.

3. Perfect System; Stem, audīvi.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perf. audīvi</th>
<th>audīverim</th>
<th>audīvisse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plsp. audīveram</td>
<td>audīvissem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. audīverō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Supine System; Stem, audit.

| Fut. | auditūrus esse | auditūrus |
|      |                |          |

Supine, auditum, auditū.

230. PASSIVE VOICE.—Audor, I am heard.

1. Principal Parts

| audior | audiēr | auditus sum |

2. Present System; Stem, audiō.

| Pres. audiō | audiār | auditōr | audiēr |
| Imp. audiem | audiēr |         |       |
| Fut. audiō |        |         |       |

Gerundive, audiendus.

3. Supine System; Stem, audit.

| Perf. auditus sum | auditus sim | auditus esse | auditus |
|                  | auditus essem |               |        |
| Plsp. auditus eram | auditus essem | auditus esse | auditus |
| F. P. auditus erō | auditum erō   | auditum esse | auditus |
| Fut.              |             |             |        |
DEPONENT VERBS.

DEPONENT VERBS.

231. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the Passive Voice with the signification of the Active. But—

1. They have also in the Active, the future infinitive, the participles, gerund, and supine.

2. The gerundive generally has the passive signification; sometimes also the perfect participle: hortandus, to be exhorted; expertus, tried.

3. The Future Infinitive of the Passive form is rare, as the Active form is generally used.

Note.—The synopsis of a single example will sufficiently illustrate the peculiarities of Deponent Verbs.


1. Principal Parts.

hortor, hortārī, hortātus sum.

2. Present System; Stem, hortā.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
<th>Imper.</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Præs. hortor</td>
<td>hortēr</td>
<td>hortārē</td>
<td>hortārī</td>
<td>hortāns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. hortābar</td>
<td>hortārēr</td>
<td>hortātor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. hortābor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gerund, hortandī.

Gerundive, hortandus.

3. Supine System; Stem, hortāt.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perf. hortātus sum</th>
<th>hortātus sim</th>
<th>hortātus esse</th>
<th>hortātus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pluperf. hortātus eram</td>
<td>hortātus essem</td>
<td>hortātus esse</td>
<td>hortātus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. hortātus erō</td>
<td></td>
<td>hortāturus esse</td>
<td>hortāturus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Supine, hortātum, hortātā.

Note.—For the Principal Parts of Deponent Verbs in the other conjugations, see 268, 283, and 288. From these Principal Parts the pupil, by the aid of the paradigms already learned, will be able to inflect any Deponent Verb.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

233. The Active Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Future Active Participle with sum, denotes an intended or future action:

1 The tenses are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers: hortor, hortārīs, hortātur, hortāmur, hortāminīs, hortāmur. All the forms in this synopsis have the active meaning, I exhort, I was exhorting, etc., except the Gerundive, which has the passive force, deserving to be exhorted, to be exhorted. The Gerundive, as it is passive in meaning, cannot be used in intransitive Deponent Verbs, except in an impersonal sense; see 301, 1.
PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION.

Amāturus sum, I am about to love.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
<th>INFINITIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. amāturus sum 1</td>
<td>amāturus sim</td>
<td>amāturus esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. amāturus eram</td>
<td>amāturus essem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. amāturus erō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. amāturus fueri</td>
<td>amāturus fuerim</td>
<td>amāturus fuisse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. amāturus fueram</td>
<td>amāturus fuisset</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. amāturus fuerō 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

234. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Gerundive with sum, denotes necessity or duty.

Amandus sum, I must be loved. 2

| Pres. amandus sum | amandus sim | amandus esse |
| Imp. amandus eram | amandus essem | |
| Fut. amandus erō | | |
| Perf. amandus fueri | amandus fuerim | amandus fuisse |
| Plup. amandus fueram | amandus fuisset | |
| F. P. amandus fuerō | | |

Note.—The Periphrastic Conjugation, in the widest sense of the term, includes all forms compounded of participles with sum; but as the Pres. Part. with sum is equivalent to the Pres. Ind. (amāns est = amat), and is accordingly seldom used, and as the Perf. Part. with sum is, in the strictest sense, an integral part of the regular conjugation, the term Periphrastic is generally limited to the two conjugations above given.

PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION.

235. Perfects in āvi, ēvi, īvi, and the tenses derived from them, sometimes drop v and suffer contraction before s and r, and sometimes before t. Thus—

Ā with the following vowel becomes ā: amāviēti (amaediti), amāěti; amāveram (amaeram), amāram; amāvisse (amaisse), amāsсе; amāviēt (amāet), amāt.

Ē with the following vowel becomes ē: nēvi (to spin), nēviēti (neaveti), nēstī; nēverunt (neeverunt), nērunt.

Ī and Ī become ī: audīviēti (audīediti), audīēti; audīvissem (audīisse), audīssе; audīvit (audīit), audīt.

1. Perfects in ēvi sometimes drop v in any of their forms, but generally without contraction, except before s: audīvi, audīi, audīit, audīeram; audīviēti, audīditi or audīditi.

---

1 The periphrastic forms are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers: amāturus sum, es, est. The Fut. Perf. is exceedingly rare.

2 Or, I deserve (ought) to be loved.
2. Perfects in ẹtr.—The perfects of nōsē, to know, and moverē, to move, sometimes drop v and suffer contraction before r and e: nōvēstī, naēstī.

3. Perfects in et and et sometimes drop te, is, or ete: scripēstē, scripētē; dicīsē, dicē; accēstī, accēstē.

236. The ending ēre for ērunt in the Perfect is common in Livy and the poets, but rare in Cicero and Caesar.

Note.—The form in ēre does not drop e. In poetry ērunt occurs.

237. Re for ris in the ending of the second Person of the Passive is rare in the Present Indicative, but common in the other tenses.

238. Dicē, dūcē, facē, and fērē, for dice, dūce, face, and fere, are the Imperatives of dicē, dūcē, facēbī, and fērēbī, to say, lead, make, and bear.

Note 1.—Dicē, dūcē, and facē occur in poetry.

Note 2.—Compounds follow the simple verbs, except those of facēbī, which change s into s: confecē.

239. Undus and undī for endus and endī occur as the endings of the Gerundive and Gerund of Conj. III and IV, especially after i: faciundus, from facēbī, to make; disundus, from dicē, to say.

240. Ancient and Rare Forms.—Various other forms, belonging in the main to the earlier Latin, occur in the poets, even of the classical period, and occasionally also in prose, to impart to the style an air of antiquity or solemnity. Thus forms in—

1. Tham for istam, in the Imperfect Ind. of Conj. IV.: scībam for scībān. See Imperfect of ed, to go, 295.

2. Ibo, ibor, for iam, iar, in the Future of Conj. IV.: servībō for servībam; opperībor for opperiar. See Future of ed, 295.

3. Im for am or em, in the Pres. Subj.: edim, edis, etc., for edam, edēs, etc.; duim (from duō, for dō), for dem.—In sim, velim, nōtim, malim (204 and 208), im is the common ending.

4. Assē, assē, and asē, in the Future Perfect, and assēbī, assēm, assēm, and sim, in the Perfect Subjunctive of Conj. I., II., III.: facēbī (facēbō) for fecērī (from facē); facēm for fecērīm; ausēm for ausēs sim (for ausēsim, from ausē). Rare examples are: levāsē for levāserē; probēsēbī for probāserē; jussēbī for jussēserē; capsē for capsērē; asē for asērē; occēsē for occēserē; tasēsē for tasēserē.

5. Tē and mīnō for tor, the former in both numbers, the latter in the singular, of the Future Imperative, Passive and Deponent: arbitrēbī, arbitrēminō for arbitrātor; utēnō for utēnō.


1 Remember that r in erō and erim was originally s; see 31, 1; 204, foot-note 2.
ANALYSIS OF VERBAL ENDINGS.

241. The endings which are appended to the stems in the formation of the various parts of the finite verb contain three distinct elements:

1. The TENSE-SIGN: \( b \) in am\( b \)-a-m, reg\( b \)-a-s.
2. The MOOD-VOWEL: \( a \) in mon\( e \)-a-s, reg\( e \)-a-s.
3. The PERSONAL ENDING: \( s \) in mon\( e \)-a-s, reg\( e \)-a-s.

I. TENSE-SIGNS.

242. The Present is without any tense-sign: am\( a \)-a. So also the Future\(^1\) in Conjugations III. and IV.

243. In the other tense-forms of all regular verbs, the tense-sign is found in the auxiliary with which these forms are all compounded:

Am\( a \)-bam,\(^2\) am\( a \)-veram; am\( a \)-bb, am\( a \)-ver\( \ddot{e} \); mons-bam, monu-eram.

II. MOOD-SIGNS.

244. The Indicative has no special sign to mark the Mood.

245. The Subjunctive has a long vowel—\( \ddot{a} \), \( \ddot{e} \), or \( \dddot{e} \)—before the Personal Endings:

Mon\( e \)-a-mus, mon\( e \)-a-tis, am\( e \)-a-mus, am\( e \)-a-tis, s\( e \)-mue, s\( e \)-tue.

Note.—This vowel is shortened before final \( m \) and \( t \), and generally in the Perfect before \( s \), mus, and \( tis \): moncam, amet, etc., fueris, am\( a \)verimue, am\( a \)veritue.

---

\(^1\) This Future is in form a Present Subjunctive, though it has assumed in full the force of the Future Indicative; see foot-note \(^4\) below.

\(^2\) Bam and eram are both auxiliary verbs in the Imperfect, the former from the stem \( b \)\( b \)\( s \), the old form of \( jw \) in \( jw \)-a, and the latter from the stem \( s \)\( s \); the former added to the Present stem forms the Imperfect, the latter added to the Perfect stem forms the Pluperfect. \( b \)\( s \) and \( e \)\( s \) are Future forms, the former from \( b \)\( s \)\( s \), the latter from \( s \)\( s \); the former added to the Present stem forms the Future in Conjugations L and II.; the latter added to the Perfect stem forms the Future Perfect. In the Subjunctive the tense-forms, except the Present, are compounded with Subjunctive tense-forms from \( e \)\( s \); thus, erem in reg-erem is for eseem; erim in rae-erim is for seim = sim, and iseseem in rae-eseem is for eseem; thus the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive of eseem added to the Perfect stem form the Future and Pluperfect Subjunctive.

\(^3\) This \( \dddot{e} \) comes from \( a \)-t, of which the \( t \) alone is the true Mood-Sign.

\(^4\) The Latin Subjunctive contains the forms of two distinct Moods—the Subjunctive with the sign \( a \), and the Optative with the sign \( t \), sometimes contained in \( \dddot{e} \) for \( a \)-t. Thus: Subjunctive, mon\( a \)-a-mus, audit\( a \)-tue; Optative, s\( e \)-tue, reguer\( a \)-tue, am\( a \)-tue for am\( a \)-tue, reguer\( a \)-tue for reguer\( a \)-tue. The Subjunctive and Optative forms, originally distinct, have in the Latin been blended into one Mood, called the Subjunctive, and are used without any difference of meaning. Thus the Mood in mon\( e \)-a-mus, a Subjunctive form, has precisely the same force as in am\( a \)-a-mus, an Optative form. The First Person Singular of Futures in am-\( e \)rgam, audiam, etc.—is in form a Subjunctive, while the other Persons, regid, et, etc., audit\( e \), et, etc., are in form Optatives.
246. The Imperative is distinguished by its Personal Endings; see 247, 3.

III. PERSONAL ENDINGS.

247. The Personal Endings are formed from ancient pronominal stems, and have, accordingly, the force of pronouns in English. They are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular.¹</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>ris</td>
<td>thou, you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>tur</td>
<td>he, she, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural.²</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>mus</td>
<td>mur</td>
<td>we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>tis</td>
<td>mini²</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>nt</td>
<td>ntur</td>
<td>they</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EXAMPLES.

amāba-m amāba-r regō rego-r
amāba-s amāba-ris regi-s rege-ris
amāba-t amāba-tur regi-t regi-tur
amāba-mus amāba-mur regi-mus regi-mur
amāba-tis amāba-mini regi-tis regi-mini
amāba-nt amāba-ntur regi-nt regi-ntur

1. Omitted.—In the Present,⁴ Perfect, and Future Perfect Ind. of all the conjugations, and in the Future Ind. of Conjugations I. and II., the ending m does not appear. In these forms the First Person ends in ē: ⁵ amē, amēdē, amētērēdē; except in the Perfect, where it ends in i: ⁶ amētē.

2. The endings of the Perfect Active are peculiar. They are the same as in fuī:

¹ In the Singular these Personal Endings contain each—(1) in the Active Voice one pronominal stem, m, I; s, thou, you; t, he; and (2) in the Passive two such stems, one denoting the Person, and the other the Passive Voice: thus, in the ending tur, t (th) denotes the person, and r, the voice. R of the first person stands for m-r.

² In the Plural the Endings contain each—(1) in the Active two pronominal stems: με-μ = μ (mu) and s, I and you, I. e., we; sē = s (the original form for s, thou, as seen in sē, thou) and s, s and a, thou and thou, I. e., you; nē = n and t, he and he, I. e., they; and (2) in the Passive three such stems, the third denoting the Passive Voice: thus in nētur, nē (ntu) denotes the person and number, and r, the voice.

³ Mini was not originally a Personal Ending, but the Plural of a Passive Participle, not otherwise used in Latin, but seen in the Greek (μεναι). Amēmini, originally amēmēni estēs, means you are loved, as amētē estēs means you have been loved.

⁴ Except in sum, I am, and ingquam, I say.

⁵ The origin of this final ē is uncertain. Curtius regards it as simply the thematic vowel, but Meyer recognizes it in a suffice combined with the thematic vowel; see Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 199, 200; Meyer, p. 849.

⁶ Probably a part of the stem; but see Curtius, Verbum, II., p. 173; Papillon, pp. 194-196; also two papers by the author, on the Formation of the Tenses for Completed Action in the Latin Finite Verb; Transactions of the Am. Phil. Assoc., 1874 and 1875.
FORMATION OF STEMS.

First Pers. | SINGULAR: fu-| PLURAL: fu-i-mus
Second | SINGULAR: fu-is-t| PLURAL: fu-is-tis
Third | SINGULAR: fu-i-t| PLURAL: fu-tru-nt or ëre

3. The Imperative Mood has the following Personal Endings:

ACTIVE |
| PASSIVE |
| PREP. SECOND PERSON |
| SINGULAR: te |
| PLURAL: tōte |
| PASSIVE |
| SINGULAR: re |
| PLURAL: mini |
| FUTURE |
| SINGULAR: tō |
| PLURAL: nōt |
| PASSIVE |
| SINGULAR: tor |
| PLURAL: ntor |

248. Infinitives, Participles, Gerunds, and Supines are formed with the following endings:

Infinitive Present | ACTIVE: re (ere) |
| PASSIVE: re (erl), t |
Perfect | ACTIVE: isse |
| PASSIVE: us esse |
Future | ACTIVE: ūrus esse |
| PASSIVE: um irf |
Participle Present | ACTIVE: ns |
| PASSIVE: |
Future | ACTIVE: ūrus |
| PASSIVE: |
Perfect | ACTIVE: us |
| PASSIVE: ndus |
Gerund | ACTIVE: ndī |
Supine | ACTIVE: um, ā |

FORMATION OF STEMS.

249. The three Special Stems are all formed from the Verb Stem.

I. PRESENT STEM.

250. The Present Stem, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping re, is generally the same as the Verb Stem in the First and in the Fourth Conjugations, and sometimes in the Second. Thus, amī, dālē, and aūdi are both Present Stems and Verb Stems.

1 N is omitted in the first person, and ăt, an ancient form of ēt, ē is used in the second. Otherwise the endings themselves are regular, but in the second person ăt and ătē are preceded by tē, and ērūnt in fu-ērūnt is for ērunt, the full form for ērunt. Thus ērūnt is a compound of ē and ērunt for ērunt. Fu-ēsēsē, in like manner, may be a compound of ēs and ēsēsē for ēsēsē, and fu-ētēsē, of ētu and ētēsē for ētēsē for ētu.

2 In the Present the ending is dropped in the Sing. Act., and the endings ētē and ētē are shortened from ētēs and ētēs of the Indicative by dropping s and changing final ē into e; see 24, 1, note. In the Future, ūtē of the second person corresponds to ūtē of the Perfect Ind.; ūtē and ūtē of the third person to ūtē and ūtē. Tor and nētē add r to ūtē and nētē. Ūtē doubles the pronominal stem.

3 The final vowels are generally explained as derived from qē, which became, in Conj. I., qē, shortened to Ṗ in am-đ, and to ē in the other forms, as am-đ-mus; in
251. The Present Stem, when not the same as the Verb Stem, is formed from it by one of the following methods:

1. By adding a short vowel, called the Thematic vowel:

   regō;  
   Stem, reg;  
   Present Stem, rege;  
   " cane;  
   " cane;  
   to rule.

2. By adding a Thematic vowel preceded by n, no, or t:

   sinō;  
   Stem, si;  
   Present Stem, sine;  
   " sper, sprē;  
   " sperne;  
   to permit.

3. By adding a Thematic vowel preceded by i or j:

   capiō;  
   Stem, cap;  
   Present Stem, cap-je, cape;  
   " pel;  
   " pel-je, pelle;  
   to take.

4. By adding a Thematic vowel and inserting r—changed to m before a labial, b or p; see 33, 3:

   frangō;  
   Stem, frag;  
   Present Stem, frange;  
   " fud;  
   " funde;  
   to break.

5. By adding &s, &t, or &:

   juvō;  
   Stem, juv;  
   Present Stem, juva;  
   " vid;  
   " vidé;  
   to assist.

6. By reduplicating the stem:

   sisō;  
   Stem, sta;  
   Present Stem, sistā, & sistē;  
   " sa;  
   " sisa, sise, sera;  
   to place.

   Note.—Sometimes two of these methods are united in the same stem:

   gignō;  
   Stem, gen;  
   Present Stem, gigene, gigne;  
   " nac;  
   " nanciscor;  
   to beget.

Conj. II., eō, shortened to eō in dē-l-oē, and to ē in dē-l·i·mus; and in Conj. IV., eō, shortened to eō in aud·iō, to ē in aud·i·u·nī, and to ē in aud·i·mus; see 335, foot-note.

1 This Thematic vowel, originally &s, is generally weakened to & or &: reg·e·rē, reg·i·mus; but sometimes it appears to take the form of & or &: reg·ō, reg·u·n·tī. There is, however, some difference of opinion in regard to the origin of & in such cases; see 347, 1, foot-note 3.

2 With variable Thematic vowel; see foot-note 1, above. J, pronounced y, assimilated to l and r in pelle and curre, as in the Greek βάλλω, from βάλ·l·w. See Curtius, Verbum, I., p. 800.

3 For sistās for sistās. The s in sistās takes the several forms of the Thematic vowel.

4 s changed to r between two vowels; see 31, 1. The vowel a of the stem is weakened to & before s, but to e before r; see 34, 1 and 2.

5 Reduplication with Thematic vowel.

6 N inserted and -so- added.
II. Perfect Stems.

252. Vowel Stems form the Perfect Stem by adding \( \nu \):

- amā (a-\( \delta \)), amā\( \nu \); Stem, amā; \textit{Perfect Stem}, amā\( \nu \); to love.
- dele\( \delta \), dele\( \nu \); " dele; " dele\( \nu \); to destroy.
- audi\( \delta \), audi\( \nu \); " audi; " audi\( \nu \); to hear.

1. In verbs in \( \ddot{u} \), the Perfect Stem is the same as the Verb Stem:
- acū, acū; Stem, acū; \textit{Perfect Stem}, acū; to sharpen.

253. Many Liquid Stems, and a few others, form the Perfect Stem by adding \( \ddot{u} \):

- alū, alū; Stem, alū; \textit{Perfect Stem}, alū; to nourish.
- fremū, fremū; " frem; " fremū; to rage.
- tenu, tenu; " ten; " tenu; to hold.
- docū, docū; " doc; " docū; to teach.

254. Most Consonant Stems form the Perfect Stem by adding \( \ddot{a} \):

- regā, regā; Stem, reg; \textit{Perfect Stem}, regā = regā; to rule.
- scribā, scribā; " scrib; " scribā = scribā; to write.
- carpā, carpā; " carp; " carpā; to pluck.

255. A few Consonant Stems form the Perfect Stem without any suffix whatever. But of these—

I. Some reduplicate the stem: ¹
- canō, cecinī; Stem, canō; \textit{Perfect Stem}, cecinī; to sing.

1. The \textbf{Reduplication} consists of the initial consonant (or consonants) of the stem with the following vowel, or with \( a \)—generally with the following vowel, if that vowel is \( e \), \( i \), \( o \), or \( u \), otherwise with \( e \); see examples under 271, 1, and 272, 1.

2. The \textbf{Stem-Vowel} \( a \) is generally weakened to \( i \), sometimes to \( e \); cadā, cecidī (for cecadī), to fall.

3. In \textbf{Verbs beginning with} \( Sp \) or \( St \), the reduplication retains both consonants, but the stem drops the \( e \); spōndō, spōndī (for spōndī), to promise; stō, stētī (for stētī), to stand.

4. In \textbf{Compounds} the reduplication is generally dropped, but it is retained in the compounds of \( dō \), to give; \( stō \), to stand; \( dispō \), to learn; \( posā \), to demand; and sometimes in the compounds of \( currō \), to run; \( re-spōndō \), \( re-spōndī \), to answer; \( circum-dō \), \( circum-dētī \); \( circum-stō \), \( circum-stētī \), to encircle. The compounds of \( dō \) which are of the third conjugation change \( e \) of the reduplication into \( i \); \( ad-dō \), \( ad-dētī \) (for \( ad-dētī \)), to add; see 259, 1.

II. Some lengthen the Stem-Vowel: ²

- emā, ēm; Stem, em; \textit{Perfect Stem}, ēm; to buy.
- agā, ēg; " ag; " ēg; to drive.
- ab-īgā, ab-īg; " abīg; " abēg; to drive away.

\textbf{Note.}—The stem-vowels \( a \) and (in compounds) \( i \) generally become \( ē \), as in agā and ab-īgā.

¹ See lists, 271, 1, and 272, 1. ² See lists, 271, 2; 272, 2.
CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

III. Some retain the stem unchanged: 1

tō, tō; Stem, tō; Perfect Stem, tō; to strike.

visō, visi; " vis; " vis; to visit.

Note.—Of the few verbs belonging to this class, nearly all have the stem-syllable long.

III. SUPINE STEM.

256. The Supine Stem adds t to the Verb Stem:

amō, amō; Stem, amā; Supine Stem, amāt; to love.

dicō, dicatum; " dic; " dict; to say.

monē, monētum; " moni; " monit; to advise.

delō, delētum; " delā; " delat; to destroy.

audiō, auditum; " audit; " audit; to hear.

carpō, carpūm; " carp; " carp; to pluck.

1. Stems in d and t, most stems in l and r, and a few others, change t into s:

laedō, laesum; Stem, laod; Supine Stem, laes; 4 to hurt.

vertō, versum; " vert; " vers; 4 to turn.

verrō, versum; " verr; " vers; to brush.

fallō, falsum; " fall; " fals; to deceive.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS. 5

FIRST CONJUGATION.

CLASS I.—STEM IN ā: PERFECT IN vi OR ui

257. Principal Parts in—ō, āre, āvi, ātum. 6

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

dōnō dōnāre dōnāvi dōnātum, to bestow.

honōrō honōrāre honōrāvi honōrātum, to honor.

liberō liberāre liberāvi liberātum, to free.

nūminō nūmināre nūmināvi nūminātum, to name.

pūgnō pūgnāre pūgnāvi pūgnātum, to fight.

spērō spērāre spērāvi spērātum, to hope.

Note 1.—Pōtō, āre, āvi, ātum, to drink, has also a supine, pōtum.

Note 2.—Cēnātus, from cēnō, 'to dine,' and jūrātus, from jūrō, 'to swear,' are active in meaning, having dēnōd, etc. Pōtus, from pōtō, is also sometimes active in meaning.

1 See list, 272, 3. 2 For amād. 3 See 207.

4 Lass is for laedī, plans for plauddī, vii for vidi, vers for verrī, fals for fallī, vers for verrī; see 35, 3, 2, note.

6 The Perfect Formation is selected as the special basis of this classification, because the irregularities of the other principal parts are less important and can be readily associated with this formation. In this classification the regular or usual formation is first given with a few examples, then complete lists (1) of all the simple verbs which deviate from this formation, and (2) of such compounds as deviate in any important particular from their simple verbs.

6 It is deemed unnecessary longer to retain the double mark _DIP over final 0 in verbs. The pupil has now learned that this vowel may be short, though it is generally long in the Augustan poets.
FIRST CONJUGATION.

258. Principal Parts in—ō, āre, ui, itum.1

crepō crepāre crepui crepitum,2 to creak.
cubō cubāre cubui cubitum,3 to recline.
domō domāre domui domitum,4 to tane.
ēnocō ēnocāre ēnecui ēnecitum,5 to kill.
fricō fricāre fricui frictum,6 to rub.
micō micāre micui plicātum,7 to glitter.
plicō plicāre plicui plicātum,7 to fold.
secō secāre secui sectum,7 to cut.
sonō sonāre sonui sonitum,7 to sound.
tōnō tonāre tonui sonitum,7 to thunders.
vētō vetāre vetui vetitum,7 to forbid.

CLASS II.—PERFECT IN Ī.

259. Principal Parts in—ō, āre, ī, tum.

1. WITH REPUDICATION.8

dō dare dedī datum, to give.
stō stāre stetit stātum, to stand.

2. WITH LENGTHENED STEM—VOWEL.8

juvō juvāre jūvi jūtum,9 to assist.
lavōlavāre lavui lavātum,9 to wash.

Note 1.—In dō the characteristic ā is short by exception: 10 dabam, dabā, darem, etc. Four compounds of dō—cirōmundo, pesumundo, satiādo, and venīmundo—are conjugated like the simple verb; the rest are of the Third Conjugation (271). The basis of several of these compounds is dō, 'to place,' originally distinct from dō, 'to give.'

Note 2.—Compounds of stō generally want the Supine. In the Perfect they have stītī, if the first part is a disyllable, otherwise stītī: adītī, adstīre, adstītī. Dītī and extītō want Perfect and Supine.

1 Note deviations in the Supine.
2 Increpō, āre, ui (āet), ētum (ētum); discrepō, āre, ui (āet), ——.
3 Compounds which insert m, as accumbō, etc., are of Conjug. III.; see 273.
4 The simple nōcō is regular, and even in the compound the forms in ēt and ētum occur.
5 Dīmico, āre, ēl (ūl), ētum; ēmicō, āre, ui, ētum.
6 Duplico, multīplico, repīlio, and supplīco, are regular: āre, ēlē, ētum.
7 Secō has participle secātus; sonō, sonātus; juvō, jūtus; in compounds also jūtus. Resōnō has Perfect resōnātī. Most compounds of sonō want the Supine.
8 See 255, I, and II.
9 In poetry, lavō is sometimes of Conjug. III.: lāvō, lavāre, lāvet, etc.
10 This short vowel is explained by the fact that dō is a root-verb formed directly from the root da without the suffix from which the d is derived in other verbs in this conjugation; see 250, foot-note.
CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

260. Deponent Verbs.

In this conjugation deponent verbs are entirely regular.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>supine</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cōnor</td>
<td>cōnārī</td>
<td>cōnātus sum,</td>
<td>to endeavor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hortor</td>
<td>hortārī</td>
<td>hortātus sum,</td>
<td>to exhort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miror</td>
<td>mirārī</td>
<td>mirātus sum,</td>
<td>to admire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECOND CONJUGATION.

CLASS I.—STEM IN ō : PERFECT IN VI OR UI.

261. Principal Parts in—ēō, ēre, ēvi, ētum.

These endings belong to the following verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>supine</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dēleō</td>
<td>dēlārī</td>
<td>dēlātum,</td>
<td>to destroy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compleō</td>
<td>compleārī</td>
<td>compleātum,</td>
<td>to fill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fācēō</td>
<td>fācārī</td>
<td>fācātum,</td>
<td>to weep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neō</td>
<td>nārī</td>
<td>nātum,</td>
<td>to spin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

262. Principal Parts in—ēō, ēre, ui, itum.

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>stem</th>
<th>supine</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dēbeō</td>
<td>dēbārī</td>
<td>dēbatum,</td>
<td>to owe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habēō</td>
<td>habārī</td>
<td>habātum,</td>
<td>to have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>monārī</td>
<td>monātum,</td>
<td>to advise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nocēō</td>
<td>nocārī</td>
<td>nocātum,</td>
<td>to hurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pāreō</td>
<td>pārārī</td>
<td>pārātum,</td>
<td>to obey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>placēō</td>
<td>placārī</td>
<td>placātum,</td>
<td>to please</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tacēō</td>
<td>tacārī</td>
<td>tacātum,</td>
<td>to be silent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1.—Many verbs with the Perfect in ui want the Supine. The following are the most important:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>supine</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>candeō, to shine.</td>
<td>madeō, to be made.</td>
<td>sorbeō, to swallow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>egoēō, to want.</td>
<td>niteō, to smell.</td>
<td>splendeō, to shine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēmineō, to stand forth.</td>
<td>oleō, to be pale.</td>
<td>studeō, to study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flōreō, to bloom.</td>
<td>palēō, to be pale.</td>
<td>stupeō, to be amazed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frondeō, to bear leaves.</td>
<td>pateō, to be open.</td>
<td>timeō, to fear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horreō, to shudder.</td>
<td>rubeō, to be red.</td>
<td>torpeō, to be torpid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lateō, to be hid.</td>
<td>sileō, to be silent.</td>
<td>vireō, to be green.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 2.—Some verbs, derived mostly from adjectives, want both Perfect and Supine. The following are the most important:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
<th>supine</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>albēō, to be white.</td>
<td>hebeō, to be blunt.</td>
<td>macroēō, to be sad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calveō, to be bold.</td>
<td>ümeō, to be moist.</td>
<td>polēō, to be powerful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cāneō, to be gay.</td>
<td>immineō, to threaten.</td>
<td>rendeō, to shine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flāveō, to be yellow.</td>
<td>lactēō, to suck.</td>
<td>squeleō, to be filthy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 So other compounds of the obsolete pleō: splexēō, tempēō, etc.
2 To these may be added aboleō, abrelēō, abolēō, abolētum, 'to destroy,' with Supine in itum. See also abolēdeo, 277.
SECOND CONJUGATION.

CLASS II.—STEM IN c̣, ṇ, ṛ, OR ṣ: PERFECT IN ụḷ.¹

263. Principal Parts in—c̣ē, ṣēre, ụḷ, tum or sum.²

These endings belong to the following verbs:

cēnseō cēnseō sēnseō cēnseụ cēnseum, to think.
doceō doceō docēt doctum, to teach.
misceō miscēre miscēụ misēum, to mix.
teneō tenēre tenēụ tentum, to hold.
torreō torreō torreụ tostum, to roast.

CLASS III.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN ṣī OR ḷ.

264. Principal Parts in—c̣ē, ṣē, ṣī, tum.

augeō augēre augēụ auctum, to increase.
indulgeō indulgēre indulgēụ indulgēum, to indulge.
torqueō torquēre torquēụ tortum, to twist.

265. Principal Parts in—c̣ē, ṣē, ṣī, sum.³

algeō algēre algeụ —— to be cold.
ārdeō ārdēre ārsē ārsēum, to burn.
cōnveō cōnvēre cōnvēụ cōnsvēum, to wink at.
frigeō frigēre frigēụ (rare) —— to be cold.
fulgeō fulgēre fulgēụ —— to shine.
haereō haerēre haerēụ haerēum, to stick.
jubēō jubēre jugēj —— to order.
lūceō lūcēre lūxi —— to shine.
lūgeō lūgēre lūxi —— to mourn.
maneō manēre mānsē mānsēum, to remain.
mulgeō mulgēre mulgēụ mulgēum, to milk.
mulceō mulcēre mulcēụ mulcēum, to soothe.
rūdeō rūdēre rūsē rūsēum, to laugh.
suādeō suādēre suāsē suāsēum, to advise.
tergēō tergēre tergēụ tergēum, to wipe.
turgēō turgēre turgēụ (rare) —— to swell.
urgeō (urgeō) urgēre urgēụ —— to press.

Note.—Cēō, sēēre, etc., citum, to arouse, has a kindred form, cēō, cēēre, etc., citum, from which it seems to have obtained its Perfect. In compounds the forms of the Fourth Conj. prevail, especially in the sense of to call, call forth.

¹ For convenience of reference, a General List of all verbs involving irregularities will be found on page 388.
² The Present Stem adds ē; see 251, 5. For phonetic changes, see 33–36.
³ Participle cēneus and cēneitus.—Porōcēneō wants Supine: recōcēneō has recōcēnum and recōcēsium.
⁴ In most compounds the Supine is rare.
⁵ Poetic, fulgō, fulgēre, etc.
⁶ The stem of haerēre is haerē. The Present adds ē and changes s to r between two vowels. In haerēt and haerēum, s standing for sē or sē is not changed.
⁷ In compounds sometimes mulcēum.
### Classification of Verbs

#### 266. Principal Parts in — ec, ère, i, tum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Form</th>
<th>Stem Vowel</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Infinitive Complement</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>caveō</td>
<td>cavērē</td>
<td>cāvī</td>
<td>cautum,</td>
<td>to beware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fævéō</td>
<td>favērē</td>
<td>fāvī</td>
<td>fautum,</td>
<td>to favor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foveō</td>
<td>fovērē</td>
<td>fōvī</td>
<td>fōtum,</td>
<td>to cherish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moveō</td>
<td>movērē</td>
<td>mōvī</td>
<td>mōtum,</td>
<td>to move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pævéō</td>
<td>pāvērē</td>
<td>pāvī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>to fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voveō</td>
<td>vōvērē</td>
<td>vōvī</td>
<td>vōtum,</td>
<td>to vow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 267. Principal Parts in — ec, ère, i, sum.

1. **With Reduplication.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Form</th>
<th>Reduplicated Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Infinitive Complement</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mordeo</td>
<td>mordēre</td>
<td>mormordī</td>
<td>morsum,</td>
<td>to bite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>penddeo</td>
<td>pendēre</td>
<td>pependī</td>
<td>pēnsum,</td>
<td>to hang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spondeo</td>
<td>spondēre</td>
<td>spopondī</td>
<td>spōnsum,</td>
<td>to promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tondeo</td>
<td>tondēre</td>
<td>totondī</td>
<td>tōnsum,</td>
<td>to shear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **With Lengthened Stem-Vowel.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Form</th>
<th>Lengthened Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Infinitive Complement</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sedeō</td>
<td>sedēre</td>
<td>sēdī</td>
<td>sēssum,</td>
<td>to sit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>videō</td>
<td>vidēre</td>
<td>vidī</td>
<td>visum,</td>
<td>to see</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. **With Unchanged Stem.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Form</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Infinitive Complement</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cōnīveō</td>
<td>cōnīrē</td>
<td>cōnīrī; cōnīxī</td>
<td>to wink at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ferveō</td>
<td>fervēre</td>
<td>fervī; ferbūt</td>
<td>to boil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>langueō</td>
<td>languēre</td>
<td>languī</td>
<td>to be languid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>liqueō</td>
<td>liquēre</td>
<td>liquī; licūr</td>
<td>to be liquid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prændeō</td>
<td>prandēre</td>
<td>prandī</td>
<td>to dine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strīdeo</td>
<td>strīdēre</td>
<td>strīdī</td>
<td>to creak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 268. Deponent Verbs.

1. **Regular.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Form</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Infinitive Complement</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>liceor</td>
<td>licērī</td>
<td>licitus sum,</td>
<td>to bid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mereor</td>
<td>merērī</td>
<td>meritus sum,</td>
<td>to deserve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>polliceor</td>
<td>pollicērī</td>
<td>pollicitus sum,</td>
<td>to promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tueor</td>
<td>tuērī</td>
<td>[tūtus sum,}</td>
<td>to protect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vereor</td>
<td>verērī</td>
<td>[veritus sum,}</td>
<td>to fear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Irregular.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Form</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Infinitive Complement</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fateor</td>
<td>fatērī</td>
<td>fassus sum,</td>
<td>to confess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medeor</td>
<td>medērī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>to cure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>misereor</td>
<td>miserērī</td>
<td>[miserus sum,}</td>
<td>to pity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reor</td>
<td>rōrī</td>
<td>[ratus sum,}</td>
<td>to think</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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1. For reduplication in compounds, see 255, I, 4.
2. So circumvexed and superfexed. Other compounds thus: asseideō, ère, asseidi, asseīsum; but disseideō, praeasideō, and resseideō, want Supine.
3. Observe that the supine stem is wanting in most of these verbs.
4. Participle, prānēs, in an active sense, having dined.
5. Cōnfecor, ëre, cōnīcesus: so profecor.
THIRD CONJUGATION.


audeó  audére  ausus sum,  to dare.
gaudeó  gaudére  gávisus sum,  to rejoice.
soleó   solére   solitus sum,  to be accustomed.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

Note.—This conjugation contains the primitive verbs of the language; see 335.

CLASS I.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN SI OR I.

269. Principal Parts in—o (or io), ere, si, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs whose stems end in a consonant. The following are examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>carpó</td>
<td>carpere</td>
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270. Principal Parts in—o (or io), ere, si, sum.

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<thead>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 For Phonetic Changes, see 30–36.
2 The stem-vowel is often changed in compounds: carpó, dē-carpo; regó, dē-regó; for this change, see 344, 4; also 321.
3 So other compounds of stinguó (rare): distinguó, etc.
4 Compounds of claúdó have i for au, con-clādó; those of laedó, i for ea, il-lādó; those of plādó generally o for au, ex-plādó; those of quartó, o for qua, con-quātō.
5 So other compounds of cādó.
6 Compounds take this form in the Perfect.
### CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>plectō</th>
<th>plectere</th>
<th>plæxt</th>
<th>plœxum,</th>
<th>to plait.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>planūdō</td>
<td>planudere</td>
<td>planusf</td>
<td>planusum,</td>
<td>to applaud.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>premō</td>
<td>premere</td>
<td>preest</td>
<td>pressum,</td>
<td>to press.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quaśiō</td>
<td>quaterere</td>
<td>quassf</td>
<td>quassum,</td>
<td>to shake.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spargō</td>
<td>spargere</td>
<td>sparsf</td>
<td>sparsum,</td>
<td>to scatter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rādō</td>
<td>rādere</td>
<td>rāsf</td>
<td>rāsum,</td>
<td>to shave.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rōdō</td>
<td>rōdere</td>
<td>rōsf</td>
<td>rōsum,</td>
<td>to gnaw.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tergō</td>
<td>tergere</td>
<td>terst</td>
<td>tersum,</td>
<td>to wipe off.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trūdō</td>
<td>trūdere</td>
<td>trūst</td>
<td>trūsum,</td>
<td>to thrust.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 271. Principal Parts in—o (or to), ere, i, tum.

1. With Reduplication.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>abdō</th>
<th>abdere</th>
<th>abdidit</th>
<th>abditum,</th>
<th>to hide.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>canō</td>
<td>canere</td>
<td>cocciul</td>
<td>cantum,</td>
<td>to sing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crēdō</td>
<td>crēdere</td>
<td>crēdidit</td>
<td>crēditum,</td>
<td>to believe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discō</td>
<td>discere</td>
<td>didict</td>
<td>———-</td>
<td>to learn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pangō</td>
<td>pangere</td>
<td>pepīgf</td>
<td>pāctum,</td>
<td>to bargain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pangō</td>
<td>pangere</td>
<td>{panxī</td>
<td>pāctum,①</td>
<td>to fix in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pariō</td>
<td>parere</td>
<td>peperf</td>
<td>partum,</td>
<td>to bring forth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sistō</td>
<td>sistere</td>
<td>stīt</td>
<td>statum,</td>
<td>to place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tangō</td>
<td>tangere</td>
<td>tētīg</td>
<td>tāctum,⑩</td>
<td>to touch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tendō</td>
<td>tendere</td>
<td>tētendi</td>
<td>{tentum,⑩</td>
<td>to stretch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tollō</td>
<td>tollere</td>
<td>sustul</td>
<td>sublātum,⑪</td>
<td>to raise.</td>
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<tr>
<td>vēndō</td>
<td>vēndere</td>
<td>vēndīdī</td>
<td>vēndītum,⑨</td>
<td>to sell.</td>
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<tr>
<td>pungō</td>
<td>pungere</td>
<td>pūpgī</td>
<td>punctum,⑬</td>
<td>to prick.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

2. With Lengthened Stem-Vowel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>agō</th>
<th>agere</th>
<th>āgif</th>
<th>āctum,⑬</th>
<th>to drive.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiō</td>
<td>capere</td>
<td>cēpf</td>
<td>captum,⑩</td>
<td>to take.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emo</td>
<td>emere</td>
<td>ēmf</td>
<td>ēemptum,⑬</td>
<td>to buy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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1 See page 137, foot-note 4.
2 See 38, 1; note; 38, 3, 2.
3 Also tergo, tergère, etc.; compounds take this form; see 265.
4 So all compounds of dō except those of Conjugation 1.; see 259, note 1.
5 Concino, ere, conœcunt, ———; so occiso and praecinō; other compounds want Perfect and Supine.
6 Explained as a compound of dō; see abdō.
7 Compingo, ere, compēgt, compactum; so also impingo. Dēpango wants Perfect; repango, Perfect and Supine.
8 Participle, partūrus: compounds are of Conjugation IV.
9 Compounds thus: oṃnītō, ere, oṃnītī, oṃnītītum; but circumstantī also occurs.
10 Compounds drop the reduplication.
11 Attollō and attiollō want Perfect and Supine.
12 Compounds thus: circumpō, ere, circumpunt, circumpunctum.
13 So circumpō and perapor; satapor wants Perfect and Supine. Other compounds change a into i in the Present: abīō, ere, abīgf, abīdotum; but colgō becomes colgō, ere, colgī, colgītum, and deiō, digō, ere, digt, without Supine. Prodiō wants Supine, and ambigō, Perfect and Supine.
14 So antecapō; other compounds thus: accipēō, ere, accīpf, accīptum.
15 So coemō; other compounds thus: adimō, ere, adēmf, adēemptum.
### THIRD CONJUGATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fació</td>
<td>facere</td>
<td>fécit</td>
<td>to make.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fugió</td>
<td>fugere</td>
<td>fügit</td>
<td>to flee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jació</td>
<td>jacere</td>
<td>jécit</td>
<td>to throw.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frangió</td>
<td>frangere</td>
<td>frégit</td>
<td>to break.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>legó</td>
<td>legere</td>
<td>légit</td>
<td>to read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>linquó</td>
<td>linquere</td>
<td>líquit</td>
<td>to leave.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scabó</td>
<td>scabere</td>
<td>scábít</td>
<td>to scratch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vincó</td>
<td>vincere</td>
<td>vícit</td>
<td>to conquer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rumpó</td>
<td>rumpere</td>
<td>rúpít</td>
<td>to burst.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

272. Principal Parts in—o (or io), ere, i, sum. 6

### 1. WITH REDUPLICATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cadó</td>
<td>cadere</td>
<td>cécidit</td>
<td>to fall.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caedó</td>
<td>caedere</td>
<td>cécidit</td>
<td>to cut.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>curró</td>
<td>currere</td>
<td>cécurrí</td>
<td>to run.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>falló</td>
<td>fallere</td>
<td>fefellí</td>
<td>to deceive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parcó</td>
<td>parcore</td>
<td>pepercít (parsí)</td>
<td>to spare.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peló</td>
<td>pelere</td>
<td>pepulí</td>
<td>to drive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pendó</td>
<td>pendere</td>
<td>pependí</td>
<td>to weigh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poscó</td>
<td>poscore</td>
<td>poposcí</td>
<td>to demand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tundó</td>
<td>tundere</td>
<td>tutúdit { tunsum, 19 } to beat.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2. WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>edó</td>
<td>edere</td>
<td>édit</td>
<td>to eat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fodió</td>
<td>fodere</td>
<td>fódit</td>
<td>to dig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fundó</td>
<td>fundere</td>
<td>fúdit</td>
<td>to pour.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3. WITH UNCHANGED STEM.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>accendó</td>
<td>accendere</td>
<td>accendít</td>
<td>to kindle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cédó</td>
<td>cédere</td>
<td>cédít</td>
<td>to forge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>défendó</td>
<td>défendere</td>
<td>défendít</td>
<td>to defend.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1 Passive irregular: fr. flére, factum sum; see 294. So saepe and compounds of facio with verba; but compounds with prepositions thus: confisco, confiscere, confiscó, confiscum, with regular Passive, confisco, confiscó, confiscum sum.
2 Superfacio has factum or fæctum in Supine: compounds with monosyllabic prepositions thus: abicio, abiscere, abisco, abiscutem; see page 30, foot-note 1.
3 Compounds thus: confrango, ere, confreqit, confrecsum.
4 So compounds, except (1) colligo, era, colliget, collectum; so diligo, diligo, diligó—(3) diligo, era, dilígít, dilícium; so intelligo, nèlegó, though nèlegít occurs in the Perfect.
5 Compounds with Supine: relinqui, era, relíqui, relíctum.
6 For Phonetic Changes, see 30–36.
7 Incido, era, incidit, incidum; so occido and recido; other compounds want Supine.
8 Compounds thus: conscido, era, conscidi, conscutum.
9 Excurro and praecurro generally retain the reduplication: excucurri, praecucurri; other compounds generally drop it.
10 Exfallo, era, exfallit, without Supine.
11 Comparco, era, comparci, comparsum, also with e for a: comparco, era, etc.
12 Imparco and reparco want Perfect and Supine.
13 Compounds drop reduplication, 255, I, 4.
14 Compounds retain reduplication, 255, I, 4.
15 So other compounds of the obsolete cando and fendo.
CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

findō findere fidt (findt) fissum, to part.
tō Ioere Ictum, to strike.
mandō mandere mandi mānsum, to chew.
pandō pandere pandi passum, to open.

pinsō (pinsō) pinsere pinsīf pinsum, to pound.

prehendō prehendere, prehendī prehēnsum, to grasp.
scandō scandere scandi scānsum, to climb.
scindō scindere scidī scissum, to rend.
solvō solvere solvī solidūm, to loose.
vellō vellere velli (vulst) vulsum, to pluck.
verō verrere verrī versum, to brush.
vertō vertere vertī versum, to turn.
visō visere visī visum, to visit.
volvō volvere volvī volūtum, to roll.

Note 1.—Some verbs with the Perfect in sī or ē want the Supine:
angō, era, anxi, to aquire.
asum, era, ē, to asent.
batō, era, ē, to best.
bībō, era, ē, to drink.
congratū, era, ē, to agree.
leguō, era, ē, to amelli.

Note 2.—Some verbs want both Perfect and Supine:
ciāgo, to clāng.
ciando, to clāmēr.
fatīsco, to gape.
gūsco, to grow.

CLASS II.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN ui.

273. Principal Parts in—s (or sō), era, ui, itum.

accumbō accumbere accubūf accubitūm, to recline.
alō alere alūf alitūm, to nourish.

depsō depsere depsūf depstitūm, to knead.

eliciō elicere elicīf elicītūm, to elicit.

fremō fremere fremūf fremitūm, to rage.

geμō gemere gemūf gemitūm, to grōan.

gignō gignere genuf genuitūm, to beget.

molō molere molūf molitūm, to grind.

1 Often written prēndō, prēndere, etc.
2 V is here changed to its corresponding vowel u: solidūm for solecum.
3 Compounds of dā, prae, re, are generally deponent in the Present, Imperfect, and Future.
4 Perfect and Supine generally supplied from sedō; hence sēdī, ecurum. So in compounds.
5 See ēsedō, 270.
6 But contemnī, era, contemptēm, contemptūm.
7 So other compounds of cumbō, cumbī: see cudō, 258.
8 Other compounds of laciō thus: allīcō, allīcerē, allēctē, allēctūm.
THIRD CONJUGATION.

pînsô  pînsere { pînsuf  pînsitum,  } to crush.
pînsô  pînsere posuî  pîstum,  to place.
strepô  strepere strepul  strepitum,  to make a noise.
vomô  vomere vomul  vomitum,  to vomit.

Note.—Compôscô, 'to restrain'; excelleô,¹ 'to excel'; furô, 'to rage'; sterlô, 'to snore'; and tremô, 'to tremble,' have the Perfect in uî, but want the Supine.

274. Principal Parts in—ô (or îô), ere, ut, tum.
colô  colere  coluî  cultum,  to cultivate.
cônsulô  cônsulere  cônsulul  cônsulitum,  to consult.
occulô  occulere  occulul  occultum,  to hide.
rapô  raperie  rapul  raptum,³ to snatch.
serô  serere  serul  sertum,  to connect.
texô  texere  texul  textum,  to weave.

275. Principal Parts in—ô, ere, sui, sum.
metô  metere  messuî  messum,  to reap.
nectô  nectere  { next  } nexum,  to bind.

CLASS III.—STEM IN A VOWEL : PERFECT IN vérI OR L.

276. The following verbs have the Perfect in èvéI from a stem in è:
pâscô  pâscere  pâvé  pâstum,  to feed.
sternô  sternere  strâvé  strátum,  to strove.
veterâscô  veterâscere  veterâvéI  to grow old.

277. The following verbs have the Perfect in ëvéI from a stem in ë:
abolâscô  abolâscere  abolâvéI  abolitum,⁴ to disappear.
cernô  cernere  crévéI  crâtum,  to decide.
crâscô  crâscere  crévéI  crâtum,  to grow.
quiescô  quiescere  quiâvéI  quiêtum,  to rest.
spernô  spermere  sprâvéI  sprâtum,  to spurn.
suëscô  suëscere  suëvéI  suêtum,  to become accustomed.

Note.—Serô, serere, sûvéI, suam,⁶ to sown.

278. The following verbs have the Perfect in ivéI from a stem in I:
arcâscô  arcâscere  arcâsâvéI  arcâsâtum,  to call for.
capessô  capessere  capesâvéI  capesâtum,  to lay hold of.
cupîô  cupere  cupîvéI  cupîtum,  to desire.
facessô  facessere  { facessâvéI  facesâtum,  to make.

¹ Other compounds of cellô want the Perfect and Supine, except percellô, percellere, perculô, perculum.
² Compounds thus: corripîô, corripere, corripûi, corripûtum.
³ The Perfect in suî seems to be a double formation, si enlarged to suî.
⁴ The stem of pâscô is pô, pôs; the Present Stem adds sôs; see 251, 2.
⁵ So inôléscô; but abolâscô has Supine adulitum; exôlêscô, exolêtum; obnôléscô, abolitum.
⁶ Incôscô and suincôscô want the Supine.
⁷ Compounds thus: cônservô, cônservere, cônservul, cônservitum.
CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

incēssō  incēssere  { incēssēvit  }  to attack.
lacessō  lacessere  lacessēvit  to provoke.
linō  linere  līvit, lēvit  lacesstitum, to smear.
nōscō  nōscere  nōvit  nōtum, to know.
potō  potere  petīvit  petītum, to ask.
quaerō  quaerere  quaesīvit  quaesītum, to seek.
rudō  rudere  rudīvit  rudītum, to fray.
sapiō  sapere  sapīvit, sapīl  situm, to taste.
sinō  sinere  śīvit  śītum, to permit.
terē  terere  tvīvit  tvītum, to rub.

279. Principal Parts in—ō, ere, i, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs with u-stems. The following are examples:

acuō  acuere  acuī  acūtum, to sharpen.
arguō  arguere  arguī  argūtum, to convict.
imbuō  imbure  imbūl  imbūtum, to imbue.
minuō  minuere  minuī  minūtum, to diminish.
rūō  ruere  rūl  rūtum, to fall.
statuō  statuere  statuī  statūtum, to place.
tribuō  tribuere  tribuī  tribūtum, to impart.

Note.—Fluō and struō have the Perfect in xu.

fluō  fluere  fluī²  fluīxum, to flow.
struō  struere  struī²  strūctum, to build.

INCEPTIVES.

280. Inceptives end in uō, and denote the beginning of an action.

Note.—When formed from verbs, they are called Verbal Inceptives, and when formed from nouns or adjectives, Denominative Inceptives.

281. Most Verbal Inceptives want the Supine, but take the Perfect of their primitives:

acēscō  (acō)  acēscere  acuī  to become sour.
ārēscō  (āreō)  ārēscere  āruī  to become dry.
kalēscō  (kaleō)  kalēscere  kaluī  to become warm.
flōrēscō  (flōreō)  flōrēscere  flōruī  to begin to bloom.
tepēscō  (tepeō)  tepēscere  tepuī  to become warm.
virēscō  (vireō)  virēscere  viruī  to become green.

Note.—The following take the Perfect and Supine of their primitives:

cumplīcō  (cum, copiō)  ere  cumplīvit  cumplītum, to desire.
covulāscō  (con, cælā)  ere  covulāvit  covulātum, to grow strong.
exārēscō  (ex, ērēscō)  ere  exārēvit  exārētum, to burn.
invēterāscō  (invetereō)  ere  invēterāvit  invēterātum, to grow old.
odbormāscō  (ob, dormō)  ere  obdormīvit  obdormītum, to fall asleep.
revivēscō  (re, vīscō)  ere  revivīvit  revivītum, to revive.
sclīscō  (sclī)  ere  sclīvit  sclītum, to sneeze.

¹ So ignāscō; dignāscō and cognāscō have lūm in Supine, lūgitum; dignāscō and interumāscō want Supine.
² Compounds thus: acquīritāscō, ere, acquīsetāscō, acquīsetāscō.
³ For flagō-st, strepō-st, formed not from u-stems, but from consonant-stems.
282. Most Denominative Inceptives want both Perfect and Supine:

ditēsō (dīteō), to grow rich. | mitēsō (mitiō), to grow mild.
dulcesō (dulciō), to become sweet. | mollesō (molliō), to grow soft.
grandesō (grandiō), to grow large. | puerōsō (puerīō), to become a boy.

Note.—The following have the Perfect in ut:
crēbrēsō (crēber) ere crēbrō, to become frequent.
dūrēsō (dūrīs) ere dūrō, to become hard.
inmōsēsō (inmōtiō, nōtus) ere inmōtō, to become known.
macerōsō (maceriō) ere macerō, to become lean.
mātērēsō (mātērīs, rēs) ere mātērō, to ripen.
obmōtēsō (ob, mōtus) ere obmōtō, to grow dumb.
recrēbrēsō (recrēber, crēdus) ere recrēbrō, to bleed afresh.
vīlēsō (vīlēs) ere vīlō, to become worthless.

283. Deponent Verbs.

amplectōr I I amplectōs sum, to embrace.
apiscōr I I aptus sum, to obtain.
commūniscōr I I commentus sum, to devise.
experiēsōr I I expirēctus sum, to awake.
fatēsōr I I grēsus sum, to gape.
fruor I I fructus sum, to enjoy.
fungōr I I functus sum, to perform.
frēsōr I I grēsus sum, to walk.
lābor I I lāpus sum, to fall.
ilquōr I I mortus sum, to melt.
loquōr I I locūtus sum, to speak.
mōniscōr I (inrare) mortuus sum, to die.
nanciscōr I I nactus (nactus) sum, to obtain.
nāscōr I I nātus sum, to be born.
nūtor I I nīsus sum, to strive.
obliviscōr I I oblītus sum, to forget.
paciscōr I I pactus sum, to bargain.
pātōr I I passus sum, to suffer.
profiscōr I I profectus sum, to set out.
querōr I I questus sum, to complain.
reminiscōr I I

Semi-Deponent—Deponent in the Perfect.

sō fidēsō fidere fidus sum, to trust.

1. Adpiscōr, i, adepsus sum; so indpiscōr.
2. Com-miniscōr is compounded of com, and the obsolete miniscōr; re-miniscōr wants the Perfect.
3. De-fatēsōr, i, de-fatēsus sum.
4. Composites thus: apprēscōr, i, apprēsisus sum.
5. Mortōr has future participle mortūrīs; nāscōr, nāsectūrīs.
FOURTH CONJUGATION.

CLASS I.—STEM IN I: PERFECT IN uL.

284. Principal Parts in—īō, īre, īvi, ītum.

The following are examples:

fīniō | fīnīre | fīnīvi | fīnītum, | to finish.
lēniō | lēnīre | lēnīvi | lēnītum, | to alleviate.
mūniō | mūnīre | mūnīvi | mūnītum, | to fortify.
pāniō | pānīre | pānīvi | pānītum, | to punish.
sćiō | scīre | scīvi | scītum, | to know.
sepeliō | sepelīre | sepelīvi | sepelītum, | to bury.
sitiō | sitīre | sitīvi | sitītum | to thirst.
vāgiō | vāgīre | vāgīvi | vāgītum | to cry.

Note 1.—F is often dropped in the Perfect: audīō for audīēt; see 235, 1.
Note 2.—Desideratives (338, III.)—except ānurīō, īre, —ūm; nūparīō, īre, īsi, and parturīō, īre, īsi—want both Perfect and Supine. Also a few others:

bāhūtĩō, to stammer. | fērō, to bear. | sāgiō, to be wise.
casectīō, to be blind. | gānnīō, to bark. | superbīō, to be proud.
fertĩō, to strike. | inęptīō, to bite. | tussīō, to cough.

CLASS II.—STEM IN c, l, OR r: PERFECT IN Ul.

285. Principal Parts in—īō, īre, īl, ītum.

amiciō | amicīre | amicīl (xii) | amicītum, | to clothe.
asperiō | asperīre | asperīl | asperītum, | to open.
aperiō | operīre | operīl | opertum, | to cover.
saliō | salīre | salīl (ii) | (saltum), | to leap.

CLASS III.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN sī OR l.

286. Principal Parts in—īō, īre, īl, ītum.

farciō | farcīre | farcīl | fartum, | to stuff.
fultō | fulcīre | fulcīl | fultum, | to prop.
haurīō 4 | haurre | hausrī | haustum, hausum, | to draw.
saeplō | saepīre | saepīl | saepītum, | to hedge in.
sanciō | sanīre | sanīl | sanctum, | to ratify.
sarciō | sarcīre | sarcīl | sartum, | to patch.
vincio | vincīre | vincīl | vincītum, | to bind.

1 Supine irregular.
2 Compounds thus: diēlīō, īre, īl (ii), (diēītum).
3 Compounds thus: conferricō, īre, conferrī, confīrītum.
4 The stem of haurīō is haurs. The Present adds s and changes s to r between two vowels. In haurs and hauserum, s standing for ss or st is not changed.
IRREGULAR VERBS.

287. Principal Parts in—io, ire, at, sum.
rauciō raucire raust rausum, to be hoarse.
sentiō sentire sénsi sénsum, to feel.

Note.—The following verbs have the Perfect in i:
comperiō comperire comperti compertum, to learn.
reperiō reperire reperti repertum, to find.
veniō venire vēni ventum, to come.

288. Deponent Verbs.

1. Regular.

blandior Irf blanditus sum, to flatter.
largior Irf largitus sum, to bestow.
mintor Irf mentitus sum, to lie.
mōlior Irf mōlitis sum, to strive.
partior Irf partitus sum, to divide.
potior Irf potitus sum, to obtain.
sortior Irf sortitus sum, to draw lots.

2. Irregular.

assentior3 Irf assēnsus sum, to assent.
expier Irf expertus sum, to try.
mētior Irf mēnsus sum, to measure.
opperior Irf {oppertus sum, {oppertus sum, to await.
ordior Irf orsus sum, to begin.
orior Irf ortus sum,4 to rise.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

289. A few verbs which have special irregularities are called by way of preeminence Irregular or Anomalous Verbs. They are sum, edō, ferō, volō, fūō, ēō, quaē, and their compounds.

290. Sum, ‘I am,’ and its compounds.

I. The conjugation of sum has been already given (204); its numerous compounds—absūm, aedsum, aedsum, praesum, etc.—except possum and prōsum, are conjugated in the same way.

---

1 With lengthened stem-vowel.
2 In the Present Indicative and Subjunctive, forms of Conjugation III. occur.
3 Compound of ad and sentēs; see 287.
4 Participles, ortērīus.—Present Indicative, Conjugation III., ortēre, ortērur. Imperfect Subjunctive, ortērer or ortērer.—So compounds, but adorīor follows Conjugation IV.
5 Aedsum and praesum, like possum, have Present Participles, aedēs and praēsēs, used as adjectives, aeds, present.
IRREGULAR VERBS.

II. Possum, pôsse, potul, to be able.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. possum, potes, potest;</td>
<td>possumus, potestis, possunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. poteram;</td>
<td>poteramus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. poterô;</td>
<td>poterimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. potul;</td>
<td>potuimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. potueram;</td>
<td>potueramus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. potuerô;</td>
<td>potuerimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

| Pres. possim, possis, possit; | possimus, possitis, possint. |
| Imp. pôsse;                   | pôssimus.                   |
| Perf. potuerim;               | potuerimus.                 |
| Plup. potuissem;              | potuiussimus.               |

INFINITIVE.

| Pres. pôsse. |
| Pres. potëns (as an adjective). |
| Perf. potuisse. |

NOTES 1.—Possum is compounded of potës, 'able,' and sum, 'to be.' The parts are sometimes separated, and then potës is indeclinable: potës sum, potës sumus, etc.

NOTES 2.—In possum observe—
1) That potës drops ës, and that ë is assimilated before s: possum for potëssum.
2) That ê is dropped when the simple verb begins with e: prösænum, prôde, prôdest, etc. Otherwise it is conjugated like sum.

391. Edo, edere, ēdi, ēsum, to eat.

This verb is sometimes regular, and sometimes takes forms similar, except in quantity,² to those of sum which begin in ës. Thus—

INDICATIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>edô, edis, edit; edimus, editis, edunt.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ës,² ëst;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imp.</th>
<th>ederem, ederës, ederet; ederëmus, ederëtis, ederent.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ëssem, ëssës, ësset; ëssëmus, ëssëtis, ëssent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Inflected regularly through the different persons: poteram, poterôs, poterat, etc.
² So also in the other tenses: potul, potuisst, etc.
³ These forms have è long before ë, while the corresponding forms of sum have ë short.
IRREGULAR VERBS.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.  
{ ede;  
{ es;  

edite.

Fut.  
{ editō;  
{ ēstō;  

editōte,  ēstōte.

eduntō.

INFinitive.

Pres.  
edere.

Fut.  
ēsse.

Note 1.—In the Passive, estūr for ēditūr and ēdētūr for ēdētūr also occur.

Note 2.—Forms in ūm for om occur in the Present Subjunctive: ēdam, ēdās, ēdit,
etc., for ēdam, ēdās, ēdat, etc.

Note 3.—Compounds are conjugated like the simple verb, but comētō has in the Su-
pline comētūm or comētūm.

292. Ferō, ferre, tuli, lātum, to bear.

ACTIVE VOICE.

SINGULAR.  

INDICATIVE.

Pres.  ferō, fers, fert;  
Imp.  ferēbam;  
Fut.  feram;  
Perf.  tuli;  
Plup.  tuleram;  
F. P.  tulerō;

ferimus, fertis,  
ferēbamus,  
ferēmus,  
tulimus,  
tulerāmus,  
tulerēmus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.  feram;  
Imp.  ferem;  
Perf.  tulerim;  
Plup.  tulissem;  

ferāmus,  
ferēmus,  
tulerāmus,  
tullissemus.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.  fert;  
Fut.  fertō,  

fertē,  

fertō,  

fertēte,  

feruntō.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres.  ferēns.  
Perf.  tulisse.

Fut.  lātūrus esse.  
Fut.  lātūrus.

1 See page 136, foot-note 2.
2 Fer-t, fer-tis, like es-t, es-tis, dispense with the usual thematic vowel ā.
With such vowel the forms would be fērtē, fēritē, fēritis.
3 Inflect the several tenses in full: ferēbam, ferēbās, etc.
4 Ferrem, etc., for fererem, etc.; forre for ferre (ē dropped).
5 Fer for ferre; ferō, ferē, ferēte, ferēs, ferent, without thematic vowel.
IRREGULAR VERBS.

GERUND.  
Gen. ferendī,  
Dat. ferendō,  
Acc. ferendum,  
Abl. ferendō.  

SUPINE.  
Acc. látum,  
Abl. látā.

PASSIVE VOICE.

feror,  
ferri,  
látus sum,  
to be borne.

INDICATIVE.

SINGULAR.
Pres. feror, farris, fertia; ¹
Imp. ferēbar;
Fut. ferar;
Perf. látus sum;
Plup. látus eram;
F. P. látus erō;

PLURAL.
ferimur, ferimini, feruntur.
ferēbāmur.
ferēmur.
látī sumus.
látī erāmus.
látī erimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.
Pres. ferar;
Imp. ferrer; ¹
Perf. látus sim;
Plup. látus essē;

IMPETIVE.
Pres. ferre; ¹
Fut. fertor; ¹
fertor;

FERMIINT.

INFINTITIVE.
Pres. ferrī.
Perf. látus esse.
Fut. látum infinit.

PARTICIPLE.
Perf. látus.
Ger. ferendus.

1. Ferō has two principal irregularities:

1) Its forms are derived from three independent stems, seen in ferō, tull, látum.

2) It dispenses with the thematic vowel, e or i, before r, e, and ū.

2. Compounds of ferō are conjugated like the simple verb, but in a few of them the preposition suffers a euphonic change:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a</th>
<th></th>
<th>a</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>a</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ab-</td>
<td>auferō</td>
<td>sufferre</td>
<td>abstult</td>
<td>ablatum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ad-</td>
<td>adferō</td>
<td>adferre</td>
<td>attult</td>
<td>allatum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>con-</td>
<td>conferō</td>
<td>conferre</td>
<td>contult</td>
<td>collatum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis-</td>
<td>differō</td>
<td>differre</td>
<td>distult</td>
<td>dilatum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex-</td>
<td>efferō</td>
<td>efferre</td>
<td>extult</td>
<td>elatum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-</td>
<td>inferō</td>
<td>inferre</td>
<td>intult</td>
<td>illatum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ob-</td>
<td>offerō</td>
<td>offerre</td>
<td>obtult</td>
<td>oblatum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub-</td>
<td>sufferō</td>
<td>sufferre</td>
<td>sustult</td>
<td>sublatum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Without thematic vowel.
**IRREGULAR VERBS.**

Note.—Suætul and subítum are not often used in the sense of sufferō, to bear, but they supply the Perfect and Supine of soló, to raise; see 271.

293. Voló, velle, volui, to be willing.
Noło, nólle, nólui, to be unwilling.
Málo, málle, málui, to prefer.

**INDICATIVE.**

| Pres. voló, | nóló, | nólui, | máló, |
| vis, | món vís, | nólui, | mávís, |
| vult; | nól vult, | nólui, | mávult, |
| volumus, | nólumus, | nólui, | málumus, |
| vultis, | nól vultis, | nólui, | mávultis, |
| volunt. | nólunt, | nólui, | málunt, |
| Imp. volébam. | nólébam. | nólui, | málébam. |
| Fut. volam. | nólam. | nólui, | málum. |
| Perf. volui. | nólui, | nólui, | málueram. |
| Plup. volueram. | nólueram. | nólui, | málueram. |
| F. P. volueró. | nólueró. | nólui, | málueró. |

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

| Pres. velim. | nólim. | nóliti, nólite, nóliti; nólunti. | málim. |
| Imp. vellem. | nóllem. | nóliti, nóliti; nólunti. | málem. |
| Perf. voluerim. | nóluerim. | nóliti, nóliti; nólunti. | máluerim. |
| Plup. voluissem. | nóluissem. | nóliti, nóliti; nólunti. | máluissem. |

**IMPERATIVE.**

| Pres. velle. | nólle. | nólle. | málle. |
| Fut. nólite. | nóliti, nólite, nóliti; nólunti. | nólile. |
| Plup. voluisse. | nóluisse. | nólile. | máluisse. |

**PARTICIPLE.**

| Pres. voléns. | nóléns. | nóléns. |

Note 1.—The stem of voló is vol, with variable stem-vowel, o, e, u.

Note 2.—Nóló is compounded of nó or nón and voló; máló, of magis and voló.

Note 3.—Rare Forms.—(1) Of voló: volt, vultis, for vult, vultis; sí, súltis, for sí, sí vultis; vin’ for viné.(2) Of nóló: nóvis, nóvult (nówult),

1 Velim is inflected like stim, and vellem like sessem.
2 Vellem and velle are syncopated forms for velerem, velere; s is dropped and r assimilated: velerem, velrem, vellem; velere, velre, velle. So nóllem and nólie, for nólerem and nóleres; mállem and málie, for málerem and málers.
294. Fiō, fieri, factus sum, to become, be made.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. fiō, fis, fit;</td>
<td>fīmus, fītis, fīunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. fiēbam;</td>
<td>fiēbāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. fīam;</td>
<td>fīāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. factus sum;</td>
<td>factī sumus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. factus eram;</td>
<td>factī erāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. factus erō;</td>
<td>factī erīmus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. fīam;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. fierēm;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. factus sim;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. factus essem;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. fī;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFINITIVE</th>
<th>PARTICIPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. fieri.</td>
<td>Perf. factus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. factus esse.</td>
<td>Ger. faciendum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. factum trī.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

295. Eo, ire, īvi, itum, to go.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. eō, is, it;</td>
<td>īmus, ītis, eunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. ībam;</td>
<td>ībāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. ībō;</td>
<td>ībīmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. īvi;</td>
<td>īvimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. īveram;</td>
<td>īverāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. īverō;</td>
<td>īverīmus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. ēam;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. īrem;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. īverim;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. īvissem;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. ī;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. ītō, ītō;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1 Compounds of fiō are conjugated like the simple verb, but coniō, disēt, and imītī are defective; see 297, III., 2.
**DEFECTIVE VERBS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFinitive.</th>
<th>PARTICIPLE.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf. ivisse.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. itūrus esse.</td>
<td>Fut. itūrus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GERUND.**

| Gen. eundī, | Acc. itum, |
| Dat. eundō, | Abl. itū. |
| Acc. eundum, |

**SUPINE.**

1. *Eō* is a verb of the Fourth Conjugation, but it forms the Supine with a short vowel (*itum*), and is irregular in several parts of the Present System. It admits contraction according to 235: *iātis* for *iātēs*, etc.

2. *Eō*, as an intransitive verb, wants the Passive, except when used impersonally in the third singular, itūr, itūtūr, etc. (301, 1), but *iēt*, the Passive Infinitive, occurs as an auxiliary in the Future Infinitive Passive of the regular conjugations: *amīētum iēt*, etc.

3. Comounds of *ē* generally shorten *ēt* into *ēt*. *Vēntēdē* (*vēntēs ad*) has sometimes *vēntēdēm* for *vēntēdam*. Many comounds want the Supine, and a few admit in the Future a rare form in *eam*, *ēt*, *ēt*.

**NOTES.**

1. Transitive compounds have the Passive: *adeō, to approach; adeōr, etc.*

2. *Ambōē* is regular, like *audēō, though ambēdam* for *ambēdam* occurs.

**296. Quōē, quire, quiēi, quētum, to be able, and nequeē, nequeēr, nequeēvī (it), nequētum, to be unable, are conjugated like *ē*, but they want the Imperative and Gerund, and are rare except in the Present tense.***

**DEFECTIVE VERBS.**

297. Defective Verbs want certain parts. The following are the most important:

**I. PRESENT SYSTEM WANTING.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. coēpt.</td>
<td>memint.</td>
<td>ōdī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. coēperam.</td>
<td>memineram.</td>
<td>ōderam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P. coēperō.</td>
<td>meminerō.</td>
<td>ōderō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

| Perf. coēperim. | meminerim. | ōderim. |
| Plup. coēpirēsem. | meminissem. | ōdissem. |

**IMPERATIVE.**

| Sing. memento. |
| Plur. mementōte. |

---

1 A Passive form, *quitūr, negquitūr*, etc., occurs before a Passive Infinitive.

2 For many verbs which want the Perfect or Supine, or both, see 262–284.
### DEFECTIVE VERBS

**INFinitive.**

| Perf. coepisse. | meminisse. | òdisse. |
| Fut. coepitur esse. | | òceedur esse. |

**Participle.**

| Perf. coepus. | òesus. |
| Fut. coepurus. | òesurus. |

1. With **Passive Infinitive**, coepi generally takes the Passive form: coepus sum, òesurus, etc. Coepus is Passive in sense.

2. Meminisse and òdisse are Present in sense; hence in the Pluperfect and Future Perfect they have the sense of the Imperfect and Future. òdeo, 'I know,' Perfect of òdeo, 'to learn,' and òesurus, 'I am wont,' Perfect of òesurus, 'to accustom one’s self,' are also Present in sense.

### II. PARTS OF EACH SYSTEM WANTING.

1. Áio, *I say, say yes.*

   **Indic. Pres.** áio; **Imp.** áebam, áebas, áebat; **Perf.** áit; **Subj. Pres.** áias; **Imper. Pres. at (rare).**

   **Part. Pres.** áias.


   **Indic. Pres.** inquam, inquis, inquit; **Imp.** inquiébat; **Perf.** inquiés, inquiet; **Imper. Pres. inque. Fut. inquitó.**

3. Fári, *to speak.*

   **Indic. Pres.** fátor; **Fut. fábor;** **Perf. fátor sum, es, est;** **Plup. fátor esram, erás, erat;** **Subj. Perf. fátor sim, síz, sit;** **Plup. fátor essem, esséz, esset;**

   **Imper. Pres. fáre.**

   **Infin. Pres. fári.**

   **Part. Pres. (féns) fantis.**

   **Gerund, Gen. and Abl. fándi, dó. Supine, Abl. fátó.**

---

1. òesus is Active in sense, òating, but is rare except in compounds: òœus, peròeius.
2. In this verb á and í do not form a diphthong; before a vowel the í has the sound of y: á-yo, á-yunt; see 10, 4, 5).
3. The interrogative form òens is often shortened into òin*.
4. òeabam, òeabas, etc., occur; also inquiébat for inquiébat.
5. Fári is used chiefly in poetry. Compounds have some forms not found in the simple: òadíamus, adíámei, adíábar; òeabéris.
IMPERSOINAL VERBS.

III. IMPERATIVES AND ISOLATED FORMS.

1. IMPERATIVES.

have, havēte; havētō; Inf. havērē,1 hail.
salvē, salvēte, salvētō;2 salvere, hail.
cede, cētē, salvērē, tell me, give me.
apage,

2. ISOLATED FORMS.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. FUTUER. PRESENT. IMPERFECT. INFINITIVE.
conēt; — conēt; conēret; conēret, to be done.
dēsēt, dēsētum; dēsētum; — dēsērēt, to be wanting.
infīt, infītum, — — — to begin.

Ind. Pres. ovat, he rejoices. Part. ovāns.
Ind. Pres. quaeāsē, quaeāsumus,4 I pray.

IMPERSOINAL VERBS.

298. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English Impersonal with it: licet, it is lawful; oportet, it behoves.3 They are conjugated like other verbs, but are used only in the third person singular of the Indicative and Subjunctive, and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.

299. The most important Impersonal Verbs are—

decet, decuit, it becomes,3
libet, libuit, it pleases,8
licit, licitum est, it is lawful,6
liquet, licuit, it is evident,8
miseret, miseritum est, it excites pity,7
oportet, oportuit, it behoves.

1. Participles are generally wanting, but a few occur, though with a somewhat modified sense: (1) from libet: libēns, willing; (3) from libet: licēns, free; licētus, allowed; (3) from pārētēt: pārensēns, penitent; pārensēndus, to be repented of; (4) from pūdet: pūdens, modest; pūdensēns, shameful.

2. Gerunds are generally wanting, but occur in rare instances: pārensēndum, pūdensēns.

---

1 Also written aus, ausēte, etc.
2 The Future salvētēs is also used for the Imperative.
3 Foram = essēm; fore = futūrum esse; see 204, 2.
4 Old forms for quaerō and quaerimus.
5 The subject is generally an infinitive or clause, but may be a noun or pronoun denoting a thing, but not a person: hoc fērō oportet, that this should be done is necessary.
6 These four occur in the third person plural, but without a personal subject.
7 Mi miseret, I pity; mi paensēns, I repent.
8 Also the compound, pertaētēs, pertaenēns est, it greatly wearies.
PARTICLES.

300. Generally Impersonal are several verbs which designate
the changes of the weather, or the operations of nature:

Fulminat, it lightens; grandinat, it hails; lucextract, it grows light; pluit,
it rains; rorat, dew falls; tonat, it thunders.

301. Many other verbs are often used impersonally:

Accidit, it happens; apparet, it appears; constat, it is evident; contingit,
it happens; doloreat, it delights; dolat, it grieves; interest, it concerns; juvat,
it delights; patat, it is plain; placet, it pleases; praetat, it is better; refert,
it concerns.

1. In the Passive Voice intransitive verbs can be used only impersonally. The participle is then neuter:

Multa creditur, it is credited to me, I am believed; tibi creditur, you are believed;
credendum est, it was believed; certat, it is contended; curriat, there is running, people run; pugnat, it is fought, they, we, etc., fight; victat, we, you, they live.

2. The Passive Participle-Configuration (334) is often used impersonally. The participle is then neuter:

Multa sortendum est, I must write; tibi sortendum est, you must write; illi sortendum est, he must write.

CHAPTER V.

PARTICLES.

302. The Latin has four parts of speech sometimes called
Particles: the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

ADVERBS.

303. The Adverb is the part of speech which is used to qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs: celeriter currere, to run swiftly; tam celer, so swift; tam celeriter, so swiftly.

304. In their origin, Adverbs are mainly the oblique cases of nouns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns.

I. ACCUSATIVES.—Many Adverbs were originally Accusatives:

1. ACCUSATIVES OF Nouns: partim, partly; foras, out of doors; dies (for diurnum), for a long time. Here belong numerous adverbs in tim and sim, chiefly from verbal nouns no longer in use: contemptim, contemptuously;

1 Some, indeed, are the oblique cases of words not otherwise used in Latin, and some are formed by means of case-endings no longer used in the regular declensions.

2 Accusative of dius = diete.

3 Some adverbs in tim and sim are from adjectives: singulatim, one by one. In time doubtless tim, atim, sim, and en came to be regarded simply as adverbial suffixes, and were so used in forming new adverbs.
ADVERBS.

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seuim, perceptibly, slowly; rapitum, hastily; statim, steadily; furtim, by stealth.

2. ACCUSATIVES OF NOUNS WITH PREPOSITIONS: ad-modum, very, to the full measure; in-ocem, in turn; in-aesum, in vain; ob-isic, on the road, in passing; ob-viam, in the way, against; post-modum, after a short time; inter-dius and inter-dies, during the day; inter-dum, during the time, in the mean time.

3. ACCUSATIVES OF ADJECTIVES:

1) Neuters in mm, a, e, ve, is: solum, only; multum, multa, much; nim-

2) Femminies in am, ae: bisarum, in two parts; multas, in many parts; clam = calum, secretly; palum, openly; perpetum, wrongly; aliis, otherwise.

4. ACCUSATIVES OF PRONOUNS: quam, how much; tam, so much; tum, then; ten-c, at that time; num-c, now.

II. ABLATIVES.—Many Adverbs were originally Ablatives:

1. Ablatives of Nouns in o, e, es: ergo, accordingly; numer, exactly; forte, by chance; fure, rightly; sponte, willingly; gratiae, or gratia, gratuitously; foris, out of doors.

Note.—The ablative is sometimes accompanied by a preposition or by an adjective: ex-templo, immediately—lit., from the moment; in loco, on the spot; quot-
namis, yearly; multi-modis, in many ways; a-dies (abd-dies), to-day; quod- \Cleonó, where-

1 Dies and dwn are explained as forms of diem = die, and dius as for dies; see Corson, I, pp. 292-295; II, 499.

2 Often becoming conjunctions—ceterum, but. Nón, from ne-diam, also belongs here.

3 From obsolete abutus.

4 Here may be added semel, ‘once,’ and semel, ‘at the same time,’ both for simile.

5 Sceus, ‘otherwise’; tenses, ‘as far as’; prátinus, ‘straightforward’; and versus, ‘toward,’ doubtless belong here.

6 Originally partem or viam may have been used.

7 Quam, from stem qui, in gu, quae; tam, tum, from stem ta, to, in the final syllable of latae, for is-tu-e, is-ta; ten-c = num-ce, num-c = num-ce, in which num is from the stem na, seen also in num, ‘whether,’ and also in its original form, na, in nam, ‘for.’

8 Literally, by the deed. Compare Greek ἐπετε, ἐπερ.

9 That is here an ablative ending is proved by the fact that it appears in early Latin in the form of dé, an undoubted ablative ending.

10 With these feminines, parts or end may have been originally used.

11 Often becoming prepositions. In fact, all prepositions in a are derived from adverbs which were originally ablatives in dé, afterward dé.
ADVERBS.

piece; consultō, after deliberating; sortilēgō, by lot, i. e., after casting lots;—
dōctō, learnedly; libēre, freely; certō, surely; rectō, rightly; vere, truly;—
dōctissime, most skillfully; maxime, especially;—briefly.

3. Ablatives of Pronouns: ad, there, in that way; hic, here, in this way;
quō, where, in which way; addem, by the same road, in the same way.

Note.—Several pronominal adverbs denote direction toward a point: ad, to that place; hic, here, to this place; illus, illus-c, illus-o, to that place; tēs, tēs-c, tēs-o, to the place where you are; quō, to which place.

III. Locatives.—Some Adverbs were originally Locatives:

1. Locatives of Nouns and Adjectives in -ē or -ē: hérē, yesterday; tem- periē, in time; vespērē, in the evening; peregrē, or peregrērē, in a foreign land.

2. Locatives of Pronouns: hic, here; illūc, there; itūc, there where you are; ets in this way, thus; etsē, in which way; etsē, there; etsē, where.

Note.—Locative forms in ēm also occur: illūm, formerly; utrim-que, on both sides; illūm, illū-ē, from that place; hēm-ē, from this place; often with de: utrim-de, from both sides; ēn-de, from that point, thence.

IV. Adverbs in -tus and -ter.—Adverbs are also formed by means of the endings -tus1 and -ter: 1

Fundi-tus, from the foundation; rādici-tus, from the roots, utterly; divinitus, by divine appointment, divinely; fortī-ter, bravely; dārī-ter, sharply; dārī-ter, harshly; elegans-ter, elegantly; amān-ter, lovingly; prūden-ter, prudently.

Note 1.—The stem-vowel before -tus becomes ı, and consonant stems assume ī: fundi-tus, rādici-tus. The stem-vowel before ter also becomes ī: dārī-ter. Consonant stems, however, do not assume ī, but drop final ĭ: amān-ter, amān-ter.

Note 2.—Many adverbs are simply adverbial phrases or clauses whose parts have become united in writing. In these compound forms prepositions

---

1 As ī is an ablative ending, certō and certē are only different forms of the same word; so also rīōtō and rīōtē, eōtē and eōrē, though the two forms do not always have precisely the same meaning: eōrē, in truth; eōrē, truly.
2 This is the regular ending in superlatives.
3 These are sometimes explained as Datives, but they are probably Ablatives; illus, lit., by that way or road, finally came to mean to that place, i. e., to the place to which the road leads.
4 Here the Locative ending is ī: hī, illī, āstī, āstī; ā for ās is a demonstrative ending, meaning here. Sic is the Locative of asc; see 313, foot-note.
5 Īllū contains two stems—w or wē (seen in īllū), and ēs or ēc (seen in ēsē in ēsē-tē).
6 In ēstī and ēstē the ending is ēstī; ē in ēstē is the stem of ēsē, he; w in wēstē is the same as in ēstē.
7 Seen also in ēn-ter, in the midst; ēn-tus, within; sub-ter and sub-tus, below. These suffixes are of uncertain origin; the former appears to be a case-suffix with ablative meaning, no longer used in declension; the latter, like ter in al-ter, nor-ter, and de-ter, has lost its case-suffix, and may therefore represent either ērē with an ablative suffix, or ērēm with an accusative suffix. See Coren, II, p. 399; Kühner, I, p. 679.
8 The stem-vowel ı is changed to ī.
are especially common, and sometimes seem to be used with cases with which they do not otherwise occur: ante-ēs,\(^1\) before, before that; inter-ēs, in the mean time; post-ēs, after; ante-hāc,\(^1\) before this; quem-ad-modum, in what manner; parum-per, for a while; nā-per = novum-per, lately; tantis-per, for so long a time; vidēlis = vidēre licet, clearly—lit., "it is permitted to see"; scilicet = scire licet, certainly; forsan = for sit an, perhaps.

305. Many Pronominal Adverbs, like the pronouns from which they are formed (191), are correlatives of each other, as will be seen in the following

### TABLE OF CORRELATIVES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERROGATIVE</th>
<th>INDEFINITE</th>
<th>DEMONSTRATIVE</th>
<th>RELATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I. PLACE IN WHICH.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ubi, where?(^2)</td>
<td>alicubi, somewhere; upeiam, upeam, anywhere; ubieis, where you please.</td>
<td>hici, here; istici, there; illici, there; id, there.</td>
<td>ubi, where.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. PLACE TO WHICH.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quō, whither?</td>
<td>aliquō, to some place; quodibet, quodir, whither you please.</td>
<td>hāc, to this place; istīc, to that place; illāc, to that place; ē, to that place; eodem, to the same place.</td>
<td>quō, whither.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quōrum,(^4) to what place? to what end?</td>
<td>aliqua-vorum,(^4) to some place.</td>
<td>hērum,(^4) to this place.</td>
<td>quōrum, to which place or end.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>III. PLACE FROM WHICH.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unde, whence?</td>
<td>alicundae, from some place; undeibet, from any place.</td>
<td>hinc, from this place; istinc, from that place; illinc, from that place; inde, from that place.</td>
<td>unde, whence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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1 Some scholars, regarding ēs and hāc in these and similar cases as ablative, think that all such compounds had their origin at a time when ante, post, inter, etc., admitted that case; but Corsen treats ēs and hāc in all such cases as neuters in the accusative plural. See Corsen, II., p. 435; Bücheler, p. 82.

2 Observe that the question ubi, 'where?' may be answered indefinitely by alicubi, upeiam, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative either alone or with a relative: hic, 'here'; hici, ubi, 'here, where.'

3 Hāc, 'here,' 'near me'; istīc, 'there,' 'near you'; illāc, 'there,' 'near him'; id, 'there,' a weak demonstrative and the most common correlative of ubi, 'where.' See distinction in pronouns (191). A similar distinction exists in hāc, istīc, illāc, and id.

4 For quō-vorum = quō-vorosum, 'whither turned'; alicuā-vorum, hāc-vorum.
### ADVERBS.

#### TABLE OF CORRELATIVE.—{(Continued.)}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interrogative</th>
<th>Indefinite</th>
<th>Demonstrative</th>
<th>Relative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>IV. TIME.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>quando</em>, when?</td>
<td><em>quam</em>, at any time.</td>
<td><em>saepe</em>, <em>cum</em>, then; <em>saepe</em>, at that very time; <em>ibi</em>, then.</td>
<td><em>quam</em>, when.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>quoniam</em>, how often?</td>
<td><em>aliquote</em>, somewhat often.</td>
<td><em>tota</em>, so often.</td>
<td><em>quoniam</em>, as, as often.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### V. WAY, MANNER, DEGREE.

| *quod*, by or in what way? | *aliud*, by or in some way; *quos*, by any way. | *hinc*, by this way; *illum*, by that way; *iussi*, by that way; *ad quem*, by the same way. | *quod*, by which way. |
| *ut*, *uti*, how? | *aliud*, in some way, etc. | *sit*, *sitius*, so, thus. | *ut*, *uti*, in which way, as. |

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**Note 1.**—From *Relative Adverbs* are formed *General* or *Indefinite Relativies* by appending *cumque* or by reduplicating the form: *ubicumque*, *ubiubi*, wheresoever; *quicumque*, *quidquid*, whithersover.

**Note 2.**—Other examples are—

1) **PLACE**—*alibi*, elsewhere; *ibi*, in the same place; *accus*, last anywhere, that nowhere; *stulti*, if anywhere; *alius*, to another place; *situs*, this side; *altro*, to and fro; *tiroqui*, to both places; *altius*, from another place; *in loco*, from the same place; *sintus*, from or on both sides; *utique*, from all sides.

2) **TIME**—*hodie*, to-day; *heri*, yesterday; *ora*, to-morrow; *pridie*, the day before; *postridie*, the day after; *hodie*, already; *simus*, even then; *simdem*, *simdemdem*, *jam pridem*, long ago; *quondam*, at a certain time; *hinc*, formerly, heretofore; *interim*, meanwhile; *ante*, *prima*, before; *post*, *postum*, afterward; *semper*, ever; *sempius*, never; *semper*, at all times.

3) **WAY, MANNER, DEGREE**—*ad*us, so; *aliter*, otherwise; *magis*, more; *paene*, almost; *palam*, openly; *procris*, wholly; *rite*, rightly; *valde*, greatly; *else*, scarcely.

4) **CAUSE**—*cuius*, why; *ex*, for this reason; *idee*, *idecirco*, *propers*, on this account; *ergo*, *igitur*, *sitqua*, therefore, accordingly.

**Note 3.**—*Necquis*, with an interrogative adverb, is often equivalent to an indefinite adverb: *necquis quidmodum*, I know not in what way; *necquis ubi = aliquod*, in some place; *necquis unde = aliunde*, from some place; see also 191, note.

**Note 4.**—Adverbial phrases are formed by combining *mirum* or *minimus* with *quum*: *mirum quantum*, it is wonderful how much = wonderfully much, wonderfully; *minimus quantum*, exceedingly. *Mirum quam*, *minim quam*, and *valde quam* have a similar force: *how wonderfully, how very, how greatly = exceedingly, wonderfully.*

**Note 5.**—For **Interrogative Particles**, see 311, 8.

**Note 6.**—For **Negative Particles**, see 552.
306. COMPARISON.—Most adverbs are derived from adjectives, and are dependent upon them for their comparison. The comparative is the accusative neuter singular of the adjective, and the superlative changes the ending as of the adjective into Ɔ: ¹

altus, altior, altissimus, lofty.
altē, altius, altissē, lofty.
prūdens, prūdēntior, prūdentissimus, prudent.
prūdenter, prūdentius, prūdentissē, prudently.

1. When the adjective is compared with magis and máximē, the adverb is compared in the same way:

ēgregius, magis ēgregius, máximē ēgregius, excellent.
ēgregiē, magis ēgregiē, máximē ēgregiē, excellently.

2. When the adjective is irregular, the adverb has the same irregularity:

bonus, melior, optimus, good.
bene, melius, optimē, well.
male, pēius, pessimē, badly.

3. When the adjective is defective, the adverb is generally defective:

---- dēterior, dēterrimē, worse.
---- dēterius, dēterrimē, worse.
novus, novissimus, novē, newly.
novē, novissēmē, newly.

4. A few not derived from adjectives are compared:

diā, diūtius, diūtissēmē, for a long time.
saepe, saepeius, saepeissēmē, often.
satis, satius, satismē, sufficiently.
nūper, nūperrimē, recently.

5. Most adverbs not derived from adjectives, as also those from adjectives incapable of comparison (169), are not compared: hic, here; nunc, now; vulgariter, commonly.

6. Superlatives in Ɔ or m are used in a few adverbs: prīmē, prīnum, potissimum.

PREPOSITIONS.

307. The Preposition is the part of speech which shows the relations of objects to each other:

In Italī esse, to be in Italy; ante mē, before me.

Nōta 1.—Prepositions were originally adverbs, and, like other adverbs (304), are in origin prēterified case-forms.²

¹ See 304, II, 2.
² Thus prepositions in Ɔ are in origin ablatives: circō, cīntē, contra, ergō, extē, inīra, etc.; while those in m are accusatives: cūrō, cūrum, cum, etc. These case-forms passed into adverbs denoting direction, situation, etc.; but they finally became associated with nouns in the accusative or ablative as auxiliary to the case-ending: idō
CONJUNCTIONS.

Note 2.—For the Use of Prepositions, see 432—437.
Note 3.—For the Form and Meaning of Prepositions in Composition, see 344, 5.

308. INSEPARABLE PREPOSITIONS. ¹—Ambi, amb, 'around,' 'about'; die, di, 'asunder'; in, 'not,' 'un'; por, 'toward,' 'forth'; re, red, 'back'; sed, sed, 'aside,' 'apart'; and ves, 'not,' are called Inseparable Prepositions, because they are used only in composition.

Note.—For the Form and Meaning of the Inseparable Prepositions in Composition, see 344, 6.

CONJUNCTIONS.

309. Conjunctions are mere connectives. They are either Co-ordinate or Subordinate.

1. Coördinate Conjunctions connect similar constructions:

Labor voluptasque; labor and pleasure. Kartháginem césit Ioë diruit, he took and destroyed Carthage.

2. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions:

Hæc dum colligunt, effugit, while they collect these things, he escapes.

310. Coördinate Conjunctions comprise—

1. Copulative Conjunctions, denoting union:

Et, que, atque, ac, and; etiam, quoque, also; neque, nec, and not; neque—neque, nec—nec, neque—nec, neither—nor.

2. Disjunctive Conjunctions, denoting separation:

Aut, vel, ve, sive (seu), or; aut—aut, vel—vel, either—or; sive—sive, either—or.

Note.—Here belong interrogative particles in double or disjunctive questions: utrum, num, or se—se, whether—or; an, or; annus, none, or not; see 353.

3. Adversative Conjunctions, denoting opposition:

= from a place; se loco = out of a place; aliquid loco movere, to move anything from a place; aliquid se loco movere, to move anything out of a place. An adverb thus separated from the verb and brought into connection with a noun ceased to be an adverb and became a preposition.

¹ Like other prepositions, these were doubtless originally case-forms.
² Thus que connects two nominatives, do two indicatives which are entirely coördinate, took and destroyed, but dum connects the subordinate clause, hæc—colligunt, with the principal clause, effugit—he escapes while they collect these things.
³ Copulative conjunctions are et = Greek ἐτ, que = καί, and their compounds–et-tam or et-tam, at-que, quo-que, ne-que. Ac is a shortened form of at-que; nec, of ne-que.
⁴ Disjunctives are aut, vel, ve, with their compounds: vel = velis, 'should you wish,' offering a choice, ve = vete, 'you wish,' as in qui-vete, 'any you please'; sive = sivete, 'if you wish.'
CONJUNCTIONS.

Sed, autem, vero, vel, but; at, but, on the contrary; atque, rather; etiam, but still, moreover; tam, yet.

4. ILLOCUTIVE CONJUNCTIONS, denoting inference:
Ergo, igitur, inde, proinde, itaque, hence, therefore; see also 354, IV., 2.

5. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting cause:
Nam, namque, enim, etenim, for.

311. SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS COMPRISSE—

1. TEMPORAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting time:
Quando, quum, cum, or quum, when; ut, ubi, as, when; cum (quom or quum) primum, ut primum, ubi primum, simul, simulac, simul ac, simul atque, simul atque, as soon as; dum, donec, quoad, quamdiu, while, until, as long as; antequam, praequam, before; postequam, after.

2. COMPARATIVE CONJUNCTIONS, denoting comparison:
Ut, uti, sicut, sicut, as, so as; velut, just as; praetul, prout, according as, in comparison with; quam, as; tanguam, quasi, ut si, ac si, velut si, as if.

3. CONDITIONAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting condition:
Si, if; si non, nisi, ni, if not; sin, but if; si quidem, if indeed; si modo, dum modo, dummodo, if only, provided.

4. CONCESSIONAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting concession:
Quamquam, licet, cum (quom, or quum), although; ete, tametei, etiam, even if; quamvis, quamquamvis, quantumvis, however much, although; ut, grant that; ne, grant that not.

5. FINAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting purpose or end:
Ut, uti, that, in order that; ne, neve (neu), that not; quod, that; quominus, that not.

6. CONSECUTIVE CONJUNCTIONS, denoting consequence or result:
Ut, so that; ut non, quin, so that not.

1 Conjunctions, like adverbs, consist largely of case-forms, chiefly from pronominal stems. Thus, sed, vero, ergo, etc., are explained as ablatives (sed from sol); autem, vero, primum, quam, quod, quum, or cum, etc., as accusatives; que, ubi, uti, ui, etc., as locatives.

2 Lit., as to the rest.

3 But most Causal Conjunctions are subordinate; see 311, 1.

4 Quom, the original form out of which cum and quum were developed (22; 26, foot-note), occurs in early Latin, as in Plautus. Cum is the approved form in classical Latin.

5 See 304, I., 1 and 2, foot-notes.

6 Probably locative, possibly instrumental; see page 73, foot-note 9.

7 Licet is strictly a verb, meaning it is permitted; ite, in quam-etc and quantum-etc, is also a verb: quam-etc, as much as you wish; as is also lide, it pleases, in quantum-lide, as much as is pleasing.

8 Quominus = quod minus, by which less; quin = qui ne, by which not.
FORMATION OF WORDS.

7. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting CAUSE:

Quia, quod, quoniam,1 quandò, because, inasmuch as; cum (quom, quum),
since; quandálquidem, siguidem,2 utpote, since indeed.

8. INTERROGATIVE CONJUNCTIONS, denoting INQUIRY:3

Ne, nòmine, num, utrum, an, whether; an nòn, necesse, or not.

INTERJECTIONS.

312. Interjections are certain particles used as expressions of
feeling or as mere marks of address.4 They may express—

3. Sorrow: vas, ei, heu, sheu, obis, ah, au, prò.
5. Calling: heu, o, sho, shodum.

CHAPTER VI.

FORMATION OF WORDS.

SECTION I.

ROOTS.—STEMS.—SUFFIXES.

313. Words are formed from stems (16, 1), and stems from
roots or from other stems.

Norm 1.—Thus status, 'position,' is formed from the stem status by adding the
nomi
nitive suffix s,5 but the stem status is itself formed from the root stà by appending the
derivative suffix stà.

1 Compound of quom-jam, when now.
2 Lit., 'if indeed.'
3 These are sometimes classed as Adverbs. In some of their uses they are plainly
Conjunctions, while in other cases they approach closely to the nature of Adverbs. As
a matter of convenience they may be called Interrogative Particles; see 351, 1.
4 Some interjections seem to be the simple and natural utterance of feeling, and
accordingly do not appear to have been built up, like other words, from roots and stems,
but to be themselves specimens of the unorganized elements of human speech. Others,
however, are either inflected forms, as age, 'come,' apage = áwes, ‘begone,’ or mutil-
ated sentences or clauses: meherculè, mehercula, etc., = mà Hercules fest, 'may
Hercules protect me; mòcastòr, 'may Castor protect me'; mèdetius fìlius, 'may the
ture God help me'; ècàstor = èm Castòr, 'to Castor.'
5 This s is doubtless a remnant of an old demonstrative, sa, meaning that, he, she.
ROOTS.—STEMS.

Note 2.—Words are either simple or compound:
1. Simple, when formed from single roots or without suffixes.
2. Compound, when formed by the union of two or more roots or stems; see 340, III.

314. Roots.—Roots are the primitive elements out of which all words in our family of languages have been formed. They are of two kinds:

I. Predicative Roots, also called Verbal Roots. These designate or name objects, actions, or qualities: es in es-ı, he is; i in i-re, to go; duoc in duoc-e = duoc, leader; doc in doc-ıle, docile.

II. Demonstrative Roots, also called Pronominal Roots. These do not name objects or actions, but simply point out the relation of such objects or actions to the speaker: me in met, of me; tu in tui, of you; i in i-ı, that, that one, he.

315. The Stems of simple words may be divided into three classes: Root Stems, Primary Stems, and Secondary Stems.

316. Root Stems are either identical with roots, or are formed from them without the aid of suffixes:

\[ \text{Duo-ıe, 'of a leader,' root-stem duc; es-ıle, 'you are,' root-stem es; rey-ıe, 'kings,' root-stem rey; voc-ıe, 'of the voice,' root-stem voc;} \]

murmur-ıe, 'of a murmur,' root-stem murmure.

317. Primary Stems are formed from roots by means of suffixes:

---

1 These roots were probably all monosyllabic, and were once used separately as words, but not as parts of speech. Thus es, the root of sum, esse, 'to be,' and i, the root of eı, i-re, 'to go,' were doubtless used in their original form, as significant words, long before the verbs themselves had an existence.

2 Observe that from this class of roots, whether called Predicative or Verbal, may be formed the stems, not only of verbs, but also of nouns, adjectives, and, in fact, of all the parts of speech except pronouns.

3 The learner should note the difference in signification between Predicative and Demonstrative Roots. Thus duc has a definite meaning, and must always designate one who leads; while the pronoun ego is not the name of any person or thing, but may be used by any and every person in speaking of himself.

4 The learner has already become familiar with the use of stems in the inflection of nouns, adjectives, etc.; but stems, like roots, were probably once used as words.

5 The basis of every inflected word is a stem. Duce is therefore the stem of duoc-ıe, but as it cannot be derived from a more primitive form, it is also a root. According to some authorities, rey, the stem of rey-ıe, and voc, the stem of voc-ıe, are not roots, but derived from more primitive forms—rey in rey-ıo, and voc in voc-ıo; according to other authorities, however, rey and rey are only two forms of the same root; so also voc and voc, duoc and duoe. The stem murmure is not a root, but formed from the root murm by reduplication. See Curtius, Chron., p. 25; Schleicher, pp. 341-350; Meyer, pp. 8, 317-376.

6 Any suffix used to form a Primary Stem is called a Primary Suffix; see 320.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ar,</td>
<td>vo,</td>
<td>ar-vo</td>
<td>ar-vu-m, field.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fac,</td>
<td>to,</td>
<td>fac-to</td>
<td>fac-tu-s, made.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sta,</td>
<td>tu,</td>
<td>sta-tu</td>
<td>sta-tu-s, position.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—All stems formed from verb-stems are also generally classed as Primary Stems: cūrd-ator, ‘guardian,’ cūrator, ‘to care for,’ cūra, ‘care.’

318. Secondary Stems are formed from other stems by means of suffixes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>civi,5</td>
<td>co;</td>
<td>civi-co, civicus</td>
<td>c civic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>victor,6</td>
<td>iâ;</td>
<td>victor-iâ, victória</td>
<td>victory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>victor,6</td>
<td>io;</td>
<td>victor-io, victrix, vi victress.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

319. The Stems of Compound Words are formed by the union of two or more stems, or of a stem with a root:

- fu-erâ,7
- grand-sevo,8
- igni-color,8
- mág-n-animo,9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fu-erâ</td>
<td>-s,</td>
<td>you had been.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grand-sevo</td>
<td>-s,</td>
<td>of great age.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>igni-color</td>
<td>-s,</td>
<td>fire-colored.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mág-n-animo</td>
<td>-s,</td>
<td>great-souled.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1.—Words are formed from Stems by means of the Suffixes of Infection; see 46 and 209, note 1.

Note 2.—A single root often gives rise to a large class of forms. Thus, from the root stó, ‘to stand,’ are derived:

1. The numerous forms which make up the conjugation of the verb stō, stäre, steti, státum, to stand.
2. All the forms of the verb siéct, séctera, sécti, séctum, ‘to place.’
3. Numerous other forms. Thus (1), sta-bi, ‘stable,’ ‘firm,’ from which are derived stabiliti, ‘to make firm’; stabilitas, ‘firmness,’ and stabiliter, ‘firmly’; (2) stábitum, ‘a standing place,’ ‘stable,’ from which are derived stabili, and stabius, ‘to have a standing place’; (3) státem, ‘something standing,’ ‘warp in an upright loom’; (4) státi, ‘in standing,’ ‘at once’; (5) státio, ‘standing’; (6) státius, ‘stationary’; (7) státor, ‘a stayer’; and (8) status, ‘position,’ from which is derived státum, ‘to place,’ which in turn becomes the basis of státus, ‘a status,’ and státura, ‘status.’

1 Ar-co-m weakened to arcum, fac-to-s to factus; see 22, 9.
2 This is a matter of convenience, as new stems, or words, are formed from verb-stems in the same manner as from roots; see Schleicher, p. 547.
3 Except verb-stems. Remember that stems formed from verb-stems are treated as Primary; see 317, note.
4 Any suffix used to form a Secondary stem is called a Secondary suffix, but many suffixes may be either Primary or Secondary. Thus co in civicus is Secondary, as it is added to a stem; but in locus, ‘place,’ it is Primary, as it is added to a root.
5 Civic is the stem of civil, citizen; vicid of vicitor, conqueror.
6 For victORIA, by contraction.
7 Compound of root se with stem en from the root en; see 203, note 2, and 243.
8 For grandi-sevo.
9 Compound of ignis, the stem of ignis, ‘fire,’ and of color, the stem of color, ‘color.’
10 Compound of mágna, the stem of mágna, ‘great,’ and of anima, the stem of animus, ‘soul’; mágno-anima becoming mágmanimo.
**SUFFIXES.**

320. SUFFIXES.—Most suffixes\(^1\) appear to have been formed from a comparatively small number of primitive elements called **Primary Suffixes.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L</th>
<th>II.(^2)</th>
<th>Examples.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a,</td>
<td>ā,(^3) ō, ō, e, i, ō, u,</td>
<td>ā and ō in nouns and adjectives; ō in nouns, and e, i, ō, and u in verbs: <em>scrib-a</em>, writer; <em>fug-a</em>, flight; <em>fug-o</em>, Nom. <em>fug-u-m</em>,(^4) yoke; <em>fid-ō</em>, Nom. <em>fid-ō-o</em>, faith; *reg-e,(^5) rule thou; <em>reg-i-o</em>, you rule; <em>reg-o</em>, I rule; <em>reg-u-an</em>, they rule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i,</td>
<td>i,</td>
<td>in a few nouns: <em>ac-i</em>, Nom. <em>ac-i-o</em>, bird; <em>arc-i</em>, Nom. <em>arc-i-o</em>, <em>arc-o,(^6) arz</em>, citadel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u,</td>
<td>u,</td>
<td>in nouns:(^7) <em>ac-u</em>, Nom. <em>ac-u-o</em>, needle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an,</td>
<td>on, ōn, en, in,</td>
<td>denoting either the act or the agent; <em>aepery-o</em>, Nom. <em>aepery-o</em>, (G. <em>sīnis</em>), sprinkling; <em>ger-ōn</em>, <em>ger-o</em>, (G. <em>sīnis</em>), a carrier; <em>pect-en</em>, (G. <em>sīnis</em>), a comb.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ant,(^8)</td>
<td>ent, unt,</td>
<td>in present participles:(^9) <em>audient-o,(^10) audīens</em> hearing; <em>ab-es-ent-o, ab-esens</em>, absent; <em>amāent-o, amāens</em>, loving.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

\(^1\) Most suffixes appear to be of pronominal origin, i.e., from pronominal stems or roots, but, according to Bopp, Corssen, and others, a few may be of verbal origin. Thus in several suffixes beginning with *ō*—seen in *ber, bīles, bulum* etc.—Corssen recognizes the root *bhar* for in *for-ō*, ‘to bear’; in some beginning with *ē*—seen in *ter, tor, tīrīs*, etc.—the root *tēr* ‘to accomplish’; in some beginning with *ō*—seen in *cer, cultum, orum*, etc.—the root *kōr* for *cer, ere* in *aro-o*, ‘to make.’ For a discussion of the subject, see Bopp, III, pp. 186-201; Corssen, I, p. 557; II, pp. 40, 68; Schleicher, p. 448.

\(^2\) Column I shows the suffix in its *supposed* original form, while column II. shows the various forms which the suffix has assumed in Latin.

\(^3\) Originally long in Latin in feminine forms; see 31, 2, 1.

\(^4\) Observe that these suffixes form *stems*, not *cases*. Sometimes the Nominative Singular is in form identical with the stem; but in most cases, the Nominative is formed from the stem by adding the Nominative suffix, as *e* in *ādī-u, u* in *jugu-m* for *jugo-m* (*ō* weakened to *u*, 22, 2).

\(^5\) Observe that the Present stem takes the several forms, *reg-a, reg-i, reg-o, reg-u*; but see page 118, foot-note 5.

\(^6\) Often thus dropped; sometimes changed to *e, ē*: *mari, mare, sea; caedi, caede, caedē-o, slaughter.*

\(^7\) Also in adjectives, in union with *i* making *ui*: *ten-ui-o, thin.*

\(^8\) *N* dropped; see 36, 5, 8.

\(^9\) This is the base of several compound suffixes: *ent-o, ent-le, ent-ia,—Nom. entum, ent-ia, and ent-ium; flu-ent-um, stream; sap-ent-le, wisdom; sil-ent-ium, silence.*

\(^10\) Also in a few adjectives and nouns: *frequ-ent-o, frequine, frequent; pari-ent-o, parēns*. Here *e* is the Nominative ending.
### PRIMARY SUFFIXES.

**PRIMARY SUFFIXES.—(Continued.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>Examples.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as.</td>
<td>on, un, en.</td>
<td><em>gen-os, gen-un,</em> birth; <em>corp-un,</em> body; <em>nub-ee,</em> cloud; <em>rob-er,</em> strength; <em>cap-or</em> (21, 2), sleep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ja² = ya.</td>
<td>e, i, iō, iū,</td>
<td>in verbs: <em>cap-e,</em> take thou; <em>cap-e-re,</em> to take; <em>cap-i-e,</em> you take; <em>cap-i-e-us,</em> we take; <em>cap-i-ō,</em> I take; <em>cap-i-ū-nē,</em> they take.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jans⁷ = yans.</td>
<td>iōs, iōr, ius, jōr, ūr,</td>
<td>in comparatives: <em>mag-iōs,</em> <em>mag-iōr,</em> <em>mā-jōr,</em> Nom. <em>mā-jōr</em> (21, 2), greater; <em>min-ūr,</em> <em>min-or</em> (21, 2), smaller; see 162, 165.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ka.</td>
<td>că, co.</td>
<td>rare: <em>pau-ōd,</em> <em>pau-ōco,</em> <em>pau-ouc,</em> a, um, small; <em>lo-ōc,</em> locuē, place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>la.</td>
<td>iō, lo, īl.</td>
<td>see ra.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ma.</td>
<td>mā, mo.</td>
<td><em>form-ma,</em> form; <em>pri-mo,</em> <em>pri-mus,</em> first; <em>sup-mo,</em> <em>sum-ma,</em> <em>sum-mus,</em> highest; <em>al-mo,</em> <em>al-mus,</em> cherishing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1 This suffix seems to be used in forming the Latin Infinitive, in origin the Dative of a verbal noun: *reg-es,-e,* *reg-er-s* (31, 1), 'to rule'—lit., for ruling; e is the Dative ending (67, note); see Schleicher, p. 473. See also page 81, foot-note 2.

2 With variable vowel (57, 2); in early Latin a, in classical Latin u in Nomina Singular, e in other cases. We thus have in early Latin ae in *gen-os,* and in classical Latin ue in *gen-us,* and ae changed to e or (31, 1) in *gen-or-ae,* *gen-or-i,* etc. Words of this class take no Nominative ending.

3 With variable vowel—a, u. We thus have *corp-us,* *corp-or-is,* with a changed to r (31, 1). S final is also changed to r in *robur,* see 31, 2.

4 Doubtless a pronominal stem. It is common as a secondary suffix (page 154, foot-note 4): *pater-ia,* *pater-ia,* Nom. *pater-ius,* paternal; *victor-ia,* victory; *luxur-ia,* *luxur-iae,* luxury; see 325.

5 Originally long in Latin, see 21, 2, 1.

6 Probably the verbal root *ja,* identical with *i* in *fixe,* to go. So explained by Curtius, *Verbum,* L, pp. 200–205. It was also used as a secondary suffix, appended to the stems of nouns and adjectives, in forming denominative verbs; see 335, foot-note.

7 This suffix is generally secondary: *alt-ôr,* *alt-ius,* higher; *spect-ôr,* seeing; see 162.

8 It seems to appear without its final vowel in some nouns in o: *apē-e-o,* *apex,* point, top. It is common as a secondary suffix: *civit-ôo,* *civit-ous,* civie (330); and is also used in compound suffixes, as *cu-ôo,* *cu-ôo-ia,* *cu-ôo-ius,* a small flower; *civit-ôus,* prophetic. See Schleicher, p. 475; *Cursus,* II, pp. 205, 206, 807.

9 This is also an element in *st-md,* *st-mo,* *st-md,* *st-mo,* *st-st-md,* *st-st-mo:* *op-ti-mus,* a, um, best; *alt-st-st-mus,* highest.
### PRIMARY SUFFIXES.

**PRIMARY SUFFIXES.—(Continued.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>man, 1</td>
<td>men, 2</td>
<td>denoting the means of the action, sometimes the act itself, or its result: tagi-men, or teg-men, 3 a covering; nó-men, 4 name; cetl-men, contest; ser-mön, ser-mô, 4 discourse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| na, 5    | nó, no, 6 | 1. in adjectives with the force of perfect participles: plêđ, plê-no, plê-nus, a, um, filled, full; rôg-no, rôg-num, kingdom, that which is ruled.  
2. in nouns and adjectives with various meanings: sop-no, som-no (33, 3, note), som-nus, sleep. |
| ni, 7    | ni, i, 7 | ig-ni, ig-nis, fire; pã-ni, pã-nis, bread. |
| nu, 8    | nu, 9    | very rare: ma-nu, ma-nus, hand. |
| ra, 8 la, | ro, la, 10 lo, li, | ag-ro (agrus), ager, field; sac-ro (sacrus), sacer, sac-ros, sacrum, sacred; sed-lâ, sed-la (34, 2), seat; condâ-la, a light; tê-lo, tê-lum, weapon; docî-li, docî-lis, docile. |
| ta, 9    | tâ, to, sâ, so, 11 | 1. in perfect participles: amâ-id, amâ-tus, a, um, loved; plaud-to, plau-so (35, 8), plau-sus, applauded; condâ-tus, having tried; prânsus, having taken lunch.  
2. in a few adjectives: sex-to, sex-tus, sixth. |

---

1. This is an element in men-to, mön-lâ, and mön-lo: nûtri-men-tum, nutriment; quert-mön-la, complaint; testi-mön-tum (secondary suffix), testimony.
2. With variable vowel (57, 2). The suffix man is weakened to men in the Nominative Singular, and to mis in the other cases.
3. For gnû-men, 'name,' the means by which one is known.
4. N is dropped; see 36, 5, 8.
5. Nearly equivalent to la. In some languages it forms passive participles like la.
6. Often secondary: pater-no, pater-nus, paternal; sometimes preceded by a, or i: font-à-nus, of a fountain; can-i-nus, canine; alt-è-nus, belonging to another; see 327, 329, and 330.
7. As ta and na are closely related in meaning and use, so are tâ and ni. They are sometimes united in the same suffix: ti-lâ-ni (326).
8. Ra and la are only different forms of the same suffix. In Latin and Greek this suffix often forms verbal adjectives which sometimes pass into nouns: gnû-rus, 'knowing,' from gnû in rô-ös, 'to know'; ô-pov, 'gift,' 'something given,' from ô in ô-sû, 'to give.'
9. In the form of ti it is the first element in ti-nus, a, um: op-ti-nus, best; and the second element in ti-si-nus, a, um: alt-i-si-nus, highest. In the form of tâ, it is the first element in tâ-ti, shortened to tât: ovi-tät = ovi-tât, state.
10. Often becoming adjectives or nouns: al-to, al-tus, high; nû-tus, son.
### DERIVATION OF WORDS.

#### PRIMARY SUFFIXES.—(Continued.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>Examples.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tar,</td>
<td>ter, tör,</td>
<td>see tra.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ti,¹</td>
<td>ti,² si,</td>
<td>in verbal nouns: vēs-ti, vēs-tis, garment; mel-ti, mel-tis, messis (35, 3), reaping, harvest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu,</td>
<td>tō,¹</td>
<td>in verbal nouns, including supines: sta-tu, sta-tus, standing; i-tu, i-tus, going; dio-tū (su-pine), in telling, to tell.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tar,² tra,⁴</td>
<td>ter, tör, tro, ter² and tär denoting agency; tro, means: pa-ter, father; ma-ter, mother; vic-tor, conqueror; audī-tor, hearer; arā-trum, plough.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vā,</td>
<td>vo, uo,</td>
<td>in nouns and adjectives: ar-vō, ar-vum, ploughed field; vāo-uo, vāo-uum, empty.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### SECTION II.

### DERIVATION OF WORDS.

#### FORMATION OF NOUNS BY SUFFIXES.

**I. From the stems of other Nouns.**

321. **Diminutives generally end in—**

licus, lā, lum; ulus, ula, ulum; olus, cola, oolum; ⁸

---

¹ Ti is the first element in ti-ā, ti-ō, ti-ē, ti-ēni, ti-īn (i dropped): jūst-iā, justice; serv-i-ā, serv-i-um, service; dūr-iē, dūr-i-ī, hardness; sta-tōn, sta-ūdō (n dropped), station.

² Ti often disappears: men-ti, men-īa, men-ēa, mēnēa (36, 9), mind.

³ Tu is the first element in the suffixes, tu-ā, tu-ō; tū-ē, tūl, and tū-dōn: sta-tua, stātus; mor-tua, dead; serv-tūl, serv-tūl (serv-tūss); serv-tūs, servitude; turpi-tūdōn, turpi-tūdō (n dropped), turpitude.

⁴ Perhaps of verbal origin (320, foot-note 1). This suffix seems to be the basis of several compound suffixes: tūr-iā, tūr-iō, tūr-dō, tūr-tiō, etc.; see examples, 324, 326, 330.

⁵ Ter is used in names denoting family relationship, originally agency: pa-ter, lit., protector, from the root pa, to protect.

⁶ For the convenience of the learner the suffixes are given in the Nominative form, i.e., with the Nominative ending and the modified stem-vowel. Observe that the stem suffix in li-ś and li-m is lō. The endings, ulus, ula, ulum, were developed irregularly after the analogy of u-ūs, u-īa, u-ūm in such words as hortu-ūs, eviρu-ūs, oppidu-ium, where the u is the modified stem-vowel. Thus the u in rēg-u-ūs and capiti-u-ūm is an irregularity introduced from the Diminutives of o and u stems. Līus, lā, lūm are formed from the suffix la or ra, often used in forming Primary Stems (330). Oculus, cola, oolum are compound suffixes in which the first part, cu, is formed from the suffix, originally ka, modified in Latin to co, cu, seen in lo-co-s, locus, place; see 320, ku, foot-note.
Nouns.

filio-lus, a little son, from filius, son.
filio-la, a little daughter, " fillia, daughter.
atrio-lum, a small hall, " atrium, hall.
alevo-lus, a small cavity, " alveus, cavity.
hortu-lus, a small garden, " hortus, garden.
virgu-la, a small branch, " virga, branch.
oppidu-lum, a small town, " oppidum, town.
rég-ulus, a petty king, " rég, king.
capit-ulum, a small head, " caput, head.
flos-culus, a small flower, " flos, flower.
parti-cula, a small part, " pars, part.
múnum-culum, a small present, " núnum, present.

1. Lus, la, lum, are appended to a and o stems; ulus, ula, ulum, to Dental and Gutural stems;culus, cula, culum, to e, i, and u stems, and to Liquid and s stems; see examples.

2. Before lus, la, lum, the stem-vowels ā and o take the form of o after e or i, and the form of u in other situations: filio-lus, filio-la for filid-lus, hortu-lus for horto-lus.

3. Beforeculus, cula, culum, stems in u change u into i, and stems in on change o into u: versi-culus, 'a little verse,' from versus; homunculus, 'a small man,' from homo. Like nouns in on, a few other words form diminutives in un-culus, un-cula: av-un-culus, 'maternal uncle,' from avus, 'grandfather.'

4. Ell-lus, el-la, el-lum, ill-lus, il-la, il-lum, are used when the stem of the primitive ends in ā or o, preceded by l, n, or r: ocel-lus, 'small eye,' from oculus; fabel-la, 'short fable,' from fabula; vil-lum, 'a small wine,' from vinum.

Note.—The endings leus and cliō occur: ecu-leus, 'a small horse,' from equus; homun-oló, 'a small man,' from homo.

322. Patronymics, or names of Descent, generally end in—
des, stem-suffix da, masculine; s for des, stem-suffix d, feminine.

Tantali-des, son of Tantalus; Tantali-s, daughter of Tantalus.4
Thési-des, son of Theseus; Thési-s, daughter of Theseus.
Théstia-des, son of Thestius; Théstia-s, daughter of Thestius.

Note.—The suffix né, preceded by i or ò, is sometimes used in forming feminine Patronymics: Neptüni-né, daughter of Neptune; Acidéi-né, daughter of Acisius.

1 Nébbi-cula, piébbi-cula, and culpéi-cula are formed as if from ò-stems.
2 The syllables ò and ò do not belong to the ending, but are produced by a slight change in the stem. The quantity of the vowel ò or ò is therefore determined by the primitive: thus, occlus, occlu-lus = occlu-lus = occlu-lus; vinum, vinu-lum = vin-lum = vin-lum.
3 Also written equulus, but equulus is the approved form.
4 The vowel preceding the suffix is usually ò, as in Tantali-des, Tantali-s, modified from the stem-vowel o. Primitives in òs generally change òs to ò or ò, as in Théstis, Théstis-s; and primitives in òus change stem-vowel o to ò, as in Théstia-des.

Other nouns sometimes form Patronymics after the analogy of nouns in òus: Léborkadié, son of Laertes. Anédes has Anédesi-des, masculine, and Anédesi, feminine.
323. Designations of Place are often formed with the endings—

ärium, ārum, tum, ils. 1

columb-ärium, a dovecot, from columba, dove.
querc-étum, a forest of oaks, " quercus, oak.
salic-étum, a thicket of willows, " salix, willow.
ov-ild, a sheepfold, " ovis, sheep.

1. Ärium designates the place where anything is kept, a receptacle: 
aerärium, 'treasury,' from aes, money.

2. Étum, tum, used with names of trees and plants, designate the place where they flourish: olivetum, 'an olive-grove,' from oliva, 'olive-tree.'

3. Íle, used with names of animals, designates their stall or fold: bovile, 'stall for cattle,' from bœs, stem bov.

4. Other Examples are—

Aetum-ärium, 'tidal bay,' from aeatu, 'tide'; avi-ärium, 'aviary,' from avis, 'bird'; dönum-ärium, 'place for offerings,' from dönum, 'gift'; pönum-ärium, 'orchard,' from pönum, 'fruit'; ascul-étum, 'forest of oaks,' from asculus, 'oak'; pin-étum, 'pine-forest,' from pinus, 'pine'; ros-étum, 'rose-bed,' from rosa, 'rose'; vit-étum, 'vineyard,' from vitum, 'vine'; virgul-étum, 'a thicket,' from virgula, 'bush'; capr-ild, 'goat-stall,' from caper, 'goat.'

324. Derivatives are also formed with several other endings, especially with—

ärīus, iūs, tum, itium, ìna, imōnium, itās, tūs, ātus. 2

statu-ärīus, a statutory, from statua, statue.
mūl-īd, mulier, " mūlus, mulc.
sacerdōt-ūnum, priesthood, " sacerdōs, priest.
serv-ītium, servitude, " servus, slave.
rég-īna, regina, " rēx, king.
patrīmōnium, patrimony, " pater, father.
civītās, citizenship, " civis, citizen.
virtūs, virtue, " vir, man.
consul-ātus, consultation, " consul, consul.

1. Ärium and ils generally designate persons by their occupations.

2. Tum and itium denote office, condition, or collection: servitium, servitude, sometimes a collection of servants.

1 Ärium and ils are the endings of neuter adjectives used substantively (330). The vowels d and t were probably developed out of the stem-vowel of the primitive, but they were afterward treated as a part of the suffix. For an explanation of such vowels, see 330, foot-note. Many derivative endings were thus formed originally by the union of certain suffixes with the stem-vowel of the primitive; accordingly, when added to vowel stems, they generally take the place of the stem-vowel: columb-ā, columb-ärium; querc-o, querc-étum.

2 Ärius is identical in origin with the adjective ending ārius (330), and ātus with ātus in participles. In each the initial ā was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive. Ína is the same formation as the adjective ending ínaus (330). On étum, imōnium, ē-tās, and ātus, see ét, ētus, ētus, man, món, with foot-notes, 320; remember that the initial ē was developed from the stem-vowel of the primitive.
NOUNS.

3. Īna and imōniān are used with some variety of signification; see examples under 7 below.

4. Ītās and tōs designate some characteristic or condition: ērōd-ītās, 'heirship,' from ērōs, 'heir'; virtūs, 'manliness,' 'virtue,' from vir.

5. Ātus denotes rank, office, collection: consulātus, 'consulship,' from consul; senātus, 'senate,' 'collection of old men,' from senex.

6. For Patrial or Gentle Nouns, see 331, note 1.

Note.—The endings āgō, ipō, and āgō also occur: vir-āgō, 'heroic maiden,' from vir, 'hero,' ferr-āgō, 'iron-rust,' from fērrum, 'iron.'

7. Other Examples are—


II. NOUNS FROM ADJECTIVES.

325. From Adjectives are formed various abstract Nouns with the endings—

\[
\begin{array}{|lll|}
\hline
\text{īs, ītās, ta, tās, ītās, tōs, ǣdō, ītūdō, imōniā.} & \text{diligent-īs,} & \text{diligence,} \\
\text{superb-īs,} & \text{haughtiness,} & \text{superbus,} \\
\text{amicīs-īs,} & \text{friendship,} & \text{amicus,} \\
\text{juven-īs,} & \text{youth,} & \text{juvenis,} \\
\text{liber-īs,} & \text{freedom,} & \text{liber,} \\
\text{bōn-īs,} & \text{goodness,} & \text{bonus,} \\
\text{pi-ēs,} & \text{piety,} & \text{pius,} \\
\text{juven-ēs,} & \text{youth,} & \text{juvenis,} \\
\text{dulc-ēs,} & \text{sweetness,} & \text{dulcis,} \\
\text{sōl-ētūdō,} & \text{solitude,} & \text{sōlus,} \\
\text{ācer-īnōniā,} & \text{sharpness,} & \text{ācer,} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

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1 These endings were formed, according to Corssen, by appending the suffix an to agō, the root of agō, to put in motion, make, do; see Corssen, I., p. 577.
2 As if formed from a verb, trībūnō, ēre, like equītō-ānus, 'cavalry,' from equītō, ēre, 'to ride,' from eque, 'a horseman.'
3 When appended to vowel stems, these endings take the place of the final vowel. Originally the initial ā in ātā, ātās, ātūdō, and āmōnia formed no part of the suffix, but represented the stem-vowel of the primitive. On ātā, ātās, and ātā, see ātā, ātā, ātā, page 160, foot-note 2; on ātūdō and āmōnia, see ātā and āmā, page 320. The origin of ādō, ādīnā is obscure.
4 For pl-īs, ī-ēs by dissimilation (26).
DERIVATION OF WORDS.

Note 1.—Instead of té and itía, téa and itiés occur: pauper, pauper-itéa, poverty; dúrus, dúr-itéa or dúr-i̯itéa, hardness.

Note 2.—Before tás the stem of the adjective is sometimes slightly changed: facitía, facultás, faculty; difficultía, difficultías, difficulty; poténs, potestás, power.

Note 3.—A few adjectives form abstracts with both itás and itiás: firmus, firmitás, firmitás, firmness. Poly-syllabic adjectives in itás often suffer contraction before these endings: honestís for honest-i̯itéa, 'honesty,' from honestus; sôlicitás, for sôlicit-i̯itéa, 'solicitude,' from sôlicitás.

1. Other Examples are—

Audá-i̯a, 'boldness,' from audái̯a, 'bold'; júst-i̯a, 'justice,' from jústus, 'just'; sæv-i̯a, 'cruelty,' from sævus, 'cruel'; senec-i̯a, 'old age,' from senec, 'old'; aequál-i̯a, 'equality,' from aequalís, 'equal'; cír-i̯a, 'dearness,' from círus, 'dear'; anxí-tás, 'anxiety,' from anxius, 'anxious'; alti̯itéa, 'height,' from altus, 'high'; fort-i̯itéa, 'bravery,' from fortes, 'brave'; mág-ni̯itéa, 'greatness,' from mágnis, 'great.'

III. Nouns FROM Verbs AND FROM Roots.

326. From the Stems of Verbs and from Roots are formed numerous nouns with the suffixes—

| suffix | meaning 
|--------|--------
| pa-ter | father, from the root pa, to protect. 
| frá-ter | brother, “ bhrá, fra, to support. 
| amá-tor | lover, “ amá-re, to love. 
| audi-tor | hearer, “ audi-re, to hear. 
| défén-sor | defender, “ défend-ere, to defend. 
| vén-tor | hunter, “ vén-r, to hunt. 
| véná-trix | huntress, “ 
| guberna-trix | directress, “ guberna-re, to direct. 
| ará-trum | plough, “ ará-re, to plough. 
| ród-trum | beak, “ ród-ere, to gnaw. 
| píc-tor | painter, “ ping-ere, to paint. 
| píc-túra | painting, “ 
| ú-súra | using, “ út-i̯, to use. 
| audi-tus | hearing, “ audi-re, to hear. 
| vt-sús | sight, “ vid-ere, to see. 
| audi-tíō | hearing, “ audi-re, to hear. 
| moní-tíō | advising, “ moné-re, to advise. 
| vt-síō | seeing, “ vid-ere, to see. 
| leg-i̯ō | a selecting, “ leg-ere, to select. 
| occís-i̯ō | a slaying, “ occid-ere, to slay.

1 These endings appear to be true suffixes, as they do not contain the stem-vowel of the primitive.

2 For the phonetic change by which t in tor, tūra, etc., unites with a preceding d or t and produces ss or s, as in défend-tor, défensór, see 35, 8, 2).

3 On ter, tor, tríx, and tūra, see tar, trão; on tus and tīō, see tu and ti; and on i̯ō, see ja, 320.

4 For ród-trum; see 35, 8, 1).

5 For ú-túra, úd-tus, úd-tíō; see 35, 8, 2).

6 From stem moní, seen in moni-tum.
NOUNS.

1. Ter, tor, and trix designate the agent of doer; trum, the means of the action; and tuba, tus, tib, and ib, the act itself; see examples. But nouns in tus and ib sometimes become concreted, and denote the result of the action: quaes-tus, ‘gain,’ from quaes-ere, ‘to gain’; leg-id, ‘a selecting’ and then ‘a legion’ (the men selected), from leg-ere, ‘to select’; exerci-tus, ‘exercise,’ ‘drill,’ and then ‘an army’ (a collection of trained men), from exerci-re, ‘to exercise.’

2. Us, a, d1 sometimes designate the agent of the action: coqu-us = coquus, cook, from coqu-ere, to cook; scrib-a, writer, from scrib-ere; err-d, wanderer, from err-are.


Note 2.—For nouns in ib from the stems of other nouns, see 324, with 1.

3. Other Examples are—


327. From the Stems of Verbs and from Roots are formed nouns with the suffixes—

or, us, ës, ës, ëm, en, men, mentum, mònia, mònum, bulum, culum, brum, orum, num.

1 O and d, the stems of us and a, are only different forms of the suffix a; and ën, the stem of ën, is from the suffix an; see 320.

2 Root via.

3 With the compound suffix es-trum, from as-tra; see as and tra, 320.

4 Root ad.

5 See 33, 1.

6 Observe change in quantity: ag-ere, ag-tus; see Gelius, IX., 6.

7 On the forms buiuni, bruni, culumi, orumi, see 35, 2, foot-note 8.

8 On or (for or), us, and ës, see as; on ës and ëm, see 3a; on en, see an; on men, mentum, mònia, and mònum, see man; on num, see na—all in 320; on buiuni, bruni, culumi, orumi, see Cursen, II., p. 40.
am-or, | love, | from | am-āre, | to love.
tim-or, | fear, | " | tim-ēre, | to fear.
gen-us, | birth, | " | gen is gign-ere, | to bear.
frigus, | cold, | " | frig-ere,1 | to be cold.
sēd-ēs, | seat, | " | sed-ēre, | to sit.
fac-īs, | make, face, | " | fac-ere, | to make.
gaud-ium, | joy, | " | gaud-ēre, | to rejoice.
stud-ium, | zeal, study, | " | stud-ēre, | to be zealous.
pect-en, | a comb, | " | pect-ere, | to comb.
flī-men, | a stream, | " | flī-ere, | to flow.
ōrā-mentum, | ornament, | " | ērnā-re, | to adorn.
quēri-mōnia, | complaint, | " | quaer-, | to complain.
al-mōniōm, | nourishment, | " | ale-re, | to nourish.
vocā-bulum, | appellation, | " | vocā-re, | to call.
vehī-culum, | vehicle, | " | vehē-re, | to carry.
dēlū-brum, | shrine, | " | dēlū-ere, | to cleanse.
simulā-crum, | image, | " | simulā-re, | to represent.
rēg-num, | reign, | " | reg-ere, | to rule.

1. Or, us, ēs, īs, and īnum generally designate the action or state denoted by the verb, but ēs, īs, and īnum sometimes designate the result of the action: aedificium, ‘edifice,’ from aedific-āre, ‘to build.’

2. Men, mentum, mōnia, mōniōm, and īnum generally designate the means of the action, or its involuntary subject, sometimes the act itself, or its result: flī-men, ‘a stream,’ ‘something which flows,’ from flī-ere; ag-men, ‘an army in motion,’ from ag-ere.

Note.—The stem or root is sometimes shortened or changed: mō-mentum, ‘moving force,’ from mov-āre.

3. Bulum, culum, brum, and crum designate the instrument or the place of the action: vehī-culum, ‘vehicle’ (instrument of the action), from vehē-re; stā-bulum, ‘stall’ (place of the action), from stā-re.

Note.—The vowel of the stem is sometimes changed: sepulcrum, ‘sepulchre,’ from sepel-īre, ‘to bury’; see 24, 8.

4. In culum, o is dropped after e and y: vīnc-ūlum, ‘a bond,’ from vīnc-ēre; reg-ula, ‘rule,’ from reg-ere.

Note.—Dū, la, āgū, ēgū,2 and a few other endings also occur: torpē-dū, ‘numbness,’ from torpē-re, ‘to be numb;’ cūmpā-dū, ‘desire,’ from cūmpā-re, ‘to desire;’ candē-la, ‘candle,’ from candē-re, ‘to shine;’ cor-āgū, ‘whirlpool,’ from cor-ēre, ‘to swallow up;’ cert-īgū, ‘a turn,’ from cert-ēre, ‘to turn.’

5. Other Examples are—

Splen-dōr, ‘brightness,’ from splend-āre, ‘to be bright;’ op-us, ‘work,’ from the root op for ap, ‘work;’ dec-us, ‘ornament,’ from root dec, in dec-ēt,

---

1 In several of these examples the noun is not strictly derived from the verb, but both noun and verb are formed from one common root, as frig-us and frig-ere from the root frīg.

2 Sed-ēre and sed-ēs show a variable root-vowel—e, ē; see 20, note 2.

3 See Cursæn, L., p. 577; II, pp. 802, 808.
ADJECTIVES.

"it is becoming"; nāb-ēs, 'cloud,' from the root nāb in nāb-ēre, 'to veil'; spec-ēs, 'look,' from spec-ēre, 'to look'; effug-ēs, 'escape,' from effug-ēre, 'to escape'; imper-ēs, 'command,' from imper-ēre, 'to command'; certā-men, 'content,' from certā-re, 'to contend'; docu-mentum, 'lesson,' 'document,' from doc-ūre, 'to teach'; nātri-mentum, 'nourishment,' from nātri-re, 'to nourish'; pā-bulum, 'fodder,' from the root pā in pā-sare, 'to feed'; specū-ulum, 'sight,' from specū-ēre, 'to behold'; lu-ūrum, 'gain,' from lu-ūre, 'to pay'; ðō-num, 'gift,' from the root ðō in ðō-re, 'to give.'

FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES BY SUFFIXES.

I. ADJECTIVES FROM NOUNS.

328. FULLNESS.—Adjectives denoting fullness, abundance, supply, generally end in—

ēsus, oēsus, īēs, lēntus, tus.  

anim-ēsus, full of courage, from animus, spirit, courage.  
frāctu-ēsus, fruitful, from frāctus, fruit.  
belli-ōsus, warlike, from bellum, war.  
pesti-lēns, pestilential, from pestis, pest.  
vīno-lentus, full of wine, from vīnum, wine.  
fraudu-lentus, fraudulent, from fraudus, fraud.  
ālā-tus, winged, from alas, wing.  
turrī-tus, turreted, from turris, turret.  
cornu-tus, horned, from cornu, horn.  
jūs-tus, just, from jus, right.  

Note.—Before ðēsus the stem-vowel is generally dropped, but u is retained: animo-ðeus, animo-ðeus, but frācto-ðeus.

1. OTHER EXAMPLES ARE—

Ann-ēsus, 'full of years,' from annus, 'year'; lūxuri-ōsus, 'luxurious,' from luxuria, 'luxury'; periscul-ōsus, 'dangerous,' from periculum, 'danger'; tenebro-ōsus and tenebro-ōsus, 'gloomy,' from tenebrae, 'gloom'; turbu-lentus, 'riotous,' from turbus, 'riot'; barbu-tus, 'bearded,' from barba, 'beard'; aurī-tus, 'long eared,' from auris, 'ear'; onus-tus, 'burdened,' from onus, 'burden.'

329. MATERIAL.—Adjectives designating the material of which anything is made generally end in—

1 With modified stem or root: doct, docu; da, dō.
2 On ðēus, see Schleicher, p. 408; Corsten, I, p. 62; II, p. 588. ðēus is from co and ðēs; thus from bellum, 'war,' is formed bell-ūs, 'belonging to war'; and from bell-ūs is formed bellīco-ūs, bellīco-lēus, 'warlike.' On tēne, lentus, see ra, la, 320. The vowel before tēne, lentus—generally u, sometimes o or e—was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive, as in vīno-lentus, pesti-lēns, pesti-lentus, but it was sometimes treated as a part of the suffix: vīl-ōlentus, 'violent,' from vitis, 'force.' Tus is identical with tus in the passive participle, and when added to vowel-stems is preceded by d, s, or u: alā-tus, turri-tus, cornu-tus, like amid-tus, audi-tus, aºl-tus ('sharpened,' from aºlu-o, 'to sharpen'). It may, however, be added to consonant-stems: jūs-tus.
### Derivation of Words

**eus, nus, neus, écus, icsus.**

| Latin Form | English Meaning | Origin 
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aur-eus</td>
<td>golden</td>
<td>from aurum, gold.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>argent-eus</td>
<td>of silver</td>
<td>from argentum, silver.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fág-eus</td>
<td>of beech</td>
<td>from fāga, a beech.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fág-icus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pópul-icus</td>
<td>of poplar</td>
<td>from pópulus, a poplar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pópul-icus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>papyr-icus</td>
<td>of papyrus</td>
<td>from papyrus, papyrus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>later-icus</td>
<td>of brick</td>
<td>from later, brick.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes.—These endings sometimes denote characteristic or possession: virgineus, belonging to a maiden.

### Characteristic

**330. Characteristic.**—Adjectives signifying belonging to, derived from, generally end in—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin Form</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>civi-icus</td>
<td>relating to a citizen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patri-icus</td>
<td>paternal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nátó-ális</td>
<td>natural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mort-ális</td>
<td>mortal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>host-ális</td>
<td>hostile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>civ-ális</td>
<td>relating to a citizen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oppid-ális</td>
<td>of the town</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>urb-ális</td>
<td>of the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mar-ális</td>
<td>marine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>equi-ális</td>
<td>of, pertaining to a horse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lun-ális</td>
<td>lunar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>salut-ális</td>
<td>salutary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auxili-ális</td>
<td>auxiliary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rég-ális</td>
<td>royal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drátor-ális</td>
<td>of an orator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for-ális</td>
<td>forensic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. On *eus*, stem *eo*, see Cornes, II, pp. 348-348; Bopp, III, p. 429; on *nus*, see no, 320. *Neus* adds *eus* to *no*, seen in *nus*; *deus* adds *eus* to *do*, seen in *do* (333, foot-note 2); and *eo-icus* adds *eus* to *eo* or *eo*; see *ja*, 320, and *ecus*, 330.

2. Stem-vowel changed to *é* before *sus* and *neus*.

3. Stem-vowel dropped before *sus* and *neus*.

4. On *eus*, see *ea*, 320. In *eus*, *é* was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive, but was finally treated as a part of the suffix, as in *pair-eus*. In the same way the vowels *á* and *í* in *ális, ális, áris, árius, ánea*, and *éus* were developed from the stem-vowels of the primitives; thus in such words as *doc-i-ús, ‘docile,’* from *doc-er-us*, the suffix seems to have been originally *áus*, but at length the preceding *í* was treated as a part of the suffix, making *ális*. If now *ális* be added to *hosti*-us, the stem of *hosti*-us, we shall have *hosti-ális = hosti-ús*; or, with Cornes, we may suppose that from *hostus* was formed the verb *hosti-er-,* and that the ending *ális* was added directly to *hosti*, making *hosti-ális*. The long initial vowel in other endings is supposed to have had a similar origin. *Alis, ális, and áris* are virtually the same suffix, as *á* and *â* are interchangeable; see *ra, la*, foot-note, 330. *Árius = ári-us*. On *eáus, énaus*, and *éus*, see *ja* and *no*, 320; on *eáus*, see Cornes, I, pp. 69, 254; II, pp. 668, 719.

5. But *drátor* is formed from *drátor-er-um* by adding *erum* to the stem; see 336.
ADJECTIVES.

1. Elster or estris, timus, itimus, ticus; tinus, and a few other endings occur: terr-ester or terr-estris, 'terrestrial,' from terra, 'earth'; maritimus, 'maritime,' from mare, 'sea'; lég-itimus, 'lawful,' from léx, légis, 'law'; rú-s-icus, 'rustic,' from rú-s, 'country'; vát-i-cinus, 'prophetic,' from vátis, 'prophet.'

2. Other Examples are—


331. Adjectives from proper nouns generally end in—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin Name</th>
<th>English Name</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>English Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sull-ánus,</td>
<td>of Sulla</td>
<td>from</td>
<td>Sulla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Róm-ánus,</td>
<td>Roman</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Rome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mari-ánus,</td>
<td>of Marius</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Marius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cicerón-ánus,</td>
<td>Ciceroian</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Cicero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lat-ánus,</td>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Latium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plaut-ánus,</td>
<td>of Plautus</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Plautus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corinth-ánus,</td>
<td>Corinthian</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Corinth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corinth-íacus,</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Britann-íacus,</td>
<td>British</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Britton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cann-énais,</td>
<td>of Cannae</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Cannae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athén-énais,</td>
<td>Athenian</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Athens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ídén-ás,</td>
<td>of Ídenae</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Ídeneae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smyrn-aeus,</td>
<td>Smyrnean</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Smyrna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pythagor-ás,</td>
<td>Pythagorean</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Pythagoras</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Ánus and iánum are the endings generally used in derivatives from Names of Persons; but others also occur.

Notes 1.—Many of these adjectives from names of places are also used substantively as Patrial or Gentile Nouns to designate the citizens of the place: Corinthii, the Corinthians; Athénénaís, the Athenians.

Notes 2.—The Roman Genti or clanes were all designated by adjectives in ius, as giones Cornélius, giones Sólaea.

1 The ending ester or estris may be formed by adding ter or tris to es from the suffix as (320); but see Corresen, II., p. 549.
2 On š-ús, š-ús, and š-ús, see in, ma, sa, 320.
3 When appended to vowel stems, these endings take the place of the stem-vowel: Sull-ánus. In fact, ánus is formed by the union of the stem-vowel with the suffix. So in Mari-ánus, but in examples like this the i before ánus was finally treated as a part of the suffix, making iánum, as seen in Ciceroán-ánus. ánus in Lat-ánus contains to, from Lat-ió, the stem of Latium.
DERIVATION OF WORDS.

Note 3.—An adjective in *ius*, used substantively, formed a part of the name of every distinguished Roman, and designated the *gens* to which he belonged; see Roman Names, 649.

II. ADJECTIVES FROM ADJECTIVES.

332. Diminutives from other adjectives generally end like diminutive nouns (321) in—

- *lus, ulus, culus.*
- *ēbrio-lus, somewhat drunken,* from *ēbrius,* drunken.
- *aureo-lus, golden,* from *aureus,* golden.
- *long-ulus, rather long,* from *longus,* long.
- *pauper-ulus, rather poor,* from *pauper,* poor.

Note 1.—The endings *ellus* and *illus* also occur as in nouns (321, 4): *nov-ellus,* ‘new,’ from *novus,* ‘new.’

Note 2.—*Olius* is sometimes added to comparatives: *dūr-lus-culus,* ‘somewhat hard,’ from *dūrior,* *dūrius,* ‘harder.’

III. ADJECTIVES FROM VERBS AND FROM ROOTS.

333. Verbal adjectives generally end in—

- *bundus,* *cundus,* *dus,* *bils,* *tilis,* *sils,* *ils,* *āx.*
- *mīrā-bundus,* wondering, from *mīrā-rī,* to wonder.
- *call-dus,* warm, “ calē-re,” to be warm.
- *pavil-dus,* fearful, “ pavē-re,” to fear.
- *amā-bils,* worthy of love, “ amā-re,” to love.
- *dūcils,* ductile, “ dūcere,” to lead.
- *flec-illis,* flexible, “ fleece-ere,” to turn.
- *pūgnā-āx,* pugnacious, “ pūgnāre,” to fight.

1. *Bundus* and *cundus* have nearly the force of the present participle; but *bundus* is somewhat more expressive than the participle: *laeta-bundus,* rejoicing greatly; and *cundus* generally denotes some characteristic rather than a single act or feeling: *versā-cundus,* diffident.

2. *Dus* retains the simple meaning of the verb.

3. *Bils,* *tilis,* *sils,* and *ils* denote capability, generally in a passive sense: *amābilis,* capable or worthy of being loved; sometimes in an active sense: *terribilis,* terrible, capable of producing terror.

1 See p. 158, foot-note 6.
2 *Bundus* is explained by Corssen and others as formed by appending *undus,* *endus,* the Gerundive suffix, to *bundus,* as seen in *fert; cundus,* by adding the same suffix to *co* (29, 320); see Corssen, II, pp. 310–312. On *dus,* see Corssen, II, pp. 309, 392; on *ils,* see *rā, la,* 320; and on *bils,* 320, foot-note 1; also Corssen, I, pp. 146–147; on *tilis* and *sils,* Corssen, II, pp. 41, 332. The ending *das = d-e-s* is for *d-co-s,* in which *d* was originally the stem vowel of an *d-verb:* thus *pūgnā-ād-co-s* becomes *pūgnā-er-co,* *pūgnāds.*
3 *Flec-illis = fleece-illis,* see 35, 8, 9).
VERBS.

4. Ἀξ denotes inclination, generally a faulty one: logudx, loquacious.
5. Ćus, ĕcus, ācus, āus, ὄus, ἕus, tīvus, tīcīus, īus, and ulus ¹ also occur:

Medi-cus, 'healing,' 'medical,' from medi-rit, 'to heal'; am-icus, 'friendly,' from am-āre, 'to love'; cad-ācus, 'falling,' 'inclined to fall,' from cad-ere, 'to fall'; sal-ācus, 'safe,' from root sal, 'whole,' 'sound'; noc-ōus and noc-ivus, 'hurtful,' from noc-ēre, 'to hurt'; cap-tĭvus, 'captive,' from cap-ere, 'to take'; fīcĭcĭus, for fig-tĭcĭus, 'feigned,' from fig, the root of fing-ere, 'to form,' 'fashion,' 'select,' 'choice,' from exĭm-ere, 'to select out'; cred-ŭlus, 'creduulous,' from cred-ere, 'to believe.'

6. Other Examples are—

Lădi-bundus, 'sportive,' 'playful,' from lăde-re, 'to play'; ridi-bundus, 'laughing,' from rīde-re, 'to laugh'; fā-cundus, 'eloquent,' from fā-rit, 'to speak;' jū-cundus, for juv-cundus, 'pleasant,' from juv-āre, 'to aid,' 'delight'; avĭ-dues, 'greedy,' from avĕ-re, 'to long for'; cupĭ-dues, 'desirous,' from cupĕ-re, 'to desire'; timĭ-dues, 'timid,' from timĕ-re, 'to fear;' făci-lĭs, 'easy,' 'capability of being done,' from fæce-re, 'to do'; nūbi-lĭs, 'marriageable,' from nūbe-re, 'to marry;' utĭ-lĭs, 'useful,' from utĭ, 'to use;' crădĭ-bĭlis, 'credible,' from crăde-re, 'to believe;' terribĭlis, 'terrible,' from terrĕ-re, 'to terrify;' laudă-bĭlis, 'praiseworthy,' from laudă-re, 'to praise;' fertĭlis, 'fertile,' from fer-re, 'to bear;' cap-ăx, 'capacious,' from cap-ere, 'to take;' ten-ăx, 'tenacious,' from tenĕ-re, 'to hold.'

IV. ADJECTIVES FROM ADVERBS AND PREPOSITIONS.

334. A few adjectives are formed from adverbs and prepositions: ²

crās-tĭnus, of to-morrow, from crās, to-morrow.
contrā-rĭus, contrary, " contrā, against.
inter-nus, internal, " inter, among, within.
super-bus, haughty, " super, above.
super-nus, upper, " "

FORMATION OF VERBS BY SUFFIXES.

I. VERBS FROM NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

335. Verbs formed from nouns and adjectives are called De-

ominatives. They end in—

Conj. I. Conj. II. Conj. III. Conj. IV.
ō, ā-re, ēō, ē-re, ūō, ūe-re, ³ iō, i-re. ⁴

¹ Pus, uus, and t-eus are only different forms of the same suffix; uus was formed by vocalizing v in unus; t-eus, by adding eus to the stem-vowel t; noc-t-eus, as if from a verb, noc-t-ere = noc-ere. The other endings are composed of elements already explained.
² But adverbs and prepositions are in origin case-forms; see 304; 307, note 1.
³ Conjugation III. contains primitive verbs with a few derivatives.
⁴ According to Curtius and others, the suffix which was added to the stems of nouns and adjectives to form verbs was originally ja, pronounced ja, probably identical with i,
### DERIVATION OF WORDS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>căr-</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to care for</td>
<td>căr-</td>
<td>care.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fug-</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to put to flight</td>
<td>fug-</td>
<td>flight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>păgn-</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to fight</td>
<td>păgn-</td>
<td>battle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bell-</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to carry on war</td>
<td>bell-</td>
<td>war.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dôn-</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to give</td>
<td>dôn-</td>
<td>gift.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>firm-</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to make firm</td>
<td>firm-</td>
<td>firm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>labôr-</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to labor</td>
<td>labòr</td>
<td>labor.</td>
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<tr>
<td>liber-</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to liberate</td>
<td>liber</td>
<td>free.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nômn-</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to name</td>
<td>nômn-</td>
<td>name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alb-es</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to be white</td>
<td>alb-us</td>
<td>white.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clar-</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to make bright</td>
<td>clar-</td>
<td>bright.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clar-es</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to be bright</td>
<td>clar</td>
<td>bright.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flôr-es</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to bloom</td>
<td>flôs</td>
<td>flower.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lûc-es</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to shine</td>
<td>lûx</td>
<td>light.</td>
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<tr>
<td>met-ù</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to fear</td>
<td>met-us</td>
<td>fear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stat-ù</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to place</td>
<td>stat-us</td>
<td>position.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fin-î</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to finish</td>
<td>fin-is</td>
<td>end.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moll-î</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to soften</td>
<td>moll-is</td>
<td>soft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vêst-î</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to clothe</td>
<td>vêst-is</td>
<td>garment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serv-î</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to serve</td>
<td>serv-us</td>
<td>servant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>custîd-î</td>
<td>-ăre-</td>
<td>to guard</td>
<td>custîs</td>
<td>guardian.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:**

1. **Nomina 1.—** Denominatives of the second conjugation are intransitive, but most of the others are transitive.

2. **Nomina 2.—** Derivatives, like other verbs, may of course be deponent: *dominor, ârij, to dominate; miror, ârij, to wonder at; mirus, wonderful; partior, ârij, to part, divide; from pars, partis, part.*

3. **Other Examples are—**
   
   *Culp-âre, to find fault; from culp-ă, fault; glorî-ârij, to boast, glory; nov-âre, to make new; from novus, new; regîn-âre, to reign; from regînum, royal power; lev-âre, to lighten; from levis, light; hono-r-âre, to honor; from honor, honor; laud-âre, to praise; from laus = laud-ă, praise; sauc-âre, to be fierce; from saevus, fierce.*

The root of *îra*, to go. This suffix added to a, the original stem-vowel of most nouns and adjectives, formed *a-*ja, still preserved in the ending *ajus-* in a large class of Sanskrit verbs. From this compound suffix *ais* are derived in Latin, in the first conjugation, (1) *a*, contracted to *o*: căr-ais *câr-ajos* for căr-ais for căr-ajos; (2) *a*: căr-ais, shortened to *a* in căr-ais for căr-ait; in the second conjugation, (1) *o*: lûc-ais for lûc-ajos for lûc-ajos; (2) *e*: lûc-es, shortened to *e* in lûc-ès for lûc-ët; and in the fourth conjugation, (1) *o* and *e*: serv-îo for serv-ajos for serv-ajos, serv-ius-nt for serv-ajus-nt for serv-ajus-nt; and (2) *i*: serv-îs, shortened to *i* in serv-ît for serv-ît; see Bopp, *L*, pp. 287-289; Curtius, *Verbum*, I, pp. 222, 326-348; Schleicher, pp. 356-361. For an objection to this explanation of the a-verbs, see Corssen, *L*, pp. 738-738. On final *o* of the first person, see 847, 1, foot-note 5.—The suffix *ja*, added to original *t-* stems, formed *jajis* and gave rise to *a-*verbs: *fina* = *fin-î-jo = fin-*jias*; and added to *u-*stems, it formed *jos* and gave rise to *a-*verbs: *met-ùjis* = *met-î-jo* = met-*ajis*. In general, *a-*stems give rise to *a-*verbs: căr-ajos, căr-ajos; *a-*stems, sometimes to *a-*verbs, sometimes to *e-*verbs, and sometimes to *i-*verbs: firmus, stem *firmo, firm-à-ru; altius, stem alt-uo, alt-à-ru; servus, stem serv-â, serv-à-ru; consonant stems, to *a-*verbs, *e-*verbs, or *i-*verbs, after the analogy of vowel stems: labor for labor, labor-à-ru; flôs, flôs-î-jo for flôs-î-jo (31, 1); custîos, stem *custîs, custîs-î-ru.*
II. VERBS FROM VERBS. 1

336. FREQUENTATIVES or INTENSIVES denote repeated, continued, or intense action. They are generally of the first conjugation, and are formed—

I. From the stem of the participle 2 in tus or sus:

- cantō, are, to sing, from cantus from canō, to sing. 3
- captō, are, to snatch, " captus " capiō, to take.
- datō, are, to give often, " datus " dō, to give.
- habitō, are, to inhabit, " habitus " habēō, to have.
- quassō, are, to shake violently, " quassus " quattō, to shake.
- territō, are, to frighten often, " territus " terrēō, to frighten.

II. From the present stem, by adding tō and changing the preceding vowel to i, if not already in that form: 4

- agītō, are, to shake, from agō, to move, lead.
- clamītō, are, to shout often, " clamō, " clamō, to shout.
- rogītō, are, to ask eagerly, " rogō, " rogō, to ask.
- vocītō, are, to call often, " vocō, " vocō, to call.
- volītō, are, to sit about, " volō, " volō, to fly.

Notes 1.—Frequentatives are sometimes formed from other frequentatives: 5 cantītō, 'to sing often,' from cantō from canō; dictītō, 'to say often,' from dictō from dictō.

Note 2.—A few derivatives in essē and esse also occur. They are intensive in force, denoting earnest rather than repeated action, and are of the third conjugation: factō, factēō, 'to do earnestly'; incipīō, incipīsēō, 'to begin eagerly.'

1. OTHER EXAMPLES are—

Dictō, 'to say often,' from dictō, 'to say'; spectō, 'to behold,' from speciō, 'to look at'; factō, 'to do often,' from factō, 'to do,' 'make'; imperītō, 'to command often,' from imperō, 'to command,' 'rapiō, 'to snatch,' from rapiō, 'to seize.'

337. INCEPTIVES or INCHOATIVES denote the beginning of the action. They are of the third conjugation, and end in secō:

1 Either directly or through the medium of nouns, adjectives, or participles.
2 They are thus strictly denominatives (335). Intransitive verbs, though without the participle in tus or sus, may form frequentatives after the analogy of transitive verbs: curōtō, are, 'to run about,' formed as if from cursus from curō, 'to run'; sentitō, are, 'to come often,' formed as if from sentus, from sentō, 'to come.'
3 Remember that the stem of the participle ends in o; thus cantus = canto-o. Observe, therefore, that the verb cantō, 'I sing,' is in form like the stem of the participle. Canto was, however, originally produced by adding ās to canto, the original stem of cantus, making canta-ās, cantaīō, cantaō, canta; see also 335, foot-note.
4 The formation from the participle was doubtless the original method, but at length tu was regarded as the suffix, and was accordingly added to present stems, and as in many cases i preceded, the stem-vowel finally took this form before the suffix tu; see Corssen, II., p. 297.
5 Sometimes from frequentatives no longer in use: actītō, 'to act often,' as if from actō, not in use, from agō; scribītō, 'to write often,' as if from scribō, not in use, from scribō.
COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

gel-ā-scō, to begin to freeze, from gel-ā, a-re, to freeze.
cal-ē-SCō, to become warm, " cal-ē, e-re, to be warm.
rub-ē-scō, to grow red, " rub-ē, e-re, to be red.
vir-ē-scō, to grow green, " vir-ē, e-re, to be green.
trem-ē-scō, to begin to tremble, " trem-ē, e-re, to tremble.
odborm-lō-scō, to fall asleep, " odborm-lō, l-re, to sleep.

338. Desideratives denote a desire to perform the action. They are of the fourth conjugation, and end in turīō or surīō:

par-turīō, Ire, to strive to bring forth, from parīō, to bring forth.
ē-surīō, Ire, to desire to eat, " edō, to eat."

339. Diminutives denote a feeble action. They are of the first conjugation, and end in illo:

cant-illō, to sing feeably, from canto, to sing.
conscrib-illō, to scribble, " conscribō, to write.

Note.—For the Derivation of Adverbs, see 304.

SECTION III.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

340. New words may be formed—

I. By the union of two or more words under one principal accent, without change of meaning:

Rēs pāública, república, republic; agrī cultura, agricultūra, agriculture;
jurīs cōnsultius, jurīsconsultius, lawyer, one skilled in the law; quem ad mo-
dum, quemadmodum, in what way—lit., to what measure.

Note.—These are compounds only in form. The separate words retain in a great measure their identity both in form and in meaning, and may in fact be written separately. Rēs pāública is the approved form. Other examples of this class are: légis-lātor, law-
giver; pater-familiās, father of a family; sententīās-cōnsultum, decree of the senate; mō-
tenus, thus far; saepe-numero, often in number; bene-faécto, to do well, benefit; male-
dicto, to revile; satisfecīto, to satisfy, do enough for; animūm-ad-verbō, anim-ad-verbō,
to notice, turn the mind to.

II. By prefixing an indeclinable particle to an inflected word, generally with some change of meaning:

Ad-sum, to be present; de-pōnō, to lay down; re-pōnō, to replace; de-disco,
to learn by heart; im-memor, unmindful; per-facīlis, very easy; prō-cōnsul,

1 These are the only desideratives in common use, but a few others occur: cēnā-turīō, 'to desire to dine,' from cēnō, 'to dine'; ēmp-turīō, 'to desire to purchase,' from ēno, 'to purchase'; nūp-turīō, 'to desire to marry,' from nūbō, 'to marry.' They were probably formed originally through the medium of a verbal noun in tur or sor (326, foot-note 2): thus, cēnō, cēnā-tor, 'one who dines'; cēnā-tor-l-re = cēnā-tur-l-re (o changed to u), 'to desire to dine'; ēno, ēmp-tor, 'a purchaser'; ēmp-tor-l-re = ēmp-tur-l-re, 'to desire to purchase.'

2 Probably denominatives formed from verb-stems through diminutive verbal nouns.
proconsul, one acting for a consul; *inter-rēgnum*, interregnum, an interval between two reigns.

III. By uniting two or more simple stems or roots, and adding appropriate inflectional suffixes when needed: ¹

*Ignī-tīrōler*, fire-colored; *grandī-aevō-s*, grandaevis, a, um, of great age; *omnī-potent-s*, omnipotens, omnipotent; *māgrō-anīmō-s*, māgnanimus, a, um, great-souled; *tūbī-cen*, trumpeter; *artī-fex-s*, artificer; *alī-quis*, any one.

1. In the first element of the compound observe—

1) That the stem-vowel generally takes the form of *i*: *capro-cornu-s*, *capri-cornus*, *tuba-cen*, *tubi-cen*.

2) That consonant stems sometimes assume *i*: *hōnōr-i-fico-s*, *hōnōrificus*, a, um, honorable.

3) That the stem-vowel disappears before another vowel: *māgno-anīmō-s*, *mēgnānīmum*.

2. The stem-ending and the inflectional ending of the second element generally remain unchanged in the compound; see examples above. But observe—

1) That they are sometimes slightly changed: *aequō-nocti-s*, *aequō-noctio-m*, *aquinōcticum*, equinox; *multa-forma*, *multi-formis*, with many forms.

2) That a verbal root or stem may be the second element in a compound noun or adjective: *tūbī-cen* (cen = can, the root of canō, to sing), trumpeter; *lētī-fer* (fer, root of ferō, to bear), death-bearing.

Norm.—The words classed under II. and III. are regarded as real compounds, but those under III. best illustrate the distinctive characteristics of genuine compounds, as they are formed from compound stems and have a meaning which could not be expressed by the separate words. Thus, *mēgnus animus* means a great soul, but *mēgnānīmum* means having a great soul. ⁴

341. In Compound Nouns, the first part is generally the stem of a noun or adjective, sometimes an adverb or preposition; and the second part is the stem of a noun, or a stem from a verbal root:

| artī-fex, | *artist* | from artī-*fac* in *ars* and *faciō*. |
| capri-cornus, | *capricorn* | " capro-cornu " caper " cornū. |
| aequō-noctium, | *aequinox* | " aequo-nocti " aequus " nox. |
| nē-mē, | *nobody* | " nē-homon " nē " homē. |
| prō-nōmen, | *pronoun* | " prō-nōmen " prō " nōmen. |

¹ Thus *ignī-color* is formed by the union of two stems without inflectional suffix; but in *grandī-aevō-s*, the suffix *s* is added to the stem *grandaevis*, compounded of *grandi* and *aevē*.

² Literally, *any other one*.

³ If, the stem-ending of *nocē*, becomes *tiō*, to which is added the nominative-ending *s*.

⁴ Class II. occupies a position intermediate between I. and III. Some compounds of particles with verbs, for example, have developed a meaning quite distinct from that denoted by the separate parts, while others have simply retained the ordinary meaning of those parts.
1. Compounds in ex, dex, fex, cen, cida, and cola deserve special notice:

Remo-ex, rēnex,1 oarsman; jūs-dex, judex,1 judge; arti-fex, artist; tibia-cen, tībī-cen,2 flute-player; homon-cida, homī-cida,3 manslayer; agri-cola,4 husbandman, one who tills the soil.

Note.—Ex (for ag-š) is from the root ag in āgō, to drive, impel; dēx (for dic-e), from dic in dicio, to make known; fēx (for fac-e), from fac in faciō, to make; cen, from can in canō, to sing; cida (for casēd-a), from casēd in casēdō, to cut, slay; cola (for col-a), from col in colō, to cultivate.

342. In Compound Adjectives, the first part is generally the stem of a noun or adjective, sometimes an adverb or preposition; and the second is the stem of a noun or adjective, or a stem from a verbal root:

lēti-fer, death-bearing, from lēti-fer in lētum and ferō.
per-facilis, very easy, “per-facili “per “facilis.

1. Compounds in ceps, fer, ger, dicus, fīcus, and volus deserve notice:

Parti-ceps, taking part; aurī-fer, gold-bearing; armi-ger, carrying arms; fāti-dicus, predicting fate; mirī-ficus, causing wonder; bene-volus, well-wishing.

Note.—Ceps (for cap-s) is from the root cap in capiō, to take; fer, from fer in ferō, to bear; ger, from ger in gerō, to carry; dicus (for dic-o-s), from dic in dicio, to make known; fīcus (for fac-o-s), from fac in faciō, to make; volus (for vol-o-s), from vol in volō, to wish.

343. Compound Nouns and Adjectives are divided according to signification into three classes:

I. Determinative Compounds, in which the second part is qualified by the first:

Inter-rēx, interrex; mērī-dīcēs,6 midday; bene-volus, well-wishing; per-māgnus, very great; in-dignus, unworthy.

II. Objective Compounds, in which the second part is limited by the first as object:

Prin-ceps, taking the first place; belli-ger, waging war; jūs-dex, judge, one who dispenses (makes known) justice; homi-cida, one who slays a man; agri-cola, one who tills the field. See other examples in 342, 1.

III. Possessive Compounds, in origin mostly adjectives. They desig-

---

1 O is dropped in rēnex, and s in jūdes; see 97; 36, 8, note 3.
2 A, weakened to i, unites with the preceding i, forming i.
3 Y dropped, and e weakened to i; see 36, 8, note 8.
4 The stem-vowel o of agro is weakened to i: agrī; see 99.
6 From medium and dīcēs.
nate qualities or attributes as possessed by some person or thing, and are
often best rendered by supplying having or possessing:

\textit{Aemis-pes}, having bronze feet; \textit{celeri-pes}, swift-footed; \textit{alli-pes}, wing-footed,
having wings for feet; \textit{magn-animus}, having a great soul; \textit{en-animus},
having one mind; \textit{long-aeurus}, of great age, having a long life.

\textbf{344. Compound Verbs.}—Verbs in general are compounded
only with prepositions, originally adverbs:

\textit{Ab-\textit{eo}}, to go away; \textit{ex-\textit{eo}}, to go out; \textit{prod-\textit{eo}}, to go forth; \textit{con-\textit{oc\textit{eo}}}, to call
together; \textit{de-\textit{ico}}, to fall off; \textit{prae-\textit{ico}}, to foretell; \textit{re-\textit{ico}}, to lead back;
\textit{re-\textit{icio}}, to repair, to make anew.

1. \textit{Facio} and \textit{ficio} may also unite with verbal stems in \textit{e}:

\textit{Calc-facio}, to make warm; \textit{calc-ficio}, to be made warm, become warm;
\textit{labe-facio}, to cause to totter; \textit{pate-facio}, to open, cause to be open.

2. Verbs are often united with other words in writing without strictly
forming compounds:

\textit{Man\textit{u-mitto} or manu-mitto}, to emancipate, let go from the hand; \textit{satis
faco} or \textit{satis-facio}, to satisfy, do enough for; \textit{animum ad-vert\textit{o}} or \textit{anim-ad-vert\textit{o}}, to notice, turn the mind to.

3. Verbs in \textit{fico} and \textit{facto}, like the following, are best explained not
as compounds but as denominatives:

\textit{Aedi-fico}, to build, from \textit{aedifex}; \textit{ampli-fico}, to enlarge; \textit{calc-facto}, to
make warm, from \textit{calc-factus}.

4. Verbs compounded with prepositions often undergo certain vowel-
changes:

1) Short \textit{a} and \textit{e} generally become \textit{i}: \textit{habeo}, \textit{ad-hibeo}; \textit{tempo}, \textit{con-lineo}. But \textit{a}
sometimes becomes \textit{e} or \textit{u}: \textit{carpo}, \textit{de-carpo}; \textit{calco}, \textit{con-culco}.

2) \textit{As} becomes \textit{i}: \textit{casio}, \textit{in-cido}.

3) \textit{An} generally becomes \textit{o} or \textit{a}: \textit{pleado}, \textit{ex-plido}; \textit{claudo}, \textit{in-clado}.

5. \textbf{Form and Meaning of Prepositions in Composition.}—The following
facts are added for reference:

\textbf{A, ab, abs.}—1. \textbf{Form}: \textit{a} before \textit{m} and \textit{v}, and sometimes before \textit{f}; \textit{abs}
before \textit{c}, \textit{q}, \textit{t}, and, with the loss of \textit{b}, also before \textit{p}; \textit{au} in \textit{aufero} and \textit{au-
fero}; \textit{ab} before the other consonants, and before vowels.—2. \textbf{Meaning}:

(1) \textit{Away}, \textit{of}: \textit{a-mitto}, to send away; \textit{abs-condo}, to hide away; \textit{as-ports},

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1 Observe the force of the compound. \textit{Aenus p\textit{e}} means a brazen foot, but \textit{aeni-p\textit{e}}
means having brazen feet; see also 340, III., note.

2 The words thus formed are strictly compounds of \textit{verbs} with \textit{adverbs}, as the original
type of these compounds was formed before the adverb became a preposition.

3 Observe in these examples the strict adverbial use of the particles \textit{ab}, \textit{ex}, etc., away,
out, etc. Prepositions, on the other hand, always denote relations, and are \textit{auxiliary}
to the case-\textit{endings}; see 367, foot-note.

4 In some of these the primitive is not found in actual use.

5 As \textit{abs-\textit{pello}}, \textit{as-pello}, to drive away.
to carry off; *au-*fugitō, to flee away; *ab-*sum, to be away; *ab-*stō, to go away; *ab-*ficiō or *ab-*ciciō, to throw away; (2) in adjectives, generally negative: *d-*mēne, without mind, frantic; *ad-*similis, unlike.

**Ad.**—1. **Form:** *ad* before vowels, and before b, d, f, h, j, m, n, q, and v, sometimes before g, l, r, and s; rarely before p and t; *ad* assimilated before c, generally before p and t, and sometimes before g, l, q, r, and s; generally dropped before gn, sc, sp, and st. 2. **Meaning:** *to,* *toward,* *to one's self*; *on,* *at,* *near,* *by*; *besides:* *ad-*dico, to lead to; *ac-*ciciō, to fall to, happen; *ad-*movere, to move toward; *ac-*cipio, to receive, take to one's self; *ac-*cingo, to gird on; *ad-*latro or *al-*latro, to bark at; *ad-*sum, to be present or near; *ad-*stō or *a-*stō, to stand near, to stand by; *ad*-disco, to learn besides.

**Ante.**—1. **Form:** unchanged except in *anti-*cipō, *to take beforehand,* and in composition with *stō:* *ante-*stō or *anti-*stō, to stand before. 2. **Meaning:** *before,* *beforehand:* *ante-*currō, to run before; *ante-*habeo, to prefer —ilius, to have or hold before.

**Circum.**—1. **Form:** generally unchanged, but *m* is sometimes dropped in compounds of *gō,* to go: *circum-*stō or *circu-*stō, to go around. 2. **Meaning:** *around,* *about:* *circum-*mīlitēs, to send around.

**Com.**—1. **Form:** *com* before b, m, p; *co* before vowels, *h,* and gn; *con* or *col* before l; *cor* before r; *con* before the other consonants. 2. **Meaning:** (1) *together,* *with,* in various senses: *com-*bīō, to drink together; *com-*mīlitēs, to let go together; *co-*stō, to go together; *col-*loquor, to talk with; *con-*figo, to contend with; (2) *completely,* *thoroughly:* *con-*ficiō, to complete, make completely; *con-*cidō, to rouse thoroughly; *con-*stemō, to consume, take wholly; *con-*dēnēsus, very dense.

**Ex.**—1. **Form:** *ex* before vowels and before c, h, p, *q,* s, *t,* and with assimilation before *f;* *ē* before the other consonants. 2. **Meaning:** (1) *out,* *forth,* *without,* implying *freedom from:* *ex-*stō, to go out, go forth; *ex-*cidō, to fall out; *ē-*stō, to put forth; *ex-*sanguinis, without blood, bloodless; *ex-*onerō, to unload, disburden; (2) *thoroughly,* *completely,* *successfully:* *ex-*ārō, to burn up; *ē-*disco, to learn by heart; *ef-*ficiō, to effect, do successfully; *ē-*durō, very hard.

**In.**—1. **Form:** *n* sometimes assimilated before l, often before m**1** and r;

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1 See foot-note 1, p. 20.
2 Sometimes retained: *ad-*gnōscō or *ad-*gnōsecō; *ad-*stō or *a-*stō.
3 An earlier form for *cum.*
4 A contraction often takes place: *co-*agō, *co,*go. *Com* is sometimes retained before e or *i,* and *co* or *con* is used before *t = j:* *com-*edō, *com-*itor, *co-*iciō or *con-*iciō = *con-*iciō or *con-*ficiō; see foot-note 1, p. 20.
5 *Co* also appears in *co-necō,* *co-nescō,* *co-*tor, and *co-*nūbiēs.
6 But *ē-*pīō and *ē-*pūēs; *ex-*sempō or *ē-*sempō.
7 *S* is sometimes dropped after *a:* *espectō* or *expectō.
8 *C* before *f* is not recommended; *ef-*ferō is better than *ex-*ferō.
9 But *ex-*fēn.
10 *Im* is the approved form before b, p, and *m,* especially in *im-*peritor, *im-*perō, and *im-*perium.
PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.

often changed to m before b and p; in other situations unchanged.—2. MEANING: ‘in,’ ‘into,’ ‘on,’ ‘at,’ ‘against’: in-colo, to dwell in; in-eo, to go into; in-migro, to move into; in-istor, to lean on; in-ueor, to look at; in-rideo, to laugh at; in-pugno, to fight against.

Inter.—1. FORM: unchanged, except in intel-lego, to understand.—2. MEANING: ‘between,’ sometimes involving interruption, ‘together’: inter-venio, to come between, intervene; inter-dico, to forbid, interdict; inter-nato, to tie together.

Ob.—1. FORM: assimilated before c, f, g, and p; dropped in o-mitto, to omit, and in operio, to cover; in other situations generally unchanged.—2. MEANING: (1) ‘before,’ ‘in the way,’ ‘toward,’ ‘against,’ especially of an obstruction or opposition: of-far, to bring before; ob-esto, to stand in the way; oc-curro, to run toward, run to meet; op-pugno, to attack, fight against; (2) ‘down,’ ‘completely’: oc-cidio, to cut down, kill; op-primo, to press down, to overwhelm.

Per.—1. FORM: generally unchanged, but r is sometimes assimilated before l, and is dropped before j in compounds of juro, as po-juro, to swear falsely.—2. MEANING: ‘through,’ ‘thoroughly,’ sometimes in a bad sense with the idea of breaking through, disregarding: per-lego, to read through; per-dico, to learn thoroughly; per-fidus, perfidious, breaking faith.

Post.—1. FORM: unchanged, except in po-merium, the open space on either side of the city-wall, and poa-meridianus, of the afternoon.—2. MEANING: ‘after,’ ‘behind’: post-habeo, to place after, have after, esteem less.

Pro, prôd.—1. FORM: prô is the usual form, both before vowels and before consonants; prôd, the original form, is retained in a few words before vowels.—2. MEANING: ‘forth,’ ‘forward,’ ‘before,’ ‘for’: prôd-eo, to go forth or forward; prô-curro, to run forward; prô-pugno, to fight in front of, fight for; prô-habeo, to hold aloof, i.e., out of one’s reach, hence to prohibit; prô-mitto, to send forth, to hold out as a promise, to promise.

Sub.—1. FORM: b assimilated before c, f, g, and p, and often before m and r; dropped before ep; in other situations unchanged. The form sub, shortened to sue, occurs in a few words: sus-cidio, sus-pendo. —2. MEANING: ‘under,’ ‘down,’ ‘from under,’ ‘up’; ‘in place of,’ ‘secretly’; ‘somewhat,’ ‘slightly’: sub-eo, to go under; sub-labor, to slip down; sub-dico, to draw from under, withdraw; sub-cidio, to undertake; sus-cidio, to lift up, arouse;

1 It is used in several compounds referring to death: inter-eo, to die; inter-scito, to kill.
2 Obs seems to occur in a few words: obs-olescio, os-tendo for os-tendo (b dropped), though these words are sometimes otherwise explained; thus ob-solisco, as a compound of solisco from soleo.
3 As per-lego, pel-lego; per-licio, pel-licio; but per is preferable.
4 For per-faro.
5 Post-meridiano is also used; po-meridiano is not approved, though it occurs.
6 As in prôd-eo, prôd-tigo, prôd-igus, and before s is the compound of sum: prôd-es, prôd-est, etc.
7 Mostly in adjectives: sub-absurdus, somewhat absurd; sub-dolus, somewhat crafty; sub-impudens, somewhat impudent; sub-lentus, somewhat odious.
PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.

sub-stituere, to put in place of, to substitute; sub-rapidus, to take away secretly; sub-rident, to smile, laugh slightly; sub-dificilis, somewhat difficult.

Trāns.—1. Form: it generally drops s before s, and it often drops ns before d, j, ʃ, m, n; it is otherwise unchanged.—2. Meaning: ‘across,’ ‘through,’ completely: trāns-currit, to run across; trān-didici, to lead across; trān-silisci, to leap across; trāns-igō, to transact; to finish, do completely or thoroughly—lit., to drive through.

6. FORM AND MEANING OF THE INSEPARABLE PREPOSITIONS.—The following facts are added for reference:

Ambi, amb. 1—1. Form: amb before vowels; ambi, am, or an, ʃ before consonants.—2. Meaning: ‘around,’ ‘on both sides,’ ‘in two directions’: ambiō, to go round; ambi-ego, to act in two ways, move in different directions, to hesitate; ambi-puto, to cut around or off; ambi-quiri, to search round.

Dis, di. 1—1. Form: dis before p, q, t, before s followed by a vowel, and, with assimilation, before j; but dis for dis before a vowel or h; di in most other situations; but both dis and di occur before j. ʃ—2. Meaning: ‘apart,’ ‘asunder,’ ‘between,’ sometimes negative and sometimes intensive: distinco, to hold apart; di-distino, to lead apart, divide; dis-fugō, to flee asunder, or in different directions; di-imō, to take in pieces, destroy; dis-sentio, to think differently, dissent; di-fādeo, to judge between; dis-piscō, to dispute, not to please; dis-facilo, difficult, not easy; di-lavō, to praise highly.

In. 1—1. Form: n dropped before gn; otherwise like the preposition in. ʃ—2. Meaning: ‘not,’ ‘un’: in-nōsco, not to know, not to recollect, to pardon; in-memor, unmindful; in-imicus, unfriendly.

Por, for port. 1—1. Form: r assimilated before l and s; in other situations, por.—2. Meaning: ‘forth,’ ‘forward,’ ‘near’: pollicor, to hold forth, offer, promise; pos-sideo, to possess; por-rigo, to hold out or forth, to offer.

Red, re. 1—1. Form: red before vowels, before h, and in red-do, re in other situations.—2. Meaning: ‘back,’ ‘again,’ ‘in return’: red-ec, to go back; re-ficio, to repair, make again; red-amō, to love in return.

Sed, ʃ se. 1—1. Form: sed before vowels; se before consonants.—2. Meaning: ‘apart,’ ‘aside’: se-oldeo, to go apart, secede; se-pōnde, to put aside or apart.

Note.—For the Composition of Adverbs, see 304, I., 2; 304, II., 1, note; 304, IV., note 2.

1 Or before i = j or jī; see foot-note 1, p. 20.
2 Compare ambō, both, and ambī, around, on both sides.
3 An before c, q, ʃ, and t.
4 For amb-ec.
5 Dis-jungō, di-fādeo.
6 Both literally ‘apart’ in respect to place or position, and figuratively ‘apart’ in sentiment or opinion.
7 Especially in adjectives: dis-par, unequal; dis-similis, unlike.
8 Greek απερι, ἀπερι, ἀπίς, to, toward; see Curtius, 561.
9 To sit near and so to control.
10 Sometimes negative, not, un-: re-singō, to unseal; re-clodeo, to open.
11 Probably an old ablative of suit and identical with sed, but.
PART THIRD.

SYNTAX.

CHAPTER I.

SYNTAX OF SENTENCES.

I. CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

345. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.

346. A sentence is a combination of words expressing either a single thought or two or more thoughts.

347. A SIMPLE SENTENCE expresses a single thought:
Deus mundum aedificavit, God made (built) the world. Cic.

348. A COMPLEX SENTENCE expresses one leading thought with one or more dependent thoughts:
Dónee éris fílius, multós numerábis amícós, so long as you shall be prosperous, you will number many friends. Ovid.

Notes 1.—In this example two simple sentences—(1) 'you will be prosperous,' and (2) 'you will number many friends'—are so united that the first only specifies the time of the second: You will number many friends (when?), so long as you shall be prosperous. The parts thus united are called Clauses or Members.

Notes 2.—The part of the complex sentence which makes complete sense of itself—multós numerábis amícós—is called the Principal or Independent Clause; and the part which is dependent upon it—dónee éris fílius—is called the Subordinate or Dependent Clause.

349. A COMPOUND SENTENCE expresses two or more independent thoughts:
Sol nui et montes umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting and the mountains are shaded. Verg.

350. A DECLARATIVE SENTENCE has the form of an assertion:
Miltiades accusátus est, Miltiades was accused. Nep.

351. An INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE has the form of a question:
Quis loquitur, who speaks? Ter. Quis nón paupertátem extímásceit, who does not fear poverty? Cic. Quid ais, what do you say? Ter. Ec-
SYNTAX OF SENTENCES.

quid! animadvertis silentium, do you not notice the silence? Cic. Quális est orátió, what kind of an oration is it? Cic. Quot sunt, how many are there? Plaut. Ubi sunt, where are they? Cic. Ubinam, gentium sumus, where in the world are we? Cic. Viene fortunáe expériti meam, do you wish to try my fortune? Cic. Nónne nobilitáre volúnt, do they not wish to be renowned? Cic. Núm igitur pecúnum, are we then at fault? Cic.

1. INTERROGATIVE WORDS.—Interrogative sentences generally contain some interrogative word—either an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or one of the interrogative particles:ICe–n, nónne, núm; see examples above.

Nota 1.—Questions with –n, ask for information: Scribísti, ‘is he writing?’ N is sometimes appended to utrum, núm, or an, without affecting their meaning, and sometimes inserted in the clause after utrum: Númne ferre arma déburtum, ought they to have borne arms? Cic. Utrum tacéran, am, shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter.

Nota 2.—Questions with nónne expect the answer yes: Nónne scribísti, ‘is he not writing?’

Nota 3.—Questions with n, expect the answer no: Núm sciére, ‘is he writing?’

Nota 4.—For questions with an, see 353, note 4.

2. The particle –n, is always appended to some other word, generally to the emphatic word of the sentence, i.e., to the word upon which the question especially turns; appended to nón, it forms nónne:

Núne expériri, do you wish to try? Cic. Túne id verum es, did you fear this? Cic. Omnium pecúniás soldátus est, has all the money been paid? Cic. Hócinest (= hóc esse) officiis patris, is this the duty of a father? Ter. Unquamne vidísti, have you ever seen? Cic. Nónne volunt, do they not wish? Cic.

3. Sometimes no interrogative word is used, especially in impassioned discourse:

Créditás, do you believe? Verg. Ego nón poteró, shall I not be able? Cic.

4. An emphatic tandem, meaning indeed, pray, then, often occurs in interrogative sentences:

Quod genus tandem est istud glóriae, what kind of glory is that, pray? Cic.

Nota 1.—Núm, appended to an interrogative, also adds emphasis: Númnum habet audívit, did he hear this, pray? Ter.

Nota 2.—For Two Interrogatives in the same clause, and for an Interrogative with tantus, see 454, 3 and 4.

352. ANSWERS.—Instead of replying to a question of fact with a simple particle meaning yes or no, the Latin usually repeats the verb or some emphatic word, often with pròrsus, véró, and the like, or if negative, with nón:

Dixitne causam, did he state the cause? Dixit, he stated it. Cic. Possumusne tuti esse, can we be safe? Nón possumus, we can not. Cic.

1 Ecquid, though the neuter accusative of an interrogative pronoun, has become is effect a mere particle with the force of nónne.

2 See 311, 8, foot-note.

3 See 27, note.
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Norns 1.—Sometimes the simple particle is used—affirmatively, sōnē, cītam, tīca, cērō, cērōtē, etc.; negatively, nōn, minimum, etc.

Vēnitne, has he come? Nōn, no. Plant.

Norns 2.—Sometimes, without an actual repetition of the emphatic word, some equivalent expression is used:

Tuam vēstem déstruxit tibī, did he strip off your coat? Factum, he did—lit., done, for it was done. Ter.

353. DOUBLE OR DISJUNCTIVE QUESTIONS offer a choice or alternative, and generally take one of the following forms:

1. The first clause has utrum or -ne, and the second an:

Utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est, is that your fault or ours? Cic. Rōmamne veniō an hō maneō, do I go to Rome, or do I remain here? Cic.

2. The first clause omits the particle, and the second has an, or anes:

Eloquar an sileam, shall I utter it, or keep silence? Verg. Gabiniō dicam an Pompeā, to Gabinius, shall I say, or to Pompey? Cic.

Norns 1.—Other forms are rare.¹

Norns 2.—Utrum sometimes stands before a disjunctive question with -ne in the first clause and an in the second:

Utrum, taceanne, an prādīcem, which, shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter.

Norns 3.—When the second clause is negative, the particle generally unites with the negative, giving ananōn or necone:

Sunt haec tua verba necone, are these your words or not? Cic.

Norns 4.—By the omission of the first clause, the second often stands alone with an, in the sense of or, implying a negative answer:

An hōc timēmus, or do we fear this? Liv.

Norns 5.—Disjunctive questions sometimes have three or more members:²

Gabiniō an Pompeā an utrique, to Gabinius, or Pompey, or both? Cic.

Norns 6.—Disjunctive questions inquire which alternative is true. These must be distinguished—

1) From such single questions as inquire whether either alternative is true:

Sōlem dicam aut ītānam deum, shall I call the sun or the moon a god?² Cic.

2) From two separate questions, introduced respectively by num, implying a negative answer, and by an, implying an affirmative answer:

Num furis? an lūdis mé? are you mad? or do you not rather mock me? Hor.

354. An IMPERATIVE SENTENCE has the form of a command, exhortation, or entreaty:

Justitiam cole, cultivate justice. Cic.

355. An EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE has the form of an exclamation:

Reliquit quōs virōs, what men he has left! Cic.

¹ Thus, in Vergil, -ne occurs in both clauses, also -ne in the first with ses in the second. In Horace, -ne occurs in the second clause with no particle in the first.

² Cicero, in his oration Pro Domō, xxii, 87, has a question of this kind extended to eight clauses, the first introduced by utrum and each of the others by an.

³ Observe that in this sense aut, not an, is used.
SYNTAX OF SENTENCES.

Note 1.—Many sentences introduced by interrogative pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs may be so spoken as to become exclamatory:
Quibus gaudia exsultabis, in what joys wilt thou exult! Cic.
Note 2.—Some declarative and imperative sentences readily become exclamatory.
Note 3.—Exclamatory sentences are often elliptical.

II. ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

356. The SIMPLE SENTENCE in its MOST SIMPLE FORM consists of two distinct parts, expressed or implied:
1. The SUBJECT, or that of which it speaks;
2. The PREDICATE, or that which is said of the subject: Clutius moritur, Clutius dies.¹ Liv.

357. The SIMPLE SENTENCE in its MOST EXPANDED FORM consists only of these same parts with their various modifiers:
In his castra Clutius, Albànovs rëx, moritur, Clutius, the Alban king, dies in this camp.² Liv.
1. The subject and predicate of a sentence are called the Principal or Essential elements; their modifiers, the Subordinate elements.
2. The elements, whether principal or subordinate, may be either simple or complex:
   1. Simple, when not modified by other words; see 358.
   2. Complex, when thus modified; see 359.

358. The SIMPLE SUBJECT of a sentence must be a noun, a pronoun, or some word or words used as a noun:
Rex decrevit, the king decreed. Nep. Ego scribo, I write. Cic. Ibam, I was walking. Hor. Vicimus, we have conquered. Cic. Video idem valet, the word video has the same meaning. Quint.

359. The COMPLEX SUBJECT consists of the simple subject with its modifiers:

Note 1.—The subject is thus modified—
1) By an ADJECTIVE: Populus Romananus.
2) By a NOUN IN APPPOSITION: Clutius rëx.
3) By a GENTITIVE: Rëx Rutuliæm.
4) By a NOUN WITH A PREPOSITION: Liber de officiis.

¹ Here Clutius is the subject, and mortit the predicate.
² Here Clutius, Albànus rëx, is the subject in its enlarged or modified form, and in his castra moritur the predicate in its enlarged or modified form.
³ A pronominal subject is always contained or implied in the personal ending. Thus m in tham is a pronominal stem = ego, and is the true original subject of the verb. See also 247; 368, 2, foot-note.
ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

Note 2.—A noun or pronoun used to explain or identify another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing, is called an Appositive; as Clitus rex, 'Clitus the king.'

Note 3.—Any noun may be modified like the subject.

Note 4.—Sometimes adverbs occur as modifiers of nouns:
Nón ignári sumus ante malórum, we are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Verg.

360. The Simple Predicate must be either a verb, or the copula sum with a noun or adjective:

Miltiádës est accusatús, Miltiades was accused. Nep. Tu es testis, you are a witness. Cic. Fortúna casus est, fortune is blind. Cic.

Note 1.—Like sum, several other verbs sometimes unite with a noun or an adjective to form the predicate; see 362, 2. A noun or an adjective thus used is called a Predicate Noun or Predicate Adjective.

Note 2.—Sum with an adverb sometimes forms the predicate:
Omnia résit sunt, all things are right. Cic.

361. The Complex Predicate consists of the simple predicate with its modifiers:

Miltiádës Athenas liberavit, Miltiades liberated Athens. Nep. Labóri student, they devote themselves to labor. Cas. Més rogavit sententiam, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Pons iter hostibus dedit, the bridge furnished a passage to the enemy. Liv. Bella feliciter gessit, he waged were successfully. Cic. In his castris moritur, he dies (where?) in this camp. Liv. Vere convénit, they assembled (when?) in the spring. Liv.

1. The Predicate, when a verb, is thus modified—
1) By an Accusative: Athenas liberavit.
2) By a Dative: Labóri student.
3) By two Accusatives: Més rogavit sententiam.
4) By an Accusative and a Dative: Iter hostibus dedit.
5) By an Adverb: Feliciter gessit.
6) By an Adverbial Phrase: In his castris moritur.

Note 1.—Still other modifiers occur with special predicates; see 406, 409, 410, 422.

Note 2.—No one predicate admits all the modifiers here given. Thus only transitive verbs admit an Accusative (371); only intransitive verbs, a Dative alone (384, I.); and only special verbs, two Accusatives (374).

2. A Predicate Noun is modified like the subject:
Haec virtús omnium est régina virtútum, this virtue is the queen of all virtues. Cic. See also 359, notes 1 and 3.

3. A Predicate Adjective is modified—
1) By an Adverb: Satis humilis est, he is sufficiently humble. Liv.
2) By an Oblique Case: Avidi laudis suæ sunt, they were desirous of praise. Cic. Omnì addéns morts est communís, death is common to every age. Cic. Digni sunt amicis, they are worthy of friendship. Cic.

Note.—Any adjective may be modified like the predicate adjective:
Eques Rómanus satis litterátus, a Roman knight sufficiently literary. Cic.
CHAPTER II.

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

SECTION I.

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

RULE I.—Predicate Nouns.¹

362. A noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in CASE:

Brutus custos libertatis fuit, Brutus was the guardian of liberty. Liv. Servius ræx est declaratus, Servius was declared king. Liv. Orestem esse dixit, he said that he was Orestes. Cic. See 360, note 1.

Nota.—This rule applies also to nouns predicated of pronouns:²

Ego sum minitus, I am a messenger. Liv.

1. A Predicate Noun with different forms for different genders must agree in gender as well as in case:

Usus magister est, experience is an instructor. Cic. Historia est magistra (not magister), history is an instructor. Cic.

2. Predicate Nouns are most frequent with the following verbs:

1) With sum and a few intransitive verbs—vado, existo, apparet, and the like:

Homin mægnus evaserat, he had become (turned out) a great man. Cic. Exstitit vindex libertatis, he became (stood forth) the defender of liberty. Cic. See also examples under the rule.

2) With Passive Verbs of appointing, making, naming, regarding, esteem, and the like:

Servius ræx est declaratus, Servius was declared king. Liv. Mundus civitas existimatur, the world is regarded as a state. Cic.

Nota 1.—In the poets, Predicate Nouns are used with great freedom after verbs of a great variety of significations. Thus with audito = appellor:

Ræx audisti, you have been called king; i.e., have heard yourself so called. Hor. Ego divum incédò régina, I walk as queen of the gods. Verg.

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¹ For convenience of reference, the Rules will be presented in a body on page 324.
² For Predicato Genitiva, see 401.
³ In these examples custes, ræx, and Orestem are all predicate nouns, and agree in case respectively with Brutus, Servius, and e (536).
⁴ As all substantive pronouns have the construction of nouns; see 183.
⁵ Observe that in usus magister est, the masculine form, magister, is used to agree in gender with usus; while in historia est magistra, the feminine form, magistra, is used to agree in gender with historia.
APPOSITIVES.

Note 2.—For Predicate Accusative, see 373, 1.

Note 3.—The Nominative of the object for which (390), pró with the Ablative, and locō or numerō (or in numerō) with the Genitive, are often kindred in force to Predicate Nouns: hosti, pró hoste, locō hostis, numerō (or in numerō) hostium, 'for an enemy,' or 'as an enemy':

Fuit omnibus bonō, it was a benefit (lit., for a benefit) to all. Cic. Sicilia nōbis pró aequātio fuit, Sicily was a treaty (for a treaty) for us. Cic. Quae- tōri parentis locō fuit, he was a parent (lit., in the place of a parent) to the questor. Cic. In tibi parentis numerō fuit, he was a parent to you. Cic. See also Predicate Gentes, 401.

3. Predicate Nouns are used not only with finite verbs, but also with Infinitives and Participles, and sometimes without verb or participle:

Déclarátus réx Numa, Numa having been declared king. Liv. Caninió consul, Caninius being consul. Cic. See 431, also Orestes under the rule.

Note 1.—For a Predicate Nominative after the Infinitive esse, see 536, 2, 1.

Note 2.—For an Infinitive or a Clause instead of a Predicate Noun; see 539; 501.

RULE II.—Appositives.

363. An Appositive agrees in Case with the noun or pronoun which it qualifies:


1. An Appositive with different forms for different genders must agree in Gender as well as in Case:

Clutius réx, Clutius the king. Liv. Venus régina, Venus the queen. Hor.

2. An Appositive often agrees with the pronoun implied in the ending of the verb:

Hostis, hostem occidere voluit, hostis, an enemy, wished to slay an enemy. Liv.

3. Appositives are kindred in force—

1) Generally to Relative clauses:

Clutius réx, Clutius (who was) the king. Liv.

2) Sometimes to other Subordinate clauses, as Temporal, Concessive, etc.:

Fārius puer dicit, Fārius learned when he was a boy or as a boy. Cic. Janius sedem dictatór àdscitavit, Janius dedicated the temple when dictator. Liv.

4. By Synthesis—a Construction according to Sense:

—See 362, 1, foot-note.

—Hostis agrees with ego, implied in colui, 'I wished'; see 358, foot-note.

—This construction is sometimes called Adverbial Apposition.

—See Figures of Speech, 636, IV., 4.
1) **Possessives** admit a *Genitive* in apposition with the Genitive of the pronoun implied in them:


2) **Locatives** admit as an Appositive a *Locative Ablative* (*411, 425*), with or without a preposition:


5. **Clauses.**—A noun or pronoun may be in apposition with a clause, or a clause in apposition with a noun or pronoun:

    Nōs, *id* quid dēbet, patria delectat, *our country delights us, as it ought*. Cic. Omnes interfect jussit, *mùntum* ad praesens, *he ordered them all to be put to death, a means of protection for the present*. Tac. For clauses in apposition with nouns or pronouns, see *499, 8; 501, III*.

364. **Partitive Apposition.**—The parts may be in apposition with the whole, or the whole in apposition with the parts:

    Duo rēgēs, *ille bellō, hic pāce, civitatem auxerunt, two kings advanced the state, the former by war, the latter by peace*. Liv. Ptolemaeus et Cleopatra, *rēgēs Aegypti, Ptolemy and Cleopatra, rulers of Egypt*. Liv.

**SECTION II.**

**GENERAL VIEW OF CASES.**

365. Cases, in accordance with their general force, may be arranged and characterized as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case of the Subject</th>
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<tr>
<td>I. Nominative</td>
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<tr>
<td>II. Vocative</td>
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<tr>
<td>III. Accusative</td>
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<tr>
<td>IV. Dative</td>
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<tr>
<td>V. Genitive</td>
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<tr>
<td>VI. Ablative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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1 *Ipsē* agrees with *tu* (of you) involved in *tu*; *sōlus* and *absentes*, with *meum* involved in *meum*. The Genitive of *ipsē, sōlus, ānus*, and *omnes* is often thus used.

2 *As a Locative Ablative* is a genuine *Locative* in sense, there is no special irregularity here, and in *urbe opportund* may be explained as a separate modifier of the verb: "They halted at Aës, at a convenient city." Thus explained, it is not an appositive at all.

3 *Id* quid dēbet, *lit, that which it owes*. *Id* and *mùntum* are in apposition respectively with *nōs delectat* and *omnes interfect*, and are best explained as *Locatives*. A Nominative apparently in apposition with a clause is generally best explained either as an *appositive* to some *Nominatives*, or as the *subject* of a separate clause.

4 In the first example, *ille* and *hic*, the parts, are in apposition with *rēgēs*, the whole; but in the second example, *rēgēs*, the whole, is in apposition with the parts, *Ptolemaeus* and *Cleopatra*.

5 This arrangement is adopted in the discussion of the cases, because, it is thought, it will best present the force of the several cases and their relation to each other.
NOMINATIVE.—VOCATIVE.

366. The Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Vocative have probably retained with very slight modifications their original force as developed in the mother tongue from which the Latin was derived.¹

367. The Ablative combines within itself the separate offices of three cases which were originally distinct:
1. The Ablative proper, denoting the relation from—the place from which.
2. The Locative, denoting the relation in, at—the place in or at which.
3. The Instrumental, denoting the relation with, by—the instrument or means with or by which.

SECTION III.
NOMINATIVE.—VOCATIVE.

I. NOMINATIVE.

RULE III.—Subject Nominative.

368. The subject of a finite verb is put in the Nominative:²

1. The subject is always a substantive, a pronoun, or some word or clause used substantively; ⁴ see examples under the rule.
2. A pronominal subject is always expressed or implied in the ending of the verb:⁵

¹ That is, in the primitive Indo-European tongue, from which have been derived, either directly or indirectly, not only the Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, but also the English, French, German, and indeed nearly all the languages of modern Europe. Upon the general subject of Cases, their original formation and meaning, see Bopp, I., pp. 242-519; Mergent, pp. 117-117; Penka, Hübichmann, Holzeisig, Delbrück, and, among the earlier writers, Hartung, 'Über die Casus,' etc., and Rumpel, 'Casuallehre.'
² See Delbrück, ' Ablativ, Localis, Instrumentalis.'
³ For the Subject of the Infinitive, see § 336. For the Agreement of the verb with its subject, see § 460.
⁴ For clauses used substantively, see § 440.
⁵ See § 47. Thus movent means I (not you, he, or we, but I) induct. Indeed, every verb contains a pronominal subject in itself, and in general it is necessary to add a separate subject only when it would otherwise be doubtful to whom the implied pronoun refers. Thus régnavit, 'he reigned,' is complete of itself, if the context shows to
Discipuliōs moneō ut studia ament, I instruct pupils to love (that they may love) their studies. Quint. Non scholae, sed vitae discimus, we learn not for the school, but for life. Sen.

Note.—A separate pronominal subject may, however, be added for the sake of clearness, emphasis, or contrast, as in the fourth example under the rule.

3. The verb is sometimes omitted, when it can be readily supplied, especially if it is est or sunt:

Ecco tuae litterae, to your letter (comes). Cic. Tot sententiae, there are (sunt) so many opinions. Ter. Consul projectus (est), the consul set out. Liv.

Note 1.—The verb factō is often omitted in short sentences and clauses:

Melius hi, quam vos, these have done better than you. Cic. Rōctē ille, he does rightly. Cic. Cottō finem, Cottō closed, lit., made an end. Cic. So also in Livy after nihil altum (amplius, minus, etc.) quam, ‘nothing other (more, less, etc.) than’, ‘merely’; nihil praesterrum, ‘nothing except’ = ‘merely’; Nihil altum quam stetit, they merely stood (did nothing other than). Liv.

Note 2.—Certain forms of expression often dispense with the verb:

Quid, what? quid enim, what indeed? quid ergō, what then? quid quod, what of the fact that? quod pius, why more, or why shall I say more? nē pius, not to say more; nē multa, not to say much; quid hōc ad mē, what is this to me? nihil ad rem, nothing to the subject.

Note 3.—For the Predicate Nominatives, see 362.

Note 4.—For the Nominatives as an Appositive, see 363.

Note 5.—For the Nominatives in Exclamations, see 361, note 8.

II. VOCATIVE.

RULE IV.—Case of Address.

369. The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative:

Perge, Lael, proceed, LAELIUS. Cic. Quid est, Catilina, why is it, CATILINAE? Cic. Tuum est, SERVIUS, regnum, the kingdom is yours, SERVIUS. Liv. Ó dii immortalēs, O immortal gods. Cic.

1. An Interjection may or may not accompany the Vocative.

2. In poetry, and sometimes in prose, the Nominative in apposition with the subject occurs where we should expect the Vocative:

Audī tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban people. Liv.

3. Conversely, the Vocative by attraction sometimes occurs in poetry where we should expect the Nominative:

Quibus, Hector, ab ipsis expectāte veniā, from what shores, Hector, do you anxiously awaited come? Verg. Macta novā virtūte, puer, a blessing on your new valor, boy (lit., be enlarged by; supply esto). Verg.

whom the pronoun he refers; if not, the noun must be added: Servius régnavit, lit., he, Servius, reigned, or Servius, he reigned. In the fourth example under the rule, ego and vos, though already implied in the form of the verb, are expressed for emphasis. In impersonal verbs the subject ‘it,’ in English, is implied in the personal ending t.

1 See preceding foot-note.
ACCUSATIVE.

SECTION IV.

ACCUSATIVE.

370. The Accusative is used—

I. As the Direct Object of an Action;
II. In an Adverbial Sense—with or without Prepositions;
III. In Exclamations—with or without Interjections.

Note 1.—For the Predicate Accusative, see 362 and 373, 1.
Note 2.—For the Accusative in Apposition, see 363.
Note 3.—For the Accusative with Prepositions, see 433.
Note 4.—For the Accusative as the Subject of an Infinitive, see 536.

I. ACCUSATIVE AS DIRECT OBJECT.

RULE V.—Direct Object.

371. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative:


I. The Direct Object may be—

1. An External Object, the person or thing on which the action of the verb is directly exerted, as salūtem above.
2. An Internal Object; i.e., one already contained or implied in the action itself. This embraces two varieties:
   1) In a strict sense, the Cognate Accusative, an object having a meaning cognate or kindred to that of the verb:
      Servitūtem servire, to serve in bondage (lit., to serve a servitude). Ter.
   2) In a freer sense, the Accusative of Effect, the object produced by the action:
      Librum scribere, to write a book. Cic.

Note.— Participles in due, verbal adjectives in bundus, and in Plautus a few verbal nouns, occur with the accusative:

Vitabundus castra, avoiding the camp. Liv. Quid tibi hanc curātiōnem (curātiō est) rem = cur hanc rem curās, what care have you of this? Plaut.

The Accusative is probably the oldest of all the oblique cases known to our family of languages, and was therefore originally the sole modifier of the verb, expressing in a vague and general way several relations now recognized as distinct. This theory accounts for the great variety of constructions in which the Accusative is used in Latin. See Curtius, 'Zur Chronologie,' pp. 71–74; Holzweissig, pp. 34–88.

The pupil will observe that the idea of servitūtem, 'servitude,' 'service,' is contained in the verb servire, 'to serve,' 'to be a slave or servant.'

See 27, note.
II. The Cognate Accusative is generally—(1) a noun with an adjective or other modifier, or (2) a neuter pronoun or adjective. It is used quite freely both with transitive and with intransitive verbs, and sometimes even with verbs in the passive voice:

Eam vitam vivere, to live that life. Cic. Mirum somniāre somnium, to dream a wonderful dream. Plaut. Eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes. Cic. Hoc studet ānum, he studies this one thing (this one study). Hor. Perfidium ridēns Venus, Venus smiling a pernicious smile. Hor. Id assentior, I assent to this (I give this assent). Cic. Idem gloriāri, to make the same boast. Cic. Quid possunt, how powerful are they, or what power have they? Caso. Es monēmur, we are admonished of these things. Cic. Nihil mōtī sunt, they were not at all moved. Liv.

Note.—Here may be mentioned the following kindred constructions:


III. Special Verbs.—Many verbs of Feeling or Emotion, of Taste and Smell, admit the Accusative:

Honōres désperat, he despaired of honors. Cic. Hase gemēbant, they were sighing over these things. Cic. Dētrimenta ridet, he laughs at losses. Hor. Olet ungūenta, he has the odor of perfumes. Ter. Īrātō redolēt antiquitātem, the odour smacks of antiquity. Cic.

Note 1.—Such verbs are: désperō, to despair of; doleō, to grieve for; ēmō, to sigh over; horreo, to shudder at; lacrimō, to weep over; māserō, to mourn over; miror, to wonder at; ridō, to laugh at; sittō, to thirst for, etc.; oles, to have the odor of; sapo, to savor of, whether used literally or figuratively. 3

Note 2.—Many verbs in Latin, as in English, are sometimes transitive and sometimes intransitive; see augō, dūō, incipio, lauo, ruo, suppetō, turdo, etc., in the Dictionary.

Note 3.—Many verbs which are usually rendered by transitive verbs in English are intransitives in Latin, and thus admit only an indirect object or some special construction; see 385.

Note 4.—The object of a transitive verb is often omitted, when it can be easily supplied: moverō = moverō mé, 'I move (myself)'; verīt = verīt st, 'he turns (himself)'

Castrīs nón movit, he did not move from his camp. Liv. Jam verberat fortunā, fortune had already changed. Liv.

Note 5.—For the Passive Construction, see 464.

IV. An Infinitive or a Clause may be used as Direct Object:

Imperāre cupiunt, they desire to rule. Just. Optō ut id audiātis, I desire that you may hear this. Cic.

1 Peccat, 'he makes a mistake'; idem peccat, 'he makes the same mistake,' where idem represents idem peccātum.

2 Literally, we are admonished these things, i. e., these admonitions.

3 Observe that with the Accusative désperō means not 'to despair,' but 'to despair of,' and is accordingly transitive; doleō, not 'to grieve,' but 'to grieve for,' etc. With some of the verbs here given the object is properly a Cognate Accusative.
ACCUSATIVE.

372. Many compounds of intransitive verbs with prepositions, especially compounds of verbs of motion with circum, per, praeter, trans, and super, take the Accusative:


RULE VI.—Two Accusatives—Same Person.

373. Verbs of making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing:


1. Predicate Accusative.—One of the two Accusatives is the Direct Object, and the other an essential part of the Predicate. The latter may be called a Predicate Accusative; see 362.

Note 1.—Habeo, 'to have,' admits two Accusatives, but when it means 'to regard,' it usually takes, instead of the Predicate Accusative, the Dative of the object for which (384), the Ablative with in or pro, or the Genitive with loco, numerò or in numeró: ludibrio habere, 'to regard as an object of ridicule;' prof. hoste habere, in hostibus habere, loco hostium habère, numerò or in numeró hostium habère, 'to regard as an enemy.' These constructions also occur with other verbs meaning to regard:

Es honòri habent, they regard these things as an honor. Sall. Illum pro hoste habère, to regard him as an enemy. Caes. Jam pro facto habère, to regard it as already done. Cic. In hostium numerò habuit, he regarded them as enemies (lit., in the number of, etc.). Caes. Mō prof. dèridiculò putat, he regards me as an object of ridicule. Ter.

Note 2.—The Predicate Accusative is sometimes an adjective:


2. In the Passive these verbs take two Nominatives—a Subject and a Predicate—corresponding to the two Accusatives of the Active:

Servius ròc est dèclarátus, Servius was declared king. Liv. See also 362, 2.

1 Observe that an intransitive verb may become transitive by being compounded with a preposition which does not take the Accusative.
RULE VII.—Two Accusatives—Person and Thing.

374. Some verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and concealing, admit two Accusatives—one of the person and the other of the thing:

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Philosophia nōs rōs omnēs docuit, philosophy has taught us all things. Cic. Auxiliā regem orābant, they asked auxiliaries from the king. Liv. Pacem tē poscimus, we demand peace of you. Verg. Nōn tē sēlāvi sērmōnem, I did not conceal from you the conversation. Cic.

1. In the Passive the Person becomes the subject, and the Accusative of the thing is retained:

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Ego sententiam rogātus sum, I was asked my opinion. Cic. Artēs edōctus fuerat, he had been taught the arts. Liv.

2. Two Accusatives are generally used with celō, docē, edocē; often with rogō, poscō, reposeō; sometimes with edocē, exposeō, flagīō, dō, etc., consulō, interrogō, percontō; rarely with monē, admonē, and postulō.

Note 1.—Cēlō, 'to conceal,' takes—(1) in the Active generally two Accusatives, as under the rule, but sometimes the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing with dē; (2) in the Passive, the Accusative of a neuter pronoun or the Ablative with dē:

Mō dē hoc libro celāvi, he kept me ignorant of this book. Cic. Id cēlāri, to be kept ignorant of this. Nep. Cēlāri dē consilium, to be kept ignorant of the plan. Cic.

Note 2.—Docē and edocē generally follow the rule, but sometimes they take the Accusatives of the person and the Ablative of the thing with or without dē, and sometimes the Accusatives of the person with the Infinitives:

Dē nūs rē mō docēt, he informs me in regard to his case. Cic. Litterae Graecae dōctus, instructed in Greek literature. Sall. Σοκρατην υδίπτων (with) the Lyre. Cic. Tē sapere docēt, he teaches you to be wise. Cic.

Note 3.—Most verbs of asking and demanding sometimes take two Accusatives, but verbs of asking, questioning, generally take the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing with dē, and verbs of imploring, demanding, generally the Accusatives of the thing and the Ablatives of the person with dē or ab:

Tō his dē ridēs interrogō, I ask you in regard to these things. Cic. Vīcĕrīm ab dēs exposcēre, to implore victory from the gods. Cases. Id ab ēs flagēlāre, to demand this from him. Cases.

1 Other verbs of teaching—erudīō, inṣituō, inforīō, instrūō, etc.—generally take the Ablative of the thing with or without a preposition, as in or dē; see Dictionary.
2 Docēt, in the sense of inform, takes dē with the Ablative.
3 Supply canēs.
4 The Accusatives or Ablatives of the person is often omitted, and a clause often takes the place of the Accusative or Ablative of the thing. For examples and for special constructions, see, in the Dictionary, consulō, interrogō, rogō; also flagō, dō, poscō, exposcō, and reposeō.
ACCUSATIVE.

Note 4.—Pote and postulō generally take the Accusative of the thing and the Ablative of the person with ā or ab; quaerō, the Accusative of the thing and the Ablative of the person with ā or eā, ā, ab, or ēā:

Pācem ab Romānis potūrunt, they asked peace from the Romans. Cic. Allquid ab amīcis postūlarē, to demand something from friends. Cic. Quaerēt ex sōlo eā, etc., he asks of him in private (from him alone) those questions, etc. Cic.

375. A neuter pronoun or adjective as a cognate Accusative occurs in connection with a Direct Object with many verbs which do not otherwise take two Accusatives:

Hec tā hortor, I exhort you to this, I give you this exhortation. Cic. Ea 3 monēmur, we are admonished of these things. Cic. So with vēlē, Caes., B. G. I., 34.

376. A few compounds of trānsc, circum, and ad admit two Accusatives, depending on the one upon the verb, the other upon the preposition:

Iūrum copiās trājēcit, he led his forces across the Ebro. Liv. Animum adverēt columnām, I noticed (turned my mind to) a small column. Cic.

Note.—In the Passive these compounds and some others admit an Accusative depending upon the preposition:

Prāstevēbor bētis Pāntagiae, I am carried by the mouth of the Pantagiae. Verg. Locium sum praevertēctus, I have been carried by the place. Cic.

377. In Poetry, rarely in prose, verbs of clothing, unclothing—induō, exūd, cingō, accingō, induco, etc.—are sometimes used reflexively in the Passive, like the Greek Middle, and thus admit an Accusative:


Note.—A few other verbs sometimes admit a similar construction in the poets:

Antiquum sāturā dolōrēm, having satisfied her old resentment. Verg. Suspēnsī locūōs laceriō, with yachts hung upon the arm (having hung, etc.). Hor. Pāscuntur stīva, they browse on the forests. Verg.

II. ACCUSATIVE IN AN ADVERBIAL SENSE.

RULE VIII.—Accusative of Specification.

378. A verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to define its application: 4

1 The Ablative of the person is often omitted, and, instead of the Accusative of the thing, a clause is often used. With postulō and quaerō the Ablative with ā occurs. For examples and for other special constructions, see Dictionary.
2 See 371, 11.
3 As a rare exception, monoc admits a noun as the Accusative of the thing; see Plant., Stich., 1, 2, 1.
4 The Accusative of Specification is closely related to the cognate Accusatives and to the Poetic Accusatives after Passive verbs used reflexively, both of which readily pass into an adverbial construction. Thus capitā in capita sellām and galeam in galeam

9
ACCUSATIVE.

Capilla velámar, we have our heads veiled (are veiled as to our heads, or have veiled our heads). Verg. Nube humerós amictus, with his shoulders enveloped in a cloud. Hor. Miles frácus membra labóre, the soldier with limbs shattered with labor (broken as to his limbs). Hor. Aeneás ès déo similis, Aeneas like a god in appearance. Verg.

1. In a strict sense, the Accusative of Specification generally specifies the part to which the action or quality particularly belongs. In this sense, it is mostly poetic, but occurs also in prose. See Ablative of Specification, 424.

2. In a freer sense, this Accusative includes the adverbial use of partem, vicem, nihil, of id and genus in id temporis, id ætatis (at this time, age), id genus, omne genus, quod genus (for eius generis, etc.), etc.; also of secus, ris, and of many neuter pronouns and adjectives—hic, illud, id, quid (454, 2), multum, summum, cetera, réliqua, etc. In this sense, it is common in prose:

Máximum partem lacte vivunt, they live mostly (as to the largest part) upon milk. Caes. Locus id temporis vacuus erat, the place was at this time vacant. Cic. Aliquid id genus scribere, to write something of this kind. Cic. Aliás ré est improbus, in other things (as to the rest) he is unprincipled. Plant. Quaerit, quid possint, he inquires how powerful they are. Caes. Quid vénisti, why have you come? Plaut.

RULE IX.—Accusative of Time and Space.

379. DURATION of Time and EXTENT of Space are expressed by the Accusative:


1. DURATION of Time is sometimes expressed by the Ablative, or by the Accusative with a preposition:

Púgnátum est hóris quinque, the battle was fought five hours. Caes. Per annós viginti centum et quattuor, the war was waged for twenty years. Liv.

2. DISTANCE is sometimes expressed by the Ablative:

Miliibus passuum sex a Caesaris castris consédit, he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar’s camp. Caes.

Note.—Ab used adverbially, meaning off, sometimes accompanies the Ablative:

Ab miliibus passuum dubus castra posuerunt, they pitched their camp two miles off. Caes.

induitur are similar constructions, while quid in quaerit quid possint may be explained either as a Cognate Accusative (371, 1, 2) or as an Adverbial Accusative.

1 Some grammarians treat genus in all such cases as an Appositive: aliquid, id genus, something, this kind; see Draeger, I., p. 2.
RULE X.—Accusative of Limit.

380. The place to which is designated by the Accusative:¹

I. Generally with a preposition—ad or in:

Legionēs ad urbem adduxit, he is leading the legions to or toward the city. Cic. Ad me scribunt, they are writing to me. Cic. In Asiam redit, he returns into Asia. Nep. Confīgit in āram, he fled to the altar. Nep.

II. In names of towns without a preposition:


Note.—Verbs meaning to collect, to come together, etc.—conveniō, cōgō, convocō, etc.—are usually treated as verbs of motion, and thus take the Accusative, generally with a preposition; but verbs meaning to place—locō, collocō, pōnō, etc.—are usually treated as verbs of rest, and thus take the Ablative (425), generally with a preposition:

Unum in locum convenire, to meet in one place. Cas. Copīs in unum locum cōgere, to collect forces in one place. Cas. In alius terrā vitam pōnere, to place one’s life in the hand of another. Cic.

1. In the names of towns the Accusative with ad occurs—(1) to denote to, toward, in the direction of, into the vicinity of, and (2) in contrast with a or ab:

Très sunt vīae ad Mutinam, there are three roads to Mutina. Cic. Ad Zaram pervēnit, he came to the vicinity of Zama. Sall. A Dianīō ad Sinopēn, from Dianium to Sinope. Cic.

2. Like names of towns are used—

1) The Accusatives domum, domōs, rūs:

Scipīō domum reductus est, Scipio was conducted home. Cic. Domōs adduxit, led to their homes. Liv. Rūs évolāre, to hasten into the country. Cic. Domum redidit, a return home. Cas.

2) Sometimes the Accusative of names of islands and peninsulas:

Laōnā confīgit Delum, Latona fled to Delos. Cic. Pervēnit Chersonēsum, he went to the Chersonesus. Nep.

3) Rarely a few other Accusatives, as exsequiōs, insequīs, etc.:²

Ille insequīt hīc, he will deny (will proceed to a denial). Ter.

3. The preposition is sometimes omitted before names of countries, and, in the poets, before names of nations and even before common nouns:

¹ Originally the place to which was uniformly designated by the Accusative without a preposition. Names of towns have retained the original construction, while most other names of places have assumed a preposition.
² See also the Supine in ūm, 546.
DATIVE.

Aegyptum profugit, he fled to Egypt. Cic. Italiam vénit, he came to Italy. Verg. Ibimus África, we shall go to the Africans. Verg. Lávinia vénit littóra, he came to the Lavinian shores. Verg.

4. A Poetical Dative occurs for the Accusative, with or without a preposition:

It clámor caeló (for ad caelum), the shout ascends to heaven. Verg. Faci-lis désénsus Averno, easy is the descent to Hades. Verg. See 385, 4.

III. ACCUSATIVE IN EXCLAMATIONS.

RULE XL.—ACCUSATIVE IN EXCLAMATIONS.

381. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in exclamations:

Heu mā miserum, ah me unhappy! Cic. Mā miserum, me miserable! Cic. Ō fallácem spem, O deceptive hope! Cic. Mā caecum, blind that I am! Cic. Prō deórum fídem, in the name of the gods! Cic. Hancine audáciam, this audacity? Cic. But—

Note 1.—An adjective or Genitive generally accompanies this Accusative, as in the examples.

Note 2.—O, cælum, and heu are the interjections most frequently used with the Accusative, though others occur.

Note 3.—Other cases also occur in exclamations:
1) The Vocatives—when an address as well as an exclamation is intended:
2) The Nominatives—when the exclamation approaches the form of a statement:
En dextra, lo the right hand (there is, or that is the right hand)! Verg. Ecce tuae lítterae, lo your letter (comes)! Cic.
3) The Datives—to designate the person after ei, vae, and sometimes after ecce, in, heu:

Ei sæi, to me. Verg. Vae tiði, to you. Ter. Ecce tiði, to you (to here is to you = observe). Cic. En tiði, this for you (to I do this for you). Liv.

SECTION V.

DATIVE.

382. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object, and designates the PERSON TO OR FOR WHOM, or the THING TO OR FOR WHICH, anything is or is done.
DATIVE.

383. The Dative is used—
I. With a large class of Verbs and Adjectives;
II. With a few special Nouns and Adverbs.

RULE XII.—Dative with Verbs.

384. The INDIRECT OBJECT of an action is put in the Dative. It is used—

I. With INTRANSITIVE and PASSIVE Verbs:

Tibi servio, I am devoted to you. Plaut. Serviunt populo, they are devoted to the people. Cic. Imperio párabant, they were obedient to (obeyed) authority. Caes. Tempori cedit, he yields to the time. Cic. Labóri student, they devote themselves to labor. Caes. Mundus deó pæræ, the world obeys God. Cic. Caesar supplicabó, I will supplicate Caesar. Cic. Nobis vita data est, life has been granted to us. Cic. Numitóri deditur, he is delivered to Numitor. Liv.

II. With TRANSITIVE Verbs, in connection with the DIRECT OBJECT:


1. The INDIRECT OBJECT may be—

1) The DATIVE OF INFLUENCE, designating the person to whom something is or is done:

Serviunt populo, they are devoted to the people. Cic. Agró plèbi dedit, he gave lands to the common people. Cic.

2) The DATIVE OF INTEREST, designating the person for whom something is or is done:

Stib Megarêsécis vicit, he conquered the Megarians for himself. Just.

3) The DATIVE OF PURPOSE or END, designating the object or end for which something is or is done:

Receptui cecinit, he gave the signal for a retreat. Liv.

thinks that this case originally designated the place or object toward which the action tended. See Kuhn's 'Zeitschrift,' vol. xviii., p. 81.

1 Is subject to God; will make supplication to Caesar.

2 Observe that the Dative of Influence is very closely connected with the verb, and is, in fact, essential to the completeness of the sentence; while the Dative of Interest and the Dative of Purpose are merely added to sentences which would be complete without them. Thus Megarêsécis vicit is complete in itself.
2. **DOUBLE CONSTRUCTION.**—A few verbs admit—(1) the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (2) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: _alicui rem donāre_, 'to present a thing to any one,' or _alicuem ré donāre_, 'to present any one with a thing':

Præadam _militibus_ donāt, _he gives the booty to the soldiers_. Caes. _Athēnīnsēs frumentō_ donāvit, _he presented the Athenians with grain_. Nep.

*Note.*—This construction may also be used of objects which are in a measure personified, or which involve persons:

Mūrum urbī circumdedīt, _he built a wall around the city_. Nep. _Deus animum circumdedit corpore, God has encompassed the soul with a body_. Cic.

3. **TO and FOR are not always signs of the Dative.** Thus—

1) **To,** denoting mere _motion_ or _direction_, is generally expressed by the Accusative with or without a preposition (380):

_Venit ad urbem, I came to the city_. Cic. _Delum vēnimus, we came to Delos_. Cic.

*Note 1.*—But the Dative occurs in the poets; see 380, 4, and 385, 4.

*Note 2.*—_Mittō, 'to send,' and scribō, 'to write,' take the Dative, or the Accusative with _ad_, to denote the _person to whom_:

_Scribit Labēnō, he writes to Labienus_. Caes. _Scribēs ad me, you will write to me_. Cic.

2) **FOR, in defence of, in behalf of,** is expressed by the Ablative with _pro_; **for the sake of, for the purpose of,** sometimes by the Accusative with _in_:

_PRO patriā mort, to die for one's country_. Hor. _Dimicāre prō libertāte, to fight for liberty_. Cic. _Satis in usum, enough for use_. Liv.

4. The _Dative_ sometimes depends, not upon the verb alone, but upon the _Predicate as a whole_:

_Tegimenta gales prō _militibus_ facere jubet, _he orders the soldiers to make coverings for their helmets_. Caes. _Liberis divitis esse volumus, we wish to be rich for the sake of our children_. Cic. _Quis habuï rei testis est, who testifies to this_ (lit., _is a witness for this thing_). Cic.

*Note 1.*—The Dative is used with verbs modified by _satis, bene, and malē_, whether written as compounds or not:

_Illes satis facere_ (also _written satisfacere_), _to satisfy them_. Caes. _Quī bene dixit unquam, for whom has he ever spoken a good word_? Cic. _Optimē virō maledicere_, _to revile a most excellent man_. Cic.

*Note 2.*—A _Dative_ is sometimes thus added to the predicate when the English idiom would lead us to expect a _Genitive_ depending upon a noun:

_In conspectum vēnerat hostibus, he had come in sight of the enemy_ (lit., _to the_...
DATIVE.


Note 8.—The Dative is sometimes very loosely connected with the predicate, merely designating the person with reference to whom the statement is true:

Tā itīl pater eō, you are a father to him. Tac. Tridūl iēr expedēitīt erat, it was a journey of three days for light-armèd soldiērs. Liv. Est urbeō grāsas tumulus, there is a mound as you go out of the city.1 Verg.

5. WITH IMPERSONAL PASSIVE.—Verbs which admit only an Indirect Object in the Active are Impersonal in the Passive, but they may retain the Dative:

Hostibus resistunt, they resist the enemy. Caes. Hīs sententīs resistentur, resistance is offered to these opinions. Caes. Nē mīhi nocērant, that they may not injure me. Cio. Mīhi nihil nocērī potēst, no injury can be done to me (lit., injury can be done to me not at all). Cic.

385. WITH SPECIAL VERBS.—The Dative of the Indirect Object is used with many verbs which require special mention. Thus—

I. With verbs signifying to benefit or injure, please or displease, command or obey, serve or resist, and the like:


II. With verbs signifying to indulge, spare, pardon, threaten, believe, persuade, and the like:


Note 1.—Some verbs of this class take the Accusative: dēlectō, juvō, laedo, offendo, etc.:


Note 2.—For fādō and confidō with the Ablative, see 426, 1, 1), note.

Note 3.—The force of the Dative is often found only by attending to the strict mean-

1 Other examples are: À Pylīs suntī locō altō sītī sunt, they are situated in an elevated place as you come (lit., to one coming) from Pylae. Liv. Descendēntibus inter duēs lācōs, as you descend (lit., to those descending) between the two groves. Liv. Ex descendēntibus ad templum mācēriā erat, there was an enclosure as you ascended to the temple. Liv. In universum sēstīntum plūs penes pedītēm rōboris ost, to make a general estimate (lit., to one making, etc.), there is more strength in the infantry. Tac.
ing of the verb: nābō, 'to marry' (strictly, to vest one's self, as the bride for the bridegroom); medōn, 'to cure' (to administer a remedy to); satisfacido, 'to satisfy' (to do enough for), etc.

1. Some verbs admit either the Acusative or the Dative, but with a difference of meaning:

Cāvēre aliquem, to ward off some one; cāvēre alicui, to care for some one.
Consulere aliquem, to consult, etc.; alicui, to consult for, etc.
Metuere, timère aliquem, to fear; alicui, to fear for.
Prōspicere, prōvidere aliquid, to foresee; alicui, to provide for.
Temperāre, moderāri aliquid, to govern, direct; alicui (of things), to restrain, put a check upon; temperāre alicui (of persons), to spare:

Hunc tū cāvēō, be on your guard against this one (lit., ward him off).
Hort. Eī cāvēō vōlō, I wish to care for him (i.e., to protect him). Cic. Perjūdium timēmus, we fear perjury. Cic. Sibī timuerant, they had feared for themselves. Cas.

Note.—Dāre litterās ad aliquem means to address a letter to some one; but dāre litterās alicui generally means to deliver a letter to one as a carrier or messenger:

Litterās mīhi ad Catilinam datæ sunt, a letter addressed to Catiline was delivered to me. Cic.

2. A Dative rendered from occurs with a few verbs of differing, dissenting, repelling, taking away, etc.:

Diffrerē cūvis, to differ from any one. Nep. Sibī dissentire, to dissent from himself. Cic. Somnūm mīhi adīmerē, to take sleep from me. Cic.

Note.—For the Poetical Dative, see 4, below; and for the Ablative with verbs of Separation or Difference, see 418.

3. A Dative rendered with occurs with miscēō, admiscēō, etc., and sometimes with facio:

Sēveritātem miscēre comitātis, to unite severity with affability. Liv. Quid huic homīni facias, what are you to do with (to) this man? Cic. See 4 below.

4. Dative in Poetry.—In the poets and in late prose-writers, the Dative is used much more freely than in classical prose. Thus it occurs with more or less frequency with the following classes of verbs:

1) With verbs denoting Motion or Direction—for the Accusative with ad or in:

Multa dēmissimōs Oron (for ad or in Oronum), we send many down to Oron. Verg. Caelō (for ad caelum) palmās tētendit, he extended his hands toward heaven. Verg. It clamor caelō, the shout goes to heaven. Verg. See also 392, 1.

2) With verbs denoting Separation or Difference—for instead of the Ablative with ab or de, or the Accusative with inter:

Solestītium pecorē (for a pecore) defendite, keep off the heat from the flock. Verg. Scevrae distābat amicus, a friend will differ from a jester. Hor. Setae capiti dēlāpes, garlands fallen from his head. Verg.

1 Many other verbs take different constructions with different meanings; see cēdo, concenito, cupio, défido, doleō, maneo, parō, peto, soleo, and volo in the Dictionary.

2 Thus with arceō, adsceō, differeō, dissentioō, disseco, distō, etc.; see Dictionary.
DATIVE.

386. DATIVE WITH COMPOUNDS.—The Dative is used with many verbs compounded with—

ad, ante, con, dē, in, inter,
or, post, praec, prō, sub, super:


1. Transitive Verbs thus compounded admit both the Accusative and the Dative:

Sō opposit hostibus, he opposed himself to the enemy. Cic. Captī subduerat ēnsem, he had removed my sword from my head. Verg. See also Libertātī optēs postferre, above.

2. Compounds of other Prepositions, especially of ab, ex, and circum, sometimes admit the Dative; while several of the compounds specified under the rule admit the Ablative with or without a preposition: 3

Sītī libertātem abhūdicat, he deprives himself (sentences himself to the loss) of liberty. Cic. Mītī timōrem ēripē, fēce mī from fear (lit., snatch away fear for me). Cic. Pūgnā assūiscere, to be accustomed to (trained in) battle. Liv. Dicta cum factis compōnere, to compare words with deeds. Sall.

3. Motion or Direction.—Compounds expressing mere motion or direction generally take the Accusative with or without a preposition: 4

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1 Thus, with cōpulo, jungo, mistecō, admissécō, permiscō, nectō, soco, etc.; certō, contendo, hucertō, pūgnō, etc.
2 Mistecō, as a transitive verb, occurs with the Accusative and Dative even in classical prose; see 385, 8; also 371, 111., note 2.
3 See assuiscēt, assequātū, acquiscētō, coeō, cohāerō, colluō, committēō, compōnō, concordō, conferō, configō, congruō, conjungō, conscientō, consistō, insīdēō, insīdīō, and interféō, in the Dictionary. See also Draeger, I., pp. 406-426
4 See acciddō, accidō, addō, adfero, adhaerēscō, adhibeo, adjungo, adnītō, adscribi, adsum, illūdo, incidō, incumbō, incurvo, offero, oppōnō, in the Dictionary.
DATIVE.

Adire ärde, to approach the altars. Cic. Ad cónsulís adire, to go to the consuls. Cic. In bello insitis, he devotes himself to the war. Cas. Ad unam periculum oppónitur, he is exposed to every peril. Cic.

4. Several compounds admit either the Accusative or the Dative without any special difference of meaning: ¹

Múntiōnumibus adjacent, they are near the fortifications. Tac. Mare illud adjacent, they are near that sea. Nep. Qubus timor inócuserat, whom fear had seized. Sall. Timor patrís inócuserit, fear seized the fathers. Liv.

5. Many compounds which usually take the Accusative or the Ablative with a preposition in classical prose, admit a Dative in poetry:

Quid contendat hirundós cygnis (for sous cygnis), why should the swallow contend with swans? Lucr. Contendís Homérō, you contend with Homer. Prop. Anímis illíbí nostrís (for in animís nostrís), to sink into our minds. Verg.

Note.—Instead of the compounds of ad, ante, etc., the poets sometimes use in the same sense the simple verbs ² with the Dative:

Qui hæsuerat (= adhæsuerat) Évandro, who had joined himself to Ævander. Verg. Pólis (= appónit) mihi porcum, you offer me (place before me) my swine’s flesh. Mart.

387. The Dative of the Possessor is used with the verb sum:

Mihi est noverca, I have (there is to me) a stepmother. ³ Verg. Fonti nónem Arethusa est, the fountain has (there is to the fountain) the name Arethusa. Cic. But—

Note 1.—The Dative of the Name as well as of the possessor is common in expressions of naming: nónem est, nónem datur, etc.:

Scipión Africana nó cognónem fuit, Scipio had the surname Africánus. Sall. Here Africánus, instead of being in apposition with cognónem, is put by attraction in apposition with Scipión.

Note 2.—The Genitive of the Name dependent upon nónem occurs:

Nónem Mercurí est mihi, I have the name or Mercury. Plaut.

Note 3.—By a Greek idiom, xoléns, cupíens, or inésitus sometimes accompanies the Dative of the possessor:

Quibus bellum cólentibus erat, who liked the war (lit., to whom wishing the war was). Tac.

388. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is used with the Gerundive, and with the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation:

¹ Such are adjaceo, adúlor, antecédó, antecit, cónitó, désperó (also with de), illúdo, incido, invictó, insúctó, praecitó, praemótor, etc.

² Thus fero for adferó, próferó; hæsó for adhæsó; pónó for appónit, désponit, impónit, etc.

³ The Dative with est usually expresses simple possession or ownership, like the English here. Habet is sometimes used in the same sense, but it more commonly expresses some of the shades of meaning denoted by hóle, keep, regard, and the like: arcum hábere, ‘to hold the citadel’; alíquem in obelístá hábere, ‘to hold or keep one in siege’; pró hoste hábere, ‘to regard as an enemy’.
DATIVE.

Proelia conjugibus loquenda, battles for women to talk about. Hor. Suum cuique incommmodum ferendum est, every one has his own trouble to bear, or must bear his own trouble. Cic.

Note.—Instead of the Dative of the Apparent Agent, the Ablative with a or ab is sometimes used:

Quibus est a vobis 3 consulendum, for whom measures must be taken by you. Cic.

1. The DATIVE of the APPARENT AGENT is sometimes used with the compound tenses of passive verbs:

Mih i consilium captum jam dixit est, I have a plan long since formed. 1 Cic.

Note.—HABEBO with the Perfect Participle has the same force as est mihi with the Participle:

Bellum habuit indici, he had a war (already) declared. Cic.

2. The Real Agent, with Passive verbs, is in classical prose denoted by the Ablative with a or ab; 2 see 415, I.

3. The DATIVE is used with the tenses for incomplete action, to designate the person who is at once Agent and Indirect Object, the person by whom and for (vo) whom the action is performed:

Honestis bonus viris queruntur, honorable things are sought by good men (i.e., for themselves). Cic.

4. In the Poets, the Dative is often used for the Ablative with a or ab, to designate simply the agent of the action:

Nón intellegor tibi, I am not understood by any one. Ovid. Régnavit arva Saturni, lands ruled by Saturn. Verg.

389. The Ethical DATIVE, denoting the person to whom the thought is of special interest, is often introduced into the Latin sentence: 4

At tibi venit ad me, but to, he comes to me. Cic. Ad illa mihi intendat animum, let him, I pray, direct his attention to those things. Liv. Quo mihi abis, whether you are going, pray? Verg. Quid mihi Celsus agit, what is my Celsus doing? Hor.

1 The Dative with the Gerundive, whether alone or in the Periphrastic Conjugation, designates the person who has the work to do; while with the compound tenses of passive verbs it designates the person who has the work already done.

2 Herù a vobis is necessary, to distinguish the Agent from the Indirect Object, quibus; but the Ablative with a or ab is sometimes used when this necessity does not exist.

3 The Dative with the Gerundive is best explained as the Dative of Possessor or of Indirect Object. Thus, suum cuique incommmodum est means 'every one has his trouble' (cuique, Dative of Possessor); and suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, 'every one has his trouble to bear.' So too, mihi consilium est, 'I have a plan'; mihi consilium captum est, 'I have a plan (already) formed.'

4 Compare the following from Shakespeare: 'He pinched me ope his doublet and offered them his threat to cut.' Julius Caesar, Act I., Scene II. 'It ascends me into the brain.' Henry IV., Part II., Act IV., Scene III. 'He presently steps me a little higher.' Henry IV., Part I., Act IV., Scene III.
NOTE 1.—The Ethical Dative is always a personal pronoun.

NOTE 2.—The Ethical Dative occurs with volō and with interjections:
Quid vobis vultis, what do you wish, intend, mean? Liv. Avēritās quid ści vult, what does avēritās mean? or what object can it have? Cic. Ei mihi, a hi me! Verg. Vae ści, woe to you. Ter. See 381, note 3, 3).

RULE XIII.—Two Datives—To which and For which.

390. Two Datives—the object to which and the object or end for which—occur with a few verbs:

I. With INTRANSITIVE and PASSIVE verbs:
Mālō est hominibus avēritās, avēritās is an evil to men (lit., is to men for an evil). Cic. Est mihi cūrae, it is a care to me. Cic. Domus dēdecōri dominō sī, the house becomes a disgrace to its owner. Cic. Vēnīt Attīcas auxiliō, he came to the assistance of the Athenians. Nep. Hōc ills tribūsātūr Ignāvius, this was imputed to him as cowardice (for cowardice). Cic. Ei subsidīō missus est, he was sent to them as aid. Nep.

II. With TRANSITIVE verbs in connection with the ACCUSATIVE:
Quinque cohōrtes castrōs praevidīō reliquit, he left five cohorts for the defence of the camp (lit., to the camp for a defence). Caes. Periclis agrōs suōs dōnō rēs publicae dedit, Pericles gave his lands to the republic as a present (lit., for a present). Just.

NOTE 1.—The verbs which take two DATIVES are:
1) Intransitive verbs signifying to be, become, go, and the like: sum, stō, etc.
2) Transitive verbs signifying to give, send, leave, impute, regard, choose, and the like: dō, dōnō, dūcō, habēo, mittō, reīngō, tribūs, vertō, etc. These take in the Active two Datives with an Accusative; but in the Passive two Datives only, as the direct object of the Active becomes the subject of the Passive; see 464.

NOTE 2.—One of the Datives is often omitted, or its place supplied by a predicate noun:
Ea sunt nēcēs, these things are of use (for use). Caes. Tū ills pater es, you are a father to him. Tac. See 362, 2, note 3.

NOTE 3.—With audiōn two Datives sometimes occur, dictō dependent upon audiōn, and a personal Dative dependent upon dictō audiōn, and sometimes dictō oboediēns is used like dictō audiōn:
Dictō sum audiōn, I am listening to the word. Plant. Nōbō dictō audiōn est, he is obedient to us. Cic. Magistrō dictō oboediēns, obedient to his master. Plant.

RULE XIV.—Dative with Adjectives.

391. With adjectives the object to which the quality is directed is put in the Dative:

Patriae solum omnibus cārum est, the soil of their country is dear to all. Cic. Id aptum est temporī, this is adapted to the time. Cic. Omni actū moris est commune, death is common to every age. Cic. Canis similis lupō
DATIVE.

est, a dog is similar to a wolf. Cic. Naturae accommodatum, adapted to nature. Cic. Graeciae utile, useful to Greece. Nep.

I. Adjectives which take the Dative are chiefly those signifying—

Agreeable, easy, friendly, like, near, necessary, suitable, subject, useful, together with others of a similar or opposite meaning,¹ and verbs in biles.

II. Other Constructions sometimes occur where the learner would expect the Dative:

1. The Accusative with a Preposition: (1) in, srga, adversus, with adjectives signifying friendly, hostile, etc., and (2) ad, to denote the object or end for which, with adjectives signifying useful, suitable, inclined, etc.:


2. The Accusative without a Preposition with propior, proximus:

Propior montem, nearer the mountain. Sall. Proximus mare, nearest to the sea. Caes. See 433 and 437.

3. The Ablative with or without a Preposition:

Alienum et vitæ meæ, foreign to my life. Ter. Homine alienissimum, most foreign to or from man. Cic. Et cum Rosci communis, common to him and Roscius (with Roscius). Cic.

4. The Genitive: (1) with adjectives used substantively; (2) with adjectives meaning like, unlike, near, belonging to, and a few others:

Amicitissimus hominum, the best friend of the men (i.e., the most friendly to them). Cic. Alexandri simillus, like Alexander (i.e., in character). Cic. Dispar sui, unlike itself. Cic. Cujus parentis, like whom. Cic. Populi Roman est propria libertas, liberty is characteristic of the Roman people. Cic.

Note 1.—Idem occurs with the Dative, especially in the poets:

Idem fact occidit, he does the same as to kill, or as he who kills. Hor.

Note 2.—For the Genitive and Dative with an adjective, see 399, 1., note 1.

RULE XV.—Dative with Nouns and Adverbs.

392. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs:

I. With a few nouns from verbs which take the Dative:

Iustitia est obtemperatiō, justice is obedience to laws. Cic.

¹ Such are accommodatūs, aequālis, aliēnus, amīcus, inimicus, optus, cărōs, facili, difficili, fidēlis, infidēlis, finitimus, grūris, ingrātus, idōnus, jucundus, infundus, molestus, necessarius, nóctis, ignis, nocēs, pār, dispers, pernicīsus, proprīus, proprīs, sēcūta, similis, disimilis, diversus, vicīns, etc.

² The Genitive is used especially of likeness and unlikeness in character.

³ As similis, dissimilis, assimilis, contraśe, pār, dispers, adśe, finitimus, proprīus; proprīs, saec, communis; aliēnus, contraśe, inūnus, etc.

⁴ From obtemperāre, which takes the Dative.
GENITIVE.

Sibé respónsí, a reply to himself. Cic. Opulentó homíni serviútus dúra est, serving (servitude) to a rich man is hard. Plaut. Facilis déscénsus ¹ Avernó, easy is the descent to Avernus. Verg.

II. With a few adverbs from adjectives which take the Dative:

Congruenter ² nátúras vivere, to live in accordance with nature. Cic. Sibí conveniênter dicere, to speak consistently with himself. Cic. Próxi-mé hostium castrís, next to the camp of the enemy. Caes.

Note 1.—In rare instances the Dative occurs with a few nouns and adverbs not included in the rule:

Tribúncia potestás, munímentum libertátis, tribúncia įmper, a defence for liberty. Liv. Hinc nunc = hinc cum hóc, with this one. Verg.

Note 2.—For the Dative of Gerundives with official names, see 544, note 8.

Note 3.—For the Dative with interjections, see 381, note 8; 389, note 2.

SECTION VI.

GENITIVE.

393. The Genitive in its ordinary use corresponds to the English possessive, or the objective with of, and expresses various adjective relations. ³

Note.—But the Genitive, especially when objective (396, III.), is sometimes best rendered to, for, from, in, on account of, etc.:


394. The Genitive is used chiefly to qualify or limit nouns and adjectives, ⁴ though it also occurs with verbs and adverbs.

RULE XVI.—Genitive with Nouns.

395. Any noun, not an appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive:


¹ From déscénsus, which admits the Dative in poetry; see 385, 4, 1).
² From congruênter, which takes the Dative.
³ The Genitive has nearly the force of an adjective, and means simply of or belonging to. Thus, régis, equivalent to régis, means of or belonging to a king. On the origin and use of the Genitive, see Häbechmann, p. 106; Merguet, p. 69; Holzweissig, pp. 76 and 78; Draeger, I., pp. 447–498; Roby, II., pp. 116–137.
⁴ Doubtless originally it limited only nouns and adjectives.
NOTES.—For the Appositive, see 369.

Note 2.—An ADJECTIVE is sometimes used for the Genitive:

Note 3.—For the Predicate Genitive, see 401.

Note 4.—For special uses of the Dative, see 364, 4, note 2.

396. The qualifying Genitive may be—

I. A POSSESSIVE GENITIVE, designating the author and the possessor:
Xenóphòntis libri, the books of Xenophon. Cic. Fànum Neptûni, the temple of Neptune. Nep.

II. A SUBJECTIVE GENITIVE, designating the subject or agent of the action, feeling, etc.:
Serpentes morsûs, the bite of the serpent. Cic. Pavor Numidûrum, the fear of the Numidians. Liv.

Note.—The Possessive Pronoun is regularly used for the Subjective Genitive of Personal pronouns:

III. An OBJECTIVE GENITIVE, designating the object toward which the action or feeling is directed:
Amor glòriæ, the love of glory. Cic. Memoria malórum, the recollection of sufferings. Cic. Deùm metus, the fear of the gods. Liv.

Note 1.—For the Objective Genitive, the Accusative with in, ërgà, or adversus is sometimes used:
Odium in hominum genus, hatred of or toward the race of men. Cic. Ërgà vos amor, love toward you. Cic.

Note 2.—The Possessive occurs, though rarely, for the Objective Genitive of Personal pronouns:
Tua fidùs, reliance on you. Cic.

IV. A PARTITIVE GENITIVE, designating the whole of which a part is taken:

V. A DESCRIPTIVE GENITIVE, also called a GENITIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC, designating character or quality, including value, price, size, weight, age, etc.

1 It will be found convenient thus to characterize the different uses of the Genitive by the relation actually existing between the words united by it, though that special relation is not expressed by the case itself, but merely suggested by the meaning of the words thus united.
GENITIVE.

Note 1.—The Descriptive Genitive must be accompanied by an adjective or some other modifier, unless it be a compound containing a modifier; as hiēu modēl = hiēus modē; trīdui, from trīs dīēs; biēdui, from duo (bīs) dīēs.

Note 2.—For id genus = ēius generis, omne genus = omnis generis, see 378, 2.

Note 3.—For the Descriptive Ablative, see 419, II, with note.

VI. An APPositional Genitive, having the general force of an Appositive (363):

Virtūs continentiae, the virtue of self-control. Cic. Oppidum Antiochiae, the city of Antioch. Cic. Tellūs Ausoni, the land of Ausonia. Verg.

397. The PARTITIVE Genitive designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used—

1. With pars, nēmā, nihil; with nouns of quantity, number, weight, etc., as modius, legiō, talentum; and with any nouns used partitive:


2. With Numerals used substantively:1

Quōrum quattuor, four of whom. Liv. Equītum centum, a hundred of the cavalry. Curt. Sapientum octāvus, the eighth of the wise men. Hor. Únus pontium, one of the bridges. Caes.

Note.—In good prose the Genitive is not used when the two words refer to the same number of objects, even though of be used in English:


3. With Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively, especially with comparatives, superlatives, and neuters:2


Note 1.—Pronouns and adjectives, except neuters, when used with the Partitive Genitive, take the gender of the Genitive, unless they agree directly with some other word; see consūlum alter, above.

Note 2.—Uterque, “each,” “both,” is generally used as an adjective; but when it is combined in the singular number with another pronoun, it usually takes that pronoun in the Genitive:

Uterque exercitus, each army. Caes. Quae utraque, both of which. Sall. Utrique nostrum gratium, acceptable to each of us. Cic.

1 Numerals used adjectively agree with their nouns: mīlēs hominēs, “a thousand men”; mīlēs hominum, “a thousand of men”; multēs hominēs, “many men”; multī hominum, “many of the men.”

2 As nōs, id, illud, quīd; multum, plūs, plurimum; minus, minimum, tantum, quantum, etc.

3 A Partitive Genitive, because a pronoun.
Note 3.—For the *Partitive Genitive*, the Accusative with *inter* or *ante*; or the Ablative with *ex*, *de*, or *in*, is sometimes used:

> *Inter rēgēs opulentissimus, the most wealthy of (among) kings.* Sen. *Unus ex viris, one of the heroes.* Cic. *Unus* 1 *de légātīs, one of the lieutenants.* Cic.

Note 4.—Poets and late prose writers make a very free use of the Partitive Genitive after adjectives:


Note 5.—The *Neuter* of pronouns and adjectives with the Partitive Genitive is sometimes used of *persons*:

> *Quīd hóc est homīne, what kind of a man is this?* Plant. *Quīdquid erat pastrum rēs dicērēs, you would have said that all the senators (lit., whatever these was of fathers) were accused.* Liv. *Quīd hóc tantum homīnum incēdunt, why are so many men (so much of men) coming hither?* Plant.

4. The Partitive Genitive also occurs with a few adverbs used substantively: 3


398. **Genitive in Special Constructions.**—Note the following:

1. The Governing Word is often omitted. Thus—

> *Aedes, templō, discipulōs, homō, juvenēs, puēr, etc.; causā, grātia,* and indeed any word when it can be readily supplied:

> *Ad Jovis (sc. aedem), near the temple of Jupiter.* Liv. *Hannibal annōrum novēm (sc. puēr), Hannibal, a boy nine years of age.* Liv. *Aberant bidū (sc. viam or spatium), they were two days' journey distant.* Cic. *Conferre vitam Trebōnī cum Dolabellae (sc. vitā), to compare the life of Trebonius with that of Dolabella.* Cic.

Note 1.—The governing word is generally omitted when it has been expressed before another Genitive, as in the last example; and then the second Genitive is sometimes attracted into the case of the governing word:

1 *Unus* is generally followed by the Ablative with *a* or *de*, but sometimes by the Genitive.

2 Observe that in this case the *partitive* idea has entirely disappeared, and that the construction is *partitives in form*, but not *in sense*.

3 As with adverbs of Quantity—*abundē, adfatisim, nimis, parum, partim, quoad, satēs,* etc.; of Place—*ā hic, hūc, nāquam, ubī, etc.; of Extent, Degree,* etc.—*ā hic, hic, guī;* and with *superlatīvem.* As adverbs are substantives or adjectives in origin, it is not strange that they are thus used with the Genitive.
GENITIVE.

Nātra hominis bēlús (for bēlūrum nātūras) antecēdit, the nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes. Cic.

Notes 2.—In many cases where we supply son, daughter, husband, wife, the ellipsis is only apparent, the Genitive depending directly on the proper noun expressed:

Hādrubal Giscūnās, Gisco’s Hādrubal, or Hādrubal the son of Gisco. Liv. Hec-tors Andromachē, Hector’s Andromache, or Andromache the wife of Hector. Verg.

2. Two GENITIVES are sometimes used with the same noun. One is generally subjective, the other either objective or descriptive:

Memmiūdodium potentiae, Memmius’s hatred of power. Sall. Helvetiōrum injūriāe populi Rōmānī, the wrongs done by the Helvetii to the Roman people. Caes. Sumerōrum diērum Sābini cunctātiō, the delay of Sabinus during (lit., of) the preceding days. Caes.

3. A Genitive sometimes accompanies a POSSESSIVE, especially the Genitive ofipse, solus, unus, or omnis:


4. The Genitive is used with instar, ‘likeness,’ ‘image,’ in the sense of as large as, of the size of, equal to:

Instar montis equus, a horse of the size of a mountain. Verg.

5. The Genitive is used with pridiē, postridiē, ergō, and tenuis:

Pridiē ējus diēt, on the day before that day. Caes. Postridiē ējus diēt, on the day after that day. Caes. Virtūtis ergō, on account of virtue. Cic. Lumbōrum tenuis, as far as the loins. Cic. For tenuis with the Ablative, see 434.

RULE XVII.—Genitive with Adjectives.

399. Many adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning:


Notes.—This Genitive corresponds to the Objective Genitives with nouns:

Amor gloriās, the love of glory. Cic. Appetēs gloriās, desirous of (eager for) glory. Cic.

1. The Genitive is used with adjectives denoting—

1. Deser or Aversion: 3

1 Ipsius may be explained as agreeing with fut (of you), involved in sua, and solius and absentis as agreeing with met (of me), involved in memum.

2 These words are strictly nouns, and, as such, govern the Genitive. Pridiē and postridiē are Locatives; ergō is an Ablative, and tenuis, an Accusative; see 304; 307, note 1.

3 Such are—(1) avidus, cupidus, studiōsus; justitiōsus, etc.; (2) gnārus, ignārus, consūtus, consēctus, inācieus, necius, certus, incertus; prōvidus, prūdēns, imprud-

2. Knowledge, Skill, Recollection, with their contraries:¹

3. Participation, Guilt, Fulness, Mastery, with their contraries:¹

Noot 1.—The Genitive and Dative sometimes occur with the same adjective:

Noot 2.—For the Genitive with adjectives used substantivally, and with adjectives meaning like, unlike, near, belonging to, etc., see 391, II., 4.

Noot 3.—For the Genitive with dignus and indignus, see 431, note 8.

II. The Genitive is used with Verbs in Æx, and with Present Participles used adjectively:

III. In the poets and in late prose writers, especially in Tacitus, the Genitive is used—

1. With adjectives of almost every variety of signification, simply to define their application:³

2. With a few adjectives, to denote cause:
Lactus labórum, pleased with the labors. Verg. Notus animí paterní, distinguished for paternal affection. Hor.

1 See foot-note 3, page 210.
² Amáns patriae, 'fond of his country,' represents the affection as permanent and constant; whereas the participial construction, amáns patriam, 'loving his country,' designates a particular instance or act.
³ Like the Ablative of Specification; see 424. For èdít reus, 'bound to fulfill a vow,' see 410, III., note 2.
⁴ Probably a Locative in origin, as animé is used in similar instances in the plural.
400. Adjectives which usually take the Genitive, sometimes admit other constructions:

1. The Dative:


2. The Accusative with a Preposition:


3. The Ablative with or without a Preposition:


**RULE XVIII.**—Predicate Genitive.

401. A noun predicated of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive:

Omnia hostium erant, all things belonged to the enemy. Liv. Senatus Hannibalis erat, the senate was Hannibal’s (i.e., in his interest). Liv. Judicis est verum sequi, to follow the truth is the duty of a judge. Cic. Parvi pretii est, it is of small value. Cic. Tyrus mare sui dicionis fecit, Tyre brought the sea under (lit., made the sea or) her sway. Curt.

Note 1.—For a noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing, see 362; 373, 1.

Note 2.—A Predicate Genitive is often nearly or quite equivalent to a Predicate adjective (360, note 1): hominis est = humannum est, ‘it is the mark of a man,’ ‘is human;’ stultit est = stultitum est, ‘it is foolish.’ The Genitive is the regular construction in adjectives of one ending: sapientia est (for sapientas est), ‘it is the part of a wise man,’ is wise.’

Note 3.—Possessive pronouns in agreement with the subject supply the place of the Predicate Genitive 4 of personal pronouns:

Est tuum (not tu) videre, it is your duty to see. Cic.

Note 4.—Aequi, doni, and reliqui occur as Predicate Genitives in such expressions as aequi facere, aequi bonique facere, doni consueles, ‘to take in good part,’ and reliqui facere, ‘to leave’:

Aequi bonique facere, I take it in good part. Ter. Militae nihil reliqui victis fecere, the soldiers left nothing to the vanquished. Sall.

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1 Literally, were of the enemy, or were the enemy’s.
2 Literally, is of a judge.
3 Here dicionis, denoting a different thing from mare, of which it is predicated, is put in the Genitive.
4 This is another illustration of the close relationship between a Predicate Genitive and a Predicate Adjective; see also note 2.
GENITIVE.

402. The Predicate Genitive is generally Possessive or Descriptive, rarely Partitive:

Haec hostium erant, these things were of (belonged to) the enemy. Liv. Est imperatòris superàre, it is the duty of a commander to conquer. Caes. Summæ facultatís est, he is (a man) of the highest ability. Cic. Opera magni fuit, the assistance was of great value. Nep. Fès nobilium fontium, you will become one of the noble fountains. Hor.

403. The Predicate Genitive occurs most frequently with sum and facio, but sometimes also with verbs of seeming, regarding, etc.:

Öram Românae dicionis fecit, he brought the coast under (made the coast of) Roman rule. Liv. Hominis videtur, it seems to be the mark of a man. Cic. See also examples under 401.

Note. — Transitive verbs of this class admit in the active an Accusative with the Genitive, as in the first example.

404. The Predicate Genitive of price or value is used with sum and with verbs of valuing:


Note 1. — With these verbs the Genitive of price or value is generally an adjective,\(^1\) as in the examples, but pretios is sometimes used:

Parvi pretios est, it is of little value. Cic.

Note 2. — Nihíli and, in familiar discourse, a few other Genitives\(^2\) occur:

Nihíli fecere, to take no account of. Cic. Nón súccid pende, not to care a straw (lock of wool) for. Plaut.

405. Tantí, quantí, plúris, and mínorís are also used as Genitives of price with verbs of buying and selling:\(^4\)

Émit hortós tantí, he purchased the gardens at so great a price. Cic. Vèndó frumentum plúris, I sell grain at a higher price. Cic.

Note. — For the Ablative of price, see 422.

RULE XIX. — Genitive with Special Verbs.

406. The Genitive is used—

I. With misereor and miseréscò:

Miserére labórum, pity the labors. Verg. Miseréscite régis, pity the king. Verg.

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\(^1\) Facilitatis and mágni are Descriptive, but fontium is Partitive.

\(^2\) The following adjectives are so used: mágni, pare, tantí, quantí; plúris, mínorís; plúrimi, máxími, and mínimi.

\(^3\) As gáiss, flocc, nauc, and píx.

\(^4\) Observe that verbs of buying and selling admit the Genitive of price only when one of these adjectives is used. In other cases they take the Ablative of price.
GENITIVE.

II. With recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor:


III. With réfert and interest:

Illōrum réfert, it concerns them. Sall. Interest omnium, it is the interest of all. Cic.

Note.—The expression, Venit in mentem, 'it occurs to mind,' is sometimes construed with the Genitive and sometimes with the Nominative:

Venit mihi Platōnis in mentem, the recollection of Plato comes to my mind, or I recollect Plato. Cic. Nūn venit in mentem pūagna, does not the battle occur to your mind? Liv.

407. Verbs of remembering and forgetting often take the Accusative instead of the Genitive:


Note 1.—The Accusative is the common construction (1) with recordor and (3) with the other verbs, if it is a neuter pronoun or adjective, or designates an object remembered by a contemporary or an eye-witness.

Note 2.—The Ablative with dé is rare:

Recordār dé cōloris, be think yourself of the others. Cic.

408. The Construction with réfert and interest is as follows:

I. The Person interested is denoted—

1. By the Genitive, as under the rule.

2. By the Ablative Feminine of the Possessive.3 This takes the place of the Genitive of personal pronouns:

Meō réfert, it concerns me. Ter. Interest meas, it interests me. Cic.

3. By the Dative, or Accusative with or without Ad; but rarely, and chiefly with réfert, which moreover often omits the person:

Quid réfert viventi, what does it concern one living? Hor. Ad mē réfert, it concerns me. Plaut.

II. The Subject of Importance, or that which involves the interest, is expressed by an Infinitive or Clause, or by a Neuter Pronoun:

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1 The Genitive with verbs of pitying, remembering, and forgetting probably depends upon the substantive idea contained in the verbs themselves; see Internal Object, 371, 1, 2. Thus, memini with the Accusative means I remember distinctly and fully, generally used of an eye-witness or of a contemporary; but with a Genitive, it means to have some recollection of. With réfert the Genitive depends upon rē, the Ablative of rēs, contained in the verb, and with interest it may be a Predicate Genitive, or may simply follow the analogy of réfert.

2 With venit in mentem, the Genitive Platōnis supplies the place of subject. It probably limits the pronominal subject already contained in venit, as in every Latin verb, it or that of Plato, the recollection of Plato.

3 See foot-note 1, above.
GENITIVE.

Interest omnium recte facere, to do right is the interest of all. Cic. Vestrā hoc interest, this interests you. Cic.

III. The Degree of Interest is expressed by an Adverb, by a Neuter used adverbially, or by a Genitive of Value (404):

Vestrā máximum interest, it especially interests you. Cic. Quid nostrā referit, what does it concern us? Cic. Māgnī interest me, it greatly interests me. Cic.

IV. The Object or End for which it is important is expressed by the Accusative with ad, rarely by the Dative:

Ad honōrem nostrum interest, it is important for our honor. Cic.

RULE XX.—Accusative and Genitive.

409. The Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing are used with a few transitive verbs:

I. With verbs of reminding, admonishing:

Tē amicitiae commonefacit, he reminds you of friendship. Cic. Militēs necessitātis monet, he reminds the soldiers of the necessity. Ter.

II. With verbs of accusing, convicting, acquitting:


III. With miseret, paenitet, pudet, taedet, and piget:

Eorum nōs miseret, we pity them (it moves our pity of them). Cic. Consilīō mē paenitet, I repent of my purpose. Cic. Mē stultitiae mēa pudet, I am ashamed of my folly. Cic.

Note 1.—The Genitive of the Thing designates, with verbs of reminding, etc., that to which the attention is called; with verbs of accusing, etc., the crime, charge; and with miseret, paenitet, etc., the object which produces the feeling; see examples.

Note 2.—The personal verbs included under this rule retain the Genitives in the Passive:

Accusatūs est prōditionis, he was accused of treason. Nep.

1 The Genitive with verbs of reminding and admonishing may be explained like that with verbs of pitying, remembering, and forgetting; see foot-note 1, page 214. With verbs of accusing, etc., the Genitive may also be explained in the same way, or may depend upon nōmine, criminē, or jūdičio, understood. Sometimes one of these nouns is expressed; see 410, II., 1.

2 The Genitive with paenitet, pudet, etc., like that with ventī in mentem (see 408, note, with foot-note), depends upon the impersonal subject contained in the verb. Thus, te hæc pudet means these things shame you, and mē stultitiae mēa pudet, literally rendered, means of my folly (i.e., the thought of it, or something about it), shames me. The Genitive with miseret may be explained either in the same way, or like that with miseror; see foot-note 1, page 214.
GENITIVE.

Note 3.—In judicial language a few verbs not otherwise so used are treated as verbs of accusing. Thus condictō occurs with the Genitive in Livy, I., 82.

410. SPECIAL CONSTRUCTIONS.—The following deserve notice:

I. Verbs of Reminding and Admonishing sometimes take, instead of the Genitive—

1. The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely of a substantive, thus admitting two accusatives: 
   Illud mé admonēs, you admonish me of that. Cic.

2. The Ablative with ἃ—monē and its compounds generally so: 
   De proelio vós admonuñi, I have reminded you of the battle. Cic.

II. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, sometimes take, instead of the Genitive of the crime, etc.—

1. The Genitive with nominé, criminé, judició, or some similar word: 
   Nómine conjüratiónis damnátī sunt, they were condemned on the charge of conspiracy. Cic. Innocentem judició capitis aeresere, to arraign an innocent man on a capital charge. Cic.

2. The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely: 
   Id mé accusás, you accuse me of that. Plaut.

3. The Ablative alone or with a preposition, generally ἃ: 
   De pecúnias repetundās damnátus est, he was convicted of extortion. Cic.

III. With verbs of Condemning, the Penalty is generally expressed by the Ablative,¹ or by the Accusative with a preposition, usually ad:

   Tertíā parte damnātī, to be condemned to forfeit a third of one’s land. Liv.

Note 1.—In the poets the penalty is sometimes expressed by the Dative: 
   Morti damnātus, condemned to death. Lucr.

Note 2.—The Genitive occurs in such special expressions as capita condamnāre, ‘to condemn to death’; cōtā damnātī, ‘to be condemned to fulfil a vow’ = ‘to obtain a wish’; damnātī longī laborīs, ‘to be condemned to long labor’; cōtā reus = cōtā damnātus, ‘condemned to fulfil a vow’:

   Aliquam capitā condamnāre, to condemn one to death. Cic. Damnātus longī laborīs, condemned to long labor. Hor.

IV. With Misericet, Pænitet, Pudet, Tædet, and Pīget, an Infinitive or Clauses is sometimes used, rarely a neuter pronoun or nihil:

   Mé pænitet vixisse, I repent having lived. Cic. Tē habe pudet, these things shame you. Ter.

Note 1.—Like misericet are sometimes used misericēcit, commiserēcit, misericētur, commiserētur. Like taedēt are used pertaedēt, pertaecum est.

Note 2.—Pudet sometimes takes the Genitive of the person before whom one is ashamed:

   Mé tui pudet, I am ashamed in your presence. Ter. Pudet hominum, it is a shame in the sight of men. Liv.

¹ Regularly so when the penalty is a definite sum of money.
² Best explained as a substantive.
**ABLATIVE.**

N.B. 2.—*Pertinax* admits the Accusative of the object: *Pertinax Ignauum suum, disgusted with his own inaction.* Suet.

V. Many other verbs sometimes take the Genitive. Thus—

1. Some verbs of plenty and want, as *plentus, implens,* 1 *aegus, indiget,* like adjectives of the same meaning (399, I., 3):


2. Some verbs of *desire, emotion,* or *feeling,* like adjectives of the same meaning (399, I., 1):


3. A few verbs denoting *mastery or participation,* like adjectives of the same meaning (399, I., 3), *potior,* 4 *adipiscor,* régno:

   *Siciliae potitus est, he became master of Sicily.* Nep. *Rerum aedeps est, he obtained the power.* Tac. *Régnavit populorum, he was king of the peoples.* Hor.

4. In the *poets,* a few verbs 4 take the Genitive, instead of the Ablative of Separation or Cause (413):


**Note.—** For the Genitives of Gerunds and Gerundives, see 542, I.; 544.

**SECTION VII.**

**ABLATIVE.**

**411. The Latin Ablative performs the duties of three cases originally distinct:**

I. The Ablative Proper, denoting the relation FROM:

*Expulsus est patria, he was banished from his country.* Cic.

1 Transitives of this class of course admit the Accusative with the Genitive.
2 See 421, IL
3 *Animi* in such instances is probably a *Locative* in origin, as *animis* is used in the same way in the plural. See foot-note on *animis,* 399, III., 1.
4 *Potior* takes the Genitive regularly when it means to reduce to subjection.
5 *As obidisset, dècisit, dècisit, loeit, liberit,* etc.; *miror,* etc.
6 These three cases, still recognised in the Sanskrit, originally had distinct forms; but in the Latin, under the influence of phonetic change and decay, these forms have
II. The Instrumental, denoting the relation with, by:
Sōl omnia luce collusit, the sun illumines all things with its light. Cic.

III. The Locative, denoting the relation in, at:
Sē oppidi tenet, he keeps himself in the town. Cic.

I. Ablative Proper.

RULE XXI.—Place from which.

412. The Place from which is denoted by the Ablative:
I. Generally with a preposition—ā, ab, dē, or ex:

II. In Names of Towns without a preposition:¹
1. Many names of islands, and the Ablatives domō and rūre, are used like names of towns:
Domō profugit, he fled from home. Cic. Dē domō proficiscitur, he proceeds from Delos. Cic.

2. The Ablative of places not towns is sometimes used without a preposition, especially in poetry:
Cadere nubibus, to fall from the clouds. Verg. Labi equō, to fall from a horn. Hor.

3. The preposition is sometimes used with names of towns, especially for emphasis or contrast:
Ab Areā Romānā venerunt, they came from Areā to Rome. Liv.

Note.—The preposition is generally used when the vicinity, rather than the town itself, is meant:
Discessit a Brundisium, he departed from Brundisium (i. e., from the port). Caes.

RULE XXII.—Separation, Source, Cause.

413. Separation, Source, and Cause are denoted by the Ablative with or without a preposition:

Separation.—Caedem a vobis dépellit, I ward off slaughter from you. Cic. Hunc a tutō ārēs arcēbis, you will keep this one from your altars.

become identical, and their uses have been blended in a single case called the Ablative. On the general subject of the Ablatives and its use, see Marguet, pp. 106–117; Delbrück; Hübschmann, pp. 89–106; Holzweissig, pp. 26 and 75; Draeger, I., pp. 494–571; Boby, II., pp. 69–115.

¹ This was the original construction for all places alike.
ABLATIVE.

Cic. Expulsus est patriâ, he was banished from his country. Cic. Urbem commettit privâvit, he deprived the city of supplies. Nep. Consát dēstiturunt, they desisted from the attempt. Caes. Vágínâ ĕripie ferrum, draw your sword from its scabbard. Verg.


CAUSE.—Ars utilitāte laudātur, an art is praised because of its usefulness. Cic. Lacrimō gaudī, I weep for (on account of) joy. Ter. Vestrá hóc causā velēbam, I desired this on your account. Cic. Rogātū vēneram, I had come by request. Cic. Ex vulnere aeger, ill in consequence of his wound.

Cic. Aeger erat vulneribus, he was ill in consequence of his wounds. Nep.

NOTE 1.—Transitive Verbs admit an Accusative with the Ablative; see examples.

NOTE 2.—The prepositions most frequently used with the Ablative of Separation and Source are d, ab, dē, ē, ex, and with the Ablative of Cause, dē, ē, ex.

NOTE 3.—With the Ablative of Separation the preposition is more freely used when the separation is local and literal than when it is figurative: dē fori, ‘from the forum’; ab Asia, ‘out of Asia’; but levōre mētā, ‘to relieve from fear’; consūtā dēstitere, ‘to desist from the undertaking.’

NOTE 4.—For the Genitive instead of the Ablative of Separation, see 410, V., 4; and for the DATIVE similarly used, see 385, 3.

414. The ABLATIVE OF SEPARATION designates that from which anything is separated, or of which it is deprived, and is generally used without a preposition in the following situations:

I. With verbs meaning to relieve, deprive, need, be without: ¹


Cic. See also examples under 413.

II. With moveō in special expressions: ²

Signum movēre locō, to move the standard from the place. Cic.

III. With adjectives meaning free from, destitute of: ³


Cic. Urba nōda praeṣidīo, a city destitute of defence. Cic.

NOTE.—For a similar use of the Genitive, ⁴ see 399, I., 3.

IV. With open and ēstus, meaning need:

¹ As expedīo, exposero, levō, relinquo, liberō, relaxō, solvo, absolvō, exsolvo; exūō, fraudō, nūdō, orbō, spoliō, privō, etc.

² As in movēre locō, movēre senātūs, movēre tribūs, movēre reīūs.

³ A or ab is generally used with names of persons and sometimes with other words.

⁴ Epēnus, indīgus, sterīlis, and some others are freely used with the Genitive; see 399, I., 8.
Authoritatis tua nobis opus est, we need (there is to us a need of) your authority. Cic. Usus est tua mihl operâ, I need your aid. Plaut.

Note 1.—In most other instances a preposition accompanies the Ablative of Separation, though often omitted in poetry and in late prose.

Note 2.—Opus est and usus est admit the Dative of the person with the Ablative of the thing; see examples.

Note 3.—With opus and usus, the Ablative is sometimes a perfect participle, or, with opus, a noun and a participle:

Consulit opus est, there is need of deliberation. Sall. Opus fuit Hirtius conventū, there was need of meeting Hirtius. Cic.

Note 4.—With opus est, rarely with usus est, the thing needed may be denoted—

1) By the Nominative, rarely by the Genitive or Accusative:

Dux nobis opus est, we need a leader, or a leader is necessary (a necessity) for us. Cic. Temporā opus est, there is need of time. Liv. Opus est cibum, there is need of food. Plaut.

2) By an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Supine:

Opus est tē valēre, it is necessary that you be well. Cic. Opus est ut lavem, it is necessary for me to bathe (that I bathe). Plaut. Dictū est opus, it is necessary to be told. Ter.

415. The ABLATIVE OF SOURCE more commonly takes a preposition; see examples under 413. It includes agency, parentage, material, etc.

I. The agent or author of an action is designated by the Ablative with ab or ab:

Occisus est a Thēbānōs, he was slain by the Thēbans. Nep. Occidit a fortī Achille, he was slain (lit., fell) by brave Achilles. Ov.

1. The Ablative without a preposition may be used of a person, regarded not as the author of the action, but as the means by which it is effected:

Cūrns Numidiēs ērmat, he strengthens the wings with Numidiens. Liv.

Note 1.—The Accusative with per may be used of the person through whose agency the action is effected:

Ab Oppianō per Fabriciōnēs factum est, it was accomplished by Oppianicus through the agency of the Fabricius. Cic.

Note 2.—For the Dative of Agent, see 388.

2. When anything is personified as agent, the Ablative with ab or ab may be used as in the names of persons:


II. PERFECT PARTICIPLES denoting parentage or birth—genitus, nātus, ortus, etc.—generally take the Ablative without a preposition:


1 Here note the distinction between the Ablative with ab (ab Oppianōcō), denoting the author of the action, the Accusative with per (per Fabriciōnēs), the person through whose agency the action was performed, and the Ablative alone (Numidiēs), the means of the action.
ABLATIVE.

NOTE.—In designating Remote Ancestry, a or ab is generally used; but after natus and ortus, the Ablatives familiae, genera, loco, and stirpe, when modified by an adjective, omit the preposition:


III. With the Ablative of Material, a or ex is generally used, though often omitted, especially in poetry:


Notes 1.—A special use of the Ablative, kindred to the above, is seen with factō, fītō, and sum in such expressions as the following:

Quid hōc homine factā, what are you to do with this man? Cic. Quid illō fīct, what will become of him? Cic. Quid tō futūrum est, what will become of you? Cic.

Notes 2.—The Deitive or the Ablative with de occurs in nearly the same sense:

Quid hunc homini factā, what are you to do with (or to) this man? Cic. Quid dē tō futūrum est, what will become of you? Cic.

416. The Ablative of Cause is generally used without a preposition. It designates that by reason of which, because of which, in accordance with which anything is or is done, and is used both with verbs and with adjectives; see examples under 413.

I. Cause is sometimes denoted—

1) By the Ablative with a, ab, dē, a, ex, prae:


2) By the Accusative with ob, per, propter:

Per saétem inutilēs, useless because of (lit., through) their age. Cas. In oppidum propter timōrem sésec recipiunt, they betake themselves into the city on account of their fear. Cas.

Notes 1.—With transitive verbs the moēs which prompts the action is often expressed by the Ablative with a perfect passive participle:

Regni cupiditāte inductus conjurātiōnem fecit, influenced by the desire of ruling, he formed a conspiracy. Cas.

Notes 2.—That in accordance with which anything is done is often denoted by the Ablatives with a or ex:

1 The Ablatives of Cause is very far removed from the original meaning of the Ablative, and indeed in some of its uses was probably derived from the Instrumental Ablatives; see 418.
2 This includes such Ablatives as med judicio, in accordance with my opinion; med sententia, jūsē, impulsiō, monēta, etc.; causē, gratiā; also the Ablative with dē, separatō, doleō, excito, esculcio, gaudeō, labōrō, lacrimō, lastor, triumphō, etc.
3 See note 2, foot-note.
4 Here cupiditātēs must be construed with inductus, yet it really expresses the cause of the action, fēcit.
ABLATIVE.

RULE XXIII.—Ablative with Comparatives.

417. Comparatives without QUAM are followed by the Ablative:*

Nihil est amabilior virtute,* nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Quid est melius bonitate,* what is better than goodness? Cic. Scimus sōlem majorem esse terrā,* we know that the sun is larger than the earth. Cic. Amicitia, quā nihil melius habēmus, friendship, than which we have nothing better. Cic. Lacrimā nihil citius ārēscit, nothing dries sooner than a tear. Cic. Potiōrem Irā salutem habet, he regards safety as better than anger. Liv.

1. Comparatives with QUAM are followed by the Nominative, or by the case of the corresponding noun before them:

Hibernia minor quam Britannia existimātur, Ireland is considered smaller than Britain. Cas. Agris quam urbē terribilior, more terrible to the country than to the city. Liv.

Note 1.—The construction with quam is the full form for which the Ablative is an abbreviation. The Ablative is freely used for quam with a Subject Nominative or Subject Accusative—regularly so for quam with the Nominative or Accusative of a relative pronoun, as in the fourth example under the rule. In other cases quam is retained in the best prose, though sometimes omitted in poetry.

Note 2.—After plūs, minus, amplius, or longius, in expressions of number and quantity, quam is often omitted without influence upon the construction; sometimes also after mājor, minor, etc.:

Tecum plius annum vivi, he lived with you more than a year. Cic. Minus duo millia, less than two thousand. Liv.

Note 3.—Instead of the Ablative after a comparative, a preposition with its case, as ante, prae, praest, or supra, is sometimes used:

Ante abīs immānior, more monstrous than (before) the others. Verg.

Note 4.—Alius, involving a comparison, other than, is sometimes used with the Ablative:

* These and similar Ablatives with prepositions show the transition from source to cause, and illustrate the manner in which the latter was developed from the former. The Ablative with the preposition seems in general to retain something of the idea of source.

* This Ablative furnishes the standard of comparison—that from which one starts. Thus, if virtus is taken as the standard of what is lovely, nothing is more so. This Ablative is sometimes explained as instrumental (418), but that view is controverted by a similar use of the Greek Genitive, which does not contain the Instrumental Ablative, and of the Sanskrit Ablative, which is often distinct from the instrumental.

* Virtute = quam virtūte; bonitate = quam bonitāte; terrā = quam terram (so. esse).

* So in expressions of age: nātus pluris trigintā annīs, 'having been born more than thirty years.' The same meaning is also expressed by mājor trigintā annīs nātus, alīor trigintā annīs, mājor quam trigintā annōrum, or mājor trigintā annōrum.
ABLATIVE.

Querit alia his, he seeks other things than these. Plant. Allus sapiente, other than a wise man. Hor.

Note 5.—Quam pro denotes disproportion, and many Ablatives—opinione, spe, aequo, ius, solito, etc.—are often best rendered by clauses:

Minor casdēs quam pro victūrai, less slaughter than was proportionate to the victory. Liv. Sèvius spe vēnit, he came later than was hoped (than hope). Liv. Pius sequō, more than is fair. Cic.

2. With Comparatives, the Measure of Difference,¹ the amount by which one thing surpasses another, is denoted by the Ablative:

Hibernia dimidiō minor quam Britannia, Ireland smaller by one half than Britain. Caes.

II. INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE.

418. The Instrumental Ablative denotes both Accompaniment and Means.²

RULE XXIV.—Ablative of Accompaniment.

419. The Ablative is used—

I. To denote ACCOMPANIMENT. It then takes the prepositioncum:

Vivit cum Balbō, he lives with BALBUS. Cic. Cum gladiis stant, they stand with swords (i.e., armed with swords). Cic.

II. To denote CHARACTERISTIC OR QUALITY. It is then modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

Summa virtūte aduléscēns, a youth of the highest virtue. Caes. Quidam māgnō capite, òre rubicundō, māgnis pedibus, a certain one with a large head, with a red face, and with large feet. Plaut. Catilina ingeniō malō fuit, Catiline was a man of a bad spirit. Sall. Ûrī sunt specīē taurī, the urus is (lit., the uri are) of the appearance of a bull. Caes.

Note.—The Ablative, when used to denote characteristic or quality, may be called either the Descriptive Ablative or the Ablative of Characteristic.

III. To denote MANNER.³ It then takes the prepositioncum, or is modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

¹ See 423.
² The idea of means was probably developed from that of accompliment, as seen in such expressions as cum omnibus copiis sequitur, 'he pursues with all his forces'—accompliment, which readily suggests means, as he employs his forces as means; equi iucrunt, 'they went with horses'—accompliment and means. Some scholars have conjectured that originally accompliment and means were expressed by separate case-forms, but of this there seems to be little proof.
³ Note the close connection between these three uses of the Ablative—the first designating an attendant person or thing—with Balbus, with swords; the second, an attendant quality—a youth with (attended by) the highest virtue; the third, an attend-
Cum virtute visit, he lived virtuously. Cic. Summā vi proelium commissurunt, they joined battle with the greatest violence. Nep. Duōbus modis, it is done in two ways. Cic.

Note 1.—The Ablative of manner sometimes takes cum even when modified by an adjective:
Māgnā cum curā scriptēl, he wrote with great care. Cic.

Note 2.—But the Ablative of a few words is sometimes used without cum, even when unattended by an adjective, as jūre, ‘rightly’; in iūris, ‘unjustly’; ordine, ‘in an orderly manner’; ratiōne, ‘systematically’; silentiō, ‘in silence,’ etc.1

Note 2.—Per, with the Accusative, sometimes denotes manner: per vim, ‘violently’; per tēdam, ‘sportively.’

1. On the ABLATIVE OF ACCOMPANIMENT, observe—

1) That cum is often omitted—(1) especially when the Ablative is qualified by an adjective, and (2) after jūndo, miscēo, and their compounds:

2) That the Ablative with cum is often used of hostile encounters:
   Cum Gallis certāt, to fight with the Gauls. Sall. Nobiscum hostēs contendorum, the enemy contended with us. Cic.

Note.—For the Dative with verbs denoting union or contention, see 388, 4, 8).

2. On the DESCRIPTIVE ABLATIVE, as compared with the DESCRIPTIVE GENITIVE, observe—

1) That in descriptions involving sē and number, the Genitive is used; see examples under 396, V.

2) That in most descriptions involving external characteristics, parts of the body, and the like, the Ablative is used, as in the second and fourth examples under 419, II.

3) That in other instances either case may be used.

4) That the Ablative, like the Genitive, may be used either with nouns, as in the first and second examples under 419, II., or with verbs in the predicate, as in the other examples.

RULE XXV.—Ablative of Means.

420. INSTRUMENT and MEANS are denoted by the Ablative:

Cornibus taurī sē tīmantur, bulls defend themselves with their horns. Cic. Gloriā dūcitur, he is led by glory. Cic. Sōl omnīs lūce collustrat, the sun illumines all things with its light. Cic. Lactē vivunt, they live upon milk. Caes. Tellūs saecūs vomeribus, the earth turned (wounded) with the ploughshare. Ovid.

ant circumstance—to live with virtus, virtuously. Compare cum Baldō vicevit and cum virtūte vicevit.

1 But perhaps most Ablatives which never take cum are best explained as the Ablative of cause—as īnsā, ‘according to law’; ċōnsūtūdīne, ‘according to custom’; ċōm- vītūre, ‘on purpose,’ etc.
Note.—This Ablative is of frequent occurrence, and is used both with verbs and with adjectives.

1. The following expressions deserve notice:
   1) Quadragrínta hostiás sacrificáre, to sacrifice with forty victims. Liv. Facérē vitulá, to make a sacrifice of (lit., with) a female calf. Verg.
   2) Fidibus cantáre, to play upon a stringed instrument. Cic. Pilã ludere, to play at ball (lit., with the ball). Hor.

2. Adfectó with the Ablative forms a very common circumlocution; honóres adfécere = honóre, to honor; admiratiónes adfécere = admirári, to admire; pos-ná adfécere = púnire, to punish, etc.:
   Omné laetítia adfectó, he gladdens all. Cic.

RULE XXVL—Ablative in Special Constructions.

421. The Ablative is used—

I. With fútor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:
   Plúrima rébus fruimur et útimur, we enjoy and use very many things. Cic. Mánus est praeclá potússus, he obtained great booty. Nep. Lacte et carne vescébantur, they lived upon milk and flesh. Sall.

II. With Verbs and Adjectives of Plenty:

III. With dignus, indignus,3 and contentus:

Note 1.—Transitive verbs of Plenty take the Accusative and Ablative:
   Armís návés onerát, he loads the ships with arms. Sall. See also the last example under 421, II.

Note 2.—Dignor, as a Passives verb meaning 'to be deemed worthy;'

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1 This Ablative is readily explained as the Ablative of means: thus, útor, 'I use,' 'I serve myself by means of'; fruor, 'I enjoy,' 'I delight myself with'; vescor, 'I feed upon,' 'I feed myself with,' etc.
2 The nature of the Ablative with dignus and indignus is somewhat uncertain. On etymological grounds it is explained as instrumental; see Delbrück, p. 72; Corasan, 'Krit. Beitr.,' p. 47.
3 Transitive verbs of plenty mean 'to fill,' 'to furnish with,' etc., as cumuló, compleó, impleó, imbuó, instruó, oneró, ornó, etc.
ABLATIVE.

takes the Ablative; but as a Deponent verb meaning ‘to deem worthy,’ used only in poetry and late prose, it takes the Accusative and Ablative:

Homôredignâtiumsumt,theyhavebeendeemedworthyofhonor.Cic. Më
dignhorôre,Ideemmyselfworthyofhonor.Verg.

Note 2.—Dignus and indigens occur with the Genitive:

Dignus salutis, worthy of safety. Plaut. Indignus avōrum, unworthy of their an-
cestors. Verg.

Note 4.—Uxor, fruor, jungor, potior, and sescor, originally transitive, are occa-
sionally so used in classic authors. Their participle in due is passive in sense. Uxor
admits two Ablatives of the same person or thing:

Mō ītētur patre, he will find (use) me a father. Ter.

Note 8.—For the Genitivus with potior, see 410, V, 5. For the Genitivus with verbs and adjectives of plenty, and for the Accusative and Genitivus with transitives, verbs of plenty, see 410, V, 1, with foot-note, and 399, L, 3.

RULE XXVII.—Ablative of Price.

422. Price is generally denoted by the Ablative:

Vendidit aurō patriam, he sold his country for gold. Verg. Condūxit māg-
nō domum, he hired a house at a high price. Cic. Multō sanguine Poenis victoria stetit, the victory cost the Carthaginians (stood to the Carthaginians at) much blood. Liv. Quinquāginta talentis aessimāri, to be valued at fifty talents. Nep. Vile est viginti minās, it is cheap at twenty minae. Plaut.

Note 1.—The ABLATIVE OF PRICE is used (1) with verbs of buying, selling, hiring, letting; (2) of costing, of being cheap or dear; (3) of valuing; (4) with adjectives of value.1

Note 2.—With verbs of EXCHANGING—mutā, commutā, etc.—(1) the thing received is generally treated as the price, as with verbs of selling, but (2) sometimes the thing given is treated as the price, as with verbs of buying, or is put in the Ablative with cum:


Note 3.—For the GENITIVE OF PRICE, see 405.

RULE XXVIII.—Ablative of Difference.

423. The MEASURE OF DIFFERENCE is denoted by the Ablative:

Ünō diē longōrerem mēnsem faciunt, they make the month one day longer (longer by one day). Cic. Bidō mē antecessit, he preceded me by two
days. Cic. Sōl multōs partibus mājōr est quam terra, the sun is very much (lit., by many parts) larger than the earth. Cic.

Note 1.—The Ablative is thus used with all words involving a comparison, but ad-
versus often supply its place: multōm robūstior, 'much more robust.'

Note 2.—The Ablative of difference includes the Ablative of distance (379, 2), and the Ablative with anē, poē, and abhēc in expressions of time (430).

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1 As æō, omenō, ilicō, sum, etc.; ēhrus, vēndīta, etc.
ABLATIVE.

RULE XXIX.—Specification.

424. A noun, adjective, or verb may take an Ablative to define its application:


Note 1.—This Ablative shows in what respect or particular anything is true: thus, king (in what respect?) in name.

Note 2.—For the Accusative of Specification, see 378.

III. LOCATIVE ABSOLUTE.

RULE XXX.—Place in which.

425. The Place in which is denoted—

I. Generally by the Locative Ablative<sup>1</sup> with the preposition in:


II. In Names of Towns by the Locative,<sup>2</sup> if such a form exists, otherwise by the Locative Ablative:

Rómæ fuit, he was at Rome. Cic. Corinthi pueròs docébat, he taught boys at Corinth. Cic. Athénís fuit, he was at Athens. Cic. Hóc facís Argís, you do this at Argos. Hor. Karthágine régés cæsabantur, kings were elected (created) at Carthage. Nep. Gádibus vixit, he lived at Gades. Cic.

Note.—For the construction with verbs meaning to collect, to come together, and with those meaning to place, see 380, note.

1. In the names of places which are not towns, the Locative Ablative is often used without a preposition:

1) When the idea of means, manner, or cause is combined with that of place:<sup>3</sup>


<sup>1</sup> The learner will remember that the Locative Ablative does not differ in form from any other Ablative; see 411.

<sup>2</sup> See 48, 4; 51, 8; 68, 4. The Locative was the original construction in all names of places.

<sup>3</sup> In some cases place and means are so combined that it is difficult to determine which is the original conception.
ABLATIVE.

victória glóriantur, they glory in their victory. Caes. Nullo offició assísfactí, trained in no duty. Caes.

Nota.—The Ablative is generally used with fidó, confidó, nitó, tanitó, and frítus:

2) When the idea of place is figurative rather than literal:


2. The Ablatives locó, locis, parte, partibus, dextrá, laevá, sinistrá, terrá, and marí, especially when qualified by an adjective, and other Ablatives when qualified by látus, are generally used without the preposition:


Nota 1.—The Ablative lbró, ‘book,’ generally takes the preposition when used of a portion of a work, but omits it when used of an entire treatise:

Nota 2.—Other Ablatives sometimes occur without the preposition, especially when qualified by omnis, medius, or unicus rus:
Omnibus oppidís, in all the towns. Caes.

Nota 3.—In poetry the Locative Ablative is often used without the preposition:

3. ABLATIVE FOR THE LOCATIVE.—Instead of the Locative in names of towns the Ablative is used, with or without a preposition—

1) When the proper name is qualified by an adjective or adjective pronoun:

2) Sometimes when not thus modified:

Nota.—The following special constructions deserve notice:

1 In the singular omnís is generally used, a Locative probably both in form and in signification; see p. 211, foot-note 4.
2 At Alexandria would regularly be expressed by the Locative, Alexandriáce.
3 Here Cittis is in apposition with oppidó, the usual construction in such cases, though a Genitive limiting oppidó occurs: In oppidó Antiochiae, in the city of Antioch. Cic.
4 A Locative may thus be followed by its urbe, or is oppidó, modified by an adjective; but see 365, 4, 3). The preposition in is sometimes omitted.
ABLATIVE.

426. Like Names of Towns are used—

1. Many Names of Islands:
   Lesbē vixit, he lived in Lesbē. Nep. Conōn Cypri vixit, Conon lived in
   Cyprus. Nep.

2. The Locatives domi, rūrī, humī, militiaē, and bellī:
   Domī militiaēque, at home and in the field. Cic. Rūrī agere vitam, to
   spend life in the country. Liv.

Note.—A few other Locatives also occur:
   Rōmæ Numīdiaeque, at Rome and in Numīdia. Sall. Domum Chersonēsi habuit,
   he had a house in the Chersonæus. Nep. Truncum reliquit arēnā, he left the body
   in the sand. Verg.

427. Summary.—The Names of Places not Towns are gen-
   erally put—

I. In the Accusative with ad or in, to denote the place to which:
   In Asiam redit, he returns to (into) Asia. Nep.

II. In the Ablative with ab, dē, or ex, to denote the place from which:
   Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city. Caes.

III. In the Locative Ablative with in, to denote the place at or in which:
   Hannibal in Italīs sēvit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep.

Note.—For qualifications and exceptions, see 380, 3 and 4; 412, 2; 425, 1 and 2.

428. Summary.—The Names of Towns are put –

I. In the Accusative, to denote the place to which:
   Nūntius Rōmam redit, the messenger returns to Rome. Liv.

II. In the Ablative, to denote the place from which:
   Fugit Corinthiō, he fled from Corinth. Cic.

III. In the Locative, or in the Locative Ablative, to denote the place at
   or in which:
   Corinthiā pueros docēbat, he taught boys at Corinth. Cic. Gādibus vixit,
   he lived at Gades. Cic.

Note.—For qualifications and exceptions, see 380, 1; 412, 3; 425, 3.

RULE XXXI.—Time.

429. The Time of an Action is denoted by the Ablative:

Octōgesimō annō est mortuus, he died in his eightieth year. Cic. Vīnae
   convēnērunt, they assembled in the spring. Liv. Nātātī dimī sunt, on his birth-

1 So also terras and victēs.
2 This, the original construction for all names of places, has been retained unchanged
   only in the names of towns and in a few other words. Most names of places have as-
  sumed a preposition with the Accusative and Ablative, and have substituted the Loca-
   tive Ablative with a preposition in place of the Locative; see 411, III.
3 That is, the Locatives is used if any such form exists; if not, the Locative Ablative
   supplies its place.

1. Certain relations of Time are denoted by the Ablative with in or diēs:

In tāltempore, at such a time (i. e., under such circumstances). Liv. In diēbus próximis decem, in the next ten days. Sall. De mediā nocte, in (lit., from, out of) the middle of the night. Caes.

2. Certain relations of Time are denoted by the Accusative with ad, in, inter, intrā, sub, etc.:

Ad constitutum diem, at the appointed day. Cic. Ad eōnam invitāre in posterum diem, to invite to dinner for the next day. Cic. Intrā viginti diēs, within twenty days. Plaut. Inter tot annös, within so many years. Cic. Sub noctem, toward night. Caes.

430. The Interval between two events may be denoted by the Accusative or Ablative with ante or post: 2

Aliquot post mēnēs 3 occūsus est, he was put to death some months after. Cic. Post diēs paucōs vēnit, he came after a few days. Liv. Pauca ante diēbus, a few days before. Cic. Homērus annōs multīs fuit ante Romulum. Homer lived many years before Romulus. Cic. Pauca diēbus post ejus mortem, a few days after his death. Cic. Annōs quīngentīs post, five hundred years after. Cic. Quartum post annum quam redierat, four years after he had returned. Nep. Nōnō annō postquam, nine years after. Nep. Sextō annō quam erat expulsus, six years after he had been banished. Nep.

Notes 1.—In these examples observe—
1) That the numeral may be either cardinal, as in the sixth example, or ordinal, as in the last three.

2) That with the Accusative ante and post either precede the numeral and the noun, or stand between them; but that with the Ablative they either follow both, or stand between them.

3) That quām may follow ante and post, as in the seventh example; may be united with them, as in the eighth, or may be used for postquam, as in the ninth.

Notes 2.—The Ablative of the Relative may be used for postquam:
Quattuorō, quod occūsus est, four days after he was killed. Cic.

1 The Ablative with diēs is used to denote (1) the circumstances of the time, and (2) the time in or within which. In the second sense it is used especially after numeral adverbs and in designating the periods of life: bis in diē, 'twice in the day'; in pueriūtū, 'in boyhood,' etc.

2 In two instances the Ablative with annōs is used like the Ablative with ante:
Annōs trentī diēbus, thirty days before. Cic.

3 The Accusative after ante and post depends upon the preposition, but the Ablative is explained as the measure of difference (423).

4 Thus, 'five years after' = quīngue annōs post, or quīntō annō post; or post quīngue annō, or post quintō annum; or with post between the numeral and the noun, quīngue post annō, etc.

5 Any other arrangement is rare.
ABLATIVE.

Norm 8.—The time since an event may be denoted by the Accusative with abhinc or ante, or by the Ablative with ante: ¹

Abhinc annos trecentos fuit, he lived three hundred years ago. Cic. Pauci ante diemus erupit ex urbe, he broke out of the city a few days ago. Cic.

Rule XXXII.—Ablative Absolute. ²

431. A noun and a participle may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an attendant circumstance:

Servio régnante viguerunt, they flourished in the reign of Servius (Servius reigning). ² Cic. Régibus exactis, cónsules créati sunt, after the banishment of the kings, ³ consuls were appointed. Liv. Equitáte praemissá, subsequébatur, having sent forward his cavalry, he followed. Caes. Régi­num haud satis prósperum neglecta réligione, a reign not sufficiently pro­perous because religion was neglected. Liv. Perdítus rébus omnibus tamen virtús sē sustinère potest, though all things are lost, still virtue is able to sustain itself. Cic. Obsidibus imperatís, hós Áedus tradít, ⁴ having demanded hostages, he delivers them to the Áedús. Caes.

1. The Ablative Absolute, much more common than the English Nomina­tive Absolute, generally expresses the time, cause, or some attendant circumstance of an action.

2. This Ablative is generally best rendered—(1) by a noun with a prepos­i­tion—in, during, after, by, with, through, etc.; (2) by an active participle with its object; or (3) by a clause with when, while, because, if, though, etc.; ⁵ see examples above.

3. A connective sometimes accompanies the Ablative:

Nisi munita castra, unless the camp should be fortified. Caes.

4. A noun and an adjective, or even two nouns, may be in the Ablative Absolute: ⁷

¹ The Accusative is explained as duration of time (379), the Ablative as measure of difference (423).

² This Ablative is called absolute, because it is not directly dependent for its construction upon any other word in the sentence. Originally Locative, it was first used to denote situation or time, a meaning from which its later uses may be readily derived. Thus, while the force of a Locative Ablative is apparent in Servio régnante and in régi­bus exactis, it is recognized without difficulty in neglecta réligione as indicating the situation or state of things in which the reign was not prosperous. In some instances, however, the Ablative Absolute may be instrumental or causal.

³ Or, while Servius was reigning or was king.

⁴ Or, after the kings were banished.

⁵ In this example obsidibus and hós refer to the same persons. This is unusual, as in this construction the Ablative generally refers to some person or thing not otherwise mentioned in the clause to which it belongs.

⁶ The first method of translation comes nearer the original Latin conception, but the other methods generally accord better with the English idiom.

⁷ This construction is peculiar to the Latin. In the corresponding constructions in Sanskrit, Greek, and English, the present participle of the verb 'to be' is used.
CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

Serēnō caelo, when the sky is clear. Sen. Cānnīō consulē, in the consulship of Cānnīus. Cic.

Notes. 1.—An infinitive or clause may be in the Ablative Absolute with a neuter participle or adjective:

Auditō Dārīum mōvīasse, pergīt, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had, etc., having been heard), he advanced. Ourt. Multī, incertō quid vitārent, interīrunt, many, uncertain what they should avoid (what they, etc., being uncertain), perished. Liv.

Note 2.—A participle or adjective may stand alone in the Ablative Absolute:

Multum certātō, pervīcit, he conquered after a hard struggle.¹ Tac.

Note 3.—Quēque or ipsum in the Nominative may accompany the Ablative Absolute:

Multās sibi quāque potēntibus, while many sought, each for himself. Sall. Causā ipsum prō sē dictā damnātur, having himself advocated his own cause, he is condemned. Liv.

Note 4.—For the use of absentēs and præsēntēs in the Ablative Absolute with a plural noun or pronoun, see d.38, 6, note.

SECTION VIII.

CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

RULE XXXII.—Cases with Prepositions.

432. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with prepositions: ²


433. The ACCUSATIVE is used with—

Ad, adversus (adversum), ante, apud, circā, circum, circiter, cis, cītrā, contrā, ērgā, extrā, ínfrā, inter, intrā, jūxtā, ob, pene, per, pōne, post, præter, prope, propter, secundum, supra, trāns, ultrā, versus:


Notes. 1.—Ex adversus (sum) also occurs with the Accusative:

Ex adversus sum locum, over against that place. Cic. See also d.37.

Note 2.—Versus (sum) and seque, as adverbs, often accompany prepositions, especially ad and in:

Ad õceanum versus, toward the ocean. Caes. Ad meridiem versus, toward the south. Liv. Usque ad castra hostīum, even to the camp of the enemy. Caes.

¹ Literally, at having been much contested. The participle is used impersonally.
² On the general subject of Prepositions and their Use, see Roby, II., pp. 451-455; Draeger, I., pp. 574-585; Kühner, II., pp. 485-489.
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Note 3.—For proprius, prōximus, propior, and prōsimus, with the Accusative, see prope, note 2, under L, below.

Note 4.—For compounds of prepositions, see 372 and 376.

I. The following uses of prepositions with the Accusative deserve notice:

Ad, to, the opposite of ab, from.—(1) to, toward, till; (2) near, at, on:
ad me, 'to me,' near me,' at my house'; ad urbem, 'to the city,' near the city'; ad dextram, 'on the right'; ad multam noctem, 'till late in the night'; ad lucem, 'till daybreak'; ad hóc, 'besides this,' moreover'; ad verbum, 'word for word'; ad hinc modum, 'after this manner'; ad ultimum, 'at last'; ad omnem omne, 'all to a man,' 'all without exception.'

Apud, near, at, before, in the presence of: apud oppidum, 'near or before the town'; apud me, 'at my house'; sum apud me, 'I am at home' or I am in my right mind'; apud Platonem, 'in the works of Plato.'

Ante, before, in front of, above, in preference to: ante seis annos, 'before his time,' 'too early'; ante tempus, 'before the proper time'; ante annum, 'a year before'; ante urbem conditam, 'before the founding of the city'; ante illius pulcherrimus omnes, 'the most beautiful above all others.'

Circum, circa, circiter, round, around, about: circum forum, 'around the forum'; circa se, 'around or with himself'; circa eandem hōram, 'about the same hour'; circiter meridiem, 'about midday.'

Note.—Circum, the oldest of these forms, is used only of place; circa, both of place and of time; circiter, rare as a preposition, chiefly of time. They are all freely used as adverbs: circum concurrens, 'to gather around'; circa esse, 'to be around'; circiter parte quartae, 'about the fourth part.'

Cis, cīrā, on this side—cīs opposed to trāns, across, on the other side; cīrā opposed to ālīrā, beyond: cīs flāmen, 'on this side of the stream'; cīs pauci dīe, 'within a few days'; cīrā veritātem, 'short of the truth'; cīrā autēricītēm, 'without authority.'

Contrā, opposite to, over, against, against, contrary to: contrā eis regiones, 'opposite to those regions'; contrā populum, 'against the people'; contrā nātūram, 'contrary to nature.'

Ergā, toward, to, against: ergā parentēs, 'toward parents'; odium ērgā Romānōs, 'hatred to the Romans'; ērgā regem, 'against the king.'

Extra, outside, without, free from, except: extra portam, 'outside the gate'; extra culpam, 'without fault,' 'free from fault'; extra ducem, 'except the leader,' 'besides the leader.'

Infra, below, under, beneath, less than, after, later than, opposed to suprā, above: infra lūnum, 'beneath the moon'; infra me, 'below me'; infra tres pedes, 'less than three feet'; infra Lycurgum, 'after Lycurgus.'

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1 For the form and meaning of prepositions in composition, see 344, 5.
2 These three forms are all derived from circūs, 'a circle' (i.e., from its stem); see 304; 307, note 1.
3 These are often adverbs.
4 According to Vaniek, from ε and the root reg in regō; 'in the direction of' (lit., from the direction of). In Tactus, sometimes in relation to: ērgā domum eum, 'in relation to his own household.'
5 Infra = inferā parte, 'in the lower part.'
CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

Inter, between, among, in the midst of: inter urbem et Tiberim, 'between the city and the Tiber'; inter bonis, 'among the good'; inter manus, 'in the hands'; within reach, 'tangible'; inter nōs, 'between us', 'in confidence'; inter sē amāre, 'to love one another'; inter sē differre, 'to differ from one another'; inter paucis, inter paucum, 'especially', 'preeminently'; inter paucis disertus, 'preeminently eloquent'; inter purpuram aqua aurum, 'in the midst of purple and gold.'

Intrā, within, less than, below, opposed to extrā, on the outside, without: intrā castra, 'within the camp'; intrā me, 'within me'; intrā sē, 'in his mind' or 'in their minds'; intrā centum, 'less than one hundred'; intrā modum, 'within the limit'; intrā fāmam, 'below his reputation.'

Ob, before, in view of, in regard to, on account of: ob oculos, 'before one's eyes'; ob stultitiam tuam, 'in view of your folly', or 'in regard to your folly'; ob hanc rem, 'in view of this thing', 'for this reason', 'on this account'; quam ob rem, 'in view of which thing', 'therefore.'

Per, through, by the aid of: per forum, 'through the forum'; per alīce, 'through others,' by the aid of others'; per sē, 'by his own efforts,' also 'in himself,' 'in itself'; per mutum, 'through fear'; per addiēm, 'in consequence of age'; per lādum, 'sportively'; per vim, 'violently'; per mā licet, 'it is allowable as far as I am concerned' (i.e., I make no opposition).

Post, behind, after, since: post montem, 'behind the mountain'; post dedicātīōnem templi, 'after the dedication of the temple'; post homīnem memoriam, 'since the memory of man.'

Prāeter, before, along, past, by, beyond, besides, except, contrary to: prāter oculos, 'before their eyes'; prāter oran, 'along the coast'; prāter cēteros, 'beyond others,' 'more than others'; prāter hanc = prāter-sē, 'besides these things,' 'moreover'; prāter me, 'except me'; prāter hēm, 'contrary to expectation.'

Prop̣e, propter, near, near by. Prop̣e, near; propter = pro-peṛṭ, a strengthened form of prop̣e, very near, alongside of, also in view of, on account of: prop̣e hostes, 'near the enemy'; prop̣e mutum, 'near to fear,' 'almost fearful'; propter mare, 'near the sea'; propter timōrem, 'on account of fear'; propter sē, 'on his own account,' 'on their own account.'

Notes 1.—Prop̣e, as an adverb, is sometimes combined with d, ob, or ad: prop̣e d Siciliā, 'near Sicily,' 'not far from Sicily'; prop̣e ad portas, 'near to the gates.'

Notes 2.—Like prop̣e, the derivatives propíus and propíśmus, and sometimes even propter and proseximus, admit the Accusative.  

Propíus periculum, nearer to danger. Liv. Próximē déēs, very near to the gods.

1 Formed from in by the ending ter, like prae-ter from prae (434, I), prop-ter from propes (433, I), and sub-ter from sub (435, I).
2 Often equivalent to in mó anímō, 'in my mind.'
3 Sometimes, in his country, or in their country.
4 In origin kindred to the Greek ἐπάθα.
5 Formed from prae (434, I), like in-ter from in; see inter, with foot-note.
6 See inter, with foot-note.
7 Perhaps by a construction according to sense, following the analogy of propes, though in some cases a preposition may readily be supplied.
CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

Cic. Propror montem, nearer to the mountain. Sall. Prōximus mare, nearest to the sea. Cas.

Secundum, following, next after, next behind, alongside of, conforming to, according to, in favor of: secundum āram, ‘behind the altar’; secundum dels, ‘next after the gods’; secundum lūdēs, ‘after the games’; secundum flumen, ‘along the river’; secundum nātūram, ‘according to nature’; following nature; secundum causam nostram, ‘in favor of our cause.’

Suprā, on the top, above, before, too high for; opposed to infrā, below: suprā lūnam, ‘above the moon’; suprā hanc memoriam, ‘before our time’; suprā hominem, ‘too high for a man.’

Trāns, across, on the other side, opposed to cōns, on this side: trāns Rhenum, ‘across the Rhine’; trāns Alpēs, ‘on the other side of the Alps.’

Ultrā, beyond, across, on the other side, more than, longer than, after, opposed to cītrā, on this side: ultrā cum locum, ‘beyond that place’; ultrā sum, ‘beyond him’; ultrā pignus, ‘more than a pledge’; ultrā flēm, ‘beyond belief,’ ‘incredible’; ultrā puerī annōs, ‘after (beyond) the years of boyhood.’

434. The ABLATIVE is used with—

Ā or ab (abs), absque, cūram, cum, dē,
ē or ex, prae, prū, sine, tenus.


NOTES 1.—Many verbs compounded with ab, dē, ex, or super admit the Ablative dependent upon the preposition, but the preposition is often repeated, or some other preposition of kindred meaning is used:


NOTES 2.—Ā and ē are used only before consonants, ab and ae before either vowels or consonants. Abē is antiquated, except before ē.

NOTES 3.—For cum appended to the Ablative of a personal pronoun or of a relative, see 184, 6, and 187, 2.

NOTES 4.—Tenus follows its case. In its origin it is the Accusative of a noun, and as such it often takes the Genitive:

Collō tenus, up to the neck. Or. Lumbōrum tenus, as far as the loins. Cic.

1 Properly the neuter of secundus, ‘following,’ ‘second’; but secundus is a gerundive from secuor, formed like dicundus from dicco (239). For the change of ḡ to c before u in secundus for secu-undus, see 26, foot-note.

2 Like the adjective secundus in ventus secundus, ‘a favoring wind’—one that follows us on our course; flūmina secundō, ‘with a favoring current’ (1. c., down the stream).

3 Suprā = superē parsē, ‘on the top.’

4 Literally, before this memory. For ἀμ meaning my or our, see 450, 4, note 1.

5 Though in such cases the first element of the compound is not strictly a preposition, but an adverb (344, with foot-note). Thus, in dē vitā décedere, dē in the verb retains its adverbial force, so that, strictly speaking, the preposition is used only once.

6 From the root ten, tên, seen in ten-dō, ten-ō, and in the Greek τεν-ω.
Note 5.—For the Ablative with or without dé, as used with facél, fit, and sum, see 415, III., note.

1. The following uses of prepositions with the Ablative deserve notice:

A, ab, abl, from, by, in, on, on the side of. 1. Of Place; from, on, on the side of: à Galliá, 'from Gaul'; ab ortú, 'from the east'; à fronte, 'in front' (lit., from the front); à térvo, 'in the rear'; ab Sequaniá, 'on the side toward the Sequani.' 2. Of Time; from, after: ab hora tertius, 'from the third hour'; à puero, 'from boyhood'; ab cohortátióne, 'after exhorting.' 3. In other relations; from, by, in, against: à poená liber, 'free from punishment'; missus ab Syracusánis, 'sent by the Syracusans'; ab equitátióne firmus, 'strong in (lit., from) cavalry'; ab animó aeger, 'diseased in mind'; ab eis defendere, 'to defend against (from) them'; esse ab aliquó, 'to be on one's side'; à nóbit, 'in our interest'; servus ab pedivis, 'a footman.'

Note.—Abepús, rare in classical prose, is found chiefly in Plautus and Terence.

Cum, with, in most of its English meanings: cum patre habitáre, 'to live with one's father'; Caesáre cum quinque legiúnibus, 'Caesar with five legions'; consule cum summo imperató, 'the consul with supreme command'; servus cum látó, 'a slave with a weapon,' 'an armed slave'; cum príma lúce, 'with the early dawn,' 'at the early dawn'; consensu cum aliqúo, 'to agree with any one'; cum Syracusiáque, 'to treat with Caesar'; cum aliqúo dimídic, 'to contend with any one'; multis cum lacrimis, 'with many tears'; cum virtúte, 'virtuously'; cum eò ut, or cum eò quod, 'with this condition that,' 'on condition that.' See also 419, III.

Dé, down from, from, of. 1. Of Place; down from, from: de caelo, 'down from heaven'; de fóró, 'from the forum'; de májóribus audire, 'to hear from one's elders.' 2. Of Time; from, out of, during, in, at, after: de prándió, 'from breakfast'; de dié, 'by day,' 'in the course of the day'; de tertiá vigilitá, 'during the third watch'; de médio nocte, 'at about midnight.' 3. In other relations; from, of, for, on, concerning, according to: de summo genere, 'of the highest rank'; factó de marnore signum, 'a bust made of marble'; hómi de plábé, 'a man of plebian rank,' 'a plebian'; triumphus de Galliá, 'a triumph over (concerning) Gaul'; gráve de causá, 'for a grave reason'; de móre vétustá, 'according to ancient custom'; de inductió, 'on purpose'; de intégrá, 'as new.' See also 415, III., note 2.

Ex, out of, from. 1. Of Place; out of, from, in, on: ex urbe, 'from the city,' 'out of the city'; ex equo pugnáre, 'to fight on horseback'; ex vinculis, 'in chains' (lit., out of or from chains); ex itinere, 'on the march.' 2. Of Time; from, directly after, since: ex cír tempore, 'from that time'; ex tempore diceré, 'to speak extemporaneously'; diem ex dié, 'from day to day.' 3. In other relations; from, out of, of, according to, on account of, through: ex vulneribus petire, 'to perish of (because of) wounds'; ánus à filiis, 'one of the sons'; ex commutatióne, 'on account of the change'; ex consuetúdine, 'according to custom'; à vestitió, 'on the spot'; ex parte magná, 'in great part'; ex imprévisto, 'unexpectedly.'

1 Greek ásó. 2 Compare Greek εύς, ούς, with. 3 Compare Greek ὄφ, out of.
cases with prepositions.

prae, before, in comparison with, in consequence of, because of:  
prae manu esse, 'to be at hand'; prae manu habère, 'to have at hand'; prae se ferre, 'to show, display, exhibit'; prae nobis beatum, 'happy in comparison with us'; non prae lacrimis poère, 'not to be able because of tears.'

Pro, before; in behalf of, in defence of, for; instead of, as; in return for, for; according to, in proportion to: pro castra, 'before the camp'; pro libertate, 'in defence of liberty'; pro patria, 'for the country'; pro consule = prœconsul, 'a proconsul' (one acting for a consul); pro certo habère, 'to regard as certain'; pro eo, quod, 'for the reason that'; because'; pro tue prudentia, 'in accordance with your prudence'; pro imperio, 'imperiously'; pro eo quæque, 'each according to his ability.'

435. The ACCUSATIVE or ABLATIVE is used with—

in, sub, subter, super:


Note 1.—In and sub take the Accusative after verbs implying motion, the Ablative after those implying rest; see examples.

Note 2.—Subter and super generally take the Accusative; but super, when it means concerning, of, on (of a subject of discourse), takes the Ablative; see examples.

I. The following uses of in, sub, subter, and super deserve notice:

In, with the Accusative, into, to, toward, till. 1. Of Place; into, to, toward, against, in: in urbem, 'to go into the city'; in Persiam, 'into the country of the Persians'; in dranum, 'to the altar'; in locum convenire, 'to meet in one place' (380, with note). 2. Of Time; into, to, for, till: in noctem, 'into the night'; in multam noctem, 'until late at night'; in die, 'into the day,' also 'for the day'; in diem, 'from day to day,' 'daily'; invitài in postera diem, 'to invite for the following day.' 3. In other relations; into, against, toward, on, for, as, in: divisi in partes tres, 'divided into three parts'; in hostem, 'against the enemy'; in id certámen, 'for this contest'; in memoriam patriæ, 'in memory of his father'; in opem poëcis, 'in the hope of peace'; in rem esse, 'to be useful,' 'to be to the purpose.'

In, with the Ablative, in, on, at. 1. Of Place; in, at, within, among, upon: in urbem, 'in the city'; in Persiam, 'among the Persians'; saptimésimus in septem, 'the wisest among or of the seven.' 2. Of Time; in, at, during, in the course of: in tali tempore, 'at such a time'; in tempore, 'in time.' 3. In other relations; in, on, upon, in the case of: esse in armis, 'to be in arms'; in summō timore, 'in the greatest fear'; in hoc homine, 'in the case of this man.'

Sub, with the Accusative, under, beneath, toward, up to, about, direct-

1 This causal meaning is developed from the local. The noun in the Ablative is thought of as an obstacle or hindrance: non præ lacrimis poère, 'not to be able before, in the presence of, because of such a hindrance as tears.'
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Ly after: sub jugum mittere, 'to send under the yoke'; sub nostram aciem, 'toward our line'; sub astra, 'up to the stars'; sub vesperum, 'toward evening'; sub éas litteras, 'directly after that letter'; sub imperium redactus, 'brought under one's sway.'

Sub, with the Ablative, under, at, at the foot of, in, about: sub terrâ, 'under the earth'; sub pelibus, 'in tents'; sub brâmâ, 'at the time of the winter solstice'; sub ìuce, 'at dawn'; sub hóe verbó, 'under this word'; sub rúdico, 'in the hands of the judge' (i.e., not yet decided).

Note.—Subter, a strengthened form of sub, meaning under, generally takes the Ablative in poetry: subter mare, 'under the sea'; subter togam, 'under the toga'; subter dínae testudine, 'under a compact testudo.'

Super, with the Accusative, over, upon, above: sedens super arma, 'sitting upon the arms'; super Numidiam, 'beyond Numidia'; super sexágintâ miliá, 'upward of sixty thousand'; super natúram, 'supernatural'; super omnia, 'above all.'

Super, with the Ablative, upon, at, during, concerning, of, on: strâd super ostró, 'upon purple couches' (lit., upon the spread purple); nôte super médiâ, 'at midnight'; hâc super ò scribère, 'to write upon this subject'; multa super Priâmô rogátina, 'asking many questions about Priam.'

Note.—The Ablative is rare with super, except when it means concerning, about, on (of the subject of discourse). It is then the regular construction.

436. Prepositions were originally adverbs (307, note 1), and many of the words generally classed as prepositions are often used as adverbs in classical authors:


437. Conversely, several words generally classed as adverbs are sometimes used as prepositions. Such are—

1. With the Accusative, proprius, pribi, prâximê, vridie, postridie, usque, dav: super:

Propius pereclum, nearer to danger. Liv. Pridi Ídae, the day before the Ídae. Cic. Usque pedes, even to the foot. Curt.

2. With the Ablative, intus, palam, procul, simil (poetic):

Tált intus templó, within such a temple. Verg. Palam populo, in the presence of the people. Liv. Procule cæstris, at a distance from the camp. Tac. Simul his, with these. Hor.

3. With the Accusative or Ablative, clam, insuper:


1 That is, in camp (lit., under skins).
2 Formed from sub, like in-ter from in; see 433, I., inter, foot-note.
3 They are, in fact, sometimes adverbs and sometimes prepositions.
CHAPTER III.
SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

RULE XXXIV.—Agreement of Adjectives.

438. An adjective agrees with its noun in gender, number, and case:

Fortūna caeca est, fortune is blind. Cic. Vērae amicitiae, true friendships. Cic. Magister optimus, the best teacher. Cic. Quō in rē privātās injuriās ultus est, in which thing he avenged private wrongs. Caes. Sōl oriēns diem conācit, the sun rising makes the day. Cic.

1. Adjective Pronouns and Participles are Adjectives in construction, and accordingly conform to this rule, as in quō in rē, sōl oriēns.

2. When an adjective unites with the verb (generally sum) to form the predicate, as in caeca est, ‘is blind,’ it is called a Predicate Adjective (360, note 1); but when it simply qualifies a noun, as in vērae amicitiae, ‘true friendships,’ it is called an Attributive Adjective.

3. Agreement with Clause, Etc.—An adjective may agree with any word or words used substantively, as a pronoun, clause, infinitive, etc.:

Quis clārior, who is more illustrious? Cic. Certum est liberōs amāri, it is certain that children are loved. Quint. See 42, note.

Note.—An adjective agreeing with a clause is sometimes plural, as in Greek:
Ut Aenēas jactātur nōta tibi, how Aeneas is tossed about is known to you. Verg.

4. A Neuter Adjective used as a substantive sometimes supplies the place of a Predicate Adjective:

Mors est extremum, death is the last thing. Cic. Triste lupus stabulis, a wolf is a sad thing for the flocks. Verg.

5. A Neuter Adjective with a Genitive is often used instead of an adjective with its noun, especially in the Nominative and Accusative:


6. Synēsia.—Sometimes the adjective or participle conforms to the real meaning of its noun, without regard to grammatical gender or number:

Pars certāre parātī, a part (some), prepared to contend. Verg. Inspe-rantī nōbis, to us (me) not expecting it. Catul. Dēmostrēnēs cum ēteris erant expulsi, Demosthenes with the others had been banished. Nep.

1 As in Greek: οἷς ἵπποις τελευκερανῖς, the rule of the many is not a good thing.
2 Multum operae = multa opera or multam operam; id temporis = id tempus; vāna rērurum = vānae rērurum or vānae rēs.
3 A construction according to sense; see 636, IV., 4.
4 Parātī is plural, to conform to the meaning of pars, ‘part,’ ‘some,’ plural in sense;
AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

Note.—In the Ablative Absolute (431) absentes and praeente occur in early Latin with a plural noun or pronoun: 1
Præsente 1 ibus (et), 2 in their presence (lit., they being present). Plaut. Præsente testibus, in the presence of witnesses. Plaut.

7. AGREEMENT WITH ONE NOUN FOR ANOTHER.—When a noun governs another in the Genitive, an adjective belonging in sense to one of the two nouns, sometimes agrees with the other:
Majora (for majorum) rerum initia, the beginnings of greater things. Liv.
Cursus justi (justus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.

Note 1.—In the passive forms of verbs the participle sometimes agrees with a predicate noun or with an appositive; see 468.
Note 2.—An adjective or participle predicated of an Accusative is sometimes attracted into the Nominative to agree with the subject:
Ostendit eō dextram (for dextram), she shows herself favorable. Verg.

439. An adjective or participle, belonging to two or more nouns, may agree with them all conjointly, or may agree with one and be understood with the others:
Castor et Pollux vist sunt, Castor and Pollux were seen. Cic. Dubitāre visus est Sulpicius et Cotta, Sulpicius and Cotta seemed to doubt. Cic. Temeritāte ignātīisque viōcēs est, rashness and ignorance are bad. Cic.

1. The ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVE generally agrees with the nearest noun:
Agri omnēs et maria, all lands and seas. Cic. Cūncta maria terraque, all seas and lands. Sall.

2. A plural adjective or participle, agreeing with two or more nouns of different genders, is generally masculine when the nouns denote persons or sentient beings, and in other cases generally neuter:
Pater et māter mortuæ sunt, father and mother are dead. Ter. Honōres, victorīae fortuītae sunt, honors and victories are accidental things. Cic. Labor volūptāisque inter sē sunt juncta, labor and pleasure are joined together. Liv.

Note.—When nouns denoting sentient beings are combined with those denoting things, the plural adjective or participle in agreement with them sometimes takes the gender of the former and sometimes of the latter, and sometimes is neuter irrespective of the gender of the nouns:
Rāx régisque clāsia profecti sunt, the king and the royal fleet set out. Liv. Bēgem régnumque sua fortunae sunt, they know that the king and the kingdom will be theirs. Liv. Immīcā inter sē sunt libertā in civitās et rāx, a free state and a king are hostile to each other. Liv.

3. With nouns denoting inanimate objects, the adjective or participle is often neuter, irrespective of the gender of the nouns:
Labor et dolor sunt finitimā, labor and pain are bound (things). Cic.

1 neperantus is singular, because nobile is here applied to one person, the speaker (448, note 9); caespitis is plural, because Dēmōsthenēs cum optītur means Dēmōsthenes and the others.
2 In this construction absentes and praeente appear to be treated as adverbs.
3 See p. 73, foot-note 2.
4 Perhaps best explained substantiveness—things hostile; see 438, 4.
USE OF ADJECTIVES.

440. The adjective in Latin corresponds in its general use to the adjective in English.

1. In Latin, as in English, an adjective may qualify the complex idea formed by a noun and another adjective:

Duae potentissimae gentés, two very powerful races. Liv. Mágnum aea aliénūm, a large debt. Cic. Nāvēs longās trigintā veterēs, thirty old vessels of war. Liv.²

Note.—In general no connective is used when adjectives are combined, as in duas potentissimae gentés, etc.; but if the first adjective is multī or plurīnt, the connective is usually inserted:

Multae et magnae cogitātiōnes, many great thoughts. Cic. Multa et praecīra fācīnae, many illustrious deeds. Sall.

2. PROLEPSIS OR ANTICIPATION.—An adjective is sometimes applied to a noun to denote the result of the action expressed by the verb:

Submersōs ōbrue pappēs, overwhelm and sink the ships (lit., overwhelm the sunken ships). Verg. Scūta latentissimī condunt, they conceal their hidden shields. Verg.

Note 1.—Certain adjectives often designate a particular part of an object: prīma nox, the first part of the night; medīs aestūtibus, in the middle of summer; summius mōns, the top (highest part) of the mountain.

Note 2.—The adjectives thus used are prīmus, medius, ultimus, extremus, postetrīus, inēmus, summius, infīmus, īnus, suprēmus, rētīquus, cētera, etc.

Note 3.—In the poets, in Livy, and in later prose writers, the neuter of these adjectives with a Genitive sometimes occurs:

Libyae extemā, the frontiers of Libya. Verg. Ad ultimum inopiam (for ad ultimam inopiam), to extreme destitution. Liv.

Note 4.—Adjectives are often combined with nēs: rēs adversūs, adversity; rēs se-sundæs, prosperity; rēs nōvea, revolution; rēs pública, republic.

¹ For Roman names, see 649.
² Here duae qualifies not simply gentēs, but potentissimae gentēs; mágnum qualifies aea aliénūm, 'debt' (lit., money belonging to another); veterēs qualifies nāvēs longās, 'vessels of war' (lit., 'long vessels'), while trigintās qualifies the still more complex expression, nāvēs longās veterēs.
³ Observe that submerēs gives the result of the action denoted by ōbrue, and is not applicable to pappēs until that action is performed; latentissimī likewise gives the result of condunt.
441. Adjectives and participles are often used substantively:

Boni, the good; mortales, mortals; docti, the learned; sapientes, the wise; multi, many persons; multa, many things; praefectus, a prefect; natus, a son.

1. In the plural, masculine adjectives and participles often designate persons, and neuter adjectives things: fortes, the brave; divites, the rich; pauperae, the poor; multi, many; pauci, few; omnes, all; mei, my friends; discipuli, learners; spectatores, spectators; futura, future events; utilia, useful things; mea, nostra, my things, our things; omnia, all things; haec, illa, these things, those things.

2. In the singular, adjectives and participles are occasionally used substantively, especially in the Genitive, or in the Accusative or Ablative with a preposition: doctus, a learned man; adolescentem, a young man; orum, a true thing, the truth; saeculum, a falsehood; nihil sincerum, nothing of sincerity, nothing sincere; nihil humatum, nothing human; nihil reliqui, nothing left; aliquid novi, something new; ab initio, from the beginning; ad extremum, to the end; ad summum, to the highest point; de integrum, abruptly; de improviso, unexpectedly; ex aequo, in like manner; in praesenti, at present; in futurum, for the future; pro certo, as certain.

Nota 1.—For the neuter participle with opus and discus, see 414, IV., note 8.

Nota 2.—For the use of adjectives instead of nouns in the Genitive, see 395, note 2.

3. A few substantives are sometimes used as adjectives, especially verbal nouns in tor and trae: victor esoritius, a victorious army; homnis gladiator, a gladiator, a gladiatorial man; victorica Athenis, victorious (conquering) Athens; populus Lati rei, a people of extensive sway.

442. Equivalent to a Clause.—Adjectives, like nouns in apposition, are sometimes equivalent to clauses:

Nam saltus sobrius, no one dances when he is sober, or when sober. Cic. Hortensium vivum amavi, I loved Hortensius, while he was alive. Cic. Homon nuncquam sobrius, a man who is never sober. Cic.

Nota.—Prius, primum, ultimum, postremum, are often best rendered by a relative clause: Primum morum solvit, he was the first who broke the custom. Liv.

443. Adjectives and Adverbs.—Adjectives are sometimes used where our idiom employs adverbs:

Socrates venenum latus haurit, Socrates cheerfully drank the poison. Sen. Senatus frequent convexit, the senate assembled in great numbers. Cic. Roescius erat Romae frequent, Roescius was frequently at Rome. Cic.

1. That is, words which were originally adjectives or participles sometimes become substantives; indeed, many substantives were originally adjectives; see 323, foot-note; 324, foot-note.

2. Praefectus, from praeficio (lit., one appointed over); natus, from nascor (lit., one born).

3. See 397, 1. For nihil reliqui facere, see 401, note 4.

4. Numerous adverbial expressions are thus formed by combining the neuter of adjectives with prepositions.

5. That is, these words are generally substantives, but sometimes adjectives.


7. With the adverb primum the thought would be, he first broke the custom (i.e., before doing anything else). Compare the corresponding distinction between the Greek adjective πόρος and the adverb πόρος.
USE OF ADJECTIVES.

Note 1.—The adjectives chiefly thus used are—(1) Those expressive of joy, knowledge, and their opposites: laetus, libens, incitus, triumphant, acer, inacens, pridens, impridens, etc. (2) Nihil, edux, totus, unus; prior, primus, primo, primum, etc.

Note 2.—In the poets a few adjectives of time and place are used in the same manner:
Domesticus òtor, I lade about home. Hor. Vespertinus pate tectum, at evening seek your abode. Hor.

Note 3.—In rare instances adverbs seem to supply the place of adjectives:
Omnia rector sunt, all things are right. Cic. Non ignar sumus ante malorum, we are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Verg. Nunc hominum mœres, the character of men of the present day. Plaut.

Note 4.—Numeral adverbs often occur with titles of office: 
Flaminius, consule terum, Flaminium, when consul for the second time. Cic.

444. A COMPARISON between two objects requires the comparative degree; between more than two, the superlative:
Prior hœrum, the former of these (two). Nep. Gallorum fortissim, the bravest of the Gauls. Caesar.
1. The comparative sometimes has the force of too, unusually, somewhat, and the superlative, the force of very: dœctor, too learned, or somewhat learned; dœctorissimus, very learned.

Note.—Certain superlatives are common as titles of honor: clarissimus, nobilissimus, and summus—especially applicable to men of consular or senatorial rank; fortissimus, honestissimus, illustissimus, and splendidissimus—especially applicable to those of the equestrian order.

2. COMPARATIVE AFTER QUAM.—When an object is said to possess one quality in a higher degree than another, the two adjectives thus used either may be connected by magis quam or may both be put in the comparative:

Note 1.—In a similar manner two adverbs may be connected by magis quam, or may both be put in the comparative:
Magis audax quam paritus, with more audacity than preparation. Cic. Bellum fortissum quam felicissimum gerere, to wage war with more valor than success. Liv.

Note 2.—The form with magis, both in adjectives and in adverbs, may sometimes be best rendered rather than:
Are magis magna quam difficilis, an art extensive rather than difficult. Cic. See also the second example under 2, above.

Note 3.—In the later Latin the positives sometimes follows quam, even when the regular comparatives precede, and sometimes two positives are used:
Veherentissimus quam cantœ appetere, to seek more eagerly than cautiously. Tac. Clarissimus quem vestis, illustrius rather than ancient. Tac.

Note 4.—For the use of comparatives before quam prœ, see 417, 1, note 5.

1 Like the Greek τῶν ὑπὸ κακῶν and τῶν τῶν ἄδρωτων.
2 The want of a present participle in the verb sum brings these adverbs into close connection with nouns.
3 As in English, more fluent than wise. This is the usual method in Cicero.
4 As in Greek, μελισσάτει καὶ μελισσαῖος, more numerous than good. This method, common in Livy, is rare in the earlier writers.
AGREEMENT OF PRONOUNS.

3. STRENGTHENING Words.—Comparatives and superlatives are often strengthened by a preposition with its case, as by ante, praec, prater, suprâ (417, 1, note 9). Comparatives are also often strengthened by etiam, even, still; multâ, much; and superlatives by longâ, multâ, by far, much; vel, even; unus, unus omnium, alone, alone of all, without exception, far, by far; quam, quam or quantus with the verb posseum, as possible; tam quam qui, ut qui, as possible (lit., as he who):

Majores etiam variétés, even greater varieties. Cic. Multâ etiam gravius queri tur, he complains even much more bitterly. Cic. Multâ máxima pars, by far the largest part. Cic. Quam saepeissimé, as often as possible. Cic. Unus omnium dòcissimus, without exception the most learned of men. Cic. Eòs ús omnium difficillima, a thing by far the most difficult of all. Cic. Quam máxime cópiae, forces as large as possible. Sall. Quantam máximam potest vastitatem ostendit, he exhibits the greatest possible desolation (lit., as great as the greatest he can). Liv.

CHAPTER IV.
SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

RULE XXXV.—Agreement of Pronouns.

445. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person:

Animal quod sanguinem habet, an animal which has blood. Cic. Ego, qui tè confirme, I who encourage you. Cic. Vís est in virtútibus, etsi excitá, there is strength in virtues, arouse them. Cic.

Note.—The antecedent is the word or words to which the pronoun refers, and whose place it supplies. Thus, in the examples under the rule, animal is the antecedent of quod; ego, of qui; and virtútibus, of etsi.

1. This rule applies to all pronouns when used as nouns. Pronouns used as adjectives conform to the rule for adjectives; see 438.

2. When the antecedent is a demonstrative in agreement with a personal pronoun, the relative agrees with the latter:

Tú es qui mi à ministé, you are the one who commended me. Cic.

3. When a relative, or other pronoun, refers to two or more antecedents, it generally agrees with them conjointly, but it sometimes agrees with the nearest:

Pietás, virtús, fidés, quârum¹ Romae templâ sunt, piedad, virtue, and faith, whose temples are at Rome. Cic. Pecatórum ac culpa, quœ,¹ error and fault, which. Cic.

¹ Quadrum agrees with pietás, virtús, and fidés conjointly, and is accordingly in the plural; but quœ agrees simply with culpa.
AGREEMENT OF PRONOUNS.

NOTE 1.—With antecedents of different genders, the pronoun conforms in gender to the rule for adjectives (439, 2 and 3):

Puerti multieræque quæ,1 boys and women who. Caes. Inconstantia et temeritias, quæ suis sunt déd, inconstancy and rashness which are not worthy of a god. Cic.

NOTE 2.—With antecedents of different persons, the pronoun prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third, conforming to the rule for verbs (463, 1):

Ego sc tâ inter nos2 loquimur, you and I converse together. Tac. Et tâ et collegae tui, quæ spērâstis, both you and your colleagues, who hoped. Cic.

4. By Attraction, a pronoun sometimes agrees with a Predicate Noun or an Appositive instead of the antecedent:

Animal quæm (for quod) vocâmus hominem, the animal which we call man.³ Cic. Thébas, quod (qua) caput est, Thess, which is the capital. Liv. Ea (id) erat confessiō, that (i. e., the action referred to) was a confession. Liv. Flumen Rhēnus, quæ, the river Rhine, which. Caes.

5. By Synesis, the pronoun is sometimes construed according to the real meaning of the antecedent, without regard to grammatical form; and sometimes it refers to the class of objects to which the antecedent belongs:

Quia fessum militem habēbat, his quiētum dedit, as he had an exhausted soldier, he gave them (theirs) a rest. Liv. Equitâtus, quæ vidērunt, the cavalry who saw. Caes. Dē aliâ re, quod ad me attinet, in regard to another thing which pertains to me. Plaut. Eârum rerum utrimque, each of these things. Cic. Democritum omittâmus; apud istos; let us omit Democritus; with such (i. e., as he). Cic.

6. Antecedent Omitted.—The antecedent of the relative is often omitted when it is indefinite, is a demonstrative pronoun, or is implied in a possessive pronoun, or in an adjective:

Sunt qui censeant, there are some who think. Cic. Terra reddit quod accept, the earth returns what it has received. Cic. Vestrâ, quâ cum integritâte vivistis, hâc interest, this interests you who have lived with integrity. Cic. Servilius tumultus quœs, the revolt of the slaves whom. Caes.

7. Clause as Antecedent.—When the antecedent is a sentence or clause, the pronoun, unless attracted (445, 4), is in the Neuter Singular, but the relative generally adds id as an appositive to such antecedent:

Nos, id quod débet, patria délectat, our country delights us, as it ought (lit., that which it owes). Cic. Rēgem, quod nūnquam antea acciderat, necâverunt, they put their king to death, which had never before happened. Cic.

8. Relative Attracted.—The relative is sometimes attracted into the case of the antecedent, and sometimes agrees with the antecedent repeated:

Judice quò (for quæm) nōst, the judge whom you know. Hor. Dīs Instat,
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USE OF PRONOUNS.

quō dīe, the day is at hand, on which day. Caes. Cumae, quam urbem tenebant, Cumae, which city they held. Liv.

9. ANTECEDENT ATTRACTION.—In poetry, rarely in prose, the antecedent is sometimes attracted into the case of the relative; and sometimes incorporated in the relative clause with the relative in agreement with it:

Urbem, quam statuēs, vestra est, the city which I am building is yours. Verg. Malārum, quās amor cūrās habet, obliviāct (for malārum cūrārum quās), so forget the wretched cares which love has. Hor. Quīs vōs implorāre dēbetēs, ut, quam urbem pulcherrimam esse volērunt, hanc in defendant, these (lit., whom) you ought to implore to defend this city, which they wished to be most beautiful. Cic.

USE OF PRONOUNS.

446. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.—The Nominative of Personal Pronouns is used only for emphasis or contrast:

Significāmus quid sentiāmus, we show what we think. Cic. Ego régēs exiēs, you alone introduce tyrants. Cic.

NOTES 1.—With quidem the pronoun is usually expressed, but not with equidem:


NOTES 2.—A writer sometimes speaks of himself in the plural, using nōs for ego, noste for meus, and the plural verb for the singular:

Vidēs nōs (for mé) multa cōēsī, you see that we (for I) are attempting many things. Cic. Sermō explicātī nostrum (for meum) sententiam, the conversation will unfold our (my) opinion. Cic. Diximus (for dēi) multa, I have said many things. Cic. 4

NOTES 3.—Nostrī and vestrī are generally used in an objective sense; nostrīm and vestrīm in a partitive sense:

Habētis ducem memorem vestrī, you have a leader mindful of your interests (or yours). Cic. Minūs habēō virīum quām vestrīm utērīa, I have less strength than either of you. Cic. Quis nostrīm, who of us? Cic.

NOTES 4.—With ab, ad, or apud, a personal pronoun may designate the residence or abode of a person:

A nōbīs sēgredītur, he is coming from our house. Ter. Vēni ad mé, I came to my house. Cic. Eāmus ad mé, let us go to my house. Ter. Apud sē est, he is at your house. Cic. Rūī apud sē est, he is in his residence in the country. Cic. See also 433, I, ad, apud, etc.

447. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS, when not emphatic, are seldom expressed, if they can be supplied from the context:

Manūs lāvā, wash your hands. Cic. Mīhi mea vita cūrā est, my life is dear to me. 5 Plaut.

1 For other examples, see Verg., Aen., V., 29-30; Hor., Sat., I., 10, 16.
2 Quam urbem, hanc = hanc urbem, quam.
3 The learner will remember that a pronoun subject is actually contained in the ending of the verb; see 368, 2, foot-note.
4 For other examples, see Hor., Sat., I., 9, 7, and Car., I., 82.
5 In this example mea is expressed for emphasis.
USE OF PRONOUNS.

Norns 1.—Possessive Pronouns sometimes mean favorable, propitious, as aliænis often means unfavorable:

Vadimus haud nàmine nostrò, we advance under a divinity not propitious. Verg. Tempore tæs pàgnásti, you fought at a favorable time. Liv. Ferunt suas flámina clássem, favorable winds bear the fleet. Verg. Allènò locò proelium committunt, they engage in battle in an unfavorable place. Cas.

Norns 2.—For the Possessive Pronoun in combination with a Genitive, see 398, 3.

448. Reflexive Use of Pronouns.—Suì and suus have a reflexive sense; sometimes also the other personal and possessive pronouns:


Notes.—Inter nòs, inter vós, inter sè, have a reciprocal force, each other, one another, together; but instead of inter sè, the noun may be repeated in an oblique case:

Colloquiuntur inter nòs, we converse together. Cic. Amant inter sè, they love one another. Cic. Hominès hominibus ütìlès sunt, men are useful to men (i.e., to each other). Cic.

449. Suì and suus generally refer to the Subject of the clause in which they stand:

Sè diligit, he loves himself. Cic. Justitia propter sèsæ coënda est, justice should be cultivated for its own sake. Cic. Annulum suum dedit, he gave his ring. Nep. Per sè síb quísque cárus est, every one is in his very nature (through or in himself) dear to himself. Cic.

1. In Subordinate Clauses expressing the sentiment of the principal subject, suì and suus generally refer to that subject:

Sentit animus sè ví suá movént, the mind perceives that it is moved by its own power. Cic. Â mé petítvit ut scémn essém, he asked (from) me to be with him (that I would be), Cic. Perservatig qùid suí civés cògínt, he tries to ascertain what his fellow-citizens think. Cic.

1) As suì and suus thus refer to subjects, the demonstratives, is, istic, etc., generally refer either to other words, or to subjects which do not admit suì and suus:

Deum ágnoscès ex ëjos operibus, you recognize a god by (from) his works. Cic. Obligat civitatem nihil sèc mutáturès, he binds the state not to change anything (that they will). Just.

2) In some subordinate clauses the writer may at pleasure use either the reflexive or the demonstrative, according as he wishes to present the thought as that of the principal subject, or as his own:

Persuádunt Tulingii ut cum istic profliscantur, they persuade the Tulingi to depart with them. Cas.

3) Sometimes reflexives and demonstratives are used without any apparent distinction:

1 Suì, of himself; istic, for himself; sè, himself.
2 Here cum istic is the proper language for the writer without reference to the sentiment of the principal subject; isticum, which would be equally proper, would present the thought as the sentiment of that subject.
USE OF PRONOUNS.


2. Suus, in the sense of His own, Fitting, etc., may refer to subject or object:

Justitias suum cuique tribuit, justice gives to every man his due (his own). Cio.

3. Synesis.—When the subject of the verb is not the real agent of the action, suí and suus refer to the agent:

À Caesar invito sibi ut sim legatus, I am invited by Caesar (real agent) to be his lieutenant. Cio.

4. THE PLURAL OF SUUS, meaning His Friends, Their Friends, Their Possessions, etc., is used with great freedom, often referring to oblique cases:

Fuit hıc actuémnum suís, this was afflicting to his friends. Cio.

5. Suí and Suus sometimes refer to an omitted subject:

Déforme est dē sē prædicäre, to boast of one’s self is disgusting. Cio.

6. Two Reflexives.—Sometimes a clause has one reflexive referring to the principal subject, and another referring to the subordinate subject:

Respondit néminem steum sine suís pernicié contendisse, he replied that no one had contended with him without (his) destruction. Cio.

450. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.—Hís, íste, ílle, are often called respectively demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons, as híc designates that which is near the speaker; íste, that which is near the person addressed; and ílle, that which is remote from both:

Custós hús urbis, the guardian of this city (i.e., of our city). Cio. Mátá istam mentem, change that purpose of yours. Cio. Ista quae sunt á tē dicta, those things which were spoken by you. Cio. Si illós, quos vidérer nón possumus, neglegis, if you disregard those (far away, yonder) whom we can not see. Cio.

1. Híc designates an object conceived as near, and ílle as remote, whether in space, time, or thought:

Nón antiquó illó mōre, sed hóc nostrō fuit eruditus, he was educated, not in that ancient, but in this our modern way. Cio. Hóc illud fuit, was it (that) this? Verg. Note.—The idea of contempt often implied in clauses with íste is not strictly contained in the pronoun itself, but derived from the context:

Animi est íste mollitia, nón virtús, that is an effeminate spirit, not valor. Cio.

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1 Observe that the reflexives is used in the first example, and the demonstratives in the second, though the cases are entirely alike.

2 Here suí refers to an oblique case in the preceding sentence.

3 Here sũ refers to the subject of respondit, and suú to néminem, the subject of the subordinate clause.

4 The idea of contempt is readily explained by the fact that íste is often applied to the views of an opponent, to a defendant before a court of justice, and the like.
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2. FORMER AND LATTER.—In reference to two objects previously mentioned, (1) Me generally follows ille and refers to the latter object, while ille refers to the former; but (2) Me may precede and may refer to the former, and ille refer to the latter:

Inimici, amici; illi, hi, enemies, friends; the former, the latter. Cic. Certa pax, spera victoria; haec (pax) in tua, illa in deorum potestate est, sure peace, hoped-for victory; the former is in your power, the latter in the power of the gods. Liv.

Nosta.—Hi he refers to the former object, when that object is conceived of as nearer in thought, either because of its importance, or because of its close connection with the subject under discussion.¹

3. Ille and ille are often used of what immediately follows in discourse:

His verba epistulam misit, he sent a letter in these words (i. e., in the following words). Nep. Illud intellegi, omnium ora in me conversae esse, this I understand, that the eyes of all are turned upon me. Sall.

4. Ille is often used of what is WELl KNOWN, FAMOUS:

Mēdeā illa, that well-known Medea. Cic. Ego, ille terror, tacei, I, that haughty one, was silent. Ovid.

Nosta 1.—Hi he is sometimes equivalent to meus or noster, rarely to ego, and Me homō to ego:

Sūpra hanc memoriam, before our time (lit., before this memory). Cic. His mea littera, with this letter of mine (from me). Cic. Hic homō omnium hominum, etc., of all men I am, etc. (lit., this man is). Plaut.

Nosta 2.—Hi he, ille, and is are sometimes redundant, especially with quidem:

Scipio nōn mutum fili dicebat, Scipio did not indeed say much. Cic. Graeci voluin illi quidem, the Greeks indeed desire it. Cic. Ista tranquilliītas ea ipsa est bellica vita, that tranquillity is itself a happy life.² Cic.

Nosta 3.—A demonstrative or relative is sometimes equivalent to a Genitive, or to a preposition with its case: Me amor = amor hīus rēi, the love of this; haec āura = āura dē hāc, care concerning this.

Nosta 4.—Adverbs derived from demonstrative pronouns share the distinctive meanings of the pronouns themselves:

Hi plus null est, quam illīe boni, there is more of evil here, than of good there. Ter. See also 304; 305.

451. Is and idem refer to preceding nouns, or are the antecedents of relatives:

Dionysius auxīgit, is est in provinciā, Dionysius has fled, he is in the province. Cic. Is qui satis habet, who has enough. Cic. Eadem audire multum, they prefer to hear the same things. Liv.

1. The pronoun is, the weakest of the demonstratives, is often understood, especially before a relative or a Genitive:

Fīlest pater dē fili morte, dē patris filius, the father wept over the death of the son, the son over (that) of the father. Cic. See also 445, 6.

¹ Thus, in the last example, haec refers to certa pax as the more prominent object in the mind of the speaker, as he is setting forth the advantages of a sure peace over a hoped-for victory.

² For other examples, see Verg., Aen., I, 8; III, 430; and XI, 309. For the use of personal pronouns with quidem, see 446, note 1.
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2. *It*, with a conjunction, is often used for emphasis, like the English, and that too, and that indeed:

Unam rem explicabó, semperque maximam, *one thing I will explain*, and that too a most important one. Cic. Audire Cratippum, idque Athenas, to hear Cratippus, and that too at Athens.¹ Cic.

3. *Idem* is sometimes best rendered *also*, at the same time, at once, both, yet:

Nihil tibi, quod non idem honestum, *nothing useful*, which is not also honorable. Cic. Cum dicit, negat idem, though he asserts, he yet denies (the same denies). Cic. Rex Anius, rex idem omnium Phoebique sacerdōs, King Anius, both king of men and priest of Apollo. Verg.

*In quī* means *he—who, such—as, such—that*:

It sumus, qui esse débēmus, we are such as we ought to be. Cic. Ex est genus quae nesciant, the race is such that it knows not. Liv.

5. *Idem*—*quī* means the same—who, the same—as; *idem*—*quē* (atque, et, quod), idem—ut, idem—cum with the Ablative, the same—as:

Idem mōrēs, qui, the same manners which or as. Cic. Est idem et aetūt, he is the same as he was. Ter. Edidem mēcum patre genitus, the son of the same father as I (with me). Tac.

6. For the distinction between is and et in subordinate clauses, see 449, 1, 3).

452. *Ipsē* adds emphasis, generally rendered *self*:

Ipsē Pater fulminis molitur, the Father himself (Jupiter) hurles the thunderbolts. Verg. Ipsē dixit, he himself said it. Cic. Ipsē Caesar, Caesar himself. Cic. Fac ut tē ipsum custódias, see that you guard yourself. Cic.

1. *Ipsē* belongs to the emphatic word, whether subject or object, but with a preference for the subject:


Norm.—*Ipsē* is sometimes accompanied by sēusus, *with himself;* ‘alone,’ or by per sē, ‘by himself,’ ‘unaided,’ ‘in and of himself,’ etc.:

Aliud genitor sēcum ipsē voluntātēs, the father (Jupiter) himself alone ponders another plan. Verg. Quōd est rectum ipsumque per sé laudābile, which is right, and in and of itself praiseworthy. Cic.

2. *Ipsē* is often best rendered by *very*:

Ipsē ille Gorgías, that very Gorgias. Cic.

3. With numerals, *ipsē* means *just so many, just*; so also in *nunc ipsum*, ‘just at this time’; *sum ipsum*, ‘just at that time’;

Triginta diēs ipsē, just thirty days. Cic. Nunc ipsam sīne tē esse nōn possimus, just at this time I cannot be without you. Cic.

4. *Ipsē* in the Genitive with possessives has the force of *own, one’s own*:

Nostra ipso rūm amicitia, our own friendship. Cic. See 398, 3.

5. *Ipsē* in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the principal subject, like an emphatic *eu* or *eum*:

Lēgātōs misit qui ipsī vitam penterent, he sent messengers to ask life for himself. Sall.

6. *Et ipsē* and *ipsē quoque* may often be rendered *also, likewise, even he:*²

Altus Achillēs nātus et ipsē deī, another Achilles likewise (lit., himself also) born of a goddess. Verg.

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¹ Idé, thus used, often refers to a clause, or to the general thought, as in this example.
² Applied to Pythagoras by his disciples. *Ipsē* is often thus used of a superior, as of a master, teacher, etc.
³ Compare the Greek *kal avrós.*
USE OF PRONOUNS.

7. For the use of the Nominative *ipsa* in connection with the Ablative Absolute, see 431, note 8.

453. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.—The relative is often used where the English idiom requires a demonstrative or personal pronoun; sometimes even at the beginning of a sentence:

Rēs loquitur ipsa, quae semper valet, the fact itself speaks, and this (which) ever has weight. Cic. Qui proellium committunt, they engage in battle. Caes. Quae cum sua sint, since these things are so. Cic.

1. RELATIVES and DEMONSTRATIVES are often correlative to each other: *hic*—*qui*, *iste*—*qui*, etc. These combinations generally retain the ordinary force of the separate words, but see *te*—*qui*, *idem*—*qui*, 451, 4 and 5.

Note.—The neuter *quidquid*, accompanied by an adjective, a participle, or a Genitive, may be used of persons:

Mātrēs et quidquid tēcum invalidum est dēligē, select the mothers and whatever feeble persons are with you (lit., whatever there is with you feeble). Verg. Quidquid erat patrum, whatever fathers there were. Liv. See also 397, 8, note 5.

2. In Two Successive Clauses, the relative may be—(1) expressed in both, (2) expressed in the first and omitted in the second, (3) expressed in the first and followed by a demonstrative in the second:

Nōs qui sermōnī nōn interfusēmus et quibus Cotta sententīs tradidīsset, we who had not been present at the conversation, and to whom Cotta had reported the opinions. Cic. Dummorex qui princīpītum obtinēbat ēc plēbē acceptus erat, Dummorex, who held the chief authority, and who was acceptable to the common people. Caes. Quse nec habērēmus nec hīs ʿtērērūm, which we should neither have nor use. Cic.

Note 1.—Several relatives may appear in successive clauses:

Omnēs qui vēstītum, qui tēctā, qui cultum viāe, qui præsidēa contra ferēs invēnērunt, all who introduced (invented) clothing, houses, the refinements of life, protection against wild beasts. Cic.

Note 2.—A relative clause with *is* is often equivalent to a substantive: *ā qui audītum = auditorīs*; 'hearers.'

3. Two RELATIVES sometimes occur in the same clause:

Artēs quās qui tenēnt, artē, whose possessors (which who possess). Cic.

4. A RELATIVE Clause is sometimes equivalent to the Ablative with *prō*:

Spērō, quae tua prudēntiās est, tē valēre, I hope you are well, such is your prudence (which is, etc.). Cic.

Note.—Quae tua prudēntiās est = quās es prudēntiās = prō tua prudēntiā, means such is your prudence, or you are of such prudence, or in accordance with your prudence, etc.

5. RELATIVE WITH ADJECTIVE.—Adjectives belonging in sense to the antecedent, especially comparatives, superlatives, and numerals, sometimes stand in the relative clause in agreement with the relative:

Vīsae, quae pulpērrima viderunt, the most beautiful vessels which he had seen (vessels, which the most beautiful he had seen). Cic. Dē servīs sua, quem habuit sēdēstium, mihi, he sent the most faithful of the slaves that he had. Nep.

6. The neuter, *quidquid*, used as an adverbial Accusative, often stands at the beginning

1 Of the general or indefinite relative *quidquid*.
USE OF PRONOUNS.

of a sentence or clause, especially before si, si, nisi, et al, and sometimes before quia, quoniam, utinam, etc., to indicate a close connection with what precedes. In translating it is sometimes best omitted, and sometimes best rendered by now, in fact, but, and:

Quod si occiderint, but if they should fall. Cic. Quod si ego resevissem id prius, now if I had learned this sooner. Ter.

7. Quis dicitur, qui vocatur, or the corresponding active, quem dicitur, quem vocant, are often used in the sense of so-called, the so-called, what they or you call, etc.

Vestra quae dicitur vita, mores est, your so-called life (lit., your, which is called life) is death. Cic. Lex ists quam vocas non est lex, that law, as you call it, is not a law. Cic.

454. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.—The Interrogative quis is used substantively; qui, adjectively:

Quis ego sum, who am I? Cic. Quis facit, what will he do? Cic. Quis vir fuit, what kind of a man was he? Cic.

1. Occasionally quis is used adjectively and qui substantively:

Quis rex unquam fuit, what king was there ever? Cic. Quis sit, considera, consider who you are. Cic.

Note.—The neuter, quid, is sometimes used of persons; see 397, 3, note 5.

2. Quis, why, how is it that, etc., is often used adverbially (378, 9), or stands apparently unconnected: quid, why? what? quid enim, why then? what then? what indeed? quid sit, why so? quid quod, what of the fact that? quid si, what if?

Quid venisti, why have you come? Plaut. Quid enim? metuens conturbat, what then? would fear disturb us? Cic. Quid quod delectatur, what of the fact that they are delighted? Cic.

3. Two INTERROGATIVES sometimes occur in the same clause:

Quis quem fraudavit, who defrauded, and whom did he defraud (lit., who defrauded whom)? Cic.

4. Tantus sometimes accompanies the interrogative pronoun:

Quae fuit unquam in illud hominum tanta constantia, was there ever so great constancy in any man? Cic.

455. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.1—Aliquis, quis, qui, and quiespiam, are all indefinite—one, any one:

Est aliquis, there is some one. Liv. Sensus aliquis esse potest, there may be some sensation. Cic. Dixit quis, some one said. Cic. Si quis rex, if any king. Cic. Alia re quaequiem, any other thing. Cic.

1. Quis and qui are used chiefly after si, nisi, et, and sum. Aliquis and quies are generally used substantively, aliqui and qui adjectively. Aliquis and aliqui after si, nisi, etc., are emphatic:

Si est aliqui sensus in morte, if there is any sensation whatever in death. Cic.

2. Neciscid quis and neciscid qui often supply the place of indefinite pronouns:

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1 Here quod refers to something that precedes, and means in reference to which, in reference to this, in this connection, etc. For other examples, see Caesar, B. G., I, 14, and VII, 88.

2 In some instances quid is readily explained by the ellipsis of some form of dieb or of sum.

3 For a full illustration of the use of indefinite pronouns, see Draeger, I., pp. 87-103.
USE OF PRONOUNS.

Nesció quis loquitor, some one speaks (lit., I know not who speaks, or one speaks, I know not who). Plant. Nesció quid mihi animus preségit malum, my mind forebodes some evil (191, note). Ter.

456. Quidam, 'a certain one,' is less indefinite than aliquis:
Quidam rhétor antiquus, a certain ancient rhetorician. Cic. Accurrit quidam, a certain one runs up. Hor.
1. Quidam with an adjective is sometimes used to qualify or soften the statement:
Justitia mirifica quedam vidétur, justice seems somewhat wonderful. Cic.
2. Quidam with quasi, and sometimes without it, has the force of a certain, a kind of, as it were:
Quasi alumnas quedam, a certain foster-child, as it were. Cic.

457. Quisquam and ullus are used chiefly in negative and conditional sentences, and in interrogative sentences implying a negative:
Neque mé quisquam ágnóvit, nor did any one recognize me. Cic. Si quisquam, if any one. Cic. Num cénésa ullum animal esse, do you think there is any animal? Cic.
1. Némô is the negative of quisquam, and like quisquam is generally used substantively, rarely adjectively:
2. Nullus is the negative of ullus, and is generally used adjectively, but it sometimes supplies the Genitive and Ablativus of némô, which generally wants those cases:
Nullum animal, no animal. Cic. Nullus sura, the ear of no one. Cic.
3. Nullus and nihil are sometimes used for an emphatic non:
Nullus réxit, he did not come. Cic. Mortui nulli sunt, the dead are not.

458. Quiusvis, quilibet, 'any one whatever,' and quisque, 'every one,' 'each one,' are general indefinites (190):
Quasilibet réx, anything. Cic. Tuorum quisque necessárìorum, each one of your friends. Cic.
1. Quisque with superlatives and ordinals is generally best rendered by ali, or by ever, always; with primus by very, possible:
Epícurös doctissimum quisque contemnit, all the most learned despises the Epicureans, or all the most learned ever despises, etc. Cic. Primo quóque dié, the earliest day possible, the very first. Cic.
2. Ut quisque—ita with the superlative in both clauses is often best rendered, the more—the more:
Ut quisque stíl plúrísum cœnitit, ita máximè excellit, the more one confides in one's self, the more one excels. Cic.

459. Alius means 'another, other'; alter, 'the one,' 'the other' (of two), 'the second,' 'a second.' They are often repeated: alius —alius, one—another; aliis—aliis, some—others; alter—alter, the one—the other; alteri—alteri, the one party—the other:
Legatos aliun ab alió aggregátur, he tampers with the ambassadors one after another. Sall. Alii gloriae servíntur, alií pecúniæ, some are slaves to glory, others to money. Cic. Quidquid negat alter, et alter, whatever one denies, the
other denies. Hor. Alter erit Tiphys, there will be a second Tiphys. Verg. Tu nunc eris alter ab illō, you will now be next after him. Verg. Alteri dimicant, alteri timent, one party contends, the other fears. Cic.

1. Alterius or alter repeated in different cases, or combined with alterius or alter, often involves an ellipsis:

Alterius alii viis civitatem suxerunt, they advanced the state, one in one way, another in another. Liv. Alteri alii vivunt, some live in one way, others in another. Cic.

2. After alterius, alterer, and the like, alique, etc., and et often mean than:

Non alterius eassem atque sum, I would not be other than I am. Cic.

3. When alter—alter refer to objects previously mentioned, the first alter usually refers to the latter object, but may refer to either:

Inimicus, competitor, cum alterō—cum alterō, an enemy, a rival, with the latter—with the former. Cic.

4. Utique means both, each of two. In the plural it generally means both, each of two parties, but sometimes both, each of two persons or things; regularly so with nouns which are plural in form but singular in sense:

Utique victoriam crudeliter exercebant, both parties made a cruel use of victory. Sall. Palmæ utraque tetendit, he extended both his hands. Verg.

CHAPTER V.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

SECTION I.

AGREEMENT OF VERBS.—USE OF VOICES.

RULE XXXVI.—Agreement of Verb with Subject.

460. A finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person:

Deus mundum sedificavit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Ego regæ ejöed, vos tyrannös intröducitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

1. Participles in Compound Tenses agree with the subject according to 438. See also 301, 1 and 2:

Thebant accusati sunt, the Thebans were accused. Cic.

Note 1.—In the compound forms of the infinitive, the participle in sum sometimes occurs without any reference to the gender or number of the subject:

Diffidentiä futurum quae imperävisset, from doubt that those things which he had commanded would take place. Sall.

Note 2.—A General or Indefinite subject is often denoted—

1) By the First or Third Person Plural, and in the Subjunctive by the Second Person
AGREEMENT OF VERBS.

Singular: dicimus, 'we (people) say'; dicunt, 'they say'; dicas, 'you (any one) may say':

si beatis case volumus, if we wish to be happy. Cic. Agere quod agas considerati
dest, you (one) should do considerately whatever you do (one does). Cic.

3) By an Impersonal Passive:

Ad fānum concurritur, they rush to the temple. Cic. Nisi cum virtūte vivātur, un-
less they live (unless one lives) virtuously. Cic.

Note 3.—For the Pronominal Subject contained in the verb, see 368, 2.

Note 4.—For the Omission of the VERB, see 368, 3.

461. SYNOPSIS.—Sometimes the predicate is construed according to the real meaning of the subject without regard to grammatical gender or number. Thus—

1. With collective nouns, pars, multitudō, and the like:

Multitudō abeunt, the multitude depart. Liv. Pars per agrōs dilāpet, a
part (some) dispersed through the fields. Liv.

Note 1.—Here multitudō and pars, though singular and feminine in form, are plu-
ral and masculine in sense; see also 438, 6. Conversely, the Imperative singular may be
used in addressing a multitude individually:

Addē defectorsiem Sicilieae, add (to this, soldiers) the revolt of Sicily. Liv.

Note 2.—Of two verbs with the same collective noun, the former is often singular,
and the latter plural:

Juventus ruit certantque, the youth rush forth and contend. Verg.

2. With milia, often masculine in sense:

Caes sunt tria milia, three thousand men were slain. Liv.

3. With quisque, uterque, alius—alium, alter—alterum, and the like:

Uterque edūcunt, they each lead out. Caes. Alter alterum vidēmus, we
see each other. Cic.

4. With singular subjects accompanied by an Ablative with cum:

Dux cum principibus capiuntur, the leader with his chiefs is taken. Liv.

Quid hāc tanta hominum (= tot hominum) incēdunt, why are so many men
coming hither? Plaut. See also 438, 6.

5. With partim—partim in the sense of pars—pars:

Bonorum partim necessāria, partim non necessāria sunt, of good things
some are necessary, others are not necessary. Cic.

462. Sometimes the verb agrees, not with its subject, but with an APPOSITIVE or WITH A PREDICATE NOUN:

Volusini, oppidum Tuscorum, concremātum est, Volciniī, a town of the
Tuscanēs, was burned. Plin. Non omnis error sulpitia est dicenda, not every
error should be called folly. Cic. Puert Trojanum dicitur agmen, the boys are
called the Trojan band. Verg.

Note 1.—The verb regularly agrees with the appositive when that is urbs, oppidum,
or citōs, in apposition with plural names of places, as in the first example.

Note 2.—The verb agrees with the predicate noun when that is nearer or more em-
phatic than the subject, as in the second example.
AGREEMENT OF VERBS.

Notes 3.—The verb sometimes agrees with a noun in a subordinate clause after quam, nunc, etc.: 463. With two or more subjects the verb agrees—

I. With one subject, and is understood with the others:

Aut móres spectátur aut fortúna solet, either character or fortune is wont to be regarded. Cic. Homérus fuit et Hésiodus ante Róمام conditam, Homer and Hesiod lived (were) before the founding of Rome. Cic.

II. With all the subjects conjointly, and is accordingly in the plural number:


1. With subjects differing in person, the verb takes the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; see examples.

2. For Particiles in compound Tenses, see 439.

3. Two Subjects As a Unit.—Two singular subjects forming in sense a unit or whole, admit a singular verb:

Senátus populusque intelégit, the senate and people (i.e., the state as a unit) understand. Cic. Tempus necessitáisque postulát, time and necessity (i.e., the crisis) demand. Cic.

4. With aut or nec.—When the subjects connected by aut, vel, nec, neque or seu, differ in person, the verb is usually in the plural; but when they are of the same person, the verb usually agrees with the nearest subject:

Hæc neque ego neque tú fecímus, neither you nor I have done these things. Ter. Aut Brútus aut Cassíus judicávít, either Brutus or Cassius judged. Cic.

464. Voices.—With transitive verbs, a thought may at the pleasure of the writer be expressed either actively or passively. But—

I. That which in the active construction would be the object must be the subject in the passive; and—

II. That which in the active would be the subject must be put in the Ablative with à or ab for persons, and in the Ablative alone for things (418, I.; 420):

Deus omníà constituit, God ordained all things. À Deó omníà constitúta sunt, all things were ordained by God. Cic. Dei prōvidentia mundus administrat, the providence of God rules the world. Dei prōvidentia mundus administrat, the world is ruled by the providence of God. Cic.

465. The Passive Voice, like the Greek Middle,1 is sometimes equivalent to the Active with a reflexive pronoun:

Lavantur in flúminibus, they bathe (wash themselves) in the rivers. Cæs.

1 Most Passive forms once had both a Middle and a Passive meaning, as in Greek; but in Latin the Middle or Reflective meaning has nearly disappeared, though retained to a certain extent in special verbs.
TENSES OF INDICATIVE.

Non híc victória vertitur, not upon this point (here) does victory turn (turn itself). Verg.

1. **INTRANSITIVE VERBS** (193) have regularly only the active voice, but they are sometimes used impersonally in the passive:
   Curritur ad praetórium, they run to the praetorium (it is run to). Cíc. Míhi cum 1is vivendúm est, I must live with them. Cíc.

   Note.—Verbs which are usually intransitive are occasionally used transitively, especially in poetry:
   Ego cùr invídeo, why am I vexed? Hor.

2. **DEponent VERBS**, though passive in form, are in signification transitive or intransitive:

   Note 1.—Originally many deponent verbs seem to have had the force of the Greek Middle voice: glórior, 'I boast myself,' I boast'; esocor, 'I feed myself.'

   Note 2.—Semi-deponents have some of the active forms and some of the passive, without change of meaning; see 268, 3.

SECTION II.

THE INDICATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

I. Present Indicative.

466. The Present Indicative represents the action of the verb as taking place at the present time:

   Ego et Cócer valémus, Cícero and I are well. Cíc. Hóc tē rogō, I ask you for this. Cíc.

   Note.—The Present of the Active Periphrastic Conjugation denotes an intended or future action; that of the Passive, a present necessity or duty:
   Bellum scriptúram sum, I intend to write the history of the war.1 Sall. Legendus est hic orátor, this orator ought to be read.1 Cíc.

467. Hence the Present Tense is used—

I. Of actions and events which are actually taking place at the present time, as in the above examples.

II. Of actions and events which, as belonging to all time, belong of course to the present, as *general truths and customs*:

   Nihil est amábilis virtúte, nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cíc.
   Fortés fortúna adjuvát, fortune helps the brave. Ter.

III. Of past actions and events which the writer wishes, for effect, to picture before the reader as present. The Present, when so used, is called the **Historical Present**:

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1 *Scripturus sum* may be variously rendered, I intend to write, am about to write, am to write, am destined to write, etc.; *legendus est* means he ought to be read, deserves to be read, must be read, etc.
258  TENSES OF INDICATIVE.

Jugurtha vallo moenia circumdat, Jugurtha surrounded the city with a
rampart. Sall.

1. The Historical Present is used much more freely in Latin than in
English. It is therefore generally best rendered by a past tense.

2. The Present is often used of a present action which has been going on
for some time, especially after jamdīē, jamdādum, etc.:
Jamīdi ignōro quid agīs, I have not known for a long time what you have
been doing. Cic.

3. The Present in Latin, as in English, may be used of authors whose
works are extant:
Xenophōn facit Socratem disputantem, Xenophon represents Socrates dis-

cussing. Cic.

4. With dum, 'while,' the Present is generally used, whether the action
is present, past, or future:
Dum ea parant,1 Saguntum oppugnābatūr, while they were (are) making
these preparations, Saguntum was attacked. Liv. Dum haec geruntur, Caes-
sar nuntiatūm est, while these things were taking place, it was announced to
Caesar. Caes.

Note.—But with dum, meaning as long as, the Present can be used only of present
time.

5. The Present is sometimes used of an action really future, especially in
animated discourse and in conditions:
Quam prendimus arcem, what stronghold do we seize, or are we to seize? Verg.
Si vincimus, omnia tūta erunt, if we conquer, all things will be safe. Sall.

6. The Present is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action:
Virtūtem ascendit, he tries to kindle their valor. Verg. Quid me terrēs,
why do you try to terrify me? Verg.

II. IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

468. The Imperfect Indicative represents the action as taking
place in past time:
Stabant nōbilissimī juvenēs, there stood (were standing) most noble youths.
Liv. Collēs oppidum cingebant, hills encompassed the town. Caes. Motārus
exercitum erat, he was intending to move his army. Liv.

Note.—For the Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugations in conditional sentences,
see 511, 2

469. Hence the Imperfect is used especially—

I. In lively description, whether of scenes or events:
Ante oppidum plānītēs paśēbat, before the town extended a plain. Caes.
Fulgēntēs gladiōs vidēbant, they saw (were seeing) the gleaming swords. Cic.

II. Of customary or repeated actions and events, often rendered was
went, etc.:

1 Here the time denoted by parant is present relatively to oppugnābatūr, and there-
fore really past.
TENSES OF INDICATIVE.

Pausaniás epulábatur móre Persárum, Pausanías was wont to banquet in the Persian style. Nep.

1. The Imperfect is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action:¹
Sédábant tumultüs, they attempted to quell the seditions. Liv.

2. The Imperfect is often used of a past action which had been going on for some time, especially with fámdēs, fámdēdum, etc.:¹
Domicilium Rómae multós jam annós habēbat, he had already for many years had his residence at Rome. Cic.

3. The Latin sometimes uses the Imperfect where the English requires the Present:²
Páustum animántibus nátrá sum qui cuique aptus erat, comparávit, nature has prepared for animals that food which is adapted to each. Cic.

NOTE 1.—For the Imperfect in LETTERS, see 472, 1.
NOTE 2.—For the Descriptive Imperfect in NARRATION, see 471, 6.
NOTE 3.—For the Historical Tenses in expressions of Duty, Propriety, Necessity, etc., see 476, 4.

III. FUTURE INDICATIVE.

470. The Future Indicative represents the action as one which will take place in future time:
Scribam ad té, I shall write to you. Cic. Núnquam aberrábimus, we shall never go astray. Cic.

1. In Latin, as in English, the Future Indicative sometimes has the force of an Imperative:
Cúrabis et scribes, you will take care and write. Cic.

2. Actions which really belong to future time are almost invariably expressed by the Future tense, though sometimes put in the Present in English:
Nátránum si sequémur, núnquam aberrábimus, if we follow nature, we shall never go astray. Cic.

IV. PERFECT INDICATIVE.

471. The Perfect Indicative has two distinct uses:

I. As the PRESENT PERFECT or PERFECT DEFINITE, it represents the action as at present completed, and is rendered by our Perfect with have:
Dē generó bellì dixit, I have spoken of the character of the war. Cic.

II. As the HISTORICAL PERFECT or PERFECT INDEFINITE, it represents the action simply as an historical fact:

¹ Observe that the peculiarities of the Present reappear in the Imperfect. This arises from the fact that these two tenses are precisely alike in representing the action in its progress, and that they differ only in time. The one views the action in the present, the other transfers it to the past.
² This occurs occasionally in the statement of general truths and in the description of natural scenes, but in such cases the truth or the scene is viewed not from the present but from the past.
TENSES OF INDICATIVE.

Miltiades est accusatus. Miltiades was accused. Nep. Quid facturi fuistis, what did you intend to do, or what would you have done? Cic.

Nota.—For the Perfect of the Periphrastic Conjugations in conditional sentences, see 476, 1.

1. The Perfect is sometimes used—
1) Instead of the Present to denote the suddenness of the action:
Terra tremit, mortalia corda stravit pavor, the earth trembles, fear overwhelms (has overwhelmed) the hearts of mortals. Verg.
2) To contrast the past with the present, implying that what was true then is not true now:
Habuit, non habet, he had, but has not. Cic. Fuit Illum, Illum was. Verg.
2. The Perfect Indicative with paene, prope, may often be rendered by might, would, or by the Pluperfect Indicative:
Brutum non minus amo, paene dixi, quam te, I love Brutus not less, I might almost say, or I had almost said, than I love you. Cic.
3. The Latin sometimes employs the Perfect and Pluperfect where the English uses the Present and Imperfect, especially in repeated actions, and in verbs which want the Present (297):
Meminit praeteritorum, he remembers the past. Cic. Cum ad villam venit, hoc me delectat, when I come (have come) to a villa, this pleases me. Cic. Memineram Paulum, I remembered Paulus. Cic.
4. Conjunctions meaning as soon as are usually followed by the Perfect; sometimes by the Imperfect or Historical Present. But the Pluperfect is sometimes used, especially to denote the result of a completed action:
Postquam occidit Illum, after (as soon as) Illum fell, or had fallen. Verg. His ubi natum prosequitur dictis, when he had addressed his son with these words. Verg. Posteaquam consul fuerat, after he had been consul. Cic. Anno tertio postquam profugerat, in the third year after he had fled. Nep.
5. In SUBORDINATE CLAUSES after cum (quum), et, etc., the Perfect is sometimes used of REPEATED ACTIONS, GENERAL TRUTHS, and CUSTOMS:
Cum ad villam venit, hoc me delectat, whenever I come (have come) to a villa, this delights me. Cic.

Nota.—In such cases the principal clause generally retains the Present, as in the example just given, but in poetry and in late prose it sometimes admits the Perfect:
Tulli punctum quir miscuit tullus dulcis, he wins (has won), favor who combines (has combined) the useful with the agreeable. Hor.

6. In ANIMATED NARRATIVE, the Perfect usually narrates the leading events, and the Imperfect describes the attendant circumstances:
Cultum mutavit, veste Medica utebatur, epulabatur more Persarum, he changed his mode of life, used the Median dress, feasted in the Persian style.

1 Literally, has recalled, and so remembers, as the result of the act. The Latin presents the completed act, the English the result.
2 As postquam, ubi, ubi primum, ut, ut primum, simul atque (do), etc.
3 Historical present; lit., when he attends.
4 And so was then a man of consular rank.
5 This use of the Latin Perfect corresponds to the Gnomic Aorist in Greek.
TENSES OF INDICATIVE.

Nep. Sè in oppida recēpārunt mūrisque sè tenēbant, they betook themselves into their towns and kept themselves within their walls. Liv.

Note 1.—The Compound Tenses in the Passives often denote the result of the action. Thus, dōctus est may mean either he has been instructed, or he is a learned man (lit., an instructed man):

Fuit dōctus ex disciplīna Stoicorum, he was instructed in (lit., out of) the learning of the Stoics. Cic. Nāris parātā fuit, the vessel was ready (lit., was prepared). Liv.

Note 2.—For the Perfect in Letters, see 472, 1.

Note 3.—For the Historical Tenses in expressions of Duty, Propriety, Necessity, etc., see 476, 4.

V. PLUPERFECT INDICATIVE.

472. The Pluperfect Indicative represents the action as completed at some past time:

Pyrhri temporibus jam Apollī versūs fācere désiērat, in the times of Pyrrhus Apollis had already ceased to make verses.1 Cic. Cóplās quās prō castris collocāverat, redundēbat, he led back the forces which he had stationed before the camp. Casii. Cum esset Dēmosthenēs, multī orātōres clārī fūrērunt et anteā furerunt, when Demosthenes lived there were many illustrious orators, and there had been before. Cic.

1. In Letters, the writer often adapts the tense to the time of the reader, using the Imperfect or Perfect of present actions and events, and the Pluperfect of those which are past:2

Nihil habēbam quod scriberem; ad tuās omnēs epistolās rescripsāram pridīn,3 I have (had) nothing to write; I replied to all your letters yesterday. Cic. Pridēn Iūdās hāc scriptā; eō dīā apud Pompōniōm eram exātūrus,4 I write this on the day before the Idea; I am going to dine to-day with Pompōnius. Cic.

2. The Pluperfect after cum, sī, etc., is often used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs:5

Sī hostēs déterrērē nēquiverant circumveniēbant, if they were (had been) unable to deter the enemy, they surrounded them. Sall.

Note 1.—For the Pluperfect in the sense of the English Imperfect, see 471, 8.

Note 2.—For the Historical Tenses in expressions of Duty, Propriety, Necessity, etc., see 476, 4.

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1 Observe that désiērat represents the action as already completed at the time designated.
2 This change is by no means uniformly made, but is subject to the pleasure of the writer. It is most common near the beginning and the end of letters.
3 Observe that the adverbs and the adverbial expressions are also adapted to the time of the reader. Hicī, 'yesterday,' becomes to the reader pridēn, 'the day before'—i.e., the day before the writing of the letter. In the same way hōdū, 'to-day,' 'this day,' becomes to the reader eō dīā, 'that day.'
4 The Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugation is sometimes thus used of future events which are expected to happen before the receipt of the letter. Events which will be future to the reader as well as to the writer must be expressed by the Future.
5 See the similar use of the Perfect, 471, 5.
6 That is, whenever they were unable.
VI. FUTURE PERFECT INDICATIVE.

473. The Future Perfect Indicative represents the action as one which will be completed at some future time:

Rómanum cum vénérò, scribam ad tè, when I shall have reached Rome, I will write to you. Cic. Dum tā haec légēs, ego illum fortasse convènerò, when you read this, I shall perhaps have already met him. Cic.

1. The Future Perfect is sometimes used to denote the complete accomplishment of the work:

Ego meum officium præstiterò, I shall discharge my duty. Caes.

2. The Future Perfect is sometimes found in conditional clauses where we use the Present:

Si interpretāri potuerò, his verbīs ūtitur, if I can (shall have been able to) understand him, he uses these words. Cic.

VII. USE OF THE INDICATIVE.

RULE XXXVII.—Indicative.

474. The Indicative is used in treating of facts:

Deus mundum sedīficāvit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Nónne expulsus est patria, was he not banished from his country? Cic. Hóc fēcī dum licuit, I did this as long as it was permitted. Cic.

475. The Indicative is thus used in treating of facts—

I. In Principal Clauses, whether Declarative as in the first example or Interrogative as in the second.

II. In Subordinate Clauses. Thus—

1. In Relative Clauses:

Dixit id quod dignissimum rē publicā fuit, he stated that which was most worthy of the republic. Cic. Quicquam bonum est, quod non eum qui id possidet meliorēm facit, is anything good which does not make him better who possesses it? Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Relative Clauses, see 497; 500; 503; 507, 2, etc.

2. In Conditional Clauses:

Si haec civitās est, cīvis sum ego, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic.

Note 1.—For the special uses of the Indicative in Conditional Sentences, see 508.

Note 2.—For the Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences, see 509; 510.

3. In Concessive Clauses:

Quamquam intellegunt, tamen nūnquam dīcunt, although they understand, they never speak. Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Concessive Clauses, see 515.

1 Including, of course, all simple sentences.
4. In Causal Clauses:
Quoniam supplicandī decreta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed. Cic.
Quia honōre dignī habentur, because they are deemed worthy of honor. Curt.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Causal Clauses, see 516; 517.

5. In Temporal Clauses:
Cum quiescant, probant, while they are silent they approve. Cic. Priusquam lazet, adsunt, they are present before it is light. Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Temporal Clauses, see 519; 520; 521.

476. Special Uses.—The Indicative is sometimes used where our idiom would suggest the Subjunctive:

1. The Indicative of the Periphrastic Conjugations is often so used in the historical tenses, especially in conditional sentences (511, 2):
Haec condicio non accipianda fuit, this condition should not have been accepted. Cic.

2. The Historical Tenses of the Indicative, particularly the Pluperfect, are sometimes used for effect, to represent as an actual fact something which is shown by the context never to have become fully so:
Viceratmus, nisi recēpsisset Antōnum, we should have (lit., had) conquered, had he not received Antony. Cic. See 511, 1.

3. Pronouns and Relative Adverbs, made general by being doubled or by assuming the suffix cumque (187, 8), take the Indicative:
Quisquis est, is est sapiens, whoever he is, he is wise. Cic. Hoc ultimum, utecumque initium est, proelium fuit, this, however it was commenced, was the last battle. Liv. Quidquid oritur, quaecumque est, causam habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever character it may be (lit., is), it has a cause. Cic.

4. In expressions of Duty, Propriety, Necessity, Ability, and the like, the Latin often uses the Indicative, chiefly in the historical tenses, in a manner somewhat at variance with the English idiom:
Non suscipi bellum oportuit, the war should not have been undertaken.1 Liv. Eum contumēlis onerāst, quem colere debēbatis, you have loaded with insults one whom you should have (ought to have) revered. Cic. Multōs possum bonōs virōs nōmināre, I might name (lit., I am able to name) many good men. Cic. Hanc mēcum poterās requiescere noctem, you might rest (might have rested) with me this night. Verg.

5. The Indicative of the verb sum is often used with longum, aequum, aequius, difficile, jūstum, melius, pār, utilius, etc., in such expressions as longum est, ‘it would be tedious,’ melius erat, ‘it would have been better’:
Longum est perseguat utilitātēs, it would be tedious (is a long task) to recount the uses. Cic. Melius fuerat, prōmissum nōn esse servatūm, it would have been better that the promise should not have been kept. Cic.

1 Literally, it was fitting or proper that the war should not be undertaken.
SUBJUNCTIVE.

SECTION III.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND ITS TENSES.

477. The Latin Subjunctive has two principal uses—

I. It may represent an action as willed or desired:

Amémus patriam, let us love our country. Cic.

II. It may represent an action as probable or possible:

Quaerat quispiam, some one may inquire. Cic.

478. TENSES IN THE SUBJUNCTIVE do not designate the time of the action so definitely as in the Indicative.

479. The Present Subjunctive in principal clauses embraces in a vague and general manner both present and future time:

Amémus patriam, let us love our country (now and ever). Cic. Quaerat quispiam, some one may (or will) inquire (at any time). Cic.

480. The Imperfect Subjunctive in principal clauses relates sometimes to the past and sometimes to the present:

Créderés victórum, you would have thought them. Liv. Utinam possem, would that I were able (now). Cic.

481. The Perfect Subjunctive in principal clauses relates sometimes to the past, but more frequently to the present or future:

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1 The Latin Subjunctive, it will be remembered (p. 117, foot-note 4), contains the forms and the meaning of two kindred moods, the Subjunctive proper, and the Optative. In Latin, the forms characteristic of these two moods, used without any difference of meaning, are made to supplement each other. Thus, in the Present, the Subjunctive forms are found in the First Conjugation, and the Optative forms in the Second, Third, and Fourth. In their origin they are only special developments of certain forms of the Present Indicative, denoting continued and attempted action. From this idea of attempted action was readily developed on the one hand desire, will, as we attempt only what we desire, and on the other hand probability, possibility, as we shall very likely accomplish what we are already attempting. These two meanings, united in one word, lie at the basis of all Subjunctive constructions in Latin. On the origin, history, and use of the Subjunctive, see Delbrück, 'Connjunctiv und Optativ'; Curtius, 'Verbum,' II, pp. 55-95; Draeger, II., pp. 438-748; Roby, II., pp. 592-548; also a paper by the author on 'The Development of the Latin Subjunctive in Principal Clauses,' Transactions Am. Phil. Assoc., 1879.

2 For the tenses of the Subjunctive in Subordinated clauses, see 490.

3 The Present Subjunctive in its origin is closely related both in form and in meaning to the Future Indicative. Thus, in the Third and Fourth Conjugations, no future forms for the Indicative have been developed, but Subjunctive and Optative forms supply their place, as regam, audiam (Subjunctive), and reget, reget, etc., and audit, audit, etc. (Optative).
SUBJUNCTIVE OF DESIRE.

Fuerit malus civis, he may have been (admit that he was) a bad citizen. Cic. Nē trānsieris Iberum, do not cross the Ebro (now or at any time). Liv.

482. The PLUPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE in principal clauses relates to the past:

Utinam potuissessem, would that I had been able. Cic.

SECTION IV.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN PRINCIPAL CLAUSES.

RULE XXXVIII.—Subjunctive of Desire, Command.

483. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action not AS REAL, but AS DESIRED:

Valeant civēs, may the citizens be well. Cic. Amēmus patriam, let us love our country. Cic. Ā nōbīs diligētur, let him be loved by us. Cic. Scribere nē pigrēre, do not neglect to write. Cic.

1. The Subjunctive of Desire is often accompanied by utinam, and sometimes, especially in the poets, by ut, si, ē si:

Utinam cōnās efficere possim, may I be able to accomplish my endeavors. Cic. Ut illum di perdant, would that the gods would destroy him. Ter.

2. FORCES OF TENSES.—The Present and Perfect imply that the wish may be fulfilled; the Imperfect and Pluperfect, that it can not be fulfilled:

Sint beatī, may they be happy. Cic. Nē trānsieris Iberum, do not cross the Ebro. Liv. Utinam pōssēmus, utinam potuissessem, would that I were able, would that I had been able. Cic.

NOTE.—The Imperfect and Pluperfect may often be best rendered should, should have, ought to have:

Hōc diceret, he should have said this. Cic. Mortem oppotiissest, you should have met death. Cic.

3. NEGATIVES.—With the Subjunctive of Desire, the negative is nē, rarely nōn; with a connective, nēve, neu, rarely neque:

Nē sudeant, let them not dare. Cic. Nōn recedāmus, let us not recede. Cic. Amēs dīct pater, neu sīnas, etc., may you love to be called father, and may you not permit, etc. Hor. Nēve minor nēve sit prōductōr, let it be neither shorter nor longer. Hor.

NOTE.—Nēdum, 'not to say,' 'much less,' is used with the Subjunctive:

Vix in tēctis frīguς viātūr, nōdum in mari sūctē abōsē ab injūriā, the cold is avoided with difficulty in our houses, much less is it easy to escape (to be absent from) injury on the sea. Cic.

4. The first person of the Subjunctive is often found in earnest or solemn AFFIRMATIONS:

1 Observe that the Perfect thus used does not at all differ in time from the Present, but that it calls attention to the completion of the action.

12
POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

Moriar, si putē, may I die, if I think. Cic. Ne sim salvus, si scribē, may I not be safe, if I write. Cic. Sollicitat, ita vivam, as I live, it troubles me. Cic.

5. The Subjunctive of Desire is sometimes used in Relative Clauses:
Quod faustum sit, régem creáte, elect a king, and may it be an auspicious event (may which be auspicious). Liv. Senecētus, ad quam utinam perveniátis, old age, to which may you attain. Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive of Desire in Subordinate Clauses, see 486, III., note, with foot-note.

6. Modo, modo nē, may accompany the Subjunctive of Desire:
Modo Júpiter adát, only let Jupiter be present. Verg. Modo nē laudent, only let them not praise. Cic.

484. The Subjunctive of Desire may be in meaning—
I. Optative, as in prayers and wishes:
Sint bētti, may they be happy. Cic. Di bene vertant, may the gods cause it to turn out well. Plaut.

II. Hortative, as in exhortations and entreaties:
Consulámus bonís, let us consult for the good. Cic.

III. Concessive, as in admissions and concessions:
Fuerint pertinaces, grant (or admit) that they were obstinate. Cic.

IV. Imperative, as in mild commands, admonitions, warnings, etc., used chiefly in prohibitions:
Illum jocum nē ejus aspéranáte, do not despise that jest. Cic. Scribere nē pigrēre, do not neglect to write. Cic.

Note 1.—In prohibitions, the Perfect tense is generally used:
Nē transieris Íbērum, do not cross the Ebro. Liv.

Note 2.—Except in prohibitions, the Second Person Singular in the best prose is used almost exclusively of an indefinite you, meaning one, any one:
Istō bonō tére, you should use (i. e., one should use) that advantage. Cic.

V. Deliberative, as in deliberative questions, to ask what should be:
Huic córdam, hujus condicio ës audiámus, shall we yield to him, shall we listen to his terms? Cic. Quid facerem, what was I to do? Verg.

Rule XXXIX.—Potential Subjunctive.

485. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action not as real, but as possible:
Hic quaerat quaspiam, here some one may inquire. Cic. Ita laudem invenité, thus you will (or may) obtain praise. Ter. Ita amícos partes, thus you will make friends. Ter. Vix dicere ausim, I should scarcely dare to

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1 Here its stream means, may I so live (i. e., may I live only in case this is true).
2 Or, ought we to yield, is it your wish that we should yield?
3 Or, what should I have done?
POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

say. Liv. Crēderēs victōs, vanquished you would have thought them. Liv. Forsitan querātis, perhaps you may inquire. Cic. Hoc nēmō dixerit, no one would say this. Cic. Quis dubitet (= nēmō dubitat), who would doubt (or who doubts = no one doubts)? Cic. Hoc quis ferre possit, who would be able to endure this? Cic.

Note 1.—In the Potential Subjunctive, the Perfect often has nearly the same force as the Present, and the Imperfect is often used where we should expect the Pluperfect: dicerēs, 'you would have said'; crēderēs, putārēs, 'you would have thought'; vidērēs, cernerēs, 'you would have seen':

Tū Platōnem laudāveris, you would praise Plato. Cic. Māestī, crēderēs victōs, redunxit in castra, said, vanquished you would have thought them, they returned to the camp. Liv.

Note 2.—On Tenses, see also 478–483.

Note 3.—The Second Person Singular, especially of the Imperfect, is often used of an indefinite you, meaning one, any one: crēderēs, 'you would have thought,' 'any one you would have thought.'

486. In the Potential sense, the Subjunctive is used—

I. In Declarative Sentences, to express an affirmation modestly, doubtfully, or conditionally; see examples.

Note 1.—Thus, in the language of politeness and modesty, the Potential Subjunctive is often used in verbs of wishing and thinking: volēās, 'I should wish,' for volō, 'I wish'; nōlēās, 'I should be unwilling'; mālēās, 'I should prefer':

Ego cēnasam, I should think, or I am inclined to think. Liv. Mihi dār velim, I should like to have it given to me. Cic.

Note 2.—The Potential Subjunctive is used in the conclusion of conditional sentences; see 507, 1, with foot-note.

II. In Interrogative Sentences, to ask not what is, but what is likely to be, what may be or would be, generally implying a negative answer, as in the last two examples under the rule.

Note.—The Subjunctive with est, with or without the interrogative ne, occurs in questions expressive of impatience or surprise:

Te ut illa rēs frangat, how should anything subdue you? Cic. Egone ut mentiar, that I should speak falsely? Plaut.

III. In Subordinate Clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as possible rather than real:

Quamquam opulēs carēret senectūs, though old age may be without its feasts. Cic. Quoniam non possent, sīne they would not be able. Cæs. Ubi rēs posceret, whenever the case might demand. Liv.

Note.—From the Subjunctive of Desire and the Potential Subjunctive in principal clauses have been developed the various uses of the Subjunctive in subordinate clauses.¹

¹ After forsitan = fors eit an, 'the chance may be whether,' 'perhaps,' the Subjunctive was originally in an indirect question (529), but it may be best treated as Potential. So also with forsam and forstare.

² Some grammarians assume an ellipsis of a predicate, as crēdibilē est, ārē potest, etc.

³ Thus, the Subjunctive of Desire is used in final, conditional, and concessive clauses; the Potential Subjunctive in clauses of result, and in various others denoting
SECTION V.

THE IMPERATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

RULE XL.—Imparative.

487. The Imperative is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties:


1. The Present Imperative corresponds to the Imperative in English:


2. The Future Imperative corresponds to the imperative use of the English Future with shall, or to the Imperative let, and is used—

1) In commands involving future rather than present action:

Rem penditóte, you shall consider the subject. Cic. Crás petitó, dabitur, ask to-morrow, it shall be granted. Plaut.

2) In laws, orders, precepts, etc., especially in prohibitions:

Consulès néminti parentó, the consuls shall be subject to no one. Cic. Salus populi supræmæ lex est, the safety of the people shall be the supreme law. Cic.

Note.—The general distinction between the Present Imperative and the Future is often disregarded, especially in poetry:

Ubi scopem videbis, tum ordines disipás, when you shall see the line of battle, then scatter the ranks. Liv. Quoniam supplicatió décretæ est, celebrátio illæ dies, since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Cic.

3. An Imperative clause may be used instead of a Conditional clause:

Laceesse, jam videbís furentem, provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic. Cic.

4. The place of the Imperative may be supplied by the Subjunctive of Desire (488), or by the Future Indicative:


488. In prohibitions or negative commands, the negative nè, rarely nón, accompanies the Imperative, and if a connective is required, nèce or neque is generally used, rarely neque:

Tú nè cède mals, do not yield to misfortunes. Verg. Hominem mortuum in urbe nè sepelitó, nève úrító, thou shalt not bury nor burn a dead body in the city. Cic.

what is likely to be. Moreover, from these two leading uses was developed the idea of a conceived or assumed action, which probably lies at the foundation of all the other uses of this mood, as in causal and temporal clauses, in indirect questions, and in the subordinate clauses of the indirect discourse.

1 Thus the Future is especially common in certain verbs; and, indeed, in some verbs, as soldí, memíni, etc., it is the only form in common use.
SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

489. Instead of nō with the Present Imperative, the best prose writers generally use—

1) Nōbō and nōlite with the Infinitive:
Nōlite putāre, do not think (be unwilling to think). Cic.

2) Fac nē or cavē, with the Subjunctive:
Fac nē quid aliud cūrēs hōc tempore, do not attend to anything else at this time. Cic. Cavē faciās, beware of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.

3) Nē with the Perfect Subjunctive, rarely with the Present; see 484, IV., note 1.

SECTION VI.

MOODS IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

I. TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

490. In subordinate clauses the tenses of the Subjunctive conform to the following rule:

RULE XII.—Sequence of Tenses.

491. Principal tenses depend upon principal tenses; historical upon historical:

Nīnītur ut vincat, he strives to conquer.1 Cic. Nēmō erit qui cēnseat, there will be no one who will think.1 Cic. Quaesierās nōnne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. Ut honōre dignus esset labōrāvī, I strove to be worthy of honor. Cic.

492. In accordance with this rule, the Subjunctive dependent upon a principal tense, present, future, future perfect, is put—

1. In the Present, to denote incomplete action:
Quaserītur nōr dissidentiārum, the question is asked why they disagree. Cic. Nēmō erit qui cēnseat, there will be no one who will think. Cic.

Note.—Observe that in these examples the action denoted by the Subjunctive belongs either to the present time or to the future.

2. In the Perfect, to denote completed action:
Quaserāmus quae vitia fuerint, let us inquire what faults there were. Cic. Bogitābit mē ubi fuerim, he will ask me where I have been. Ter.

Note 1.—In the sequence of tenses, the Perfect is occasionally treated as a principal tense:2

Oblitus es quid dixerim, you have forgotten what I said. Cic.

Note 2.—For further illustrations of the sequence of tenses, see 493, 2, note 2.

1 The Present Subjunctive generally denotes present time in relation to the principal verb. Accordingly, vincat depending upon the present, nīnītur, denotes present time, while cēnseat depending upon the future, erit, denotes future time.

2 For the treatment of the Perfect in the sequence of tenses, see 495.
493. The Subjunctive dependent upon an historical tense, imperfect, historical perfect, pluperfect, is put—

1. In the IMPERFECT, to denote incomplete action:

Timēbam nē ēventrem ēs, I was fearing that those things would take place (i.e., at some future time). Cic. Quaesierās nōnne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think (i.e., at that time). Cic.

Note.—Observe that in these examples the time of the action denoted by the Subjunctive is either the same as that of the principal verb or subsequent to it.

2. In the PLUPERFECT, to denote completed action:

Themistocles, cum Graeciam iherāisset, expulsus est, Themistocles was banished, though he had liberated Greece. Cic.

Note 1.—The Pluperfect after an historical tense, like the Perfect after a principal tense, may represent the action as completed in future time; see 496, II.

Note 2.—The sequence of tenses may be further illustrated as follows: 1

Nececit quid fecès?, He knew not what you are doing.
Nececit quid fecès?, He will not know what you will do. 2
Neceverit quid fecès?, He will not have known what you will do.
Nececit quid fecès?, He knows not what you have done, or what you did.3
Nececit quid fecès?, He will not know what you will have done.4
Neceverit quid fecès?, He will not have known what you will have done.
Nececit quid fecès?, He did not know what you were doing.5
Necevit quid fecès?, He did not know what you were doing.
Neceverit quid fecès?, He had not known what you were doing.
Necevit quid fecès?, He did not know what you had done.
Necevit quid fecès?, He did not know what you had done.
Neceverit quid fecès?, He had not known what you had done.

494. The periphrastic forms in nos and aus conform to the general rule for the sequence of tenses:

Incertum est quam longa vita futūra sit, it is uncertain how long life will continue. Cic. Incertum erat quō missūrī clārescēmerit, it was uncertain whether they would send the fleet. Liv.

495. PECULIARITIES IN SEQUENCE.—The following peculiarities in the sequence of tenses deserve notice:

I. In the sequence of tenses the Latin Perfect is generally treated as an historical tense, even when rendered with have, and thus admits the Imperfect or Pluperfect:

Quoniam quae subsidia habērēs exposuist,6 nunc dicam, since I have shown

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1 It is not intended to give all the possible meanings of the Subjunctive clauses here used, but simply to illustrate the sequence of tenses.
2 Or, he will not know what you are doing. Thus, quid fecès? may represent the direct question, quid fecès?, 'what shall you do?' or quid fecès?, 'what are you doing?'
3 Or, what you were doing.
4 Or, what you have done, or what you did.
5 Or, what you would do. Necevis may sometimes be rendered, he has not known.
6 Exposeuit, though best rendered by our Perfect Definite with have, is in the Latin
what aids you have, I will now speak. Cic. Haeo non ut vos excitarem locutus sum, I have not spoken this to arouse (that I might arouse) you. Cic.

N. 7. For the Perfect as a principal tense, see 492, 2, note 1.

II. The Historical Present (467, III.) is generally treated as an historical tense, but sometimes as a principal tense:

Persuadet Casticò ut regnum occuparet, he persuaded Casticus to seize the government. Caes. Ubi orant ut sibi parcat, the Ubii implore him to spare them. Caes.

N. 7. The Historical Present includes the Present used of authors (467, 3), the Present with duum (467, 4), the Historical Infinitive (536, 1), etc.:

Chryseippus disputat Aethern esse sum quem hominés Jovem appellarent. Chryseippus contends that he whom men call Jupiter is Aether. Cic.

III. The Imperfect Subjunctive, even when it refers to present time, as in conditional sentences, is generally treated as an historical tense, though sometimes as a principal tense:

Nisi ineptum putarem, jurissem mea sentire quae dicerem, if I did not think it improper, I would take an oath that I believe those things which I say. Cic. Memorare possem quibus in locis hostes populus Romanus fuderit, I might state in what places the Roman people routed the enemy. Sall.

IV. The Perfect Infinitive is generally treated as an historical tense, but the Present and the Future Infinitive, the Present and the Future Participle, as also Gerunds and Supines, share the tense of the verb on which they depend, as they express only relative time (527, 550):

Satis videor docuisse, hominis natura quanto antecedat animantias, I think I have sufficiently shown how much the nature of man surpasses that of the other animals (lit., surpassed animals). Cic. Spéro fore ut contingat, I hope it will happen. Cic. Non spéraverat fore ut ad se déficerent, he had not hoped that they would revolt to him. Liv. Mistrunt Delphos consultum quidnam facerent, they sent to Delphi to ask what they should do. Nep.

V. Clauses containing a general truth usually conform to the law for the sequence of tenses, at variance with the English idiom:

Quanta conscientiæ vis esset, ostendit, he showed how great is the power of conscience. Cic.

VI. Clauses denoting consequence or result generally express absolute time, and are thus independent of the law of sequence. They thus admit the Present or Perfect after historical tenses:

Epaminondas fēcisse eos esse, ut possit jùdicāri, Epaminondas used such

[Notes and footnotes follow the text]
SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

Fidelity that it may be judged. Nep. Adeó exæclæbat Aristidès abstinentiæ, ut Justus sit appellatus, Aristides so excelld in self-control, that he has been called the Just. Nep.

VII. For the sequence of tenses in the indirect discourse, see 525.

496. Future Time in the Subjunctive.—When the Future is used in the principal clause, the Future and Future Perfect tenses, wanting in the Latin Subjunctive, are supplied in the subordinate clauses as follows:

I. The Future is supplied—(1) after a principal tense by the Present, and (2) after an historical tense by the Imperfect:

Omnia sto agentur ut bellum sédétur, *all things shall be so managed that the war will be brought to a close.* Clio. Loquèbantur, etiam cum vollet Caesar, esse non esse pugnátoros, they were saying that they would not fight even when Caesar should wish it. Caesar.

II. The Future Perfect is supplied—(1) after a principal tense by the Perfect, and (2) after an historical tense by the Pluperfect:

Respondet sì id sit factum, sì noctum nèmin, *he replies that if this should be done (shall have been done) he will harm no one.* Caesar. Apparèbat règnátorum, qui vicissent, it was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.

Notes 1.—The Future and the Future Perfect tenses are often supplied in the same way, even when the Future does not occur in the principal clause, provided the idea of future time can be easily inferred from the context:

Vercor nè laborem agam, *I fear that I shall increase the labor.* Clio. Quid dìs fœst incertum sit, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Clio. Quid hostes cónsili caperent, expectabant, they waited to see what plan the enemy would adopt. Caesar. Delitit, dum visam dedissem, *I hid myself until they should have set sail.* Verg.

Notes 2.—When the idea of future time must be especially emphasized in the subordinate clause, the periphrastic forms in rus are used: *

Incertum est quam longa vita futūra sit, *it is uncertain how long life will continue.* Clio. Incertum est quò missiùs classem sorrent, it was uncertain whether they would send the fleet. Liv.

Notes 3.—The Future Perfect is sometimes supplied in the Passive by futūrus sit and futūrus esset with the Perfect Participle: *

Nōn dubitò quin consècta jam rēs futūra sit, *I do not doubt that the thing will have been already accomplished.* Clio.

present, and may thus be expressed by a principal tense. When the result belongs to the present time, the Present is used: *possit judicari,* 'may be judged now'; when it is represented as completed, the Perfect is used: *sit appellatus,* 'has been called' (i. e., even to the present day); but when it is represented as simultaneous with the action on which it depends, the Imperfect is used in accordance with the general rule (491).

1 Sédétur, referring to the same time as agentur, and vollet, referring to the same time as esse pugnátoros, both denote future time.

2 Other traditional periphrastic forms, rarely used in either voice, are—for the Future, futūrum sit ut with the Present Subjunctive, and futūrum esset ut with the Imperfect; and for the Future Perfect, futūrum sit ut with the Perfect, and futūrum esset ut with the Pluperfect.
SUBJUNCTIVE OF PURPOSE.

II. SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF PURPOSE.

RULE XLII.—Purpose.

497. The Subjunctive is used to denote Purpose:¹

I. With the relative quæ, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, etc.:

Missi sunt quæ (= ut it) consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo (who should, or that they should). Nep. Missi sunt dèlecti quæ Thermopylæ occuparent, picked men were sent to take possession of Thermopylae. Nep. Domum, ubi habitatæt, lègit, he selected a house where he might dwell (that he might dwell in it). Cic. Locum petit, unde (= ut inde) hostem invadat, he seeks a position from which he may (that from it he may) attack the enemy. Liv.

II. With ut, nè, quò, quòminus:

Enititur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Cic. Pœnit nè poceætur, he punishes that crime may not be committed. Sen. Lègum idcirco servè sumus, ut libèr esse possèmus, we are servants of the law for this reason, that we may be free. Cic. Medicà dare quò sit studiòsior, to give to the physician, that (by this means) he may be more attentive. Cic. Nòn recusàvit quòminus poenam subret, he did not refuse to submit to punishment. Nep.

1. Ut or uti and nè are the usual conjunctions in clauses denoting purpose. A correlative, ideo, idcirco, èt, etc., sometimes precedes, as in the third example under II.

Note.—With a connective nè becomes nève, neu, rarely neque; see 483, 8:

Lègum tult nè quis socióstrutur nève multàstrutur, he proposed a law that no one should be accused or punished. Nep.

2. Quò, 'by which,' 'that,' is sometimes used in clauses denoting purpose, especially with comparatives, as in the fourth example under II. Quòminus, 'by which the less,' 'thatthus the less,' 'that not,' is simply quò with the comparative minus. It is sometimes used after verbs of hindering, opposing, and the like, as in the last example under II.

Note.—Quò estius also occurs in the sense of quòminus; see Cic. Inv., II, 45.

498. CLAUSES OF PURPOSE readily pass into Object Clauses.²

¹ The Subjunctive of Purpose is doubtless in origin a Subjunctive of Desire, expressing the desire or command implied in the action of the principal verb: Tè rogò ut sum juvès, I ask you to aid him (I ask you, so aid him). Here the second clause, originally independent, contains the desire, which, involved in rogò. Verèor nè labòrem augetam, I fear that I shall increase the labor (I fear, let me not increase the labor). Praestò erit pontifex, qui comitès habeat, the pontiff will be present to hold the comitia (the pontiff will be present, let him hold the comitia). Liv. See Delbruck, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ,' pp. 56-59.

² An Object Clause is one which has become virtually the object of a verb. Thus, in 'optò ut id audíttis,' the clause ut id audíttis has become the object of optò, 'I desire.'
SUBJUNCTIVE OF PURPOSE.

but they still retain the Subjunctive. Thus the Subjunctive is used—

I. With verbs signifying Desires and its Expression; hence decision, decree, etc.: ¹

Optó ut id audíris, I desire (pray) that you may hear this. Cic. Ut mihi sedes aliquas conducas voló, I wish that you would hire a house for me. Plaut. Senátus consérerat, ut Aedus défenderet, the senate had decreed that he should defend the Aeduvi. Cæc. Servis imperat ut filiam défendat, he commands his servants to defend his daughter. Cic. Té hortor ut legás, I exhort you to read. Cic. Té rogó ut eum juvés, I ask you to aid him. Cic. A régo petivérunt nē inimicásum suum sécum habérét, they asked from the king that he would not keep his worst enemy with him. Nep.

Note.—Verbs of determining, deciding—stató, constitúo, défendó, etc.—generally take the Subjunctives when a new subject is introduced, otherwise the Infinitive (533, l. 1):

Consulátur, ut tribúnum queréretur, he had arranged that the tribune should enter the complaint. Sall. Senátus dcrévít, darent operam consultó, the senate decreed that the consul should attend to it. Sall. Mandare dcrévít, he decided to remain. Nep.

II. With verbs and expressions denoting Effort (striving for a purpose, attaining a purpose) or Impulse (urgings to effort): ²

Contendit ut vincat, he strives to conquer. Cic. Curaví ut bene vivérém, I took care to lead a good life. Sen. Effect ut imperatór mitteretur, he caused a commander to be sent (attained his purpose). Nep. Movémur ut boni simus, we are influenced to be good. Cic.

Note 1.—Some verbs of endeavoring, striving, as cómor, contendó, mitter, stridère, and teneto, generally take the Infinitive when no new subject is introduced; see 533:

Locum oppugnáre contendít, he proceeds to storm the city. Cæs. Tentábó dē hoc dicère, I will attempt to speak of this. Quint.

Note 2.—Ut with the Subjunctive sometimes forms with fació or aper, rarely with est, a circumlocution for the Indicative: fació ut ácias = dicó; fació ut scribámus = scribó: Invitus fació ut recordér, I unwillingly recall. Cic.

III. With verbs and expressions denoting Fear, Anxiety, Danger: ³

Timeó, ut labórés sustínás, I fear that you will not endure the labors. ⁴ Cic. Timémur nē ëventírent ca, I feared that those things would happen. Cic. Vereor nē labórem angam, I fear that I shall increase the labor. ⁴ Cic. Periculum est nē ille tē verbís obrúat, there is danger that he will overwhelm you with words. Cic.

Note 1.—By a difference of idiom, ut must here be rendered by that or lest. The Latin treats the clause as a wish or purpose. ⁴

¹ As optó, postuló; cómor, déscoró, stató, constitúo, etc.; voló, málo; admoenó, moneó, hortor; órò, rogó; imperó, præcipió, etc.
² As mitter, contendó, stridère; cúra, dē aper, operam dé, etc.; fació, offició, impetró, conséquor, etc.; ógò, impello, moneó, etc.
³ As médoro, timeó, servó; periculum est, cúra est, etc.
⁴ The Subjunctive of Desire is manifest if we make the subordinate clause inde-
SUBJUNCTIVE OF PURPOSE.

Notes.—After verbs of fearing, nē nōn is sometimes used for ut—regularly so after negative clauses:

Verbor nē nōn posiset, I fear that he will not be able. Cic.

Notes.—Verbs of fearing admit the ēstātīs in the same sense as in English:

Verbor laudāre, I fear (hesitate) to praise. Cic.

499. Peculiarities.—Expressions of Purpose present the following peculiarities:

1. Ut nē, rarely ut nōn, is sometimes used for nē:

Praedixit, ut nē légātōs dimitterent, he charged them not to (that they should not) release the delegates. Nep. Ut plurā nōn dicam, not to say more (I. e., that I may not). Cic.

2. Ut is sometimes omitted, especially after volō, nolō, mālo, faciō, and after verbs of directing, urging, etc. Nē is often omitted after casē:

Tū velim sta, I desire that you may be. Cic. Fāc habeas, see (make) that you have. Cic. Senātus dēcrēvit derrēnt operam cōnsulēs, the senate decreed that the consuls should see to it. Sall. Cavē faciās, beware of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.

Note.—Clauses with ut or nē are sometimes inserted parenthetically in sentences:

Amōs, optimān vitas, ut its dicam, suppelletīlem, friends, the best treasure (furniture), so to speak, of life. Cic.

3. Clauses of Purpose sometimes pass into Substantive Clauses, which, like indeclinable nouns, are used in a variety of constructions:

Per sum stetit quōminus dīmicārētur, it was owing to him (stood through him) that the battle was not fought. Cas. Volō ut mīhi respondēs, I wish that you would answer me. Cic. Fecit pācem hīs conditionibus, nē quī adficerentur exsiliō, he made peace on these terms, that none should be punished with exile. Nep.

Note.—For the Different Forms of Substantive Clauses, see 545.

Note 2.—Clauses with quōminus sometimes lose the original idea of Purpose and denote Result:

Nōn dēterret sapientem morās quōminus reā publicae cōnsulat, death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic. Cic.

...
III. SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF RESULT.

RULE XLIII.—Result.

500. The Subjunctive is used to denote Result.  

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, cùr, etc.:  

Non is sum qui (= ut ego) his òtār, I am not such a one as to use these things. Cio. Innocentia est afflictō tālis animi, quae (= ut ea) nocet nēmini, innocence is such a state of mind as injures no one, or as to injure no one. Cio. Neque quiaquam fuit ubi nostrum jūs obtinērēmus, nor was there any one with whom (where) we could obtain our right. Cio. Est vērō cùr quis Junō-nem laederō nōlit, there is indeed a reason why (so that) one would be unwilling to offend Jūno. Ovid.

II. With ut, ut nōn, quīn:

ita vixit ut Atheniēsibus esset cārissimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. Ita laudō, ut nōn pertinēscat, I so praise as not to fear. Cio. Ego in pūblīcōs causās ā sua versātus ut défenderem multōs, I have been so occupied in public suits that I have defended many. Cio. Nihil est tam difficile quīn (ut nōn) investigāri possit, nothing is so difficult that it may not be investigated. Ter.

Notes 1.—Qui is often preceded by is, tālis, tantus, or some similar word; and ut, by ita, etc, tam, adeò, tantopere, or some similar particle; see examples.

Notes 2.—In Plautus and Terence ut sometimes accompanies qui:

ita ut qui neget, so that he refuses. Ter.

Note 2.—For the Subjunctive denoting a result after quārum, see 499, 3, note 2.

501. CLAUSES OF RESULT readily pass into Substantive Clauses, but they still retain the Subjunctive. Thus the Subjunctive is used—

I. In Subject Clauses. Thus—

1. With impersonal verbs signifying it happens, remains, follows, is lawful, is allowed, is distant, is, etc.:  

Fit ut quiaque dēlectātur, it happens that every one is delighted. Cio. Sequitur ut falsum sit, it follows that it is false. Cio. Restat ut doceam, it remains that I should show. Cio. Ex quō efficietur ut voluptās nōn sit summum bonum, from which it follows that pleasure is not the highest good. Cio.

2. With predicate nouns and adjectives:

Mōs est ut nōlīt, it is their custom not to be willing (that they are unwilling). Cio. Prōximum est, ut doceam, the next point is, that I show. Cio. Nōn est dubium quin beneficiōm sit, that it is a benefit, is not doubtful. Sen.

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1 The Subjunctive of Result is doubtless in origin a Potential Subjunctive: Nōn is sum qui òtār, 'I am not one who would use (or is likely to use) these things.' Hence this Subjunctive takes the negative nōn (ut nōn) like the Potential Subjunctive, while the Subjunctive of Purpose takes the negative ut like the Subjunctive of Desire.

2 As accidit, contīngit, ëcentit, ët, restat, sequitur, licet, abēst, est, etc.
SUBJUNCTIVE OF RESULT.

Note.—For the Subjunctive with ut, with or without ne, in questions expressive of impatience or surprise, see 486, II., note.

II. In Object Clauses. Thus—

1. In clauses introduced by ut after faciō, efficiō, of the action of irrational forces:

Sōl efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom (i.e., produces that result). Cic. Splendor vester facit ut pecora sine periculo non possit igitur, your conspicuous position causes this result, that you can not err without peril. Cic. See 498, II.

2. In clauses introduced by quin after verbs of Doubting:

Nōn dubitābis quin sint bestiā, you will not doubt that they are happy. Cic.

III. In Clauses in Apposition with nouns or pronouns:

Habet hōc virtūs ut délectet, virtue has this advantage, that it delights. Cic. Est hōc virtūs, ut invidia gloriæ comes sit, there is this fault, that envy is the companion of glory. Nep.

Note.—For the different forms of substantive clauses, see 540.

502. Peculiarities.—Expressions of Result present the following peculiarities:

1. Ut is sometimes omitted—regularly with oportet, generally with opus est and necesse est:

Tē oportet virtūs trahat, it is necessary that virtue should attract you. Cic. Causam habeat necesse est, it is necessary that it should have a cause. Cic.

2. The Subjunctive occurs with quam—with or without ut:

Libertas quam ut pōset, too freely to be able (more freely than so as to be able). Nep. Impōnēbat amplius quam forō pōset, he imposed more than they were able to bear.

3. After tantum abest ut, denoting result, a second ut of result sometimes occurs:

Philosophia, tantum abest ut laudētur, ut etiam vituperētur, so far is it from the truth (so much is wanting) that philosophy is praised, that it is even censured. Cic.

503. In Relative Clauses, the Subjunctive of Result shows the following Special Constructions:

I. The Subjunctive is used in relative clauses to characterize an Indefinite or General Antecedent: 1

Quid est quod tē délectāre possit, what is there which can delight you? Cic. Nunc dīcō aliquid quod ad rem pertineat, now you state something which belongs to the subject. Cic. Sunt qui putent, there are some who think. Cic. Nēmō est qui nōn cupiat, there is no one who does not desire. Cic.

1 Here tam, tātis, or some such word, is often understood.
SUBJUNCTIVE OF RESULT.

Notes 1.—Restrictive clauses with quod, as quod sciam, ‘as far as I know,’ quod meminerim, ‘as far as I remember,’ etc., take the Subjunctive:

Non ego tibi, quod sciam, unquam ante hunc diem vidit, as far as I know, I have never seen you before this day. Plaut.

2.—Quod, or a relative particle, sed, unde, quid, cuir, etc., with the Subjunctive, is used after est, ‘there is reason’; non est, nihil est, ‘there is no reason’; quid est, ‘what reason is there?’ non habet, nihil habet, ‘I have no reason’:

Est quod gaudes, there is reason why you should rejoice, or so that you may. Plaut. Nihil habet, quod incoeram senectutem, I have no reason why I should accuse old age. Cic. Quod est cur virtus ipse non influat beatit, what reason is there why virtue itself should not make men happy? Cic.

Notes 2.—The Indicative is freely used in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents:

1) In poetry and late prose:
Sunt quae jussit, there are some whom it delights. Hor.

2) Even in the best prose, when the fact itself is to be made prominent:
Sunt qui non audient dicere, there are some who do not dare to speak. Cic. Multae sunt, quae dicit possunt, there are many things which may be said. Cic.

II. The Subjunctive is used in relative clauses—

1. After unus, solus, and the like:

Sapientia est una, quae maestitiam pellat, wisdom is the only thing which dispels sadness (which would dispel). Cic. Soli centum erant qui esset possent, there were only one hundred who could be appointed (such that they could be). Liv.

2. After dignus, indignus, idoneus, and aptus:

Fabulae dignae sunt, quae legantur, the fables are worthy to be read (that they should be read). Cic. Rufum Caesari idoneum judicaverat quem mittet, Caesar had judged Rufus a suitable person to send (whom he might send). Caesar.

3. After comparatives with quam:

Damn sunt quam quae (= ut ea) estimant possint, the looses are too great to be estimated (greater than so that they can be). Liv.

504. Quin, ‘who not,’ ‘that not,’ etc., is often used to introduce a result after negatives and interrogatives implying a negative. Thus—

1 Especially in early poetry, as in Plautus and Terence.
2 Quin is a compound of the relative qui and nē, and appears to be used both as an indeclinable relative pronoun, who not, and as a relative particle, by which not, how not, etc. Some clauses with quin may perhaps be best explained as indirect questions (539, 1). Quin, meaning why not? often used in independent clauses, is a compound of the interrogative qui or qui, and nē: Quin est hodie facta, why do you not do it? Liv.
3 As nē, nihil, nē, quin, nē dubito, nē dubium est, nē multum aest, paulum aest, nihil aest, quid aest? nōn, non, agunt abstineo; nihil non temporo; non retineor; nōn, nihil praetermitto; facere non possunt, sert non poteb; nōn- quam with a large class of verbs.
SUBJUNCTIVE OF RESULT. 279

1. Quin is often used in the sense of qui nōn, quae nōn, etc., as after nēmō, nāllus, nihil, quis?

Adest nēmō, quin vidēst, there is no one present who does not see. Cio. Nēmō est quin audierit, there is no one who has not heard. Cio. Quis est quin cernat, who is there who does not perceive? Cio. Nālla fuit cīvitās quin mitterer, there was no state which did not send. Caes. Nālla pictūra fuit quin (=quam nōn) inspexerit, there was no painting which he did not inspect. Cio. Nāllum interretāt diēm, quin (=quod nōn or ut sē nōn) aliqūid dāre m, I allowed no day to pass without giving something (on which I would not give something). Cio.

Note.—Quin can often be best rendered by but or or by without or from with a participle noun in -nus: see the last example under 1; also the last under 2.

2. Quin is often used in the ordinary sense of ut nōn:

Nēmō est tam fortis quin perturbētur, no one is so brave as not to be disturbed. Caes. Nihil est tam difficul quin investigātī possit, nothing is so difficult that it may not be investigated. Ter. Retinērī nōn poterant quin tēra coīcerent, they could not be restrained from hurling their weapons. Caes.

Note.—Es or id is sometimes expressed after quin:
Nihil est quin id interret, there is nothing which does not perish. Cio.

3. Quin is used in the sense of ut nōn or of ut in subject and object clauses (501):

1) With facere nōn possum, fieri nōn potest, etc., in the sense of ut nōn:
Facere nōn possum quin litterās mittam, I can not but send a letter. Cio. Effici nōn potest quin sēs òderim, it can not be (be effected) that I should not hate them. Cio.

2) With negative expressions implying doubt and uncertainty, in the sense of ut:
Agamemnōn nōn dubitat quin Trōja sit peritūrā, Agamemnon does not doubt that Troy will fall (perish). Cio. Nōn dubitāt débet quin fuerint poētæ, it ought not to be doubted that there were poets. Cio. Quis Ignorant quin tria genera sint, who is ignorant that there are three races? Cio.

4. Quin is sometimes used in the sense of quōminus: 2


Note.—For nōn quin in Causal Clauses, see 516, 2.

1 Pronounced as if written cōicerent; see 36, 4, with foot-note 1.
2 As after verbs of bīndering, rēfusing, and the like. Observe that in the examples dētērētō and rēcītō are used both with quin and with quōminus. They also admit the Subjunctive with nē or the Infinitive; see 505, II.
505. Construction of Special Verbs.—Some verbs admit two or more different constructions. Thus—

I. Dubito admits—

1. Quin, with the subjunctive, if it stands in a negative sentence; see 504, 3, 2).

2. An Indirect Question (529, I):

3. The Accusative with the infinitive:
Quis dubitât patère Europam, who doubts that Europe is exposed? Curt.

4. The simple infinitive, when it means to hesitate:
Non dubitem dicere, I should not hesitate to say. Cic. Dubitâmus virtûtem extendere factis, do we hesitate to extend our glory (valor) by our deeds? Verg.

II. Verbs of hindering, opposing, refusing, and the like, admit—

1. The subjunctive with nè, quin, or quôminus:2

Impedior nè plûra dîeam, I am prevented from saying (that I may not say) more. Cic. Sententiam nè diceret recusâtiv, he refused to give an opinion. Cic. Neque recusâre quin armis contendant, and that they do not refuse to contend in arms. Caes. Interclûder dolore quôminus plûra scribam, I am prevented by sorrow from writing more. Cic.

2. The accusative with the infinitive, or the simple infinitive:
Num ignôbilítas sapientem beárum esse prohibét, will obscurity prevent a wise man from being happy? Cic. Quae facere recusém, which I should refuse to do. Illor.

IV. Moods in Conditional Sentences.

506. Every conditional sentence consists of two distinct parts, expressed or understood—the condition and the conclusion:

Si negem, mentiar, if I should deny it, I should speak falsely.3 Cic.

RULE XLIV.—Conditional Sentences with si, nisi, ni, sin.

507. Conditional sentences with si, nisi, ni, sin, take—

I. The indicative in both clauses to assume the supposed case:

1 That is, I am inclined to think that I should place. Observe that dubito an means 'I doubt whether not'—'I am inclined to think,' and dubito non, 'I doubt whether': Dubito num debecam, 'I doubt whether I ought.' Plin.

2 For the use of quin, see 504. Nè and quôminus may follow either affirmatives or negatives.

3 Here si negem is the condition, and mentiar, the conclusion.
CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

Si spiritum ducit, vitit, *if he breathes, he is alive*. Cic. Si tot exemplo virtutis non movent, nihil unquam movēbit, *if so many examples of valor do not move (you), nothing will ever move (you)*. Liv.

II. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as possible:

Diēs déficiat, si velim causam défendere, *the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause*. Cic. Imperē fēceris, nisi monueris, *you would do wrong, if you should not give warning*. Cic.

III. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as contrary to fact:

Plūribus verbis ad tē scriberem, si rēs verba désiderāret, *I should write to you more fully (with more words), if the case required words*. Cic. Si voluisset, dimīcāisset, *if he had wished, he would have fought*. Nep.

1. Two clauses without any conjunction sometimes have the force of a conditional sentence:

Negat quis, negō, *does any one deny, I deny*. Ter. Rogēs mē, nihil respondēam, *ask me, I shall make no reply*. Cic. Tū mágnam partem, sineret dolor, habērēs, *you would have had a large share, had grief permitted*. Verg. Lacesē; jam vidēbās furentem, *provoke him (i.e., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic*. Cic.

2. A condition is sometimes introduced by the relative *qui, quae*, etc.:

Qui sēcum loquēt poterit, sermōnem alterius nōn requīret, *if any one (lit., he who) shall be able to converse with himself, he will not need the conversation*.

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1 See 510, note 2.

2 From these examples it is manifest that a conditional particle is not an essential part of a conditional sentence. Originally the two clauses, the condition and the conclusion, were independent, and the mood in each was determined by the ordinary principles which regulate the use of moods in principal clauses; see 483; 485. Hence the Indicative was used in treating of facts, and the Subjunctive or Imperative in all other cases. Si, probably the Locative case of a pronoun, meaning (1) at that time or in that manner, and (2) at any time or in any manner, has nothing whatever to do with the mood, but merely denotes that the conclusion is connected with the condition. Thus: *negat, negō, he denies (i.e., assume that he denies), I deny*; *si negat, negō, he denies at some time, then I deny*; *dīs déficiat, et velim, etc., let me wish (Subjunctive of Desire) at any time, etc., then the day would fail me*. The Subjunctive in conditions is a Subjunctive of Desire with nearly the force of the Imperative, which may indeed be used for it when *si* is omitted, as *lacesē,* *provoke him (i.e., if you provoke him).* In conclusions the Subjunctive is generally potential, as *dīs déficiat,* *the day would fail,* but sometimes it is the Subjunctive of Desire, for which the Imperative may be substituted; as, *persēam, at poterant,* *may I perish if they shall be able*; *si pecudet, ignōscē,* *if I have erred, pardon me.* See Delbrück, *Conjunctiv und Optativ,* pp. 70-74; 171-182.
of another. Cic. Errat longē, qui crēdat, etc., he greatly errs who supposes, etc. (i. e., if any one supposes, he greatly errs). Ter. Haece qui vidēst, nonne cogātur confītērī, etc., if any one should see these things, would he not be compelled to admit, etc. 1 Cic.

3. A condition is sometimes introduced by cum:

Ea cum dissimant, quid respondērēs, if (when) they had said that, what should you reply? Cic.

Nota 1.—The condition is sometimes ironical, especially with nisi vērō, nisi forte, with the Indicative, and with quae, quae vērō, with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive:

Nisi forte Insānit, unless perhaps he is insane. Cic. Quae vērō necesse sit, as if indeed it were necessary. Cas.

Nota 2.—Ilā—et, 'so—if,' means only—if. St quidem, 'if indeed,' sometimes has nearly the force of since:

Hoc ēst justum est, si est voluntārium, this is just only—if (on condition that) it is voluntary. Cic. Antiquissimum est genus poētārum, si quidem Homērūs fuit ante Rōmānum condītum, the class of poets is very ancient, since Homer lived before the founding of Rome. Cic.

Nota 3.—Nisi or ni, 'if not,' is sometimes best rendered but or except:

Necātō, nisi hoc videāt, I know not, but (except that) I observe this. Cic.

Nota 4.—Nisi si means except if, unless perhaps, unless:

Nisi si qui scripisset, unless some one has written. Cic.

Nota 5.—For si to be rendered to see if, to see whether, etc., see 529, 1, note 1.

Nota 6.—For quod st, quod ni, quod nisi, see 453, 6.

Nota 7.—The condition may be variously supplied, as by a participle, by the ablative absolute, or by the oblique case of a noun:

Nōn potēstātē omnis dirigēntēs (= st dirigētis), reāmē virtūtēm, you can not retain your manhood, if you arrange all things with reference to pleasure. Cic. Rēctē factō (= st rēctē factum est), lūsā prōpōnitūr, if it is (shall be) well done, praise is offered. Cic. Nēmō sīne spē (= nisi spēm habēret) sē offert ad mortem, no one without a hope (if he had not a hope) would expose himself to death. Cic.

Nota 8.—For Conditional Sentences in the Indirect Discourse, see 527.

508. First Form.—Conditional sentences with the Indicative in both clauses, assuming the supposed case as real, may base upon it any statement which would be admissible if the supposed case were a known fact:

St haece civitās est, civis sum ego, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic. Si nōn licēbat, nōn necesse erat, if it was not lawful, it was not necessary. Cic. Si vis, dābō tibi testēs, if you wish, I will furnish you witnesses. Cic. Plura scribāmus, si plās ādit habuērē, I will write more if I shall have (shall have had) more leisure. Cic. Dolōrem si nōn potērō frangere, occultābō, if I shall not be able to overcome sorrow, I shall conceal it. Cic. Parvi sunt foris arma, nisi est consilium domī, arms are of little value abroad, unless there is wisdom at home. Cic. Si domī sum, etc.; st in foris sum, etc., if I am at home, etc.; but if I am abroad, etc. Plaut. Ni putō, if I do not think. Cic.

1 Sin from st niē, 'if not,' 'if on the contrary,' 'but if,' properly introduces a condition in contrast with another condition expressed or implied. Thus, st in foris is in contrast with st domī, and means but if abroad.
1. The Condition is generally introduced, when affirmative, by si, with or without other particles, as quidem, modo, etc., and when negative, by si non, nisi, si.

2. The Time may be present, past, or future, but it need not be the same in both clauses. Thus the Present or the Future Perfect in the condition is often followed by the Future, as in the third and fourth examples.¹

3. Si non and nisi are often used without any perceptible difference of meaning; but strictly si non introduces the negative condition on which the conclusion depends, while nisi introduces a qualification or an exception. Thus, in the second example above, the meaning is, if it was not lawful, it follows that it was not necessary; while in the fourth the meaning is, arms are of little value abroad, except when there is wisdom at home.

4. The Conclusion irrespective of the condition may assume a considerable variety of form. Thus:

Redargue mé si mentor, refuse me if I speak falsely. Cic. Moriar, mi putā, may I die, if I do not think. Cic. Quid timeam, si beatus futurus sum, why should I fear if I am going to be happy? Cic. Si quid habēs certius, velim ² scire, if you have any information (anything more certain), I should like to know it. Cic.

5. General Truths may be expressed conditionally—

1) By the Indicative in both clauses, as in the sixth example under 508.

2) By the Second Person of the Subjunctive used of an indefinite you (= any one) in the condition, with the Indicative in the conclusion:

Membra minuat, nisi eam exercēs, the memory is impaired, if you do not (one does not) exercise it. Cic. Nulla est excusatīō peccātī, si amīci causā peccāveris, it is no excuse for a fault, that you have committed it for the sake of a friend. Cic.

509. Second Form.—Conditional sentences with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses represent the condition as possible:

Haece si tēcum patria loquatur, nōmine imperatrī débeat, if your country should speak thus with you, ought she not to obtain her request? Cic. Improbē feceris, nisi monueris, you would do wrong, if you should not give warning. Cic. See also 507, II.

Nota 1.—The Tense denoted by these tenses, the Present and the Perfect, is generally either present or future, and the difference between the two is that the former regards the action in its progress, the latter in its completion. Thus, loquatur, 'should speak' (now or at any future time); so of débeat; but feceris, though referring to the same time as loquatur, regards the action as completed.³

Nota 2.—The Present Subjunctive is occasionally used in conditional sentences, even when the condition is in itself contrary to fact:

¹ A conditional sentence with the Future Perfect in the condition and the Future in the conclusion, as plūra scribōm, si plus ēdil habuero, corresponds to the Greek with δέω or εἰς with the Aorist Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion; et, nos ēx νουχηροῖς, γῆρας ἑαυτῶς εὐδοκέω, if you will labor while young, you will have a prosperous old age.

² Observe that in each of these examples the mood in the conclusion is entirely independent of the condition. Thus, redargue is a command; moriar, a prayer, Subjunctive of Desire; quid timeam, a deliberative question (484, V.); and velim, a Potential Subjunctive (486, note 1).

³ As the Present Subjunctive in point of time is very closely related to the Future Indicative in conditional sentences, so the Perfect Subjunctive is very closely related to the Future Perfect Indicative, though it may refer to past time.
Tú si hic sis, alter sentias, if you were I (if you were in my place), you would think differently. Ter.

Norm 8.—When dependent upon an historical tense, the Present and Perfect are of course generally changed to the Imperfect and Pluperfect, by the law for Sequence of Tenses (490):

Metuit nó, si iret, retraherétur, he feared lest, if he should go, he would be brought back, Liv.

510. THIRD FORM.—Conditional sentences with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses represent the supposed case as contrary to fact, and simply state what would have been the result if the condition had been fulfilled:

Sapientia non expeterétur, si nihil efficeret, wisdom would not be sought (as it is), if it accomplished nothing, Cic. Si optima tenère pòssèmus, haud sàne consilió egérèmus, if we were able to secure the highest good, we should not indeed need counsel, Cic. Si voluisset, dimitisset, if he had wished, he would have sought, Nep. Nànquam abisset, nisi sibi viam muniisset, he would never have gone, if he had not prepared for himself a way, Cic. See also 507, III.

Norm 1.—Here the Imperfect generally relates to present time, as in the first and second examples; the Pluperfect to past time, as in the third and fourth examples.

Norm 2.—The Imperfect sometimes relates to past time, especially when it expresses a continued action, or is accompanied by any word denoting past time:

Nec, si cuperis, tulés facere licuisset, nor would you have been permitted to do it, if you had desired, Cic. Num optimum, si tum essec, temerarium civem putàris, would you have thought Optimum an audacious citizen if you had lived at that time?, Cic.

511. A CONCLUSION of the FIRST FORM is sometimes combined with a CONDITION of the SECOND or THIRD FORM. Thus—

1. The Indicative is often thus used in the conclusion (1) to denote a general truth, and (2) to emphasize a fact, especially with a condition introduced by nisi or si:¹

Turpis exsússtíō est, si quis fáceat, etc., it is a base excuse, if one admits, etc. Cic. Intráre, si possim, castra hostium voló, I wish to enter the camp of the enemy, if I am able, Liv. Certàmen aderat, ní Fabius rem expédissét, a contest was at hand, but Fabius (lit., if Fabius had not) adjusted the affair.² Liv. Nec vénit, nisi fásu locum dedissent, nor should I have come, had not the fates assigned the place.³ Verg.

¹ This use of the Imperfect to denote present time was developed from the ordinary force of the Subjunctive tenses. Thus the Present denotes that which is likely to be, the Imperfect that which was likely to be, and so by implication that which is not. Compare fade in the sense of was, but is not, 471, 1, 9).
² Here the condition merely introduces a qualification or an exception; see 508, 3.
³ The force of the Indicative can not be easily shown in a translation, but the Latin conception is, I have not come without the divine guidance (expressed in the condition).
CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

Norm 1.—The Future Indicative is sometimes used in the conclusion because of its near relationship in force to the Present Subjunctive:

Si mittat, quid respondetis, *if he should send, what answer shall you give?* Lucr.
Nec si cupias, licet it, *nor, if you should desire it, will it be allowed.* Cic.

Norm 2.—In a negative conclusion with a negative condition, the verb *possum* is generally in the Indicative:

Neque amicitiam tuarum possimus, nisi amicos diligamus, *nor should we be able to preserve friendship, if we should not love our friends.* Cic.

Norm 3.—The Historical Tenses of verbs denoting Duty, Propriety, Necessity, Ability, and the like, in the conclusion of conditional sentences, are generally in the Indicative:

Quem, si tilla in tē pletās esset, colere docebās, *whom you ought to have honored (and would have honored), if there were any filial affection in you.* Cic. Vix castra, si oppugnātur, tūtāri poterat, *he was hardly able to defend the camp, if he should be attacked.* Liv. Dēlāri exercitus potuit, *if persecuted victorēs essent, the army might have been destroyed (and would have been), if the victors had pursued.* Liv.

Norm 4.—The Historical Tenses of the Indicative of still other verbs are sometimes similarly used when accompanied by *paene* or *proprie*:

Pōnas iter paene hostibus dedit, *as if almost the bridge was furnished a passage to the enemy (and would have furnished it), had there not been one man.* Liv.

2. The Periphrastic Forms in *rus* and *dus* in the conclusion of conditional sentences are generally in the Indicative:

Quid si hostes veniant, factūrē estis, *what shall you do if the enemy should come?* Liv. Si quasératur, indicandum est, *if inquiry should be made, information must be given.* Cic. Relictūrī agrōs erant, nisi litterās misset, *they would have left their lands, had he not sent a letter.* Cic. Quid futūrum fuit, si plebs agitāri coepta esset, *what would have been the result, if the plebeians had begun to be agitated?* Liv. Si vērum respondēre vellēs, hae erat dicenda, *if you wished to answer truly, this should have been said.* Cic. Si morāt essētis, moriendum omnibus fuit, *if you had delayed, you must all have perished.* Liv.

Norm.—When the Perfect Indicative in the conclusion with the Subjunctive in the condition is brought into a construction which requires the Subjunctive, the tense remains unchanged, irrespective of the tense of the principal verb:

Adeo est inopīs colectus ut, nisi timuissent, Gallam repetītūrus füerit, *he was so

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1 See §79, with foot-note 2. A conditional sentence with the Present Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion, corresponds to the Greek *ἐὰν* with the Present Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion: *τοῦτο ἐὰν αὐτοῖς ἐπιφέρε, if you examine this, you will find.*

2 Here, too, the use of the Indicative grows out of the relationship between the meaning of *possum*, denoting ability, and that of the Potential Subjunctive denoting possibility.

3 The Indicative is here explained by the close relationship between the ordinary meaning of the Subjunctive, and that of the forms in *rus* and *dus* denoting that something is about to be done or ought to be done.

4 Ltt., were about to leave, and so would have left, had he not, etc.

5 Here *repetītūrus füerit* is in the Subjunctive, not because it is in a conditional sentence, but because it is the Subjunctive of Result with *ut*; but it is in the Perfect, because, if it were not dependent, the Perfect Indicative would have been used.
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pressed by want that, if he had not feared, he would have returned to Gaul. Liv. Haud dubium fuit, quin nit firmata extrema agminis fuisse, ingens accipienda clades fuerit, there was no doubt that, had not the rear of the line been made strong, a great disaster must have been sustained. Liv. Quaeris quid poterit amplitus esse qui, si Scipionis fuitis fuisse, you ask what more he could have attained, if he had been the son of Scipio. Cic.

512. A CONCLUSION of the Third Form (510) is sometimes combined with a Condition of the Second Form (509):

Si técum loquantur, quid respondéretis, if they should speak with you, what answer would you give? Cic.

RULE XLV.—Conditional Clauses with dum, modo, āc st, ut st, etc.

513. Conditional clauses take the Subjunctive—

I. With dum, modo, dummodo, 'if only, 'provided that'; dum nè, modo nè, dummodo nè, 'if only not, 'provided that not':

Manent ingenia, modo permaneant industria, mental powers remain, if only industry remains. Cic. Dum rès maneant, verba fíngant, let them make words, if only the facts remain. Cic. Dummodo repellant pérículum, provided he may avert danger. Cic. Dum nè tibí videant, non laboró, provided I do not seem to you, I do not care. Cic.

II. With āc st, ut st, quam st, quæst, tanquam st, tanquam st, velut st, 'as if,' 'than if,' involving an ellipse of the real conclusion:

Perinde habébo, āc st scripsissetis, I shall regard it just as if (i. e., as I should if) you had written. Cic. Jacent, tanquam omnínō sine animō sint, they lie as if (i. e., as they would lie if) they were entirely without mind. Cic. Quam st vínxerit técum, as if he had lived with you. Cic. Miserior es, quam st ocúlos nón habéretes, you are more unhappy than (you would be) if you had not eyes. Cic. Crádélítatem, velut st adesse, horrébant, they shuddered at his cruelty as (they would) if he were present. Caes. Ut st in suam rem aliéninha convertantur, as if they should appropriate other possessions to their own use. Cic. Tanquam audiant, as if they may hear. Sen.

Nota I.—In this form of conditional sentences, the Present 1 or Imperfect is used of present time, and the Perfect 2 or Pluperfect of past time; see examples above.

1 When not used in conditions, these conjunctions often admit the Indicative: Dum leges vigebant, while the laws were in force. Cic.

2 This Subjunctive is best explained as the Subjunctive of Desire, as indicated by the negative nè (423, 8). Thus, modo permaneant industria, 'only let industry remain'; dum nè tibí videant, 'let me not meanwhile seem so to you.' After dum and dummodo the Subjunctive may perhaps be explained as Potential, but the negative nè renders such an explanation very doubtful.

3 The English idiom would lead us to expect only the Imperfect and Pluperfect, as under 510; but the Latin often regards the condition as possible, and thus uses the Present and Perfect, as under 509.
CONCESSION CLAUSES.

Norm 2.—Cei and sicuri are sometimes used like de e, ut e, etc.:
Cei bellis furent, as if there were wars. Verg. Sicuri auditur pessum, as if they could
be heard. Sall.

V. MOODS IN CONCESSIONAL CLAUSES.

514. A concessive clause is one which concedes or admits some-
ting, generally introduced in English by though or although: 1
Quamquam itinere fessē erant, tamēn procedunt, although they were weary
with the journey, they still (yet) advanced. Sall.

Note.—The concessive particle is sometimes omitted:
Sed habeat, tamēn, etc., but grant that he has it, yet, etc. Cic.

RULE XLVI.—Moods in Concessive Clauses.

515. Concessive clauses take—
I. Generally the Indicative in the best prose, when
introduced by quamquam:
Quamquam intellegunt, tamēn nūnquam dicunt, though they understand,
they never speak. Cic. Quamquam festinās, nūn est mora longās, though
you are in haste, the delay is not long. Hor.

II. The Indicative or Subjunctive, when introduced
by etsē, etiamē, tamētē, or sē, like conditional clauses
with sē. Thus—

1. The Indicative is used to represent the supposed case as a fact:
Gaudeō, etsē nihil scīō quod gaudeam. I rejoice, though I know no reason
why I should rejoice. Plaut.

2. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive, to represent the supposed case
as possible:
Etsē nihil habeat in sē gloria, tamēn virtūtem sequitur, though glory
may not possess anything in itself, yet it follows virtue. Cic.

3. The Imperfect or Plusperfect Subjunctive, to represent the supposed
case as contrary to fact:
Etiamē mors oppetenda esset, domē māllem, even if death ought to be
met, I should prefer to meet it at home. Cic.

III. The Subjunctive, when introduced by licet, quam-
vīs, ut, nē, cum, or the relative qui:

1 Concessive clauses bear a close resemblance to conditional clauses both in form
and in use. Si optimum est, ‘if it is best,’ is a condition; etsē optimum est, ‘even if (or
though) it is best,’ is a concession; the one assumes a supposed case, the other admits
it. The Subjunctive in concessive clauses is in general best explained in the same way
as in conditional clauses; see 507, 1, foot-note 2.
2 In origin licet is simply the impersonal verb of the same form, and the Subjunctive
CONCESSIVE CLAUSES.

Licet irridente, plus tamen ratiō valēbit, though he may deride, reason will yet avail more. Cic. Nōn tā possit, quamvis excellēs, you would not be able, although you excel. Cic. Ut désint virēs, tamen est laudanda voluntās, though the strength fails, still the will should be approved. Ovid. Nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, though pain may not be the greatest evil, it is certainly an evil. Cic. Cum domi divitiēs adfuissent, fūrēs tamen cives, etc., though wealth abounded at home, there were yet citizens, etc. Sall. Absolvit Verrem, quō (cum istorum) sē fatērētur pecūniās cēpisse, acquit Verres, though he confesses (who may confess) that he has accepted money. Cic.

Nōn 1.—Quamquam takes the Subjunctive—
1) When the thought, irrespective of the concessive character of the clause, requires that mood:
Quamquam epulls caret senectūs, though old age may be without its feats. Cic.
2) Sometimes, even in the best prose, apparently without any special reason:
Quamquam nē tā quidem suspicīōnēm habuerit, though not even that gave rise to any suspicion. Cic.
3) In poetry and in late prose, the Subjunctive with quamquam is not uncommon. In Tacitus it is the prevailing construction:
Quamquam invictī essent, although they were invincible. Verg. Quamquam plēriqve ad senectam pervenirent, although very many reached old age. Tac.

Nōn 2.—Quamquam and siēt sometimes have the force of yet, but yet, and yet:
Quamquam quidque, and yet why do I speak! Cic. Etiā tibi assentior, and yet I assent to you. Cic.

Nōn 3.—Quamets in the best prose takes the Subjunctive almost without exception, generally also in Livy and Nepos; but in poetry and in late prose it often admits the Indicative:
Erat dignitātēs rēgīs, quamvis cārēbat nōmine, he was of royal dignity, though he was without the name. Nep.

Nōn 4.—Qui et cum, used concessively, generally take the Indicative in Plautus and Terence, and sometimes even in classical prose:
Audēs praelicāre id, domi tē esse nunc qui hic adest, do you dare to assert this, that you are now at home, although you are here present? Plaut. Cum tabulis examnut, tamen nequemplex, though they purchase paintings, they are yet unable. Sall. Cum Sicilia vexāsta est, tamen, though Sholly was disturbed, yet. Cic.

Nōn 5.—Ut etc., or us—ita, ‘though—yet’ (lit., ‘as—so’), involving comparison rather than concession, does not require the Subjunctive:
Ut ā proelīs quiētem habuerant, its not cessāverant ab opera, though (lit., as) they had had rest from battles, yet (lit., so) they had not ceased from work. Liv.

Nōn 6.—Quamets et quantumets, meaning ‘as much as you please,’ ‘however much,’ may accompany licet with the Subjunctive:
Nōn possēs tā, quamvis licet excellēs, you would not be able, however much you may excel. Cic.
VI. Moods in Causal Clauses.

RULE XLVII.—Moods with quod, quia, quoniam, quandō: 1

516. Causal clauses with quod, quia, quoniam, quandō, generally take—

I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively, on one’s own authority:

Quoniam supplicātīō dēcēta est, celebrātōrē illōs dīēs, since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Cic. Gaudē quod spectant tē, rejoice that (because) they behold you. Hor.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another’s authority: 2

Sōcratēs accusātus est, quod corrumpēruit juvēntūtem, Socrates was accused, because (on the alleged ground that) he corrupted the youth. Quint. Aristidēs nōnne expulsus est patriā, quod jūtus esset, was not Aristides banished because (on the alleged ground that) he was just? Cic.

1. By a special construction, the verb introducing a reason on another’s authority is sometimes put in the Infinitive, depending upon a verb of saying or thinking in the Subjunctive:

Quod sē bellum gestārōs dicerent (= quod bellum gestārī essent, ut dicēbant), because they were about, as they said, to wage war. Caes.

Note.—In the same way the Subjunctive of a verb of saying or thinking may be used in a relative clause to introduce the sentiment of another person:

Ementiendō quae sē audīsse dicerent, by reporting falsely what they had heard (what they said they had heard). Sall.

2. Nōn Quō etc.—Nōn quō, nōn quod, nōn quin, rarely nōn quia, also quam quod, etc., are used with the Subjunctive to denote an alleged reason in distinction from the true reason:

Nōn quō habērem quod scriberem, not because (that) I had anything to write. Cic. Nōn quod dolēant, not because they are pained. Cic. Quia ne-

1 Quod and quia are in origin relative pronouns in the neuter. Thus: gaudē quod spectant tē, rejoice that (as to that) they behold you. Quoniam = quam-jam, ‘when now,’ and quandō = quam-dō (dō = dūtē), ‘on which day,’ ‘when.’ Dō is probably from the same root as dūm; see p. 145, foot-note 1.

2 Observe that causal clauses with the Indicative state a fact, and at the same time present that fact as a reason or causes, as in the first example, but that causal clauses with the Subjunctive simply assign a reason without asserting any fact. Thus, in the examples under II., quod corrumpēruit juvēntūtem does not state that Socrates corrupted the youth, but simply indicates the charge made against him; nor does quod jūtus esset state that Aristidēs was just, but simply indicates the alleged ground of his banishment. For the development of the Subjunctive in causal clauses, see p. 267, foot-note 3.
CAUSAL CLAUSES.

Quiverat quam quod ignóret, because he had been unable, rather than because he did not know. Liv.

Norm.—Clauses with quod sometimes stand at the beginning of sentences to announce the subject of remark:

Quod mé Agamennonem semulári putás, falléris, in thinking (as to the fact that you think) that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken. Nep.

RULE XLVIII.—Causal Clauses with cum and quæ.

517. Causal clauses with cum and quæ generally take the Subjunctive, in writers of the best period:

Necesse est, cum sint dít, animantès esse, since there are gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings. Cíc. Cum vita metás pléna sit, since life is full of fear. Cíc. Quae cum ita sint, perge, since these things are so, proceed. Cíc. Ò vis vérítatis, quae (cum ea) sǽ défendat, O the force of truth, since it defends itself. Cíc. Ò fortúnátè adulúsçens, quæ (cum tís) tuæ virtútis Homèreum præcé nºm invénerís, O fortunate youth, since you (lit., who) have obtained Homer as the herald of your valor. Cíc.

1. In early Latin, especially in Plautus and Terence, the Indicative is the prevailing mood in causal clauses with cum and quæ, though the Subjunctive is not uncommon with quæ:¹

Quom facere officium soís tuum, since you know how to do your duty. Plaut. Quom hóc non possuim, since I have not this power. Ter. Quí avdénísti, since you have come. Plaut. Tuás quí virtútes sciam, since I know your virtues. Plaut. Quí nómínum videam, since I see no one. Ter.

2. Clauses with either cum or quæ admit the Indicative in all writers, when the statement is viewed as a fact:

Habèb sénectútì grátìam, quæ mihi servémis aviditétem suxít, I cherish gratitude to old age, which has increased my love of conversation. Cíc. Grátu-

¹ Clauses with cum, whether causal or temporal, illustrate the gradual extension of the use of the Subjunctive in subordinate clauses. Originally they took the Indicative, unless the thought irrespective of the causal or temporal character of the clause required the Subjunctive. Thus the Ciceronian sentence, Necæsae est, cum sint dít, animatès esse, 'since there are gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings,' would in early Latin have been, Necæsae est, cum sunt dít, animatès esse, and would have contained two distinct statements, viz., there are gods, and it is necessary that there should be living beings. But in time the causal clause lost so much of its original force as a separate statement, and became so entirely dependent upon the principal clause, as to be little more than an adverbial modifier of the latter, like the Ablative of Cause (§ 13) in a simple sentence. The causal clause then took the Subjunctive, and the sentence as a whole made but one distinct statement, which may be approximately rendered, in view of (because of) the existence of the gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings. In the same way, temporal clauses with cum sometimes became little more than adverbial modifiers of the principal verb; see 521, II., 1, with foot-note, and 531, II., 2, with foot-note. For a special treatment of these clauses, see Hoffmann, 'Die Construction der lateinischen Zeitpartikeln,' and Lübbert, 'Die Syntax von Quom.'

² See 311, 1, with foot-note 4.
TEMPORAL CLAUSES.

lor tibi, cum tantum valés, I congratulate you that (in view of the fact that) you have so great influence. Cic.

3. When a conjunction accompanies the relative, the mood varies with the conjunction. Thus—

1) The Subjunctive is generally used with cum, quippe, ut, utpote:
Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. Quippe qui blandiátur, since he flatters (as one who flatters). Cic. Ut qui coloni essent, since they were colonists. Cic.

Norm.—But the Indicative is sometimes used to give prominence to the fact. In Sallust the Indicative is the regular construction after quippe:
Quippe qui régnum invásérat, as he had laid hold of the kingdom. Sall.

2) The Indicative is generally used with qua, quoniam:
Quae quia certa esse non possunt, since these things can not be sure. Cic. Qui quoniam intellegit noluit, since he did not wish to be understood. Cic.

VII. Moods in Temporal Clauses. 1

RULE XLIX.—Temporal Clauses with postquam, etc.

518. In temporal clauses with postquam, posteaquam, ubi, ut, simul atque, etc., ‘after,’ ‘when,’ ‘as soon as,’ the Indicative is used:

Postquam vidit, etc., castra posuit, he pitched his camp, after he saw, etc. Caes. Ubi certiōres facti sunt, when they were informed. Caes. Id ut audivit, as he heard this. Nep. Postquam vident, after they saw. Sall. Postquam nox aederat, when night was at hand. Sall.

Norm 1.—The tense in these clauses is generally the Perfect or the Historical Present, but sometimes the Descriptive Imperfect; 2 see examples above; also 471. 4.

Norm 2.—The Pluperfect Indicative is sometimes used—

1) Especially to denote the result of a completed action:
Posteaquam consilium fuerat, after he had been consulted. Cic. Annō tertió postquam proferèrat, in the third year after he had fled. Nep.

2) To denote repeated action: 3
Ut quique vēnerat, soldat, etc., as each one came (lit., had come), he was wont, etc. Cic.

Norm 3.—Postridē quam is used like postquam:
Postridē quam tā es prefectus, on the day after you started. Cic.

1. In Livy and the late historians, the Pluperfect or Imperfect Subjunctive is often used to denote repeated action: 4

1 On Temporal Clauses, see Hoffmann, ‘Die Construction der lateinischen Zeitpartikeln,’ and Lübbert, ‘Die Syntax von Quom.’
2 Or post quam and postea quam.
3 See 407, III., with 1.
4 See 469, I.

And was accordingly at the time a man of consular rank.

In this case the Imperfect Indicative is generally used in the principal clause, as in the example here given.
TEMPORAL CLAUSES.

Id ubi dixisset, hastam mittēbat, whenever he had said that, he hurled (was wont to hurl) a spear. Liv.

NOTES.—As a rare exception, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive occur after postquam or posteaquam;¹
Posteaquam sedificiasset classēs, after he had built fleets. Cic.

2. When the verb is in the second person singular to denote an indefinite subject, you = any one, one, the Subjunctive is generally used in temporal clauses:
Nolunt ubi velis, ubi nolles cupiunt, they are unwilling when you wish it (when one wishes it), when you are unwilling they desire it. Ter. Priusquam incipias, consultò opus est, before you begin, there is need of deliberation. Sall.

RULE L.—Temporal Clauses with dum, etc.²

519. I. Temporal clauses with dum, dōnec, and quoad, in the sense of while, as long as, take the Indicative:

Haec fēcit, dum licuit, I did this while it was allowed. Cic. Quoad vixit, as long as he lived. Nep. Dum lēgās vigēbant, as long as the laws were in force. Cic. Dōnec eris fēlix, as long as you shall be prosperous. Ov. Quadrīt in prowincīa fuērunt, as long as they were in the province. Cic.

II. Temporal clauses with dum, dōnec, and quoad, in the sense of until, take—

1. The Indicative, when the action is viewed as an actual fact:

Dēliberā hāc, dum ego redeō, consider this until I return. Ter. Dōnec rediit, until he returned. Liv. Quoad renuntiātum est, until it was (actually) announced. Nep.

2. The Subjunctive, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Differant, dum dēservēscat frat, let them defer it till their anger cools (i.e., that it may cool). Cic. Exspectās dum dicat, you are waiting till he speaks (i.e., that he may speak). Cic. Ea continēbis quoad tē videam, you will keep them till I see you. Cic.

NOTES 1.—In Livy and the late historians, dum is sometimes used with the Imperfect Subjunctive, and dōnec with the Imperfect and Pluperfect, like cum in narration:³

Dum ea gerentur, bellum concitār, while these things were in progress (were done), a war was commenced. Liv. Nil ād trepidābant dōnec ponte agerentur, they did not fear at all while they were driven on the bridge. Liv. Dōnec missī essent, until they had been sent. Liv.

NOTES 2.—Dōnec, in Tacitus, generally takes the Subjunctive:

¹ But the text in these cases is somewhat uncertain.
² See p. 291, foot-note 1.
TEMPORAL CLAUSES.

Rhēnaus servat violentiam cursūs, dōne Oceānī miscētur, the Rhine preserves the rapidity of its current till it mingles with the ocean. Tác.

RULE XII.—Temporal Clauses with antequam and priusquam.

520. In temporal clauses with antequam and priusquam:

I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put—

1. In the Indicative, when the action is viewed as an ACTUAL FACT:

Priusquam lūcet, adsunt, they are present before it is light. Cíc. Antequam in Siciliam vēnī, before I came into Sicily. Cíc. Antequam cōgnōverō, before I shall have ascertained. Cíc. Nec prius respēxi quam vēnīmus, nor did I look back until we arrived. Verg.

2. In the Subjunctive, when the action is viewed as SOMETHING DESIRED, PROPOSED, OR CONCEIVED:

Antequam dé rē pūblīcā dicam, expōnām cōnsilium, I will set forth my plan before I (can) speak of the republic (i.e., preparatory to speaking of the republic). Cíc. Nōn prius ducēs dīmittunt, quamsit concēssum, they did not dismiss the leaders till it was granted. Cæs. Priusquam incipiās, consultō opus est, before you begin there is need of deliberation (i.e., as preparatory to beginning). Sall. Tempestās minūtūr, antequam surgat, the tempest threatens, before it rises. Sén. Collem, priusquam sentiātur, communī, he fortified the hill before it was (could be) perceived. Cæs.

II. The Imperfect and the Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive:

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1 Often written ante quam and prius quam, sometimes with intervening words between ante or prius and quam. See also p. 291, foot-note 1.
2 The Future is used only in early Latin, as in Plautus and Cato.
3 Remember that the Future is supplied in the Subjunctive by the Present; see 496.
4 Here the temporal clause involves purpose as well as time. Antequam dicam is nearly equivalent to ut postērē dicam: 'I will set forth my views, that I may afterward speak of the republic.'
5 Remember also that in temporal clauses the second person singular with an indefinite subject, you = any one, one, is generally in the Subjunctive; see 518, 2.
6 Potential Subjunctive; see 436, III.
7 The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect tenses is not always to be referred to the same principle. Sometimes, like the Subjunctive after dūm, it is best explained as the Subjunctive of Purpose, as in the first example, and sometimes like the Subjunctive of the historical tenses after cūm; see p. 295, foot-note 1.
TEMPORAL CLAUSES.

Non prius agressus est quam rex cum in idem recipere, he did not withdraw until the king took him under his protection. Nep. Priusquam pateret consulatum, insanit, he was insane before he sought the consulship. Liv. Prius visus est Caesar, quam fama perreretur, Caesar appeared before any tidings were brought. Caes. Antequam urbem caperent, before they took the city. Liv. Priusquam de medio adventu audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perrexer, before they were able to hear of my approach, I went into Macedonia. Cic. Pauci ante diesbus, quam Syracusae caperentur, a few days before Syracuse was taken. Liv.

Notes 1.—When the principal clause is negative and contains an historical tense, the temporal clause generally takes the Perfect Indicative, as in the last example under I., 1; but it sometimes takes the Subjunctive, as in the first example under II.

Notes 2.—Priusquam...quam scriptum: Priusquam...quam scriptum.

Notes 3.—For the Subjunctive of the second person with an indefinite subject, see 518, 2.

RULE LII.—Temporal Clauses with cum.

521. In temporal clauses with cum

I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put in the Indicative:

Cum verba faciant, majores suos extollunt, when they speak, they extol their ancestors. Sall. Cum quiescant, probant, while they are silent they approve. Cic. Libros, cum est obtium, legere soleo, when there is leisure, I am wont to read books. Cic. Ad tibi scribam, cum plus obtit nactus ero, I shall write to you when I shall have obtained more leisure. Cic. Omnia sunt incerta cum aut aequo die cessisset, all things are uncertain when one has departed from the right.9 Cic.

II. The Imperfect and the Pluperfect are put—

1. In the Indicative, when the temporal clause asserts an historical fact:

Paruit cum neecessa erat, he obeyed when it was necessary.9 Cic. Non- dum prefectus erat, cum haec gererantur, he had not yet started when these things took place. Liv. Tum cum res magnas permult amiserant, Romae fides concidit, then, when many had lost great fortunes, credit fell at Rome. Cic. Cum quaemin cohors impetum facerat, hostes refugiabant, whenever any cohort made (had made) an attack, the enemy retreated. Caes.

1 See p. 290, foot-note 1, with the works of Hoffmann and Lübbecke there mentioned.
9 Diescessum est is an Impersonal Passive, a departure has been made; see 301, 1.
9 Here the temporal clause not only defines the time of paruit, but also makes a distinct and separate statement, viz., it was necessary; see p. 295, foot-note 1; also, p. 290, foot-note 1.
TEMPORAL CLAUSES.

2. In the *Subjunctive*, when the temporal clause simply defines the time of the principal action: ¹

Cum epistulam complicārem, tabellāriī vēnērunt, while I was folding the letter (i.e., during the act), the postmen came.¹ Cic. Cum ex Aegyptō rever-terētur, dēcessit, he died while he was returning (during his return) from Egypt. Nep. Cum dīmīcāret, occīsus est, when he engaged in battle, he was slain. Nep. Zēnōnem, cum Athēnēs esset, audīēbam frequenter, I often heard Zeno when I was at Athens. Cic. Cum tridū viam perfecisset, nūntiātum est, etc., when he had accomplished a journey of three days, it was announced, etc. Caes. Caesarī cum id nūntiātum esset, maturāt ab urbe proficiscer, when this was (had been) announced to Caesar, he hastened to set out from the city. Caes.

1) *Cum* with the force of a relative after *tempus*, *aeōs*, and the like, takes—

(1) Sometimes the *Indicative*, to state a fact:

Fuit tempus, cum hominēs vagābantur, there was a time when men led a wandering life. Cic.

Norm.—*Cum* is sometimes thus used without *tempus*, etc.:

Fuit cum hōc dīci poterat, there was a time when this could be said. Liv.

(2) Generally the *Subjunctive*, to characterize the period: ²

Id saeculum cum plēna Graecia poētārum esset, that age when (such that) Greece was full of poets. Cic. Erit tempus, cum dēsiderēs, the time will come, when you will desire. Cic.

Norm 1.—*Cum* is sometimes thus used without *tempus*, etc.:

Fuit cum arbitrārēris, there was a time when I thought. Cic.

Norm 2.—*Memini* cum, 'I remember when,' generally takes the *Indicative*, but *audiō* cum, *vidēo* cum, and *animādeo* cum, generally the *Subjunctives*:

Māmi cum mūh dēsāpere vidēbāre, I remember when you seemed to me to be unwise. Cic. *Audīvi* cum dicoer, I heard him say (lit., when he said). Cic.

2) *Cum*, meaning from the time when, since, takes the *Indicative*:

Centum annōs sunt, cum dīctātor fuit, it is one hundred years since he was dictator. Cic.

Norm 1.—*Cum* . . . *cum*, in the sense of 'not only . . . but also,' 'both . . . and,' generally takes the *Indicative* in both clauses, but in the sense of 'though . . . yet,' the *Indicative* in the first clause and the *Subjunctive* in the second:

*Cum antē distinēbārum, tum hōc tempore distīnea, not only was I occupied before,

¹ In the Imperfect and Pluperfect tenses the choice of mood often depends not so much upon the nature of the thought, as upon the intention and feeling of the writer at the moment. If he wishes to assert that the action of the temporal clause is an historical fact, he uses the *Indicative*; but if he introduces it for the sole purpose of defining the time of the principal action, he uses the *Subjunctive*. Thus, *cum epistulam complicārem* does not assert that I folded the letter, but, assuming that as admitted, it makes use of it in defining the time of *vēnērunt*. See also foot-note under 1 above; also p. 290, foot-note 1.

² Like the *Subjunctive* in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents; see S 50, 1.
but I am also occupied now. Cic. Quae cum sint gravia, tum illud acerbissimum est, though these things are severe, that is the most grievous. Cic.

Note 2.—For cum in Causal clauses, see 517.
Note 3.—For cum in Concessive clauses, see 515, III.

VIII. INDIRECT DISCOURSE—Órátiō Obliqua.

Moods and Tenses in Indirect Discourse.

522. When a writer or speaker expresses thoughts, whether his own or those of another, in any other form than in the original words of the author, he is said to use the Indirect Discourse—Órátiō Obliqua: ¹

Platōnem ferunt in Ítaliam vēnisse, they say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Respondeō tē dolorem ferre moderātē, I reply that you bear the affliction with moderation. Cic. Útilem arbitror esse scientiam, I think that knowledge is useful. Cic.

1. In distinction from the INDIRECT DISCOURSE—Órátiō Obliqua, the original words of the author are said to be in the DIRECT DISCOURSE—Órátiō Recta.

2. Words quoted without change belong to the DIRECT DISCOURSE:
Rex 'duumvīrōs' inquit 'secundum lēgēm facio,' the king said, 'I appoint duumvirs according to law.' Liv.

RULE LIII.—Moods in Principal Clauses.

523. The principal clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE on becoming INDIRECT take the INFINITIVE or SUBJUNCTIVE as follows:

I. When DECLARATIVE, they take the INFINITIVE with a Subject Accusative.

Dicēbat animōs esse divinōs, he was wont to say that souls are divine. Cic. Platōnem Tarentum vēnisse repertō, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic. Catō mīrārī sē ālebat, Cato was wont to say that he wondered. Cic. Hippīas gloriātus est, annulum sē suā manū cōnāvisse, Hippias boasted that he had made the ring with his own hand. Cic.

Note.—The verb on which the Infinitive depends is often omitted, or only implied in some preceding verb or expression; especially after the Subjunctive of Purpose:

¹ Thus, in the first example, Platōnem in Ítaliam vēnisse is in the indirect discourse; in the direct, i.e., in the original words of those who made the statement, it would be: Platō in Ítaliam vēnit.

² In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) animi sunt divini, (2) Platō Tarentum vēnit, (3) mīrō, and (4) annulum mēō manū cōnāvis. Observe that the pronominial subjects implied in mīrō and cōnāvis are expressed with the Infinitive, as mīrārī sē, sē cōnāvisse. But the subject is sometimes omitted when it can be readily supplied; see second example under II., 2, below.
INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Pythia prescibit ut Miltiadem imperatorem sumerent; incepta prospera futura, Pythia commanded that they should take Miltiades as their commander, (telling them) that their efforts would be successful. Nep.

II. When INTERROGATIVE, they take—

1. Generally the Subjunctive:

Ad postulata Caesaris respondit, quid sibi velit, cur veniret, to the demands of Caesar he replied, what did he wish, why did he come? Caes.

\[\text{Note.} - \text{Deliberative questions retain the Subjunctive from the direct discourse:} \]

In spem venerat sae pessae, etc.; cur fortunam perficiatur, he hoped (had come into hope) that he was able, etc.; why should he try fortune? Caes.

2. Sometimes the Infinitive with a Subject ACCUSATIVE, as in rhetorical questions: ²

Docebant rem esse testimonio, etc.; quid esse levis, etc., they showed that the fact was a proof (for a proof), etc.; what was more inconceivable, etc.? Caes. Respondit, num memoriam depone re pessae, he replied, could he lay aside the recollection? Caes.

III. When IMPERATIVE, they take the Subjunctive:

Scribit Labieno cum legione veniat, he writes to Labienus to come (that he should come) with a legion. Caes. Redditur responsum, castris sa teherent, the reply was returned that they should keep themselves in camp. Liv. M ilitiae certiores facit, sa reficercet, he directed the soldiers to refresh themselves. Caes. Orabant ut sibi auxilium ferret, they prayed that he would bring them help. Caes. Nuntius venit, na dubitaret, a message came that he should not hesitate. Nep. Cohortatus est, na perturbaretur, he exhorted them not to be alarmed. Caes.

\[\text{Note.} - \text{An affirmative command takes the Subjunctive without ut, except after verbs of wishing and asking, but a negative command takes the Subjunctive with na; see examples.} \]

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¹ In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) quid sibi velit cur veniret?
² A question used for rhetorical effect in place of an assertion is called a Rhetorical Question, as num posset, ‘can he?’, non posset, ‘he can not’; quid est turpis, ‘what is baser?’ = nihil est turpis, ‘nothing is baser.’ Here belong many questions which in the direct form have the verb in the first or in the third person. As such questions are equivalent to declarative sentences, they take the same construction, the Infinitive with its subject.
³ Direct discourse—(1) quid est levis = nihil est levis, and (2) num memoriam depone re possis = memoriam depone re non posses.
⁴ Imperative sentences include those sentences which take the Subjunctives of Desire; see 488.
⁵ In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) cum legione veniat, (2) castris se tegat, (3) de refectione, (4) nolis auxiliis feris, (5) nihil dubitaret, and (6) nii perturbabit etsi.
RULE LIV.—Moods in Subordinate Clauses.

524. The subordinate clauses of the Direct Discourse on becoming Indirect take the Subjunctive:

Respondit sē iud quod in Nerviās fecisset factūrum,1 he replied that he would do what he had done in the case of the Nervii. Caes. Hippiás gloriātus est, annulum quem habēret sā suā manū confēcisse,2 Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hand the ring which he wore. Cic.

1. The Infinitives with Subject Accusative is sometimes used. Thus—

1) In clauses introduced by the relative pronoun, or by relative adverbs, ubi, unde, quārē, etc., when they have the force of principal clauses (453):

Ad eum dēfēruit, esse dīvōm Rōmānum qui quērērētur, quem (= et eum) asservātūm esse, it was reported to him that there was a Roman citizen who made a complaint, and that he had been placed under guard. Cic. Tē suspectō eadem, quibus mē ipsum, commovērī, I suspect that you are moved by the same things as I. Cic.

2) In clauses introduced by cum, quam, quamquam, quis, and some other conjunctions, especially in Livy and Tacitus:

Num putātās, dixisse Antōnium minācīna quām factūrām fuisse, do you think Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cic. Diēcit, sē moenibus inclusōs tenēre eōs, quīa per agrōs vagāri, he says that he keeps them shut up within the walls, because (otherwise) they would wander through the fields. Liv. See also 535, 1, 5 and 6.

2. The Indicative is used—

1) In parenthetical and explanatory clauses introduced into the Indirect Discourse without strictly forming a part of it:

Referunt silvām esse, quae appellātur Bacēnīs,3 they report that there is a forest which is called Bacēnis. Caes. Audīō Gellium philosophōs qui tunc erant4 convocāssequi, I hear that Gellius called together the philosophers of that day (lit., who then were). Cic.

2) Sometimes in clauses not parenthetical, to give prominence to the fact stated, especially in relative and temporal clauses:

Certior factūs est ex ea parte viōt, quam Gallīs concēsserat, omnēs discēsśisse, he was informed that all had withdrawn from that part of the village which he had assigned to the Gauls. Caes. Dicunt illum diem clarissimum fuisse cum domum reductus est a patribus, they say that the day when he was conducted home by the fathers was the most illustrious. Cic.

525. TENSES IN THE INDIRECT Discourse generally conform to the ordinary rules for the use of tenses in the Subjunctive and Infinitive;4 but notice the following special points:

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1 Direct, factam sē quod in Nerviās fecisset.
2 Direct, annulum quem habēret sā suā manū confēcisse.
3 These clauses, quae appellātur Bacēnīs and qui tunc erant, are not strictly parts of the general report, but explanations added by the narrator.
4 See 490–496 and 537.
INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

1. The Present and Perfect may be used even after an historical tense, to impart a more lively effect to the narrative:

Caesar respondit, ut obsidebant, esse pacem esse factum, Caesar replied, that if hostages should be given him, he would make peace. Caes. Exitus fuit orationis, neque alius vacare agros, qui darsi possint, the close of the oration was, that there were (are) not any lands unoccupied which could (can) be given. Caes.

2. The Future Perfect is a subordinate clause of the direct discourse is changed in the indirect into the Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and into the Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense:

Agunt ut dimicent; ibi imperium fore, unde victoria fuerit, they arrange that they shall fight; that the sovereignty shall be on the side which shall win the victory (whence the victory may have been). Liv. Apparebat regnatum quem victisset, it was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.

Note.—For Tenses in Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse, see 527.

Pronouns and Persons in Indirect Discourse.

526. In passing from the DIRECT DISCOURSE to the INDIRECT, pronouns of the first and second persons are generally changed to pronouns of the third person, and the first and second persons of verbs are generally changed to the third person:

Glòriatus est, annulum sè sub manu confessisse, he boasted that he had made the ring with his own hand. Cic. Redditur respònsum, castris sè tenérent, the reply was returned that they should keep themselves in camp. Liv. Respondit, ut obsidebant ab is sibì dentur, esse cum is pacem esse facturum, he replied that if hostages should be given to him by them, he would make peace with them. Caes.

Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse.

527. Conditional sentences, in passing from the DIRECT DISCOURSE to the INDIRECT, undergo the following changes:

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1 In the direct discourse—(1) ibi imperium erit, unde victoria fuerit, and (2) regnabit qui vicerit.

2 Thus—(1) ego is changed to est, esti, etc., or to ipse; mens and noest to suus; (2) tu to is or illis, sometimes to esti, etc.; suus and noester to suus or to the Genitive of is; and (3) Mo and esti to illis. But the pronoun of the first person may of course be used in the indirect discourse in reference to the reporter or author, and the pronoun of the second person in reference to the person addressed: Adfirmavit quidvis me perseveratum, I asserted that I would endure anything. Cic. Respondere só dolorem ferre modéstæ, I reply that you bear the affliction with moderation. Cic.

3 Direct, annulum ego med mandi confessi. Ego becomes sì, and med, med, suad.

4 Direct, castres vos tenet. Vos becomes si, and tenet, tenent.

5 Direct, si obsidebant et obbis mitti dabuntur, obbisecum pacem faciam, si obbis becomes ab is; mitti becomes sì; obbisecum, cum is; and the implied subject of faciam becomes sì, the subject of esse facturum.
INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

I. In the First Form, the Indicative is changed to the Subjunctive in the condition and to the Infinitive in the conclusion:

Respondit, si quid Caesar sē velit, illum ad sē ventre oportet,1 he replied, if Caesar wished anything of him, he ought to come to him. Caso.

Note.—In all forms of conditional sentences the conclusion, when imperative, and generally when interrogative, takes the Subjunctive according to 333:

Respondērant, si nās sequam existimāret, etc., cur postulēret, etc., they replied, if he did not think it fair, etc., why did he demand, etc. Caso. Eum certīrum Ēscūrum, si mās rēs māna vellet, Alcibīdēm persequerētur,2 they informed him that if he wished his institutions to be permanent, he should take measures against Alcibiades. Np. Diq quidērum factūrum fuisse, si Caesar fuisse,3 any what you would have done, if you had been Caesar. Liv.11

II. In the Second Form, the Present or Perfect Subjunctive in the condition remains unchanged after a principal tense, but may be changed4 to the Imperfect or Pluperfect after an historical tense, and in the conclusion it is changed to the Future Infinitive:

Respondit, si stipendium remittātur, libenter sē sē re ipsīs populi Rōmānī amicitiam,4 he replied that if the tribute should be remitted, he would gladly renounce the friendship of the Roman people. Caso. Clarītābat, si ille ad esset, ventūros esse,5 he cried out that they would come if he were present. Caso.

Note.—See note under I.

III. In the Third Form, the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive remains unchanged in the condition, regardless of the tense of the principal verb, but in the conclusion it is changed to the Periphrastic Infinitive in -rus fuisse, rarely to that in -rus esse:

Respondit, si quid ipset a Caesare opus esset, sē sē ad eum ventūrum fuisse,7 he replied that if he wanted anything of Caesar, he would have come to him. Caso. Clarītābat, si ille ad esset, ventūros esse, he cried out that they would come if he were present. Caso.

Note 1.—In the conclusion, the periphrastic form fuitūrum fuisse ut with the Subjunctive is used in the Passive voice, and sometimes in the Active:

Nisi nānītī essent allīti, existimābant fuitūrum fuisse ut oppidūm amitteretur,7 they thought that the town would have been lost, if tidings had not been brought. Caso.

Note 2.—In conditional sentences with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the condition, and with an historical tense of the Indicative in the conclusion—

1 Direct, si quid Caesar mē vult, illum ad mē ventre oportet. For change of pronouns see 526, and for the tense of velit see 585, 1.
2 Direct, si nōn sequam existimēs, cur postulēs?
3 Direct, si tude rēs manēre etc., Alcibīdēm persequeātur. Notice change in the pronoun and in the person of the verb; see 526.
4 Direct, quidnam fœcūscē (or factūrum fuisse), et cōnsēr fuisse.
5 But is often retained unchanged according to 525, 1.
6 Direct, si stipendium remittātur, libenter rectūs populi Rōmānī amicitiam, or si stipendium remittātur, libenter rectūs populi Rōmānī amicitiam. Observe that these two forms become identical in the indirect discourse.
7 Direct—(1) si quid mēthē ad Caesarem opus esset, ad eum veniērem; (2) si ille dē esset, ventūrent; and (3) nisi nānītī essent allīti, oppidūm amītērem.
1) The Indicative is generally changed to the Perfect Infinitive:
Memento istam dignitatem tē non potuisse consequi, nisi mea consultatione pœnissent, remember that you would not have been able to attain that dignity, if you had not followed my counsel. Cic.

2) The Indicative is changed to the Perfect Subjunctive if the context requires that mood:
Quis dubitavit quin si Saguntinus tulissemus operam, āversūri bellum fuerimus, who doubts that we should have arrested the war, if we had carried aid to the Saguntines? Liv. Schmus quid, si vixisset, factūrus fuerit, we know what he would have done, if he had lived. Liv.

Indirect Clauses.

528. The indirect discourse in its widest application includes—

1. Subordinate clauses containing statements made on the authority of any other person than the writer; see 516:
Omnēs librēs quōs frater suōs reliquisset mihi dōnāvit, he gave to me all the books which his brother had left. Cic.

2. Indirect questions; see 529, 1.
Norm.—A clause which involves a question without directly asking it is called an Indirect or Dependent Question:
Quaeāvit salvāne essēt clipeus, he asked whether his shield was safe. Cic.

3. Many subordinate clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive; see 529, II.

RULE LV.—Moods in Indirect Clauses.

529. The Subjunctive is used—

I. In indirect questions:
Quaeritur, cūr dōctissimīs hominēs dissentiant, it is a question, why the most learned men disagree. Cic. Quaesierās, nōnum putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic. Quid diēs serēt incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Quaeritur quid futūrum sit, what will be, is the question. Cic. Quaerit quānum ēventus, if foret bellātum, futūrus fuerit, he asks what would have been the result if war had been waged. Liv. Dubitā num dēbeam, I doubt whether I ought. Plin. Incerta serēr si Juppiter velit, I am rendered uncertain whether Jupiter wishes. Verg. Ut tē oblōtēs scīre cupīō, I wish to know how you amuse yourself. Cic. Difficulte

1 Direct—(1) istam dignitātem consequi nōn potuisset, nisi mea consultatione pōnisset; (2) si Saguntīnīs tulissemus operam, bellum āversāri suimus; (2) quid, si vixisset, factūrus fuit?
2 That is, which he said his brother had left.
3 Here no question is directly asked. We have simply the statement, 'he asked whether his shield was safe,' but this statement involves the question, salvāne essēt clipeus, 'is my shield safe?'
dictā est utrum timerint an dilēxerint, it is difficult to say whether they feared or loved. Cic.

II. Often in clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon another Subjunctive:

Nihil indignius est quam eum qui culpā careat supplició non carère, nothing is more shameful than that he who is free from fault should not be exempt from punishment. Cic. Utrum difficilius esset negāre tibi an efficere id quod rogāre diū dubitāvi, whether it would be more difficult to refuse your request or to do that which you ask, I have long doubted. Cic. Recordātiōne nostrae amicitiae sīc fruor ut beátō vixisse videar quia cum Scipióne nīserim, I so enjoy the recollection of our friendship that I seem to have lived happily because I have lived with Scipio. Cic. Naevium rogōt ut cūret quod dixisset, he asked Naevius to attend to that which he had mentioned. Cic. Vereor nē, dum minuere velim labōrem, angeam, I fear that, while I wish to diminish the labor, I shall increase it. Cic.

Notes 1.—In clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive, observe—
1) That the Subjunctive is used when the clauses are essential to the general thought of the sentence, as in the examples just given.
2) That the Indicative is used when the clauses are in a measure parenthetical, and when they give special prominence to the fact stated:

Militēs mīlāt, ut eōs qui fāgerant perseverentur, he sent soldiers to pursue those who had fled (i.e., the fugitives). Cæs. Tanta via probitātis est, ut eam, vel in his quae nūnquam vidīmus, diligēmus, such is the force of integrity that we love it even in those whom we have never seen. Cic.

Notes 2.—In clauses introduced by dem, the Indicative is very common, especially in the poets and historians:

Fātēre quī, dum dubitāt Scævīnus, horāverunt Pīnīnem, there were those who exhorted Pīnīs, while Scævīnus hesitated. Tac. See also 467, 4.

1. Indirect or dependent questions, like those not dependent (351, 1), are introduced by interrogative pronouns or other interrogative words, as quīs, quī, quālīs, etc.; quīd, cūr, nē, nōnne, num; rarely by sī, ‘whether,’ and ut, ‘how’; see examples above.

Notes 1.—Sī is sometimes best rendered to see whether, to see if, to try if, etc.

Te adeunt, sī quīd vēla, they come to you to see whether you wish anything. Cic.

Notes 2.—In the poets sī is sometimes similarly used with the Indicative:

Inspice si possum dōnās repōnere, examine me to see whether I am able to restore your gifts. Hor.

Notes 3.—In indirect questions num does not necessarily imply negation.

Notes 4.—An indirect question may readily be changed to a direct or independent question.1

2. An Accusative, referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the question, is sometimes, especially in poetry, inserted after the principal verb:

1 Thus the direct question involved in the first example is, cūr dōctissimī homīnis dissentīnt, ‘why do the most learned men disagree?’ In the second, nōnne putēs, ‘do you not think?’
INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

Ego illum nesciō qui fuerit, I do not know (him) who he was. Ter. Dte hominem qui sit, tell who the man is. Plaut.

3. Indirect double questions are generally introduced by the same interrogative particles as those which are direct (352). Thus—

1) They generally take utrum or -ne in the first member and an in the second:

Quaeritur virtūs suamne propter dignitātem an propter fructūs aliusque expetatur, it is asked whether virtue is sought for its own worth, or for certain advantages. Cic.

2) But they sometimes omit the particle in the first member, and take in the second an or -ne in the sense of or, and nece or an non in the sense of or not:

Quaeritur nātūrā an doctrīna possit effici virtūs, it is asked whether virtue can be secured by nature, or by education. Cic. Sapientia bestōs efficiat nece quasiō est, whether or not wisdom makes men happy is a question. Cic.

Norm 1.—Other forms, as -ne . . . -ne, an . . . an, are rare or poetic:

Quī teneant, hominēs servos, quaerere, to ascertain who inhabit them, whether men or beasts. Verg.

Norm 2.—An, in the sense of whether not, implying an affirmative, is used in verbs and expressions of doubt and uncertainty: dubito an, nescio an, haud scio an, ’I doubt whether not,’ I know not whether not’ = ’I am inclined to think ’; dubium est an, incertum est an, ’it is uncertain whether not’ = ’it is probable’:

Dubito an Thrasylōcum primum omnium pōnam, I doubt whether I should not place Thrasylus first of all (i. e., I am inclined to think I should). Nep.

Norm 3.—An sometimes seems to have the force of aut:

Cum Simōnīdes, an quis ilius,1 polleōtērur, when Simónides or some other one promised. Cic.

4. The Subjunctive is put in the periphrastic form in the indirect question (1) when it represents a periphrastic form in the direct question, and (2) generally, not always, when it represents a Future Indicative; see the fifth and sixth examples under 329, I.

5. Indirect Questions must be carefully distinguished—

1) From clauses introduced by relative pronouns or relative adverbs.

These always have an antecedent or correlative expressed or understood, and are never, as a whole, the subject or object of a verb, while indirect questions are generally so used:

Dicam quod sentiō (relative clause), I will tell that which (id quod) I think.2 Cic. Dicam quid intellegam (indirect question), I will tell what I know. Cic. Quaerāmus ubi maleficium est, let us seek there (ibī) where the crime is. Cic.

2) From direct questions and exclamations:

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1 Some critics treat an quis ilius as a direct question inserted parenthetically: or was it some other one?

2 In the first and third examples, quod sentio and ubi . . . est are not questions, but relative clauses; id is understood as the antecedent of quod, and ibi as the antecedent or correlative of ubi; but in the second example, quid intellegam is an indirect question and the object of dicam: I will tell (what?) what I know (i. e., will answer that question).
INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Quid agendum est? nescio, what is to be done? I know not. Cic. Vide! quam conversa res est, see! how changed is the case. Cic.

3) From clauses introduced by nescio quis = quidam, some one, nescio quomodo = quidammodo, in some way, mirum quantum, wonderfully much, wonderfully, etc. These take the Indicative:

Nescio quid animus praesagist, the mind forebodes, I know not what. Ter. Id mirum quantum profuit, this profited, it is wonderful how much (i.e., it wonderfully profited). Liv.

6. PERSONAL CONSTRUCTION.—Instead of an impersonal verb with an indirect question as subject, the personal construction is sometimes used, as follows:

Perspicientur quam sint levae, it is seen how inconstant they are! Cic.

7. The Indicative in Indirect Questions is sometimes used in early Latin and in the poets, especially in Plautus and Terence:

Si memorare velim, quam fideli animo fuit, possum, if I should wish to mention how much fidelity I showed, I am able. Ter.

530. The directions already given for converting the Direct Discourse, Oratio Recta, into the Indirect, Oratio Obliqua, are further illustrated in the following passage from Caesar:

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Caesarem obscurare coepit: Ne quid gravissimus in fratre statuerit; accidit illa esse vera, nec quidquam ex eo plius quam ego doloris caperit, propertia quod cum ipse gratiam plerimum domi atque in reliquis Galliis, ille minimum propter adulteriam poterat, per me crevit; quibus opibus ac nervis non solum ad minuendum gratiam, sed psae ad perniciem meam utitur; ego tamen et amore fraterni et existimatione vulgum commover. Quod si quid et a turio gravissimus acciderit, cum ipse hunc locum amictiae apud te teneam, nemo existimabit, non nee voluntate factum; quae ex re totius Galliae animi a me d tormentur.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Caesarem obscurare coepit, nesci quid gravissimus in fratre statuerit; accidit illa esse vera, nec quidquam ex eo plius quam se doloris operae, propterea quod cum ipse gratiam plerimum domi atque in reliquis Galliis, ille minimum propter adulteriam pesset, per se crevit; quibus opibus ac nervis non solum ad minuendum gratiam, sed psae ad perniciem suam utitur; ego tamen et amore fraterni et existimatione vulgum commover. Quod si quid et a Caesar gravissimus accideret, cum ipse cum locum amictiae apud sum tenert, nemo existimabit, non nee voluntate factum; quae ex re futurum uti totius Galliae animi a se d tormentur. Caes., B. G., I., 20.

1 Quid agendum est nescio, I know not what is to be done, would be an indirect question.

2 See 191, note.

3 Praesagist does not depend upon nescio, but is entirely independent. Nescio quis animus praesagist would be an indirect question, and would mean, I know not what the mind forebodes.

4 Lit., they are seen. Observe that this personal construction corresponds to the Active, perspicient ur eum satis levet, they perceive (them) how inconstant they are. See also ego illum nescio qui fuerit, 529, 2.
INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Note.—In this illustration observe the following points:

1) That the Indicative in the principal clauses of the direct discourse is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive in the indirect, and that the Subjunctive, dativus, denoting incomplete action, is changed to the Imperfect Subjunctive after the historical tense, caput.

2) That in the subordinate clauses the verbs denoting incomplete action are changed to the Imperfect Subjunctive, while those denoting completed action are changed to the Perfect Subjunctive.

3) That accūtus becomes soi et (i.e., that the subject of the Infinitive is generally expressed).

4) That the pronouns of the first person are changed to reflexives; and that those of the second person are changed to 2s.

531. The process by which the Indirect Discourse, Óratiō Obliqua, is changed to the Direct, Óratiō Recta, is illustrated in the following passages from Caesar:

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Respondit, trānsisset Rhēnum aśē nōn ruināsponte, sed rogātum at ares-
situm a Gallis. Sē prius in Galliam venisse quam populum Rōmānum.
Quid tēō vellet? Čūr in ēs posses-
sionēs venireat? Caes., B. G., I., 44.

Ita respondit, sō sēō minus dubitātōnēs dāri quod ēa rēs quās lēgātī
Helvētiī commemorāissent memoriam te-
nerat. Quod si veteres contumēliae ob-
lividēt vellet, num ētiam recentium in-
jūriārum memoriam dépōnere pōssēs?
Cum ēa ēs sint, tamen, sē obisēs ab
sēō dēntur, sēō cum ēs pācem esse

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Respondit: ‘Trānsisset Rhēnum nōn
ruināsponte, sed rogātum at ares-
situm a Gallis. Ego prius in Galliam vēnī
quam populum Rōmānum. Quid tēō
vellet? Čūr in ēs possessionēs ven-
irēs?’

Ita respondit: ‘Eō miē minus
dubitātōnēs datur quod ēa rēs quās
vēs, lēgātī Helvētiī, commemorāsent,
memoriam tenerēt. Quod si veteres con-
tumēliae obliviscēt vēs, num ētiam re-
centium injūriārum memoriam dép-
ōnere posuerum? Cum ēa ēs sint,
tamen, sē obisēs a vēs miē dabun-
tur, ēdisem pācem factūm.’

Note.—In these illustrations observe the following points:

1) That in the principal clauses (1) the Infinitives with sē or sēō, expressed or understood, are changed to the first person of the Indicative; (2) other Infinitives are also changed to the Indicative, but the person is determined by the context; and (3)

1 Thus accūtus becomes soi et; caput, capere; commoveror, commoveri; existimātītis, existimātōrum (esse); and dēxerat, dēxerēre, futūrum usi dēxerēntur. This last form, futūrum usi dēxerēntur, is the Periphrastic Future Infinitive Passive; see 537, 8.

2 Thus poterat becomes pōssēt; dēxerat, dēxerēre; posuam, posuerat; but crēvisi becomes crēvisēt; acciderēt, acciderēt.

3 Thus (1) ego is changed to sē; mē to sē; suam to suam; metā to suā; and (2) ēs to ēum; ēnus to ēum.

4 Thus trānsisset sēēs is changed to trānsisset; sē venisset to ego vēnī; sēēs esse factūrum to factūmar; pōssēs, with sē understood, to posuerum.

5 Thus minus dāri becomes minus datur; but if the subject of the Infinitive is of the second person, the Indicative will also be of that person. Respondēs ē dolōrem ferre moderātīs thus becomes respondēt, ‘dolōrem moderātēs ferent;’ see p. 399, foot-note 2.
Subjunctives are changed to the Indicative after interrogative words, and to the Imperative in other situations.

2) That in the subordinate clauses the Subjunctive, unless required by the thought irrespective of the indirect discourse, is changed to the Indicative.

3) That the reflexive pronouns sae, stib, etc., and sumus are changed (1) generally to pronouns of the first person, but (2) sometimes to those of the second person.

4) That is and iles are (1) generally changed to est or Me, but (2) sometimes retained.

5) That a noun referring to the person or persons addressed may be put in the Vocative preceded by est or iles.

SECTION VII.
INFINITIVE—SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

I. INFINITIVE.

532. The Infinitive is a verbal noun with special characteristics. Like verbs, it has voice and tense, takes adverbial modifiers, and governs oblique cases.

RULE LVI.—Infinitive.

533. Many verbs admit an Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning:

Audeò dicere, I dare say (I venture to say). Cio. Haec vitare cupimus, we desire to avoid these things. Cio. Constituit non proGreg, he decided

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1 Thus quid vollets is changed to quid vis? or ventis to our ventis? Vollet and ventis are in the Imperfect simply because dependent upon an historical tense, and are therefore changed to the Present in the direct discourse. In deliberative questions (484, V.) the Subjunctive is retained in the direct discourse.

2 Thus cum legiones venit, under 523, III., becomes cum legiones vent. The Subjunctive may of course be retained in the direct discourse whenever the thought requires that mood.

3 Thus commemorassent, pluperfect after an historical tense, is changed to commemorassent; tempert to tentet; vellet to vollet; dentur to dabuntur. Sint is retained unchanged because required in a causal clause with cum; see 517.

4 Thus (1) trahisse stet is changed to trahisset, with subject implied in the ending; sed to med; et vincisse to ego vinti, with emphatic subject; ede to mede; stib to medil; sedere esse factitum to factum; (2) iles to iles, in quid iles vollet. As the subject of an Infinitive (530), iles or iles often corresponds to the pronominal subject implied in the ending of a finite verb; see p. 187, foot-note 6.

5 Thus (1) ad iles is changed to a vollet; cum iles to volletum; sa iles sint to haec iles sint; (2) iles rde is retained.

6 Thus legis Heli velit, the subject of commemorassent, is changed to ede, legis Hele velit.

7 Originally the Latin Infinitive appears to have been the Dative case of an abstract verbal noun, and to have been used to denote the purpose or end (384, I, 8) for which anything is or is done. Being thus only loosely connected with the verb of the sentence, it readily lost its special force as a case and soon began to be employed with considerable freedom in a variety of constructions. In this respect the history of the Infinitives resem-
INFINITIVE.

not to advance. Caes. Créduil esse coepērunt, they began to be credulous. Cic. Vincere scis, you know how to conquer (you know to conquer). Liv. Victōria tīt nescis, you do not know how to use victory. Liv. Latinā loquī didicerat, he had learned to speak Latin. Sall. Débēs hóc rescribere, you ought to write this in reply. Hor. Nemō mortem effugere potest, no one is able to escape death. Cic. Solent cōgitāre, they are accustomed to think. Cic.

I. The Infinitive is thus used—

1. With Transitive Verbs meaning to dare, desire, determine; to begin, continue, end; to know, learn; to owe, etc.; see examples above.

Note 1.—For the Subjunctives with some of these verbs, see 498, I., note.
Note 2.—See also 498, II., note 1.

2. With Intransitive Verbs meaning to be able; to be wont, be accustomed, etc.; see examples above.

II. In special constructions the Infinitive has nearly the force of a Dative of Purpose or End—1

1. With Intransitive Verbs:

Non populāre penētis vēnimus, we have not come to lay waste your homes. Verg. Conjurāvēre patriam incendere, they conspired to destroy their country with fire. Sall.

2. With Transitive Verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Pecūs ēgit altōs visere montēs, he drove his herd to visit the lofty mountains. Hor. Quid habēs diocere, what have you to say? Cic. Dederat comam diffundere ventis, she had given her hair to the winds to scatter. Verg.2

3. With Adjectives:

Est parātus audire, he is prepared to hear (for hearing). Cic. Avidi committere pugnam, eager to engage (for engaging) in battle. Ovid. Fons rivō dare nōmen idōneum, a fountain fit to give a name to the river. Hor.

Note 1.—This use of the Infinitive is mostly poetical.
Note 2.—With adjectives and with participles used as adjectives the Infinitive is rare in prose, but is freely used in poetry in a variety of constructions:

Cantāre peritus, skilled in singing. Verg. Pelēdes cōedere nescius, Pelides not knowing how to yield. Hor. Certa morti, determined to die. Verg. Dignus describi, worthy to be described. Hor. Vitulus niveus vidērī, a calf snow-white to view. Hor.

bles that of adverbs from the oblique cases of nouns. As such adverbs are often used with greater freedom than the cases which they represent, so the Latin Infinitive often appears in connections where, as a Dative, it would not have been at all admissible. Upon the Origin and History of the Indo-European Infinitive, see Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitivs.'

1 In these constructions the Infinitive retains its original force and use; see 532, foot-note.

2 In these examples with transitive verbs observe that the Accusatives and Infinitives correspond to the Accusatives and Datives under 384, II., and that the Accusatives, Datives, and Infinitives correspond to the Accusatives and two Datives under 390, II.

Niveus vidērī, like the Greek λευκὸς ιεράς.
Piger scitendis ferre laborem, reluctant to bear the labor of writing. Hor. Sumum officium facere immemor est, he forgets (is forgetful) to do his duty. Plant.

NOTE 3.—The Infinitive also occurs, especially in poetry, with verbal nouns and with such expressions as tempus est, cópis est, etc.: Cupido Stygióes inanés iacit, a desire to sail upon the Stygian lakes. Verg. Quibus molliter rivere cópis erat, sals had the means for living at ease. Bell. Tempus est dicere, it is time to speak. Cic.

NOTE 4.—The Infinitive is sometimes used with prepositions:
Multum interest inter dare et scire, there is a great difference between giving and receiving. Sen.

RULE LVII.—Accusative and Infinitive.

584. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive:

Té sapere docet, he teaches you to be wise. Cic. Eós suum adventum expectantie jussit, he ordered them to await his approach. Caes. Pontem jubet rescindit, he orders the bridge to be broken down. Caes. Té tuá frut virtúte cupimus, we wish you to enjoy your virtus. Cic. Sentimus calère ignem, we perceive that fire is hot (we perceive fire to be hot). Cic. Régem trágunt sś abdisisse, they relate that the king concealed himself.¹ Liv.

NOTE.—In the compound forms of the Infinitive, esse is often omitted:
Audívi solitum Fabricium, I have heard that Fabricius was wont. Cic. Spérámus vóbis profútor, we hope to benefit you. Cic.

1. The corresponding Passive is sometimes personal and sometimes impersonal:²

PERSONAL.—Aristidés justissimae fuissæ tráduntur, Aristides is said (is reported by tradition) to have been most just. Cic. Sólem a mundo tollere vi dentur, they seem to remove the sun from the world. Cic. Platónem audívisse dicitur, he is said to have heard Plato. Cic. Dít beatí esse intelliguntur, the gods are understood to be happy. Cic.

IMPERSONAL.—Tráduntur à Homéram casém fuisset, it has been reported

¹ Observe that in the first three examples the Accusatives id, eis, and pontem, are the direct objects of the finite verbs, while in the other examples the Accusatives id, ignem, and régem, may be explained either as the direct objects of the finite verbs, or as the subjects of the Infinitives. The former was doubtless the original construction, but in time the object of the principal verb came to be regarded in many cases as the subject of the Infinitive depending upon it. Thus was developed the Subject Accusatives of the Infinitive.

² These two constructions correspond to the two interpretations of the Active mentioned in foot-note 1 above. Thus, in the sentence, Aristidém justissimum fuisset trádunt, if Aristidem is regarded as the object of trádunt, according to the original conception, the corresponding Passive will be personal: Aristidés justissíssimus fuisset tráditus; but if Aristidem is regarded as the subject of fuisset, and the clause Aristidém justissi mum fuisset as the object of trádunt, then the same clause will become the subject of the Passive, and the construction will be impersonal: Aristidém justissíssimum fuisset trádítur, 'it is reported by tradition that Aristides was most just.'
INFinitive.

by tradition that Homer was blind. Cic. Únam partem Galliös obtinère dic-tum est, it has been stated that the Gauls occupy one part. Caes. Nuntiátur esse návēs in portū, it is announced that the vessels are in port. Cic.

Note 1.—The Personal Construction is used—(1) regularly in audior, sedīor, and videor; (2) generally in the simple tenses1 of most verbs of saying, thinking, and the like, as dico, trādor, feror, nūntior, crīdor, seistimor, pulsor, parhīdeoer, etc.; (3) sometimes in other verbs; see examples above.

Note 2.—The Imperfective Construction is especially common in the compound tenses;2 though also used in the simple tenses; see examples above.

535. The Accusative and an Infinitive are used with a great variety of verbs. Thus—

I. With verbs of Perceiving and Declaring:

Sentimus calēre ignem, we perceive that fire is hot. Cic. Mihi nārāvit tē sollicitūm esse, he told me that you were troubled. Cic. Scriptūrant Themis-tolem in Asiam trānscāse, they wrote that Themistocles had gone over to Asia. Nep.

1. Verbs of perceiving include those which involve (1) the exercise of the senses: audiō, vīdeo, sensīō, etc., and (2) the exercise of the mind—thinking, believing, knowing: cogō, putō, existimō, crīdo, sperō—intellego, scio, etc.

2. Verbs of Declaring are such as state or communicate facts or thoughts: discō, nāvē, nūntiō, docō, ostendo, prōmitio, etc.

3. Expressions equivalent to verbs of perceiving and of declaring, as fāma fērī, report says,1 testis sum, 'I am a witness' = 'I testify,' conscius mihi sum, 'I am conscious,' 'I know,' also admit an Accusative with an Infinitive:

Nūllam mihi relātām esse grātiām, tū es testis, you are a witness (can testify) that no grateful return has been made to me. Cic.

4. Participle for Infinitive.—Verbs of perceiving take the Accusative with the present participle, when the object is to be represented as actually seen, heard, etc., while engaged in a given action:

Catōnem vidi in bibliothēcā sedentem, I saw Cato sitting in the library. Cic.

5. Subjects Compared.—When two subjects with the same predicate are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Infinitive may be understood in the second:

Platōnem ferunt idem sēnsisse quod Pythagoram, they say that Plato held the same opinion as Pythagoras. Cic.

6. Predicates Compared.—When two predicates with the same subject are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Accusative may be understood in the second:

Num putātis, dixisse Antōniüm minācium quam factūrum fuisset, do you think Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cic.

Note.—But the second clause may take the Subjunctive, with or without ut:

1 The learner will remember that the simple tenses are formed simply by inflexional endings, as dictō, dictābātur, but that the compound tenses are formed by the union of the perfect participle with the verb sum, as dicītum est, dicītum erat, etc.
INFINITIVE.

Audeò dicere ipse potius cultores agrorum fore quam ut coli prohibeant, I dare say that they will themselves become tillers of the fields rather than prevent them from being tilled. Liv.

II. With verbs of WISHING, DESIRING, COMMANDING, and their opposites:

Tē tuā fruī virītāe cupimus, we desire that you should enjoy your virtue. Cic. Pontem jubes rescindere, he orders the bridge to be broken down (that the bridge should be broken down). Cæs. Lex sum necārī vetuit, the law forbade that he should be put to death. Liv.

Note.—Several verbs involving a wish or command admit the Subjunctive, generally with ut or ad; see 498, 1:

Optō ut id audīatis, I desire that you may hear this. Cic. Volo ut respondeas, I wish you would reply. Cic. Máli tē hostis metuam, I prefer that the enemy should fear you. Cic. Concéderō ut hae sēs sint, I admit that these things are suitable. Cic.

III. With verbs of EMOTION and FEELING:

Gaudēò tē mihi suādere, I rejoice that you advise me. Cic. Mirāmur tē laetāri, we wonder that you rejoice. Cic.

Note.—Verbs of emotion and feeling often take clauses with quod (540, IV.) to give prominence to the fact stated, or to emphasize the ground or reason for the feeling:
Gaudēò quod té interpellāvis, I rejoice that (or because) I have interrupted you. Cic. Dolītem quod secūm sīmiseram, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Cic.

IV. Sometimes, especially in Poetry and in LATE PROSE, with verbs which usually take the Subjunctive:

Gentem hortor amāre fōcōs, I exhort the race to love their homes. Verg. Cēnāt suscérenti Ītaliā petēre, all advised to seek Italy. Verg. Soror monēt succēdērē Lausō Ternum, the sister warns Turnus to take the place of Lausus. Verg.

RULE LVIII.—Subject of Infinitive.

536. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject:

Sentimus calēre ignem, we perceive that fire is hot. Cic. Platōnem Tarentum vēnissee reperiō, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic.

1 As cupiō, optō, volō, nolo, mālo, etc.; potior, sinō; impero, jubō; prohibeo, velō, etc.
2 As gaudēò, dolēò, miror, queror, etc.; also aeger rerō, praetere rerō, etc.
3 Many verbs in Latin thus admit two or more different constructions; see in the dictionary adāpto, conādeo, conēcīdeo, cupō, constituō, contendō, cupiō, cūro, dēcernō, dico, doceo, labēro, initō, facō, impēdeo, impero, jubō, labēro, mālo, māndo, mutō, monēo, nolo, optō, obrō, patior, permittō, persuādeo, postulo, præcipio, praeedo, prohibeo, sinō, statuo, studō, suadeo, velō, video. See also Draeger, II., pp. 290-416.
4 Remember that the Infinitive, as a verbal noun, originally had no subject, but that subsequently in special constructions a subject Accusative was developed out of the object of the principal verb; see 534, foot-note 1. In classical Latin many Infinitives have no subjects, either expressed or understood.
1. **Historical Infinitive.**—In lively descriptions the *Present Infinitive* is sometimes used for the *Imperfect* or the *Perfect Indicative*. It is then called the Historical Infinitive, and, like a finite verb, has its subject in the Nominative:

Catilina in primum acie versari, omnia prvidere, multum ipse pugnare, saeppe hostem fertre, Catilina was busy in the front line; he attended to everything, fought much in person, and often smote down the enemy.¹ Sall.

**Note.**—The Historical Infinitive sometimes denotes customary or repeated action: Omnia in pæius ruere ac retrœ referre, all things change rapidly for the worse and are borne backward. Verg.

2. A **Predicate Noun** or a **Predicate Adjective** after an Infinitive agrees with the noun or pronoun of which it is predicated, according to the general rule (382). It is thus—

1) In the **Nominative**, when predicated of the principal subject:

Nolö esse laudator, I am unwilling to be a eulogist. Cic. Beatus esse sine virtute nemo potest, no one can be happy without virtue. Cic. Paterns dict potest, he can be called a parent. Cic.

**Note.**—Participles in the compound tenses agree like predicate adjectives:

Polliditss esse dictur, he is said to have promised. Cic.

2) In the **Accusative**, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Accusative:

Ego me Phidiam esse mallem, I should prefer to be Phidias. Cic. Traditum est, Homërum caecumuisse,² it has been handed down by tradition that Homer was blind. Cic.

3) In the **Dative**, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative:

Patriciö tribunö plebis fieri non licebat, it was not lawful for a patrician to be made tribune of the people. Cic. Mihf negligenti esse non licuit,² it was not permitted me to be negligent. Cic.

**Note.**—A noun or adjective predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative is sometimes put in the Accusative:

Et consulem fieri locet, it is lawful for him to be made consul. Cæs.

537. The **Tenses of the Infinitive**—*Present, Perfect, and Future*—denote only relative time. They accordingly represent the time respectively as *present, past, or future*, relatively to that of the principal verb:

**Present.**—Cupiö me esse clementem, I desire to be mild. Cic. Maluit se diligere quam mutui, he preferred to be loved rather than feared. Nep.

**Perfect.**—Platōnem ferunt in Italian vēnisse, they say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Consicis mihi eram, nihil a me commissum esse, I was conscious to myself that no offence had been committed by me. Cic.

**Future.**—Brutum visum 1st a me putö, I think Brutus will be seen by me.

¹ Historical Infinitives are generally used in groups, seldom singly.
² Here *Phidiam* is predicated of *mē* (lit., me to be Phidias), and *caecum* of *Homërō*,
³ *Tribunō* is predicated of *patriciō*, and *neglegentiss* of *mihi*. 
INFINITIVE.

Cio. Órāculum datum erat victorīs Athēnēs fore, an oracle had been given, that Athens would be victorious. Cio.

Nota.—In general, the Present Infinitive represents the action as taking place at the time denoted by the principal verb, the Perfect as then completed or past, and the Future as then about to take place; but tense is so imperfectly developed in the Infinitive that even relative time is not marked with much exactness. Hence—

1) The Present is sometimes used of future actions, and sometimes with little or no reference to time:

Crās argentum dāre dixit, he said that he would give the silver to-morrow. Ter.
2) The Perfect is sometimes used of present actions, though chiefly in the poets:

Tetigiæ timent poētām, they fear to touch (to have touched) the poet. Hor.

1. After the past tenses of dēbēr, oportet, possum, and the like, the Present Infinitive is used where our idiom would lead us to expect the Perfect; sometimes also after meminīs, and the like; regularly in recalling what we have ourselves experienced:

Débuit officiās esse, he ought to have been more attentive. Cio. Id potuit facere, he might have done this. Cio. Mē Athēnēs audire meminīs, I remember to have heard (hearing) in Athens. Cio.

2. The Perfect Passive Infinitive sometimes denotes the result of the action. Thus, doctus esse may mean either to have been instructed or to be a learned man (lit., an instructed man). If the result thus denoted belongs to past time, fuisse must take the place of esse:

Populum alloquitur, sūpitum fuisset régem icās, she addresses the people, saying that the king was stunned by the blow. Liv. See also 471, 6, note 1.

3. Instead of the regular Future Infinitive, the Periphrastic Form, futūrum esse ut, or fore ut, with the Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect, is frequently used:

Spērō fore ut contingat id nobis, I hope this will fall to our lot (I hope it will come to pass that this may happen to us). Cio. Nōn sperāverat Hannibal, fore ut ad sē dēsicerent, Hannibal had not hoped that they would revolt to him. Liv.

Nota 1.—This circumlocution is common in the Passive, and is moreover necessary in both voices in all verbs which want the Supine and the participle in rebus.

Nota 2.—Sometimes fore ut with the Subjunctive, Perfect or Pluperfect, is used with the force of a Future Perfect; and in passive and deponent verbs, fore with the perfect participle may be used with the same force:

Dicō mē satis adeptum fore, I say that I shall have obtained enough. Cio.

538. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, is often used as the subject of a verb: 1

With Subject.—Caesarī nūntiātum est equitās accedere, it was announced to Caesar that the cavalry was approaching. Cæs. Facinus est vincīri cīvem Rōmānum, that a Roman citizen should be bound is a crime. Cio. Certum

1 This use of the Infinitive as subject was readily developed out of its use as object; see 534, 1, foot-note. Thus the Infinitive, with or without a subject, finally came to be regarded as an indeclinable noun, and was accordingly used not only as subject and object, but also as predicate and appositive (539, I. and II.), and sometimes even in the Ablative Absolute (539, IV.), and in dependence upon prepositions (533, 3, note 4).
est liberæ amōrī, it is certain that children are loved. Quint. Lēgēm brevem esse oportet, it is necessary that a law be brief. Sen.

Without Subject.—Dēcrētum est nōn dare signum, it was decided not to give the signal. Liv. Ars est difficilissim rem pūblicam regere, to rule a state is a difficult art. Cic. Cārum esse jūcundum est, it is pleasant to be held dear. Cic. Haec sterre juvat, to know these things affords pleasure. Sen. Pecāre licet nēmini, to sin is lawful for no one. Cic.

1. When the subject is an Infinitive, the predicate is either (1) a noun or adjective with sum, or (2) a verb used impersonally; see the examples above.

2. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, may be the subject of another Infinitive:

Intellegi nescie esse deōs, it must be understood that there are gods. Cic.

3. The Infinitive sometimes takes a demonstrative as an attributive in agreement with it:

Quibusdam hōc displicet philosophāri, this philosophizing (this to philosophize) displeases some persons. Cic. Vivere ipsum turpe est nōbīs, to live is itself ignoble for us. Cic.

539. Special Constructions.—The Infinitive with a subject is sometimes used—

I. As a Predicate; see 362:

EXITUS fuit ēra transmissionis sībī nullam cum his amicitiam esse, the close of his oration was that he had no friendship with these. Cas.

Note.—An Infinitive without a subject may be used as a Predicate Nominative:

Vivere est cōgitāre, to live is to think. Cic.

II. As an Appositive; see 363:

Orāculum datum erat victorīōs Athēnās fore, an oracle had been given, that Athens would be victorious. Cic. Illud soleō mirāri, nōn mē accepere tuās litterās, I am accustomed to wonder at this, that I do not receive your letter. Cic.

III. In Exclamations; see 381:

Tū sei vexāri, that you should be thus troubled! Cic. Mēne inceptō dēsistere victam, that I, vanquished, should abandon my undertaking! Verg.

IV. In the Ablative Absolute; see 431, note 1:

Audītō Dariō mōvīsse perrīgit, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had withdrawn having been heard), he advanced. Curt.

1 Eōs deōs is the subject of intellect, and intellect esse deōs est is used.

2 Including the modifiers of each. Thus in the example the whole clause, sībī nullam cum his amicitiam esse, is used as a Predicate Nominative in agreement with the subject exitus; see 362.

3 In the examples, the clause victorīōs Athēnās fore is in apposition with orāculum, and the clause nōn mē accepere tuās litterās, in apposition with illud.

4 This use of the Infinitive conforms, it will be observed, to the use of the Accusative and Nominative in exclamations (381, with note 9).
II. SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

540. In Latin, clauses which are used as substantives take one of four forms. They may be—

I. INDIRECT QUESTIONS:
Queritur, cur dissentiant, it is asked why they disagree. Cic. Quid agendum sit, nescio, I do not know what ought to be done. Cic.

NOTE.—For the use of Indirect Questions, see 529, I.

II. INFINITIVE CLAUSES:
Antecellere contigit, it was his good fortune to excel (to excel happened). Cic. Magna negotiora voluit agere, he wished to achieve great undertakings. Cic.

NOTE.—For the use of Infinitive Clauses, see 534; 535.

III. SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES, generally introduced by ut, ne, etc.:
Contigit ut patriam vindicaret, it was his good fortune to save his country. Nep. Volui ut mihi respondessem, I wish you would answer me. Cic.

NOTE.—For the use of such Subjunctive Clauses, see 498; 499, 3; 501.

IV. CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY QUOD:
Beneficium est quod necesse est mori, it is a blessing that it is necessary to die. Sen. Gaudeo quod te interpellavi, I rejoice that (because) I have interrupted you. Cic.

NOTE.—Quod-clauses, used substantively, either give prominence to the fact stated, or present it as a ground or reason. They are used as the subject of impersonal verbs, and as the object of many transitive verbs, especially of such as denote emotion or feeling: 1
Hac seccóbat quod exercitum luxuríös habuerat, to this was added the fact that he had kept the army in luxury. Sall. Addo quod ingenia didicisse artés omnès mórtes, add the fact that to learn liberal arts refines manners. Ovid. Bene facta quod mi adjuvias, you do well that you assist me. Cic. Dolebam quod sciam amicam, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Cic. See also 535, III., note.

SECTION VIII.
GERUNDS, GERUNDIVES, 2 SUPINES, AND PARTICIPLES.

I. GERUNDS.

541. The Gerund is a verbal noun which shares so largely the character of a verb that it governs oblique cases, and takes adverbial modifiers:

1 Quod-clauses occur—(1) as the subject of accidit, accedit, apparuit, eventus, sit, nocet, obest, occurrit, prōcessit, etc.; also of est with a noun or adjective, as causa est, vitium est, etc., gratiam est, indignum est, mìtrum est, etc.; and (2) as dependent upon accipit, addo, audeo (p. 30, foot-note 1), admiror, animadverto, angor, bene facto, diēctor, dolo, exequo, facto, gaudeo, plōtor, laudor, miror, mittle, omittō, praetereo, queror, etc.

2 The Gerund and the Gerundive were originally identical. The former is the neu-
GERUNDS.

Jus vocandi 1 senatum, the right of summoning the senate. Liv. Beate vivendi 1 cupiditas, the desire of living happily. Cic.

Nota.—In a few instances the Gerund has apparently a passive meaning:
Necque habent prorsum perceptendi notam, nor have they any proper mark of distinction (i.e., to distinguish them). Cic.

542. The Gerund has four cases—the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative—used in general like the same cases of nouns. Thus—

I. The Genitive of the Gerund is used with nouns and adjectives:

Ars vivendi, the art of living. Cic. Studiosus erat audiendi, he was desirous of hearing. Nep. Cupidus tē audiendi, desirous of hearing you. Cic. Artem vēra sō falsa dījudicandi, the art of distinguishing true things from false. Cic.

Nota 1.—The Gerund usually governs the same case as the verb, but sometimes, by virtue of its substantively nature, it governs the Genitive, especially the Genitive of personal pronouns—mei, sociis, tibi, vestri, sui:

Cōpiā plācandi tal (of a woman), an opportunity of appeasing you. Or. Sui cōnservandī causā, for the purpose of preserving themselves. Cic. Vestri ahortandī causā, for the purpose of exhorting you. Liv. Reclendantī judicem potestās, the power of challenging (of) the judges. Cic. Lucis tundendī cōpiā, the privilege of beholding the light. Plaut.

Nota 2.—The Genitive of the Gerund is sometimes used to denote purpose or tendency:

Lēgēs pellendō clārōs virōs, laws for (lit., of) driving away illustrious men. Tac.

II. The Dative of the Gerund is used with a few verbs and adjectives which regularly govern the Dative:

Cum solvendo nōn essent, since they were not able to pay. Cic. Aquē utilis est bibendi, water is useful for drinking. Plin.

Nota.—The Dative of the Gerund is rare; 4 with an object it occurs only in Plautus.

III. The Accusative of the Gerund is used after a few prepositions: 5

Ad discendōm prōpēnātum sumus, we are inclined to learn (to learning). Cic. Inter lōdendum, in or during play. Quint.

1 Vocandī as a Gerund is governed by sē, and yet it governs the Accusative semānum; vivendī is governed by cupiditis, and yet it takes the adverbial modifier belēti.

3 The adjectives which take the Genitives of the Gerund are chiefly those denoting desire, knowledge, skill, emotion, and their opposites: avidus, cupidus, studīōsus; obnexitus, pudicus, ignādus; pertinēs, impertīnēs, insolitus, etc.

3 Pronounced as if written reficiendī; see p. 90, foot-note 1.

4 According to Jolly, ‘Geschichte des Infinitivs,’ p. 90, the Gerund originally had only one case, the Dative, and was virtually an Infinitive.

5 Most frequently after ad; sometimes after inter and ob; very rarely after ante, post, and in.
IV. The ABLATIVE OF THE GERUND is used (1) as Ablative of Means, and (2) with prepositions: ¹


Nora 1.—After prepositions, the Ablative of the Gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare:

In tribuendo suum suque, in giving every one his own. Cic.

Nora 2.—Without a preposition, the Ablative of the Gerund denotes in a few instances some other relation than that of means, as terna, separation, &c.:

Incipient refugf, I drew back in the very beginning. Cic.

II. GERUNDIVES.

543. The GERUNDIVE, like other participles, agrees with nouns and pronouns:

Inita sunt cœnasia urbis délendæ, plans have been formed for destroying the city (of the city to be destroyed). Cic. Numa sacerdötibus creandis animum adjicit, Numa gave his attention to the appointment of priests. Liv.

Nora.—A noun (or pronoun) and a Gerundive in agreement with it form the Gerundive Construction.

544. The GERUNDIVE Construction may be used—

1. In place of a Gerund with a direct object. It then takes the case of the Gerund whose place it supplies:

Libidō éius videndi (= libidō eum videndi), the desire of seeing him (lit., of him to be seen). Cic. Platonis audiendi (= Platonem audiendi) studioseus, fond of hearing Plato. Cic. Legensis oratóribus (= legendo oratóreb), by reading the orators. Cic.

Nora.—The Gerundive Construction should not be used for the Gerund with a neuter pronoun or adjective as object, as it could not distinguish the gender:

Artem vera ac falsa dijüdicandi, the art of distinguishing true things from false. Cic.

2. In the DATIVE and in the ABLATIVE with a preposition:

Locum oppidō condendo céperunt, they selected a place for founding a city. Liv. Tempora demetendia fructibus accommodata, seasons suitable for gathering fruits. Cic. Brutus in liberandâ patriâ est interfactus, Brutus was slain in liberating his country. Cic.

¹ The Ablative of the Gerund is used most frequently after Æ (ab), dō, ex (ex), in; rarely after cum, pro, and super.
SUPINES.

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Notes 1.—The learner will remember that in the Dative (§ 42, II., note) and in the Ablative with a preposition (§ 43, IV., note 1) the Gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare. The Gerundive Construction supplies its place.

Notes 2.—The Gerundive Construction sometimes denotes purpose or tendency, especially in the Accusative after verbs of giving, permitting, taking, etc.:

Attributed Ítaliam vastandum (for ad vastandum) Catullae, he assigned Italy to Catiline to ravage (to be ravaged). Cic. Ferventis de vuln. in Campánum conscéntis, he withdrew into Campania to confirm his health. Tac. Hae secundae Hannibal victórias sunt, these things are for the purpose of giving victory to Hannibal. Liv. Prolixíssimum cógnoscendae antiquitátis, he sets out for the purpose of studying antiquity. Tac.

Note 3.—The Gerundive Construction in the Dative occurs after certain official names, as deservitri, triumviri, comitia: 1

Dicemvirís légibus scribendis creávimus, we have appointed a committee of ten to prepare laws. Liv.

Note 4.—The Gerundive Construction in the Ablative occurs after comparatives:

Nihilum officium referam grátia magis necessarium est, no duty is more necessary than that of returning a favor. Cic.

Note 5.—The Gerundive Construction is in general admissible only in transitive verbs, but it occurs in ulor, fruor, fungor, potior, etc., originally transitive:

Ad múnus fungendum, for discharging the duty. Cic. Spes potuniórum castrórum, the hope of getting possession of the camp. Caes.

III. SUPINES.

545. The Supine, like the Gerund, is a verbal noun. It has a form in um and a form in a.

Note 1.—The Supine in um is an Accusative; that in à is generally an Ablative, though sometimes perhaps a Dative. 2

Note 2.—The Supine in um governs the same case as the verb:
Légatōs mittunt rogatum auxílium, they send ambassadors to ask aid. Caes.

RULE LIX.—Supine in um.

546. The Supine in um is used with verbs of motion to express purpose:


1. The Supine in um occurs in a few instances after verbs which do not directly express motion:
Filiam Agrippae nuptam dedit, he gave his daughter in marriage to Agrippa. Suet.

2. The Supine in um with the verb cō is equivalent to the forms of the first Periphrastic Conjugation, and may often be rendered literally:
Bonos omnès perditum sunt, they are going to destroy all the good. Sall.

1 But in most instances the Dative may be explained as dependent either upon the verb or upon the predicate as a whole; see 384, 4.
2 See Hübchenmann, p. 228; Draeger, II., p. 838; Jolly, p. 201.
PARTICIPLES.

Note.—But in subordinate clauses the Supine in *is with the verb *e* is often used for the simple verb:

Ultum ire (= ulster) injuriis factis, *he hastens to avenge the injuries*. Sall.

3. The Supine in *is with *ae*, the Infinitive Passive of *e*, forms, it will be remembered (323, III., 1), the Future Passive Infinitive:

Britum visum *si a me putat, I think Brutus will be seen by me*. Cic.

4. The Supine in *is not very common;* but purpose may be denoted by other constructions:

1) By *ut* or *ut* with the Subjunctive; *see 497*.
2) By *Gerundis or Gerundive;* *see 542, I, note 2, and III., note 2; 544, 2, note 2.*
3) By Participles; *see 549, 3.*

RULE LXX.—Supine in *is.*

547. The Supine in *is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (424):*

Quid est tam *facundum auditus, what is so agreeable to hear* (in hearing)? Cic. *Difficile dixit est, it is difficult to tell*. Cic. *De genere mortis difficile dixit est, it is difficult to speak of the kind of death*. Cic. *Civilis incredibile memorabilis est quantum creuerit, it is incredible to relate how much the state increased*. Sall.

Note.—The Supine in *is never governs an oblique case, but it may take an Ablative with a preposition, as in the third example above.

1. The Supine in *is used chiefly with *facundus, optimus; factae, praelata, difficiles; incogniti, memorabiles; honestus, turpis; dignus, indignus; sita, nefas, opus, and aequus.*

2. The Supine in *is very rare. The most common examples are auditus, dixit, facta, natn, cies; less common, cogniti, intellctu, incerti, memorabili, reddit, sotae, tractabili, cibis.*

IV. PARTICIPLES.

548. The PARTICIPLE is a verbal adjective which governs the same cases as the verb:

Animus sse non videns alia cernit, *the mind, though it does not see itself* (lit., not seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic.

Note 1.—For Participles used substantively, *see 441.*

Note 2.—Participles used substantively sometimes retain the adverbial modifiers which belonged to them as participles, and sometimes take adjective modifiers:

Non tam premia sequi recta factorum quam ipsa recta facta, *not to seek the rewards of good deeds (things rightly done) so much as good deeds themselves*. Cic. *Pracelum atque divinum factum, an excellent and divine deed*. Cic.

549. PARTICIPLES are often used—

1. To denote *Time, Cause, Manner, Means*:

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1 According to Draeger, II, p. 829, the Supine in *is is found in only two hundred and thirty-six verbs, mostly of the First and Third Conjugations.*

2 According to Draeger, II, p. 888, the Supine in *is is found in one hundred and nine verbs.*
PARTICIPLES.

Platō scribēns mortuus est, Plato died while writing. Cic. Itāri in proelium canunt, they sing when about to go into battle. Tac. Sol ortēns diem conflict, the sun by its rising causes the day. Cic. Militēs renuntiant, sē perfidiam verītōs revertisse, the soldiers report that they returned because they feared perfidy (having feared). Caes.

2. To denote Condition or Concession:
Mendāt hominī nē verūm quidem dicēri crēdere nōn solēmus, we are not wont to believe a liar, even if he speaks the truth. Cic. Reluctante nātūrā, irritus labor est, if nature opposes, effort is vain. Sen. Scripta tua jam diēt expectāns, nōn auōd tamen fāgitāre, though I have been long expecting your work, yet I do not dare to ask for it. Cic.

3. To denote Purpose:
Perseus rediit, bellī cāsum tentātūrus, Perseus returned to try (about to try) the fortunes of war. Liv. Attribuēbat nós trucidāndōs Cēthēgō, he assigned us to Cethuges to slaughter. Cic.

4. To supply the place of Relative Clauses:
Omnēs aliud agentēs, aliud simulāntēs, improbī sunt, all who do one thing and pretend another are dishonest. Cic.

5. To supply the place of Principal Clauses:
Clāsem dēvictam cēpit, he conquered and took the fleet (took the fleet conquered). Nep. Rē consentiēntēs, vocabūlia diōrēbant, they agreed in fact, but differed in words. Cic.

Note 1.—A participle with a negative is often best rendered by a participial noun and the preposition without:
Misērum est, nihil proōscidentem angit, it is sad to be troubled without accomplishing anything. Cic. Nōn érubēscēs, without blushing. Cic.

Note 2.—The perfect participle is often best rendered by a participial or verbal noun with of:
Homērus fuit ante Rōmam conditam, Homer lived (was) before the founding of Rome (before Rome founded). Cic.

550. The Tenses of the Participle—Present, Perfect, and Future—denote only relative time. They accordingly represent the time respectively as present, past, and future relatively to that of the principal verb:
Oculus sē nōn vidēns alia cernit, the eye, though it does not see itself (not seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic. Platō scribēns mortuus est, Plato died while writing. Cic. Úva mātūrāta dulceōcit, the grape, when it has ripened (having ripened), becomes sweet. Cic. Spaēsōns semper placitūra laudat, the wise man praises blessings which will always please (being about to please). Sen.

Note 1.—The perfect participle, both in deponent and in passive verbs, is sometimes used of present time, and sometimes in passive verbs it loses in a great degree its force as a tense, and is best rendered by a verbal noun:
PARTICLES.

Eadem duobus (Dea Numidæ mittit, employing the same persons as guides, he sent the Numidians). Cas. Incidenst perfect navês, he reports the burning of the ships (the ships set on fire). Verg. See also 544.

Norse 2.—In the compound tense the perfect participle often becomes virtually a predicate adjective expressing the result of the action:

Caes. sunt cognitae, the causes are known. Cas. See also 471, 6, note 1.

Norse 3.—For the Perfect Participle with habet, see 382, 1, note.

Norse 4.—The want of a perfect active participle is sometimes supplied by a temporal clause, and sometimes by a perfect passive participle in the Ablative Absolute:

Caesar, postquam vénit, Rhénum trànsfère cónstituit, Caesar, having arrived, decided to cross the Rhine. Cas. Equitātē préemisit subsequitūr, having sent forward his cavalry, he followed. Cas. See also 431; 519.

Norse 5.—The want of a present passive participle is generally supplied by a temporal clause:

Cum à Catōnes landąbar, reprehendit mā à aliaris patēbar, being praised by Cato, I allowed myself to be censured by the others. Cic.

CHAPTER VI.

SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.

RULE LXXI.—Use of Adverbs.

551. Adverbs qualify VERBS, ADJECTIVES, and other ADVERBS:

Sapientēs félíciter vīvunt, the wise live happily. Cic. Facile dōctissimus, unquestionably the most learned. Cic. Haud aliter, not otherwise. Verg.

Norse 1.—For predicate adverbs with sum, see 360, note 2; for adverbs with nouns used adjectively, see 441, 3; for adverbs in place of adjectives, see 443, notes 3 and 4; for adverbs with participles used substantively, see 543, note 2.

Norse 2.—Sicō and its mean ‘so,’ ‘thus.’ Itō has also a limiting sense, ‘in so far,’ as in itsō et ē (507, 8, note 2). Adō means ‘to such a degree or result’; tam, tantopere, ‘so much’—tam used mostly with adjectives and adverbs, and tantopere with verbs.

552. The common negative particles are nōn, nē, haud.

1. Nōn is the usual negative; nē is used in prohibitions, wishes, and purposes (483, 3; 488; 497), and haud, in haud sēdō am, and with adjectives and adverbs: haud mīrāble, not wonderful; haud aliter, not otherwise. Nī for nē is rare. Nī nōn after vidē is often best rendered whether.

2. In nōn modo nōn and in nōn eītūm nōn the second nōn is generally omitted before sed or vērum, followed by nē—quidem or vīo (rarely eītām), when the verb of the second clause belongs also to the first:

Assentātīō nōn modo amīcōs, sed nē liberō quidem digna est, statutes is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man. Cic.

3. Minuēs often has nearly the force of nōn; et minuē = et nōn. Sin aliter has nearly the same force as et minuē. Minuēs often means ‘not at all,’ ‘by no means.’
CONJUNCTIONS.

553. Two Negatives are generally equivalent to an affirmative, as in English:

Nihil non arroget, let him claim everything. Hor. Neque hoc Zeno non vidit, nor did Zeno overlook this. Cic.

1. Non before a general negative gives it the force of an indefinite affirmative, but after such negative the force of a general affirmative:

Nonnemodó, some one; non nihil, something; nonnunquam, sometimes;
Nemö non, every one; nihil non, everything; nunquam non, always.

2. After a general negative, neque—quidem gives emphasis to the negation, and neque—neque, nève—nèce, and the like, repeat the negation distributively:

Non praeterendum est nā id quidem, we must not pass by even this. Cic. Nēmō unquam neque pocta neque órator fuit, no one was ever either a poet or an orator. Cic.

Nota.—For the Use of Prepositions, see 432–435.

554. Coordinate Conjunctions unite similar constructions. (309, 1). They comprise five classes.

I. Copulative Conjunctions denote union:

Castor et Pollux, Castor and Pollux. Cic. Senatus populusque, the senate and people. Cic. Nec erat difficile, nor was it difficult. Liv.

1. For list, see 310, 1.

2. Et simply connects; que implies a more intimate relationship; atque and ac generally give prominence to what follows. Neque and nec have the force of et non. Et and etiam sometimes mean even.

Nota.—Atque and ac generally mean as, than, after adjectives and adverbs of likeness and unlikeness: tali ac, ‘such as’; aequo ac, ‘equally as’; aliter atque, ‘otherwise than.’ See also 451, 5.

3. Que is an enclitic, and ac in the best prose is used only before consonants.

4. Etiam, quoque, adeò, and the like, are sometimes associated with et, atque, ac, and que, and sometimes even supply their place. Quoque follows the word which it connects: is quoque, ‘he also.’ Etiam, ‘also,’ ‘further,’ ‘even,’ often adds a new circumstance.

5. Sometimes two copulatives are used: et—et, que—que,1 et—que, quoque, acque, atque, sum—sum, sum—sum, both—and; but sum—sum gives prominence to the second word or clause; non solum (non modo, or non tantum)—sed etiam (verum etiam), ‘not only—but also’; neque (nec)—neque (nec), ‘neither—not’; neque (nec) et (que), ‘not—but (and);’ et—neque (nec), ‘and not.’

6. Between two words connected copulatively the conjunction is generally expressed, though sometimes omitted, especially between the names of two colleagues. Between several words it is in the best prose generally repeated or omitted altogether, though que may be used with the last even when the conjunction is omitted between the others: pæs et tranquillitās et concordia, or pæs, tranquillitās, concordia, or pæs, tranquillitāt, concordiāque.

Nota 1.—Et is often omitted between conditional clauses, except before non.

Nota 2.—A series may begin with primum or primō, may be continued by deinde followed by sum, postea, prasterēd, or some similar word, and may close with dēnique.

1 Que—que is rare, except in poetry; que—atque, rare even in poetry; see Verg., Aen., I, 18; Geor., I, 183.
CONJUNCTIONS.

or postremō. Deinde may be repeated several times between primum and dēnique or postremō.

II. DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote SEPARATION:

Aut vestra aut sua culpa, either your fault or his own. Liv. Duabus tribusve hōris, in two or three hours. Cic.

1. For list, see 310, 2.

2. Aut denotes a stronger antithesis than vel, and must be used if the one supposition excludes the other: aut sōlus aut falsus, 'either true or false.' Vel implies a difference in the expression rather than in the thing. It is generally corrective, and is often followed by potius, stām, or dictām: laudātur, vel stām amātur, 'he is praised, or even (rather) loved.' It sometimes means even, and sometimes for example. Velōm often means for example. Ve for vel is appended as an oscillator.

Note.—In negative clauses aut and ve often continue the negation: nōn honor aut virtūs, 'neither (not) honor nor virtue.'

3. Sēs (si—se) does not imply any real difference or opposition; it often connects different names of the same object: Fālias sēs Minervae, 'Fālia or Minerva' (another name of the same goddess).

Note.—Disjunctive conjunctions are often combined as correlative: aut—aut, vel—vel, etc., 'either—or.'

III. ADVERSATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote OPPOSITION OR CONTRAST:

Cupiō mē esse clémentem, sed mē inerteis condemnō, I wish to be mild, but I condemn myself for inaction. Cic. Magnās ferrum ad sē trahit, rationem autem adferre nōn possumus, the magnet attracts iron, but we can not assign a reason. Cic.

1. For list, see 310, 3.

2. Sed and cērum mark a direct opposition; autem and cērō only a transition; as emphasizes the opposition; cērum often introduces an objection; cērum means 'but still,' 'as to the rest'; sēm, 'yet.'

Note.—Sed and cērum are sometimes resumptive; see IV., 2, below: Sed aequae, respondē, but come, reply. Plaut.

3. Aitamen, sedaitamen, cēruntamen, 'but yet,' are compounds of cēmen.

4. Autem and cērō are postpositives, i.e., they are placed after one or more words in their clauses.

IV. ILLATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote INERENCE:

In umbrāigitur pūgnābimus, we shall therefore fight in the shade. Cic.

1. For list, see 310, 4.

2. Certain other words, sometimes classed with adverbs and sometimes with conjunctions, are also illatives, as sē, idē, idēorō, propterē, quamobōrem, quāpropter, quārē, quēcōrē.

3. Igitur generally follows the word which it connects: hic igitur, 'this one therefore.' After a digression, igitur, sed, sed tamē, cērum, cērum tamē, etc., are often used to resume an interrupted thought or construction. They may often be rendered 'I say': Sed et quo, 'if any one, I say.'

1 For examples, see Cic., Fam., XV., 14; Div., II., 56.
2 Cicero, Inv., II., 49, has a series of ten members in which primum introduces the first member, postremō the last, and deinde each of the other eight.
CONJUNCTIONS.

V. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS denote cause:
Difficile est consilium, sum enim solus, counsel is difficult, for I am alone.
Cic. Etenim juis amantium, for they love the right. Cic.
1. For list, see 310, 5.
2. Etenim and namque denote a closer connection than enim and nam.
3. Etenim is postpositive; see 554, III, 4.

555. SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS connect subordinate with principal constructions (309, 2). They comprise eight classes.

I. TEMPORAL CONJUNCTIONS denote time:
Paturit cum necessa erat, he obeyed when it was necessary. Cic. Dum ego
in Sicilia sum, while I am in Sicily. Cic. See also 311, 1; 518-521.
1. Dum added to a negative means yet; nondum, 'not yet'; vixidum, 'scarcely yet.'

II. COMPARATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote comparison:
Ut optastis, ita est, it is as you desired. Cic. Velut si addeset, as if he were
present. Cass. See also 311, 2; 513, II.
1. Correlatives are often used: Tam—quam, 'as, 'so—so,' 'as much—as'; tam—
quam quod maximâ, 'as much as possible'; non minus—quam, 'not less than'; non
magis—quam, 'not more than.'

Tam—quam and ut—ita with a superlative are sometimes best rendered by the with
the comparative: ut maximum—ita maximâ, 'the more—the more.'

III. CONDITIONAL CONJUNCTIONS denote condition:
Si pecessavi, ignosce, if I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Nisi est consilium
domini, unless there is wisdom at home. Cic. See also 311, 5; 506-513.
1. Nisi, 'if not,' in negative sentences often means 'except'; and nisi quod, 'except
that,' may be used even in affirmative sentences. Nisi may mean 'than.' Nihil altius nisi
= 'nothing further' (more, except); nihil altius quam = 'nothing else' (other than).

IV. CONCESSIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote concession:
Quamquam intellegunt, though they understand. Cic. Est nihil habeat,
although he has nothing. Cic. See also 311, 4; 514; 515.

V. FINAL CONJUNCTIONS denote purpose:
Ese oportet, ut vivas, it is necessary to eat, that you may live. Cic. See
also 311, 5; 497-499.

VI. CONSTRUCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote consequence or result:
Atticus ita vivit, ut Athenienses esset carissimus, Atticus so lived that
he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. See also 311, 6; 500-504.

VII. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS denote cause:
Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. See also 311, 7; 516; 517.

VIII. INTERROGATIVE CONJUNCTIONS or Particles denote inquiry or ques-
tion:
Quassierás, nónne putârem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic.
See also 311, 8; 351-353; 539.
RULES OF SYNTAX.

556. Interjections are sometimes used entirely alone, as ēhōu, ‘alas!’ and sometimes with certain cases of nouns; see 381, with note 3.

557. Various parts of speech, and even oaths and imprecations, sometimes have the force of interjections:

Pāx (peace), be still! miserum, miserable, sad, lamentable! óro, pray! age, agite, come, well! meherculēs, by Hercules! per deum fidem, in the name of the gods! sōdēs = si audēs (for audēs), if you will hear!

CHAPTER VII.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

558. For convenience of reference, the principal Rules of Syntax are here introduced in a body.

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

I. A noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in case (363):

Brutus custōs libertātis fuit, Brutus was the guardian of liberty.

II. An Appositive agrees in case with the noun or pronoun which it qualifies (365):

Cluilius rēx moritur, Cluilius the king dies.

NOMINATIVE.—VOCATIVE.

III. The Subject of a Finite verb is put in the Nominative (368):

Servius rēgnāvit, Servius reigned.

IV. The Name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative (369):

Perge, Laeli, proceed, Laelius.

ACCUSATIVE.

V. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative (371):

Deus mundum sēdĭcāvit, God made (built) the world.

VI. Verbs of making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing (373):

Hamilcearem imperātōrem fecrunt, they made Hamilear commander.
RULES OF SYNTAX.

VII. Some verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and concealing admit two Accusatives—one of the person and the other of the thing (374):

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion.

VIII. A verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to define its application (378):

Capita velāmur, we have our heads veiled.

IX. Duration of time and extent of space are expressed by the Accusative (379):

Septem et triginta rēgnāvit annōs, he reigned thirty-seven years. Quinque millia passuum ambulāre, to walk five miles.

X. The Place to which is designated by the Accusative (380):

I. Generally with a preposition—ad or in:
Legiōnēs ad urbem addūcit, he is leading the legions to or toward the city.

II. In names of towns without a preposition:
Nuntius Rōmam redit, the messenger returns to Rome.

XI. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in Exclamations (381):

Heu mē miserum, ah me unhappy!

DATIVE.

XII. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative.

It is used (384)—

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:
Tibi servio, I am devoted to you.

II. With Transitive verbs, in connection with the Direct Object:
Agrōs plebē dedit, he gave lands to the common people.

XIII. Two Datives—the object to which and the object or end for which—occur with a few verbs (390):

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:
Malō est hominibus avaritia, avarice is an evil to men.

II. With Transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative:
Quinque cohortēs castris praesidiō reliquit, he left five cohorts for the defence of the camp.

XIV. With adjectives, the object to which the quality is directed is put in the Dative (391):

Omnibus cārum est, it is dear to all.
XV. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs (388):

I. With a few nouns from verbs which take the Dative:
   Justitia est obtemperatio legis, *justice is obedience to laws.*
II. With a few adverbs from adjectives which take the Dative:
   Congruenter naturae vivere, *to live in accordance with nature.*

Genitive.

XVI. Any noun, not an Appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive (385):
   Catonis orationes, *Cato’s orations.*

XVII. Many adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning (389):
   Avidus laudis, *desirous of praise.*

XVIII. A noun predicated of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive (401):
   Omnia hostium erant, *all things belonged to the enemy.*

XIX. The Genitive is used (406)—
I. With miseror and misericord:
   Miserere laborum, *pity the labors.*
II. With recordor, meminit, reminiscor, and obliviocor:
   Meminit praeteritorum, *he remembers the past.*
III. With referat and interest:
   Interest omnium, *it is the interest of all.*

XX. The Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing are used with a few transitive verbs (409):
   I. With verbs of reminding, admonishing:
      Té amicitia commoneant, *he reminds you of friendship.*
   II. With verbs of accusing, convicting, acquitting:
      Viri sceleris arguis, *you accuse men of crime.*
   III. With miseret, paenitet, pudeat, taedet, and piget:
      Eorum nos miseret, *we pity them.*

Ablative Proper.

XXI. The Place from which is denoted by the Ablative (412):
   I. Generally with a preposition—ā, ab, dē, or ex:
      Ab urbe proficiscitur, *he sets out from the city.*
II. In Names of Towns without a preposition:
Platōnem Atheniās aresōvit, he summoned Plato from Athens.

XXII. Separation, Source, and Cause are denoted by the Ablative with or without a preposition (418):
Caedem a vohts dēpellō, I ward off slaughter from you. Hōc audīvi dē parente mō, I heard this from my father. Ars utilitāte laudātur, an art is praised because of its usefulness.

XXIII. Comparatives without quam are followed by the Ablative (417):
Nīhīl est amābilīs virtūtē, nothing is more lovely than virtue.

Instrumental Ablative.

XXIV. The Ablative is used (419)—
I. To denote Accompaniment. It then takes the preposition cum:
Vivit cum Balbō, he lives with Balbus.

II. To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an Adjective or by a Genitive:
Summā virtūtē adulēscens, a youth of the highest virtue.

III. To denote Manner. It then takes the preposition cum; or is modified by an Adjective or by a Genitive:
Cum virtūtē vīxīt, he lived virtuously.

XXV. Instrument and Means are denoted by the Ablative (420):
Cornibus taurī sē tūtāntur, bulls defend themselves with their horns.

XXVI. The Ablative is used (421)—
I. With itōr, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:
Plārimis rēbus fruimus et utīmur, we enjoy and use very many things.

II. With Verbs and Adjectives of Plenty:
Villa abundat lacte, caseo, melle, the villa abounds in milk, cheese, and honey.

III. With dignus, indignus, and contentus:
Digni sunt amicitās, they are worthy of friendship.

XXVII. Place is generally denoted by the Ablative (423):
Vĕndidit aurō patriam, he sold his country for gold.

XXVIII. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative (424):
Una dīē longiōrem mānseām faciunt, they make the month one day longer.

XXIX. A noun, adjective, or verb may take an Ablative to define its application (424):
Nŏmine, nŏn potestāte, fīt rex, he was king in name, not in power.
RULES OF SYNTAX.

LOCATIVE ABATIVE.

XXX. The Place in which is denoted (425)—
I. Generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition in:
Hannibal in Italiam fuit, Hannibal was in Italy.
II. In Names of Towns by the Locative, if such a form exists, otherwise by the Locative Ablative:
Romae fuit, he was at Rome.

XXXI. The Time of an action is denoted by the Ablative (439):
Octogesimo anno est mortuus, he died in his eighty-first year.

XXXII. A noun and a participle may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an attendant circumstance (431):
Servio regnante viguerunt, they flourished in the reign of Servius.

CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

XXXIII. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with prepositions (433):
Ad amicum, to a friend. In Italiam, in Italy.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, AND VERBS.

XXXIV. An adjective agrees with its noun in gender, number, and case (438):
Fortuna caeca est, fortune is blind.

XXXV. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person (445):
Animal, quod sanguinem habet, an animal which has blood.

XXXVI. A finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person (460):
Ego reges eject, I have banished kings.

USE OF THE INDICATIVE.

XXXVII. The Indicative is used in treating of facts (474):
Deus mundum aedificavit, God made (built) the world.

MOODS AND TENSES IN PRINCIPAL CLAUSES.

XXXVIII. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action not as real, but as desired (483):
Valeant civés, may the citizens be well.
XXXIX. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action not as real, but as possible (485):
Hon quaeat quispiam, here some one may inquire.

XL. The Imperative is used in COMMANDS, EXHORTATIONS, and ENTREATIES (487):
Justitiam cole, practice justice.

Moods and Tenses in Subordinate Clauses.

XLII. Principal tenses depend upon principal tenses; historical upon historical (491):
Entitut ut vincat, he strives to conquer.

XLIII. The Subjunctive is used to denote PURPOSE (497)—
I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, etc.:
Miss sunt qui (= ut it) oonsulren Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo.

II. With ut, nē, quō, quōminus:
Entitut ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer.

XLIV. The Subjunctive is used to denote RESULT (500)—
I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, cēr, etc.:
Non is sum qui (= ut ego) his ùtar, I am not such a one as to use these things.

II. With ut, ut nōn, quīn:
Ita vixit ut Atheniēnsibus esset cārissimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians.

XLV. Conditional sentences with si, nisi, ni, sī, take (501)—
I. The INDICATIVE in both clauses to assume the supposed case:
Si spirītum ducit, vivit, if he breathe, he is alive.

II. The Present or Perfect SUBJUNCTIVE in both clauses to represent the supposed case as possible:
Dīēs dēsciat, si velim causam dēsendere, the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause.

III. The Imperfect or Pluperfect SUBJUNCTIVE in both clauses to represent the supposed case as contrary to fact:
Plātābunt verba ad tē scribere, si res verba dēsiderāret, I should write to you more fully (with more words), if the case required words.

XLVI. Conditional clauses take the Subjunctive (513)—
RULES OF SYNTAX.

I. With dum, modo, dummodo, 'if only,' 'provided that'; dum nē, modo nē, dummodo nē, 'if only not,' 'provided that not':

Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, mental powers remain, *if only industry remains.*

II. With *ā sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tanquam, tanquam sī, velut, velut sī,* 'as if,' 'than if,' involving an ellipsis of the real conclusion:

Perinde habēbō, *ā sī scripssēs, I shall regard it just as if* (i. e., as if) *you had written.*

XLVI. Concessive clauses take (§15)—

I. Generally the *Indicative* in the best prose, when introduced by *quamquam:*

*Quamquam intellegunt, though they understand.*

II. The *Indicative* or *Subjunctive* when introduced by *etē, etiamē, tamēsi,* or *sē,* like conditional clauses with *sē:*

*Etē nihil scīo quod gaudēam, though I know no reason why I should rejoice.*

III. The *Subjunctive* when introduced by *licet, quamvis, ut, nē, cum,* or the relative *quī:

*Licet irrideat, though he may deride.*

XLVII. Causal clauses with quod, quīa, quoniam, quandūs, generally take (§16)—

I. The *Indicative* to assign a reason *positively on one's own authority:*

*Quoniam supplicātiō dēcrēta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed.*

II. The *Subjunctive* to assign a reason *doubtfully, or on another's authority:*

*Sōcratēs a cūsus est, quod oorrumperēt juventūtem, Socrates was accused, because he corrupted the youth.*

XLVIII. Causal clauses with *cum* and *quī* generally take the Subjunctive in writers of the best period (§17):

*Cum vīta mēta plēna sēt, since life is full of fear.*

XLIX. In temporal clauses with *postquam, posteaquam, utē, ut,* *simul atque,* etc., 'after,' 'when,' 'as soon as,' the Indicative is used (§18):

*Postquam vīdit, etc., castra posuit, he pitched his camp, after he saw, etc.*

L. I. Temporal clauses with *dum,* *dōnēc,* and *quod,* in the sense of *while, as long as,* take the *Indicative* (§19):

*Hæc fact, dum lūcit, *I did this while it was allowed.*

II. Temporal clauses with *dum,* *dōnēc,* and *quod,* in the sense of *until,* take—
RULES OF SYNTAX.

1. The **Indicative**, when the action is viewed as an actual fact:
Deliberabas hāc, dum ego redeo, consider this until I return.

2. The **Subjunctive**, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:
Différant, dum déservēscat Ina, let them defer it till their anger cools.

II. In temporal clauses with *antequam* and *prīusquam* (520)—
I. Any tense except the Imperfect and Pluperfect is put—
1. In the **Indicative**, when the action is viewed as an actual fact:
Prīusquam lūcem, absunt, they are present before it is light.

2. In the **Subjunctive**, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:
Antequam dē ré publicī dīcam, before I (can) speak of the republic.

II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put in the **Subjunctive**:
Antequam urbem cæperent, before they took the city.

III. In temporal clauses with *cum* (521)—
I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put in the **Indicative**:
Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent, they approve.

II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put—
1. In the **Indicative**, when the temporal clause asserts an historical fact:
Paruit cum nescisse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary.

2. In the **Subjunctive**, when the temporal clause simply defines the time of the principal action:
Cum epistulam complicārem, while I was folding the letter.

III. The principal clauses of the **Direct Discourse** on becoming **Indirect** take the **Infinitive** or **Subjunctive** as follows (523):
I. When **Declarative**, they take the **Infinitive with a Subject Accusative**:
Dicebat animōs esse divīnos, he was wont to say that souls are divine.

II. When **Interrogative**, they take—
1. Generally the **Subjunctive**:
Ad postulāta Caesāris respondit, quid sibi vellet, cūr veniret, to the demands of Caesar he replied, what did he wish, why did he come?

2. Sometimes the **Infinitive with a Subject Accusative**, as in rhetorical questions:
Dοcēbant rem esse testimōniō, etc.; quid esse levius, they showed that the fact was a proof, etc.; what was more inconsiderate?
III. When Imperative, they take the Subjunctive:

Sorbit Labienō cum legiōne veniat, he writes to Labienus to come (that he should come) with a legion.

LIV. The subordinate clauses of the Direct Discourse, on becoming Indirect, take the Subjunctive (524):

Respondit sē id quod in Nervīs fecisset factūrum, he replied that he would do what he had done in the case of the Nervii.

LV. The Subjunctive is used (529)—

I. In indirect questions:

Quasītūr, cur ē,ō,ī sēīssimī hominēs dissentiant, it is a question, why the most learned men disagree.

II. Often in clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon another Subjunctive:

Nī hil indigniōs est quam sum quī culpā careat suppliciō nōn carēre, nothing is more shameful than that he who is free from fault should not be exempt from punishment.

INFINITIVE.

LVI. Many verbs admit an Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning (533):

Hacō vitae cupimus, we desire to avoid these things.

LVII. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive (534):

Tē sapere doceō, he teaches you to be wise.

LXIII. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject (536):

Platōnem Tarentum vēnisse reperiō, I find that Plato came to Tarentum.

SUPINE.

LIX. The Supine in um is used with verbs of motion to express purpose (546):

Lēgāti vēnerunt rēs repetītum, deputees came to demand restitution.

LX. The Supine in ū is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (547):

Quid est tam jūcundum audītū, what is so agreeable to hear (in hearing)?

ADVERBS.

LXI. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (551):

Sapientēs fēliciter vivunt, the wise live happily.
CHAPTER VIII.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.

559. The Latin admits of great variety in the arrangement of the different parts of the sentence, thus affording peculiar facilities both for securing proper emphasis, and for imparting to its periods that harmonious flow which characterizes the Latin classics. But with all this freedom and variety, there are certain general laws of arrangement which it will be useful to notice.

I. Arrangement of Words.

General Rules.

560. The Subject followed by its modifiers occupies the first place in the sentence, and the Predicate preceded by its modifiers the last place:


561. Emphasis and Euphony affect the arrangement of words.

I. Any word, except the subject, may be made emphatic by being placed at the beginning of the sentence:

Silent leges inter arma, laws are silent in war. Cic. Numitori Remus deditur, Remus is delivered to NUMITOR. Liv.

II. Any word, except the predicate, may be made emphatic by being placed at the end of the sentence:

Nobis non satisficit ipse Demosthenes, even DEMOSTHENES does not satisfy us. Cic. Consulatum petivit nunquam, he never sought the consulship. Cic.

III. Two words naturally connected, as a noun and its adjective, or a noun and its Genitive, are sometimes made emphatic by Separation:


Note.—A word may be made emphatic by being placed between the parts of a compound tense:

Magna exhibita cura est, great care has been taken. Cic.

562. Chiasmus. — When two groups of words are contrasted, the order of the first is often reversed in the second:

1 So called from the Greek letter X.
ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

Fragile corpus animus sempiternus movet, the imperishable soul moves the perishable body. Cic.

563. KINDRED WORDS.—Different forms of the same word, or different words of the same derivation, are generally placed near each other:

Ad senem senex de senectūte scripti, I, an old man, wrote to an old man on the subject of old age. Cic. Inter sē alīs alīs prōsunt, they benefit each other. Cic.

564. A word which has a COMMON RELATION to two other words connected by conjunctions, is placed—

I. Generally before or after both:

Pācis et artēs et glōria, both the arts and the glory of peace. Liv. Belli pāciisque artēs, the arts of war and of peace. Liv.

Note.—A Genitive or an adjective following two nouns may qualify both, but it more frequently qualifies only the latter:

Hsec periculōsōse dēmūniātiōne bellī, this inquiry and this declaration of war. Liv.

II. Sometimes directly after the first before the conjunction:


Special Rules.

565. The Modifiers of a Noun generally follow it. They may be either adjectives or nouns:


1. Modifiers, when emphatic, are placed before their nouns:

Thucus ager Rōmānō adjacēt, the Tuscan territory borders on the Roman. Liv.

2. When a noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, the usual order is, Adjective—Genitive—noun:

Māgnō civium prēāria, a great scarcity of citizens. Cic.

3. An adjective is often separated from its noun by a monosyllable preposition:

Māgnō cum periculō esse, to be attended with great peril. Cic.

4. In the poets an adjective is often separated from its noun by the modifier of another noun:

Insperātā tuae veniet plūma superbae, the unexpected down shall come upon your pride. Hor.

566. The Modifiers of an Adjective generally precede it, but, if not adverbs, they may follow it:


567. The Modifiers of a Verb generally precede it:
ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.


1. When the verb is placed at the beginning of the sentence, the modifiers, of course, follow; see the first example under 561, I.

2. An emphatic modifier may of course stand at the beginning or at the end of the sentence (561):

Faciliōnēs cognōscuntur adolescentēs, most easily are the young men recognized. Cio.

3. Of two or more modifiers belonging to the same verb, that which in thought is most intimately connected with the verb stands next to it, while the others are arranged as emphasis and emphony may require:

Mors propter brevītatem vitae nānqquam longē abest, death is never far distant, in consequence of the shortness of life. Cio.

568. The Modifiers of an Adverb generally precede it, but a Dative often follows it:


569. SPECIAL WORDS.—Some words have a favorite place in the sentence, which they seldom leave. Thus—

I. The Demonstrative generally precedes its noun:

Custōs hūris urbis, the guardian of this city. Cio.

1. Iūs in the sense of well-known (450, 4) generally follows its noun, if not accompanied by an adjective:


2. Pronouns are often brought together, especially quīque with suus or sui:

Jōstitia suum cūlicum tribuit, justice gives to every man his due (his own). Cio. Qui sōs student præstāre, etc., who are eager to excel, etc. Sall.

II. Prepositions generally stand directly before their cases, but tenus and versus follow their cases:


1. The preposition frequently follows the relative, sometimes other pronouns, and sometimes even nouns, especially in poetry:

Rēs quā dē agritur, the subject of which we are treating. Cio. Itāliam contrā, over against Italy. Verg. Corpus in Ascidiae, into the body of Ascidiae. Verg.

2. For cases appended to an Ablative, see 184, 6; 127, 2.

3. Genitivae, adverba, and a few other words sometimes stand between the preposition and its case. In adjurations per is usually separated from its case by the Accusative of the object adjured, or by some other word; and sometimes the verb ēre is omitted:

Post Alexandrī māgul mortem, after the death of Alexander the Great. Cio. Ad bene vivendum, for living well. Cio. Per ego hās lacrimās tē ēre, I implore you by these tears. Verg. Per ego vōs deōs (= per deōs ego vōs ēre), I pray you in the name of the gods. Curt.

III. Conjunctions and Relatives, when they introduce clauses, generally stand at the beginning of such clauses; but autem, enim, quidem, quoque, vērō, and generally igitur, follow some other word:

Sī peccāvī, Ignōsce, if I have erred, pardon me. Cio. It quī superiorēs
ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

sunt, those who are superior. Cic. Ipse autem omnia vidēbat, but he himself saw all things. Cic.

1. A conjunction may follow a relative or an emphatic word, and a relative may follow an emphatic word:

Id ut audīvit, as he heard this. Nep. Quae cum ilia sit, since these things are so. Cic. Trōiae quid primus ab oris vēnit, who came first from the shores of Troy. Verg.

Note.—Certain conjunctions, as et, nec, sed, and even aut and vel, are more frequently removed from the beginning of the clause in poetry than in prose:

Compressus et omnia impetuus, and all violence was checked. Verg.

2. Nē—quidem takes the emphatic word or words between the two parts:

Nē in oppidis quidem, not even in the towns. Cic.

3. Quidem often follows pronouns, superlatives, and ordinals:

Ex mé quidem nihil audiet, from me indeed he will hear nothing. Cic.

4. Quae, etc., introducing a clause or phrase, are generally appended to the first word; but if that word is a preposition, they are often appended to the next word:

In forōque, and in the forum. Cic. Inter nōsque, and among us. Cic.

IV. Nōn, when it qualifies some single word, stands directly before that word; but when it is particularly emphatic, or qualifies the entire clause, it sometimes stands at the beginning of the clause, and sometimes before the finite verb or before the auxiliary of a compound tense:

Hāc villā carere nōn possunt, they are not able to do without this villa. Cic. Nōn fuit Jūpiter metuendus, Jupiter was not to be feared. Cic. Fās nōn putant, they do not think it right. Cic. Pecūnia solūta nōn est, the money has not been paid. Cic.

1. In general, in negative clauses the negative word, whether particle, verb, or noun, is made prominent:

Negat quemquam pōssē, he denies that any one is able. Cic. Nihil est mellius, nothing is better. Cic.

V. Inquam, sometimes àū, introducing a quotation, follows one or more of the words quoted. The subject, if expressed, generally follows its verb:

Nihil, inquit Brūtus, quod ċīcum, nothing which I shall state, said Brutus. Cic.

VI. The Vocative rarely stands at the beginning of a sentence. It usually follows an emphatic word:

Perge, Laeli, proceed, Lælius. Cic.

II. ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

570. Clauses connected by coordinate conjunctions (554) follow each other in the natural order of the thought, as in English:

Sōl ruit et montēs umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting, and the mountains are shaded. Verg. Gyges à nullo vidēbatur, ipse autem omnia vidēbat, Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things. Cic.

571. A clause used as the SUBJECT of a complex sentence (348) generally stands at the beginning of the sentence, and a clause used as the PREDICATE at the end:
ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

Quid diles ferat incertum est, what a day may bring forth is uncertain. Cic.
Exitus fuit oratiónis, sibi nullam cum his amiciam esse, the close of the ora-
tión was, that he had no friendship with these men. Cas.

1. This arrangement is the same as that of the simple sentence; see 560.
2. Emphasis and euphony often have the same effect upon the arrangement of clauses
as upon the arrangement of words; see 561.

572. Clauses used as the Subordinate Elements of complex
sentences admit three different arrangements:

I. They are generally inserted within the principal clause, like the sub-
ordinate elements of a simple sentence:
Hostes, ubi primum nostròs equitès conspæxérunt, celeriter nostròs per-
turbávérunt, the enemy, as soon as they saw our cavalry, quickly put our men
to rout. Cas. Sententia, quae tótissima videbátur, vicit, the opinion which
seemed the safest prevailed. Liv.

II. They are often placed before the principal clause:
Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are quiet, they approve. Cic. Qualis
sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic.

Nota.—This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause either refers
back to the preceding sentence, or is preparatory to the thought of the principal clause.
Hence temporal, conditional, and concessive clauses often precede the principal clause.
Hence also, in sentences composed of correlative clauses with is—qui, illis—qualis,
tantus—quantus, sum—cum, ilia—ut, etc., the relative member, i.e., the clause with
qui, quidam, quantus, cum, ut, etc., generally precedes.

III. They sometimes follow the principal clause:
Émittit ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Cic. Sol efficit ut omnia
floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom. Cic.

Nota.—This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause is either
intimately connected in thought with the following sentence, or explanatory of the prin-
cipal clause. Hence, clauses of Purpose and Result generally follow the principal clause,
as in the examples.

573. Latin Periods.—A complex sentence in which two or
more subordinate clauses are inserted within the principal clause is
called a Period in the strict sense of the term.

Nota 1.—The examples given under 572, I., are short and simple examples of Latin
Periods.

Nota 2.—Many Latin periods consist of several carefully constructed clauses so united
as to form one complete harmonious whole. For examples, see Cicero’s Third Oration
against Catiline, XII., ‘Sed quoniam . . . prōvidēre’; also Livy, I., 6, ‘Numitor, inter
primum . . . ostendit.’

Nota 3.—In a freer sense the term Period is sometimes applied to all complex
sentences which end with principal clauses. In this sense the examples given under 572,
II., are Periods. Many carefully elaborated Latin sentences are constructed in this way;
see Cicero’s Oration for the Post Archias, I., ‘Quod si haece . . . débémus’; also the First
Oration against Catiline, XIII., ‘Ut saepe hominés . . . ingravescet.’

15
PART FOURTH.

PROSODY.

574. Prosody treats of Quantity and Versification.

CHAPTER I.

QUANTITY.

575. The time occupied in pronouncing a syllable in poetry is called its quantity. 1 Syllables are accordingly characterized as long, short, or common. 2

I. GENERAL RULES OF QUANTITY.

576. A syllable is LONG IN QUANTITY—

I. If it contains a DIPHTHONG, or is the result of CONTRACTION:

haec, foedus, aura; oègò (for coëgà), oèceò (for occœdedò), nil (for nihil).

1. Pros in composition is usually short before a vowel: [ ]

II. If its vowel is followed by J, X, or Z, or any TWO CONSONANTS except a mute and a liquid: 3

major, dux, servus, sunt, regunt, regnum, agmen.

1. But one or both of the consonants must belong to the same word as the vowel: æō 4 sēide, per 5 sēxa.

Notes 1.—H has no tendency in combination with any consonant to lengthen a preceding syllable. Hence in such words as Achaemen, Athênae, the first syllable is short.

Note 2.—In the early poets a short final syllable ending in z remained short before a word beginning with a consonant; sometimes also short final syllables ending in other consonants: imaginis formam, enim erò, erat dictò. 6

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1 In many cases the quantity of syllables may be best learned from the Dictionary, but in others the student may be greatly aided by certain general statements or rules.
2 That is, sometimes long and sometimes short.
3 Here the syllable is long by nature if the vowel is long, but long only by position if the vowel is short. For the quantity of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant, see § 51.
4 Here æō becomes long before s in sēide, and per before s in sēxa.
5 Here the syllables ës, èm, and ëÆ remain short.
RULES OF QUANTITY.

Norv 3.—In the early poets many syllables long by position in the Augustan poets are sometimes short, as the first syllable of coae, ergō, ulla, inter, omnis, unde, uxor.

Norv 4.—A final syllable ending in a vowel is occasionally, though rarely, lengthened by consonants at the beginning of the following word.

Norv 5.—In Greek words a syllable with a vowel before a mute and a nasal is sometimes short: cycnous, Teseo.

2. In the compounds of jugum, the syllable before j is short: bijugus.

577. A syllable is SHORT IN QUANTITY if its vowel is followed in the same word by another VOWEL, by a DIPHTHONG, or by the aspirate H:

diēs, doceō, viae, nihil.

I. The following vowels, with the syllables which contain them, are long by EXCEPTION:

1. A—(1) in the Genitive ending at of Dec. I.: aultā; (2) in proper names in dius: Gaius (Gāju); (3) before ia, ie, io, iu, in the verb diō.

2. E—(1) in the ending ët of Dec. V. when preceded by a vowel: dēt; and sometimes when preceded by a consonant: fātē, rēt; often in the Dative Singular of the pronoun is: ēt; (2) in proper names in ëtius: Pompeius; (3) in ëheu, and in Rhēa.

3. I—(1) in the verb fīa, when not followed by er: fīam, fīabam, but fīeri; ñ (2) in ëius, a, um (for ëius, a, um); (3) generally in the Genitive ending ëius: aitius, illius; (4) sometimes in Diana.

4. O—sometimes in ëbs.

5. In Greek words vowels are often long before a vowel, because long in the original: ëbr, ënēs, ëris, Menelāus, ëroes.

Norv.—This often occurs in proper names in ëa, ëa, ëus, ëus, ëmn, ëm, ës, ës, ëus: ëdēa, ëlexandria, ëpernē, ërīus, ërtōn.

578. A syllable is COMMON IN QUANTITY if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid:

ager, agrī; pater, patris; duplex, triplex.

Norv 1.—A syllable ending in a mute in the first part of a compound before a liquid at the beginning of the second part is long: ab-rumpō, ob-rogō.

Norv 2.—In Plautus and Terence a syllable with a short vowel before a mute and a liquid is short.

II. QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

579. Monosyllables are long:

ā, dā, tē, sē, dē, ēi, qui, dō, pro, tū, dōa, pēs, sēs, bōs, sūs, pār, sol.

1 The name of the daughter of Numitor, and of a priestess in Vergil. In Rhēa, another name for Cybèle, the e is short.

2 Sometimes ierrez in Plautus and Terence.
RULES OF QUANTITY.

I. The following are short by Exception:

1. Enclitics: que, ve, ne, ce, te, pens, pte.
2. Monosyllables in b, d, l, m, t: ob, ad, feb, sum, et; except sōl, sōl.
3. An, bis, cis, cor, es, foc, fer, in, is, nec, os (ossis), per, ter, qua (indefinite), quiis, vir, vas (vadis), and sometimes hic and hoc in the Nominative and Accusative.

580. In words of more than one syllable—

I. The final vowels i, o, and u are long; a, e, and y, short: ¹

mari, audi, servō, omminō, frōcto, cornū; via, maris, mare, misy.

II. Final syllables in o are long; in d, l, m, n, r, t, short:

also, illa; illud, consūl, amem, carmen, amor, caput.

Nota 1.—Dōnum and hēc are exceptions.

Nota 2.—Final syllables in s and r are long in many Greek words which end long in the original: as Titēn, Anchise, Hymēn, Delphēn, dēr, aerē, orēr, crētēr.

III. The final syllables as, es, and os are long; is, us, ys, short:

amās, mēnsās, monēs, nābēs, servōs; avēs, urbis, bonus, orchāmys.

Nota 1.—The learner will remember that short final syllables like is, us, etc., may be lengthened by being placed before a word beginning with a consonant; see 576, II.

Nota 2.—Plautus retains the original quantity of many final syllables usually short in the Augustan age. Thus the endings o, e, el, ar, or, is, us, at, et, et, often stand in place of the latter endings o, e, al, ar, or, is, us, at, et (241). Some of these early forms are retained by Terence, and some of them occasionally occur in the Augustan poets.

Nota 3.—Plautus and Terence, in consequence of the colloquial character of comedy, often shorten unaccented final syllables after an accented short syllable: ama, abē, demō, domē, domo, viro, pedes.

Nota 4.—In Plautus and Terence the doubling of a letter does not usually affect the quantity of the syllable: il in illa, men in insanō, pp in opportūnāl.

581. Numerous exceptions to the general rule for the quantity of final syllables occur even in classical Latin:

I. If final, usually long, is sometimes short or common—

1. Short in nisi, quae, cui (when a dissyllable), and in the Greek ending ei of the Dative and Ablative Plural.

2. Common in mild, tidē, sūl, idē, uēl, and in the Dative and Vocative Singular of some Greek words.

II. O final, usually long, is short—

1. In duo, ego, odo, abo, in the adverbs cito, illico, modo, and its compounds, dummodo, quodmodo, etc., in cedo, and in the old form ending.

¹ U is short in indu and mēnu. Contrasted syllables are long, according to 576, I.
RULES OF QUANTITY.

2. Sometimes (1) in nouns of Dec. III. and (2) in verbs, though very rarely in the best poets.

III. A final, usually short, is long—
1. In the Ablative: mōnēs, bondō, illō.
2. In the Vocative of Greek nouns in ās: Aenēs, Puliā.s
3. In Verbs and Particles: amā, cirēs, juxta, antē, frustrā. Except ita, quīs, οἷς, θέα, and putā used adverbially.

IV. E final, usually short, is long—
1. In Dec. I. and V.,s and in Greek plurals of Dec. III.: epîloma; rē, diē; tempē, melē.
3. In the Singular Imperative Active of Conj. II.: monē, docē. But ē is sometimes short in carē, vidē, etc.s
4. In fērē, formē, dē, and in adverbs from adjectives of Dec. II.: dōcē, rēcē. Except bene, male, inferne, interne, superna.

V. As final, usually long, is short—
1. In anas and in a few Greek nouns in as: Arcas, lampas.

VI. In final, usually long, is short—
1. In Nominatives Singular of Dec. III. with short increment (582) in the Genitive: miles (itis), obesus (idis), interpretus (itis). Except abīes, aries, parīes, Ceres, and compounds of pēs, as bipēs, tripēs, etc.
2. In pesēs and the compounds of es, as ades, potēs.
3. In Greek words—(1) in the plural of those which increase in the Genitive: Arcades, Trōades; (2) in a few neuters in es: Hippomenes; (3) in a few Vocatives Singular: Dēmosthenes.

VII. Os final, usually long, is short—
1. In composit, imposit, exis.
2. In Greek words with the ending short in the Greek: Delos, melos.

VIII. As final, usually short, is long—
1. In plural cases: mēneis, servēs, vībis. Hence fōrēs, grātīs, ingrātīs.
2. In Nominatives of Dec. III. increasing long in the Genitive: Quīris (itis), Salamis (itis).

Note.—Māvis, guīvis, uterīvēs, follow the quantity of ēs.

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s Sometimes in the Vocative of Greek nouns in as and ēs.

s Hence, in the compounds, hōdē, prīdē, postrīdēs, quadrē.

s In the comic poets many disyllabic Imperatives with a short penult shorten the ultimate: as habē, jūdē, māna, mōvē, tāsē, ēnē, etc.
RULES OF QUANTITY.

5. Sometimes in the Singular of the Future Perfect and of the Perfect Subjunctive: *amōveris, doceuris.*

IX. *Us final, usually short, is long*—

1. In Nominatives of Decl. III. increasing long in the Genitive: *virtūs* (tīs), *tellūs* (urīs).

Nota.—But *palus* (a short) occurs in Horace, Ars Polītica, 65.

2. In Decl. IV., in the Genitive Singular, and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural: *frēdēs.*

3. In Greek words ending long in the original: *Panthēs, Sapphēs, tripēs.*

Nota.—But we have *Oedipus* and *Pylipus.*

III. QUANTITY IN INCREMENTS.

582. A word is said to *increase* in declension, when it has in any case more syllables than in the Nominative Singular, and to have as many increments of declension as it has additional syllables: *sermō, sermōnis, sermōnibus.*

583. A verb is said to *increase* in conjugation, when it has in any part more syllables than in the second person singular of the Present Indicative Active, and to have as many increments of conjugation as it has additional syllables: *amō, amātis, amābatis.*

584. If there is but one increment, it is uniformly the penult; if there are more than one, they are the penult with the requisite number of syllables before it. The increment nearest the beginning of the word is called the first increment, and those following this are called successively the second, third, and fourth increments.

**Increments of Declension.**

585. In the Increments of Declension, *a* and *o* are long; *e, i, u,* and *y,* short: *a*

*actēs, actātis, actātibus; sermō, sermōnis; puer, puert, puerōrum; fulgūr, fulgūris; chlamys, chlamydīa; bonus, bonārum, bonōrum; ille, illārum, illōrum; miser, misert; suppexus, supplicia; satur, saturent.*

1. *A,* usually long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment—

---

1 *Sermōnis,* having one syllable more than *sermō,* has one increment, while *sermōnibus* has two increments.

2 *Amātis* has one increment, *amābatis* two.

3 In *ser-mōn-i-bus,* the first increment is *mōn,* the second *i,* and in *mon-u-orā-mus,* the first is *u,* the second *e,* the third *rā.*

4 *Y* occurs only in Greek words, and is long in the increments of nouns in *yn* and of a few others.

5 Observe that the exceptions belong to the first increment.
RULES OF QUANTITY.

1. Of masculines in al and ar: Hannibal, Hannibalis; Cassar, Cassarise.
2. Of nouns in e preceded by a consonant: dapes, dapes; Arabis, Arabis; hiemis, hiemis.
3. Of Greek nouns in a and as: poema, poematis; Pallas, Palladium.
4. Of (1) bacca, bacca, juba, juba, lâr, nectar, ër, and its compounds; (2) anas, max, vas (vadiis); (3) sâl, fax, and a few rare Greek words in ax.

II. O, usually long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment—

1. Of Neuters in Declension III.: aequor, aequoris; tempus, temporis. Except os (orris), ador (adoris), and comparatives.
2. Of words in e preceded by a consonant: inopas, inopas. Except Cyclopes and Hydrols.
3. Of arbor, bâs, lepus; compos, impos, memor, immemor; Allobrogi, Cappadoz, praecox.
4. Of most Patrials: Macedô, Macedonias.
5. Of many Greek nouns—(1) those in or: rhetôr, Hectôr; (2) many in ë and ën increasing short in Greek: aedôn, aedonis; (3) in Greek compounds in pùs or pùs: tripâs (odias), Oedipus.

III. Ë, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment—

2. Of nouns in ën, mostly Greek: ien, ienis; Siren, Sirenis. So Aniê, Aniênis.
3. Of Celtiber, Iber, ër, hêrâ, locuples, merces, quies, quies, requies, piebès, lac, lêx, dêx, dêz, verèx.
4. Of a few Greek words in ës and ër: lebês, lebês; crâter, crâteris. Except ër and aëthôr.

IV. I, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment—

1. Of most words in ëx: râdix, râdixis; fêlix, fêlicis.
2. Of ës, ës, ës, ës, Quiris, Samnis.
3. Of delphin, and a few rare Greek words.

Note.—For quantity of ë in the ending ës, see 577, 5.

V. Ù, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment—

1. Of nouns in Ùs with the Genitive in Ùris, Ùris, Ùdis: Ùs, Ùris; salüs, salûsis; palûs, palûdis.
2. Of Ùs, frûs, lax, plûs, Pallas.

1 See p. 342, foot-note 5.
2 But short in appendices, caulis, Oilea, Ùlia, formis, max, pûs, salûs, Ùris, and a few others, chiefly proper names.
3 But short in Ùrucus, Lûga, pecus.
RULES OF QUANTITY.

Increments of Conjugation.

586. In the Increments of Conjugation (§ 583), a, e, and o are long; i and u short:

amāmus, amāmus, amātōte; regimus, sumus.

Nors 1.—In ascertaining the increments of the irregular verbs, ferō, coātī, and their compounds, the full form of the second person, feris, coāta, etc., must be used. Thus in ferībās and coātības, the increments are rī and ìā.

Nors 2.—In ascertaining the increments of reduplicated forms (§ 585, I.), the reduplication is not counted. Thus dādēmus has but one increment, dā.

I. A, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is short in the first increment of dō: dare, dabam, circundābam.

II. E, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is short before r—
1. In the tenses in ram, rīm, rī: amāveram, amāverīm, amāverō; rīverat, rīverit.
2. In the first increment of the Present and Imperfect of Conjugation III.: regers, regeris, regerem, regerer.
3. In the Future ending beris, ber: amāberis or -ere, monēberis.
4. Rarely in the Perfect ending erunt: deterunt for deterunt; see 236, note; also Systōle, 608, VI.

III. I, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is long, except before a vowel—
1. In the first increment of Conjugation IV., except ēmus of the Perfect: audīre, audīti, audītum; sentīre, sentīmus; sēnēmus (Perfect).
2. In Conjugation III., in the first increment of Perfects and Supines in isī and isīm (§ 578), and of the parts derived from them (except ēmus of the Perfect: trīvīmus): cupīti, cupīverat, cupītum; pelīt, pelītus; capēssīti, capēssītum. Gētīmus from gaudēt follows the same analogy.
3. In the endings ēmus and ētīs of the Present Subjunctive: ēmus, ētīs; vēlatīmus, vēlatī (§ 240, 3).
4. In nōlīte, nōlīte, nōlītēse, and in the different persons of idam, idē, from eo (§ 585).
5. Sometimes in the endings ēmus and ētīs of the Future Perfect and Perfect Subjunctive: amāverīmus, amāverītīs.

IV. U, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is long in the Supine and the parts formed from it: vōlūtum, vōtārūs, amātūrūs.

IV. QUANTITY OF DERIVATIVE ENDINGS.

587. The most important derivative endings may be classified according to quantity as follows:

I. Derivative endings with a LONG PENULT:
1. Ābrum, ārum, ātrum:
flābrum, simulācrum, arātrum.
RULES OF QUANTITY.

2. ἄδος, ἂδος, ἂδος; ἄγος, ἂγος:
dulcēdō, cupidē, sōlitūdō; vorāgō, ortāgō, aerūgō.
3. ἁίν, ἁίν, ἁίν, ὁίν, ὁίν—in patronymics: ¹
Ptolemāis, Chryṣēis, Mǐnōis, Icarōtis, Nērēnē, Acrisīōnē.
4. ἁίς, ἁίς; ἁίς, ἁίς, ἁίς:
querēla, ovila; mortālis, fidēlīs, curūlīs.
5. ἀνυς, ὕνυς, ὕνυς, ἀνυς; ἁνα, ὅνα, ὅνα, ὅνα:
urbānus, egēnus, patrōnus, tribūnus; membrāna, habēna, annōna, la-
cūna.
6. ἄρις, ἄρυς; ὕρυς, ὕρυς; ἀνυς, ἔνυς:
salūtāris, avarus; canōrus, animōsus; octāvus, aestivus.
7. ἄτυς, ὕτυς, ὄτυς, ὄτυς; ἄτιμ, ὅτιμ, ὅτιμ; ὅτυμ, ὅτα: ²
alātus, facētus, turātus, aegōtus, cornūtus; singulātum, virītum, tribū-
tum; quercētum, monēta.
8. ὅνι, ὅνι, ὅνι—in distributives:
septēnī, quinī, octōnī.

II. Derivative endings with a SHORT PENULT—
1. ἀδēs, ἰδēs, ἰδēs—in patronymics: ³
Aenēādes, Laēriādes, Tantalīdēs.
2. ἴαυς, ἴαυς, ἴδυς: ⁴
Corinthiācus, modicus, cupidus.
3. olus, ola, olum; ulus, ula, ulum; culus, cola, culum—in diminu-
tives:
filiolus, filiola, atriolum; horstula, virgula, oppidulum; flōsculus, par-
ticula, mānusculum.
4. etās, itēs—in nouns; iter, itus—in adverbs:
pītēs, vérītēs; fortīter, divītūs.
5. ἀτιλίς, ἀτίλα, ἀτιλίς—in verbales; ἴνα—in adjectives denoting material
or time: ⁶
versātile, dociltis, amābilis; adamanτǐnis, cedrīnus, crāstīnus, diūtīnus.

Norm 1.—His in adjectives from nouns usually has the penult long: cōtilē, hostīlē,
puerīlē, virīlē.
Norm 2.—Inus denoting characteristic (330) usually has the penult long: cōtinus,
equinus, marīnus.

¹ Except Danaiēs, Phōcaīs, Thēbaīs, Nerīs.
² Except (1) ambētō, forvētūs, grūtōs, hōlētus, hosētus, spirōtus; (2) adη-
tēm, stātem, and adverbs in étus, as décētē; and (3) participles provided for by 536.
³ Except (1) those in étē from nouns in oes and ēs: sa, Pēlēs (Pēleus), Nοc-
cīdēs (Nocīdēs); and (2) Amphicrētēs, Amītōs, Bētēs, Corīdēs, Lyōsītēs.
⁴ Except amīcīs, antēus, aprīcī, mendīcī, potēcīs, pudīcīs.
⁵ Except mālītōnīs, repōntīnīs, vacervīntīnīs.


III. Derivative endings with a Long Antepenult:
1. äceus, äceus, äneus, ärius, ärum, ärius:
   rosäceus, pannüceus, subitänneus, cibärius, columbärium, cënsörius.
2. äbundus, äoundus; ähila, ähilla, ätlicus:
   mirläbundus, fräcundus; amäbilis, versätilis, aquäticus.
3. äגintâ, ãginti, ãsimus—in numerals:
   ãnänğıntâ, vëginti, çentësimus.
4. imönia, imönium; törius, aörius; töria, törium:
   querimönia, alimönium; amätörius, çënsörîus; vicketria, auditörium.

IV. Derivative endings with a Short Antepenult:
1. ãhila, ãtûdô, ãlentus, ãlentus:
   çredibilis, solitûdô, vinolentus, opulentus.
2. ãrûs—in desideratives:
   ãsûriô, ãemptûriô, partûriô.

V. Quantity of Stem-Syllables.

588. All simple verbs in ò of the Third Conjugation (§17)
have the stem-syllable\(^1\) short:
   capió, cupió, fácîo, fócîo, fûgio.

589. Most verbs which form the Perfect in ò have the stem-
syllable short:
   domô, secô, habêô, moneô, alô, oclô.
   Nota.—Pôôëô, dôôëô, ëôôëô, pôëô, and several inceptive verbs, are exceptions.

590. Dissyllabic Perfects and Supines have the first syllable
long, unless short by position:
   juvo, jùvi, jùtum; foveo, fòvi, fòtum.
   1. Eight Perfects and ten Supines have the first syllable short:
      bidô, dodi, jidi, liquô,\(^2\) cêdi, estô, estî, tût; citum, datum, itum, litum,
      quïtum, ratum, rutum, satum, situm, statum.\(^3\)

591. Trisyllabic Reduplicated Perfects have the first two syll-
ables short:
   cadô, ocedî; canô, oceint; discô, didît.
   Nota 1.—Ocedî has ocedî in distinction from ocedî from cadô.
   Nota 2.—The second syllable may be made long by position: oscëurti, momordî.

592. In general, inflected forms retain the quantity of stem-syl-
lables unchanged:

---
\(^1\) That is, the syllable preceding the characteristic.
\(^2\) Liguî from liguëô; uniguô has liguî. Statum from estô; estô has estïtum.
\(^3\) But see Dissyllabic Perfects and Supines, 590.
RULES OF QUANTITY.

avis, avem; nubes, nubium; levis, levior, levissimus; monoe, monēbam, monui.

Norm 1.—Position may, however, affect the quantity: ager, agrī; possum, potui; soleō, solutum; soleō, solutum.¹

Norm 2.—Omnō gives genus, genitum, and pōnō, posui, positum.

593. Derivatives generally retain the quantity of the stem-syllables of their primitives:

bonus, bonitās; timō, timor; animus, animōsus; civis, civicus; cura, curō.

1. Words formed from the same root sometimes show a variation in the quantity of stem-syllables:

| dictō, dictus | dēcō, decō | personō, personā, |
| dictus, ducis, dēcō, dēcō, | regō, rex, regis, regula, |
| fidēs, fidēs, | secus, secus, |
| hōmnō, humānus, | sedēs, sedēs, sedulus, |
| lātō, lātōnā, | serō, sēmen, |
| lēgō, lēgās, | sopor, sōpiō, |
| maser, mācerō, | suspicōr, suspicō, |
| movēs, mobiliās, | tegō, tēgula, |
| notā, nōtum, | vadum, vādō, |
| odium, odi, | vocō, vōx, vox. |

Norm 1.—This change of quantity in some instances is the result of contraction, as movēbilis, movēbilis, mobilis, and in others it serves to distinguish words of the same orthography, as the verbs legis, legēs, regis, regis, sedēs, from the nouns légis, légis, régis, régis, sēdēs, or the verbs dūcēs, dūcēs, fidēs, from the nouns ducis, ducis, fidēs.

Norm 2.—A few derivatives shorten the long vowel of the primitive: dēer, acerbus; lēceō, lucerna; mōtēs, molestus.

594. Compounds generally retain the quantity of their elements:

ante-ferō, de-ferō, dē-dūcō, in-sequālis, prō-dūcō.

1. The change of a vowel or diphthong does not affect the quantity:

dē-ligō (lēgo), oo-cidō (caedo), oo-cidē (caedo).

2. The Inseparable Prepositions di, se, and ce are long, re short; ne sometimes long and sometimes short:

dīdūcō, sēdēcō, vēcōres, redīcō; nēdum, nēfas:

Norm 1.—Di is short in dirimō and discordus.

Norm 2.—Nē is long in nēdum, nēmō, nēquam, nēquānum, nēquārum, nēquitia, and nēve. In other words it is short.

Norm 3.—Re is sometimes lengthened in a few words: religiō, religiōsa, rēpeti, rēpulit, rēbuilt, etc.

3. In a few words the quantity of the second element is changed. Thus—

Jurō gives ierō; nōtus, nītus; nābō, nūba: dē-jerō, oōg-nītus, prō-nuba.

4. Prae in composition is usually short before a vowel: praeacētus, prae-ētus.

5. Prō is short in the following words:

¹ Here the first syllable is short in ager, but common in agrī (572); long in possum, soleō, coeleō (572, I.), but short in potui, solidum, and solutum.
595. The Quantity of Stem-Syllables in cases not provided for by any rules now given will be best learned from the Dictionary. By far the larger number of such syllables will be found to be short. For convenience of reference, a list of the most important primitives with long stem-syllables is added:\footnote{Including a few derivatives and compounds.}

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VERSIFICATION.

CHAPTER II.

VERSIFICATION.

SECTION I.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJECT.

596. Latin Versification is based upon Quantity. Syllables are combined into certain metrical groups called Feet, and feet, singly or in pairs, are combined into Verses.¹

1. In quantity or time the unit of measure is the short syllable, indicated either by a curve 〜 or by an eighth note in music, ♩. A long syllable

¹ Modern versification is based upon Accent. An English verse is a regular combination of accented and unaccented syllables, but a Latin verse is a similar combination of long and short syllables. The rhythmic accent or iōctus (596) in Latin depends entirely upon quantity. Compare the following lines:

Tell' me | not', in | mourn'-ful | num'-bera,
Life' is | but' an | emp'-ty | dream'.
Tru'-dt. | tur' dt. | ès' di- | è'.
At' fi- | dès' et | in'-ge- | ni'.

Observe that in the English lines the accent or iōctus falls upon the same syllables as in prose, while in the Latin it falls uniformly upon long syllables. On Latin Versification, see Ramsey's 'Latin Prosody'; Schmidt's 'Rhythmic und Metrik,' translated by Professor White; Christ's 'Metrík.'
has in general twice the value of a short syllable, and is indicated either by the sign \( \rightarrow \), or by a quarter note in music, \( \frac{1}{4} \). This unit of measure is also called a time or mora.

**Notes**

1. A long syllable is sometimes prolonged so as to have the value (1) of three short syllables, indicated by the sign \( \rightarrow \), or \( \frac{1}{4} \); or (2) of four short syllables, indicated by \( \rightarrow \), or \( \frac{1}{4} \).

2. A long syllable is sometimes shortened so as to have the value of a short syllable, indicated by the sign \( \rightarrow \), or \( \frac{1}{4} \). A syllable thus used is said to have irrational time.

### 597. The feet of most frequent occurrence in the best Latin poets are—

#### I. FEET OF FOUR TIMES OR FOUR MORAE.

**Dactyl**, one long and two short, \( \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{4} \) carmina.

**Spondees**, two long syllables, \( \frac{1}{4} \) légès.

#### II. FEET OF THREE TIMES OR THREE MORAE.

**Trochees**, \( \frac{1}{4} \) légis.

**Iambus**, one short and one long, \( \frac{1}{4} \) parèns.

**Tribrach**, three short syllables, \( \frac{1}{4} \) dominus.

**Notes**

1. To these may be added the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pyrrhic</th>
<th>Anapaest</th>
<th>Bacchius</th>
<th>Cretic</th>
<th>Ditomus</th>
<th>Ditrochee</th>
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<td>dolōris</td>
<td>militās</td>
<td>amoenitās</td>
<td>cīvitātis</td>
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**Notes**

2. A Dipody is a group of two feet; a Tripody, of three; a Tetrapody, of four, etc. A Trihemimeris is a group of three half feet; a Dithemimeris, of two and a half; a Heptemimeris, of three and a half, etc.

### 598. METRICAL EQUIVALENTS.

A long syllable may be resolved into two short syllables, as equivalent to it in quantity, or two short syllables may be contracted into a long syllable. The forms thus produced are metrical equivalents of the original feet.

**Notes**

Thus the Dactyl becomes a Spondees by contracting the two short syllables into one long syllable; the Spondees becomes a Dactyl by resolving the second syllable, or an Anapaest by resolving the first. Accordingly, the Dactyl, the Spondees, and the Anapaest are metrical equivalents. In like manner the Iambus, the Trochee, and the Tribrach are metrical equivalents.

---

1 See foot-note 1, p. 349.
2 Sometimes called Chories.
3 The feet here mentioned as having four syllables are only compounds of dissyllabic feet. Thus the Ditomus is a double Iambus; the Ditrochee, a double Trochee; the Diapondes, a double Spondees; the Greater Ionice, a Spondees and a Pyrrhic; the Lesser Ionice, a Pyrrhic and a Spondees; the Choriomus, a Trochee (Chories) and an Iambus.
1. In certain kinds of verse admitting irrational time (596, 1, note 2), Spondees, Dactyls, and Anapaests are shortened to the time of a Trochee or of an Iambus, and thus become metrical equivalents of each of these feet.

1) A Spondee used for a Trochee is called an Irregular Trochee, and is marked — >.

2) A Spondee used for an Iambus is called an Irregular Iambus, and is marked — >.

3) A Dactyl used for a Trochee is called a Cyclical Dactyl, and is marked — — —.

4) An Anapaest used for an Iambus is called a Cyclical Anapaest, and is marked — — —.

599. Ictus or Rhythmic Accent.—As in the pronunciation of a word one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called accent, so in the pronunciation of a metrical foot one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called Rhythmic Accent or Ictus.

1. Feet consisting of both long and short syllables have the ictus uniformly on the long syllables, unless used as equivalents for other feet.

Note.—Thus the Dactyl and the Trochee have the ictus on the first syllable; the Anapaest and the Iambus on the last.

2. Equivalents take the ictus of the feet for which they are used.

Note 1.—Thus the Spondee, when used for the Dactyl, takes the ictus of the Dactyl — i.e., on the first syllable; but when used for the Anapaest, it takes the ictus of the Anapaest — i.e., on the last syllable.

Note 2.—Feet consisting entirely of long or entirely of short syllables are generally used as equivalents, and are accented accordingly.

Note 3.—When two short syllables of an equivalent take the place of an accented long syllable of the original foot, the ictus properly belongs to both of these syllables, but is marked upon the first. Thus a Tribrach used for an Iambus is marked — — —.

600. Arsis and Thesis.—The accented part of each foot is called the Arsis (raising), and the unaccented part, the Thesis (lowering).¹

601. Verses.—A verse is a line of poetry (596). It has one characteristic or fundamental foot, which determines the ictus for the whole verse.

Note 1.—Thus every dactylic verse has the ictus on the first syllable of each foot, because the Dactyl has the ictus on that syllable.

¹ Greek writers on versification originally used the terms ἀρσει and θέσει of raising and putting down the foot in marching or in beating time. Thus the Thesis was the accented part of the foot, and the Arsis the unaccented part. The Romans, however, applied the terms to raising and lowering the voice in reading. Thus Arsis came to mean the accented part of the foot, and Thesis the unaccented part. The terms have now been so long and so generally used in this sense that it is not deemed advisable to attempt to restore them to their original signification.
352  NAMES OF VERSES.

Note 2.—Two verses sometimes unite and form a compound verse; see 629, X.

Note 3.—Metre means measure, and is variously used, sometimes designating the measure or quantity of syllables, and sometimes the foot or measure of a verse.

602. CAESURA OR CAESURAL PAUSE.—Most Latin verses are divided metrically into two nearly equal parts, each of which forms a rhythmic series. The pause, however slight, which naturally separates these parts is called—

1. A Caesura, or a Caesural Pause, when it occurs within a foot; see 611.

2. A Diaeresis, when it occurs at the end of a foot; see 611, 2 and 3.

Note.—Some verses consist of three parts thus separated by caesura or diaeresis, while some consist of a single rhythmic series.

603. The full metrical name of a verse consists of three parts. The first designates the characteristic foot, the second gives the number of feet or measures, and the third shows whether the verse is complete or incomplete. Thus—

1. A Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic is a dactylic verse of six feet (Hexameter), all of which are complete (Acatalectic).

2. A Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic is a trochaic verse of two measures (Dimeter), the last of which is incomplete (Catalectic).

Note 1.—A verse with a Dactyl as its characteristic foot is called Dactylic; with a Trochee, Trochaic; with an Iambus, Iambic, etc.

Note 2.—A verse consisting of one measure is called Monometer; of two, Dimeter; of three, Trimeter; of four, Tetrameter; of five, Pentameter; of six, Hexameter.

Note 3.—A verse which closes with a complete measure is called Acatalectic; with an incomplete measure, Catalectic; with an excess of syllables, Hypermetrical.

Note 4.—The term Acatalectic is often omitted, as a verse may be assumed to be complete unless the opposite is stated.

Note 5.—A Catalectic verse is said to be catalectic in syllabam, in dissyllabam, or in trisyllabam, according as the incomplete foot has one, two, or three syllables.

Note 6.—Verses are sometimes briefly designated by the number of feet or measures which they contain. Thus Hexameter (six measures) sometimes designates the Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic, and Semireus (six feet), the Iambic Trimeter Acatalectic.

604. Verses are often designated by names derived from celebrated poets.

Note 1.—Thus Alcaic is derived from Alcaeus; Archilochian, from Archilochus; Sapphic, from Sappho; Glyconic, from Glycon, etc.

---

1 In dactylic verses a measure is a single foot, but in trochaic and iambic verses it is a dipody or a pair of feet.

2 Caesura (from cæsōd, to cut) means a cutting; it cuts or divides the foot and the verse into parts.

3 A verse consisting of a single series is called Monocicon; of two, Dicicon; of three, Tricicon.

4 From the Greek ἀκατάλεκτος, καταλεκτικός, and ἔπερμετρος.
FIGURES OF PROSODY.

605. The final syllable of a verse may generally be either long or short at the pleasure of the poet.

606. A stanza is a combination of two or more verses of different metres into one metrical whole; see 631.

Note.—A stanza of two lines or verses is called a Distich; of three, a Tristich; of four, a Tetristich.

607. Rhythmical Reading.—In reading Latin verse care must be taken to preserve the words unbroken, to show the quantity of the syllables, and to mark the poetical ictus.

Note.—Scanning consists in separating a poem or verse into the feet of which it is composed.

608. Figures of Prosody.—The ancient poets sometimes allowed themselves, in the use of letters and syllables, certain liberties generally termed Figures of Prosody.

I. ELISION.—A final vowel, a final diphthong, or a final m with the preceding vowel, is generally elided before a word beginning with a vowel or with h:

Mōnstrum horrendum informe ingēns, for Mōnstrum horrendum Informe ingēns. Verq.

Note 1.—For Exceptions, see Hiatus, II., below.
Note 2.—Final s in the interrogative se is sometimes dropped before a consonant: Pyrrhine or Hēc sē servās? for Pyrrhine servās? Verq.
Note 3.—In the early poets final s is often dropped before consonants:
Ex omnibus rébus, for ex omnibus rébus. Lucr.
Note 4.—The elision of a final m with the preceding vowel is sometimes called Echilpes.

II. HIATUS.—A final vowel or diphthong is sometimes retained before a word beginning with a vowel. Thus—

1. The interjections ơ, ānu, and pre are not elided; see Verg., Aen., X., 18; Geor., II., 486.
2. Long vowels and diphthongs are sometimes retained, especially in the ares of a foot; see Verg., Ec., III., 6; VII., 52.

1 In school this is sometimes done in a purely mechanical way, sacrificing words to feet; but even this mechanical process is often useful to the beginner, as it makes him familiar with the poetical ictus.
2 That is, partially suppressed. In reading, it should be lightly and indistinctly sounded, and blended with the following syllable, as in English poetry:
   "The eternal years of God are here."
3 From the Greek ἐκθέτεις, συνάλωψτη, and συνάφεια.
Notes 1.—This is most common in proper names.
Notes 2.—Virgil employs this form of hiatus more freely than the other Latin poets, and yet the entire Aeneid furnishes only a short list of examples.
Notes 3.—In the thesis a final long vowel or diphthong is sometimes shortened before a short vowel instead of being elided; see Verg., Aen., III., 211; VI., 507.
Notes 4.—Hiatus with a short final vowel is rare, but occurs even in Vergil; see Aen., I., 406; Ec., II., 58.

III. SYNÆRESIS.—Two syllables are sometimes contracted into one:

auræ, dænde, dæncoeps, nīdem, nādem, ă Españ, prohibet (pronounced proibet).

Note 1.—In the different parts of discus, ec is generally pronounced as one syllable: discus, discet, discerat, discerit, etc.; so et in the verb antecū: antecüre, antecürem, antecüis, antecüit.

Note 2.—I and u before vowels are sometimes used as consonants, with the sound of y and w. Thus aecis and aecis become absect and aucto; genus and gruenis become genues and gernuis.

Note 3.—In Plautus and Terence, synæresis is used with great freedom.
Note 4.—The contraction of two syllables into one is sometimes called synæresis.

IV. DIÆRESIS.—In poetry, two syllables usually contracted into one are sometimes retained distinct:

aurē for auræ, Orphēs for Orpheus, solvendus for solvendus, silua for silua.

Note.—Diæresis properly means the resolution of one syllable into two, but the Latin poets seldom, if ever, actually make two syllables out of one. The examples generally explained by diæresis are only ancient forms, used for effect or convenience.

V. DIASTOLE.—A syllable usually short is sometimes long, especially in the aoris of a foot:

Priamidēs for Priamidēs.

Note 1.—This poetic license occurs chiefly in proper names and in final syllables.
Note 2.—Virgil uses this license quite freely. He lengthens qua in sixteen instances.

VI. SYSTOLE.—A syllable usually long is sometimes short:

tulerrunt for tulerrunt, steterrunt for steterrunt (236, note), vide'n for vidēsē.

Note.—This poetic license occurs most frequently in final vowels and diphthongs.

VII. SYNCOPE.—An entire foot is sometimes occupied by a single long syllable; see 614.

SECTION II.

VARIETIES OF VERSE.

I. DACTYLLIC HEXAMETER.

609. All Dactylic Verses consist of Dactyls and their metrical equivalents, Spondees. The ictus is on the first syllable of every foot.
610. The Dactylic Hexameter consists of six feet. The first four are either Dactyls or Spondees, the fifth a Dactyl, and the sixth a Spondee (605). The scale is,

\[ \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l} | \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l} | \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l} | \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l} | \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l} | \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l}. \]

Quadrupe- | dante pu- | trem soni- | tū quattī | ungula | campum. Verg.
Arma vī- | rumque ca- | nō Trō- | jae qui | primus ab | ōrīs. Verg.
Illī 5 in- | ter sē- | sē māg- | nā vi | braccia | tollunt. Verg. 6

1. The scale of dactylic hexameters admits sixteen varieties, produced by varying the relative number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees. Thus a verse may contain—

1) Five Dactyls and one Spondee, as in the first example above.
2) Four Dactyls and two Spondees, admitting four different arrangements.
3) Three Dactyls and three Spondees, admitting six different arrangements.
4) Two Dactyls and four Spondees, admitting four different arrangements.
5) One Dactyl and five Spondees, as in the fourth example.

2. Effect of Dactyls.—Dactyls produce a rapid movement, and are adapted to lively subjects. Spondees produce a slow movement, and are adapted to grave subjects. But generally the best effect is produced in successive lines by variety in the number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees.

3. Spondaic Line.—The Hexameter sometimes takes a Spondee in the

---

1 This is at once the most important and the most ancient of all the Greek and Roman metres. In Greece it attained its perfection in the poems of Homer. It was introduced into Italy in a somewhat imperfect form by the poet Ennius about the middle of the second century before Christ; but it was improved by Lucretius, Catullus, and others, until it attained great excellence in the works of the Augustan poets. The most beautiful and finished Latin Hexameters are found in the works of Ovid and Vergil.

2 The Dactylic Hexameter in Latin is here treated as Acatalectic, as the Latin poets seem to have regarded the last foot as a genuine Spondee, thus making the measure complete. See Christ, 'Metrik der Griechen und Römer,' pp. 110, 164.

3 In this scale the sign ' marks the locus (599), and — denotes that the original Dactyl, marked — —, may become by contraction a Spondee, marked — —, i.e., that a Spondee may be used for a Dactyl (598).

4 Expressed in musical characters, this scale is as follows:

\[ \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l} | \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l} | \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l} | \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l} | \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l} | \text{\textbackslash l} \text{\textbackslash l}, \]

The notation \textbackslash l \textbackslash l means that, instead of the original measure \textbackslash l \textbackslash l, the equivalent \textbackslash l \textbackslash l may be used.

5 The final t of Illī is elided; see 603, I.

6 With these lines of Vergil compare the following Hexameters from the Evangeline of Longfellow:

"This is the forest primeval; but where are the hearts that beneath it Leaped like the roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice of the huntsman?"
fifth place. It is then called Spondaic, and generally has a Dactyl as its fourth foot:


Nota.—In Vergil, spondaic lines are used much more sparingly than in the earlier poets, and generally end in words of three or four syllables, as in *sacrum* above. 3

611. CAESURA, OR CAESURAL PAUSE.—The favorite caesural pause of the Hexameter is *after the arsis*, or in the thesis, of the third foot:

Armā- | ti ten- | dunt; || it | clāmor et | agmine | factō. *Verg.*

Nota.—In the first line, the caesural pause, marked ||, is after *tendens*, after the arsis of the third foot; and in the second line after *rēgina*, in the thesis (as *ju* of the third foot. The former is called the *Masculine Caesura*, the latter the *Feminine Caesura*.

1. The Caesural Pause is sometimes in the fourth foot, and then an additional pause is often introduced in the second:

Crēdide- | rim; || vēr | illud e- | rāt, || vēr | māgnus a- | ġbat. *Verg.*

2. BUCCOLIC DIACRISIS.—A pause called *Bucolic Diacrisis*, because originally used in the pastoral poetry of the Greeks, sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot:

Ingen- | tem cae- | lō soni- | tum dedit; || inde ae- | cētus. *Verg.*

Nota.—The *Bucolic Diacrisis* was avoided by the best Latin poets, even in treating pastoral subjects. Vergil, even in his Bucolics, uses it very sparingly.

3. A Diacrisis at the end of the third foot without any proper caesural pause is regarded as a blemish in the verse:

Pulveru- | lentus e- | quīs fuit; || omnēs | arma re- | quīrunt. *Verg.*

---

1 A single poem of Catullus, about half as long as a book of the Aeneid, contains more spondaic lines than all the works of Vergil.
2 But Vergil has two spondaic lines ending *et māgnis dis*; see *Aen.*, III, 12, and VIII, 679.
3 That is, the first rhythmic series ends at this point. This pause is always at the end of a word, and may be so very slight as in most cases not to interfere with the sense, even if no mark of punctuation is required; but the best verses are so constructed that the caesural pause coincides with a pause in the sense; see Christ, "Metrik," p. 184. According to some writers, the Dactylic Hexameter had its origin in the union of two earlier dactylic verses, and the caesural pause now marks the point of union; see Christ, p. 178.
4 The Masculine Caesura is also called the *Strong*, or the *Syllabic*, Caesura, the Feminine the *Weak*, or the *Trochaic*, Caesura. Caesurae are often named from the place which they occupy in the line. Thus a caesura after the arsis of the second foot is called *Trihemimeral*; after the arsis of the third, *Pentamimeral*; after the arsis of the fourth, *Hepthamimeral*.
5 Also called the *Bucolic Caesura*, as the term caesura is often made to include *caesura*.
4. The ending of a word within a foot always produces a caesura. A line may therefore have several caesuras, but generally only one of these is marked by any perceptible pause:

Arma vi- | rumque ca- | nō, || Trō- | jae qui | primus ab | òris. Verp.

Note.—Here there is a caesura in every foot except the last, but only one of these, that after caes, in the third foot, has the caesural pause.¹

5. The caesura, with or without the pause, is an important feature in every hexameter. A line without it is prosaic in the extreme:

Rōmāe | moenia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armis. Eaus.

Note 1.—The Penthemimeral caesura has great power to impart melody to the verse, but the best effect is produced when it is aided by other caesuras, as above.

Note 2.—A happy effect is often produced—

1) By combining the feminine caesura in the third foot with the hphemimeral and the trithemimeral:


2) By combining the hemimeral with the trithemimeral:

Inde to- | rō pater | Aenē- || ès èc | orsus ab | altā. Verp.

Note 3.—The union of the feminine caesura with the trithemimeral, common in Greek, is somewhat rare in Latin, but it sometimes produces an harmonious verse:


Note 4.—In the last two feet of the verse there should in general be no caesura whatever, unless it falls in the thesis of the fifth foot; but when that foot contains two entire words, a caesura is admissible after the arsis.

612. The ictus often falls upon unaccented syllables. Thus—

1. In the first, second, and fourth feet of the verse it falls sometimes upon accented and sometimes upon unaccented syllables; see examples under 610.

2. In the third foot it generally falls upon an unaccented syllable; see examples under 610.

3. In the fifth and sixth feet it generally falls upon accented syllables; see examples under 610.

613. The Last Word of the Hexameter is generally either a dissyllable or a trisyllable; see examples under 610 and 611.²

¹ The caesura with the pause is variously called the chief caesura, the caesura of the verse, the caesura of the rhythm, etc. In distinction from this any other caesura may be called a caesura, a caesura of the foot, or a minor caesura.

² See p. 386, foot-note 4.

³ The learner should be informed that the niceties of structure which belong to finished Latin hexameters must be sought only in the poems of Vergil and Ovid. The happiest disposition of caesuras, the best adjustment of the poetical ictus to the prose accent, and the most approved structure in the closing measures of the verse, can not be expected in the rude numbers of Ennius, in the scientific discussions of Lucretius, or even in the familiar Satires of Horace. Those interested in the peculiarities of Latin hexameters in different writers will find a discussion of the subject in Lucian Müller’s work. ‘Dō re metricā postārum Latinārum praefer Plantum et Torentium libri septem.’
DACTYLC VERSE.

NOTES. — Spondees are exceptions; see 610, 8, note.

NOTES. — Two monosyllables at the end of a line are not particularly objectionable, and sometimes even produce a happy effect:

Præcipi- | tant ci- | ræs, || tur- | bátæque | funere | múa est. Verg.

NOTES. — Est, even when not preceded by another monosyllable, may stand at the end of a line.

NOTES. — A single monosyllable, except est, is not often used at the end of the line, except for the purpose of emphasis or humor:

Parturi- | unt mon- | tás, || nás- | etur | ridiu- | lus múa. Hor.

NOTES. — In Vergil, twenty-one lines, apparently hypermetrical (603, note 8), are supposed to elide a final vowel or a final ow or os before the initial vowel of the next line; see Aen., L, 339; Georg., L, 293. See also 608, L, note 5.

II. OTHER DACTYLC VERSES.

614. DACTYLC PENTAMETER. — The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts separated by a diaeresis. Each part consists of two Dactyli and a long syllable. The Spondee may take the place of the Dactyl in the first part, but not in the second:

\[ \underline{\text{A}} \underline{\text{B}} \underline{\text{A}} || \underline{\text{A}} \underline{\text{B}} \underline{\text{A}} || \underline{\text{A}} \underline{\text{B}} \underline{\text{A}} || \underline{\text{A}} \underline{\text{B}} \underline{\text{A}} \text{, or} \]

\[ \underline{\text{A}} \underline{\text{B}} \underline{\text{A}} || \underline{\text{A}} \underline{\text{B}} \underline{\text{A}} || \underline{\text{A}} \underline{\text{B}} \underline{\text{A}} || \underline{\text{A}} \underline{\text{B}} \underline{\text{A}} \]

Admoni- | tás coe- | pt || fortior | esse tu- || é. Ovid.

615. ELEGiac DISTICH. — The Elegiac Distich consists of the Hexameter followed by the Pentameter:

Sémise | pultra vi- | rüm || sur- | vís fari- | untur s- | rárís
Ossae, ru- | inó- | sás || occultit | herba do- || múa. Ovid.

NOTES. — In reading the Elegiac Distich, the Pentameter, including pauses, should of course occupy the same time as the Hexameter.

NOTES. — Elegiac composition should be characterized by grace and elegance. Both members of the distich should be constructed in accordance with the most rigid rules of metre. The sense should be complete at the end of the couplet. Ovid furnishes us the best specimen of this style of composition.

616. The DACTYLC TETRAMETER is identical with the last four feet of the Hexameter:

Ibimus | ó soci- | 1, comi- | tásque. Hor.

1 The name Pentameter is founded on the ancient division of the line into five feet; the first and second being Dactyli or Spondees, the third a Spondeo, the fourth and fifth Anapaests.

2 In musical characters:

\[ \text{\textbf{\#}} \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} | \text{\textbf{\#}} \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} | \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} | \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} | \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} | \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} \text{, or} \]

\[ \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} | \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} | \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} | \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} | \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} | \text{\textbf{\textasciicircum}} \]

Thus, in reading Pentameters, a pause may be introduced after the long syllable in the third foot, or that foot may be lengthened so as to fill the measure.
TROCHAIC VERSE.

Notr.—In compound verses, as in the Greater Archilochian, the tetrameter in
composition with other metres has a Dactyl in the fourth place; see 638, X.

617. The DACTYLLIC TRIMETER CATALECTIC is identical with
the second half of the Dactylic Pentameter:
Arbor|busque oo|mae. Hor.

Notr.—The Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic is also known as the Lesser Archilochian.

III. TROCHAIC VERSE.

618. The TROCHAIC DIPODY, the measure in Trochaic verse,¹ consists of two Trochees, the second of which is sometimes irrational (598, 1, 1)—i. e., it has the form of a Spondee with the time
of a Trochee:

\[
\underleftarrow{\cdots}\underrightarrow{\cdots}
\]

Notr. 1.—By the ordinary law of equivalents (598), a Tribrach \(\underleftarrow{\cdots}\overrightarrow{\cdots}\) may take the
place of the Trochee \(\underleftarrow{\cdots}\), and an apparent Anapaest \(\underleftarrow{\cdots}\overrightarrow{\cdots}^{\cdots}\) the place of the Irrational
Trochee \(\underleftarrow{\cdots}\).² In proper names a cyclic Dactyl \(\underleftarrow{\cdots}\overrightarrow{\cdots}\) (598, 1, 3) may occur in either
foot.

Notr. 2.—In the Trochaic Dipody, the first foot has a heavier lotus than the second.

Notr. 3.—A syllable is sometimes prefixed to a Trochaic verse. A syllable thus used is called Anacrusis (upward beat), and is separated from the following measure by the
mark :.

619. The TROCHAIC DIMETER CATALECTIC consists of two TROCHAIC DIPODYs with the last foot incomplete. In Horace it admits
no equivalents, and has the following scale:

\[
\underleftarrow{\cdots}\overrightarrow{\cdots}\underleftarrow{\cdots}\overrightarrow{\cdots}
\]

Aula divi: tem manet. Hor.

Notr.—A Trochaic Tribrach occurs in the Greater Archilochian; see 628, X.

1. The Alcaic Enneasyllabic verse which forms the third line in the Alcaic stanza is a Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis:

\[
\underleftarrow{\cdots}\overrightarrow{\cdots}\underleftarrow{\cdots}\overrightarrow{\cdots}^{\cdots}
\]

Pu- : er quis ex au- : la capillis. Hor.

620. The TROCHAIC TETRAMETER CATALECTIC consists of four
Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. There is a diaeresis (602, 2) at the end of the fourth foot, and the incomplete dipody
admits no equivalents:

\[
\underleftarrow{\cdots}\overrightarrow{\cdots}\underleftarrow{\cdots}\overrightarrow{\cdots}\underleftarrow{\cdots}\overrightarrow{\cdots}\underleftarrow{\cdots}\overrightarrow{\cdots}^{\cdots}\]


¹ See 601, note 8, with foot-note.
² Thus in the second foot of a Trochaic Dipody the poet may use a Trochee, a Tribrach,
a Spondee, or an Anapaest; but the Spondee and the Anapaest are pronounced in the
same time as the Trochee or the Tribrach—i. e., they have irrational time.
³ Only the leading lotus of each dipody is here marked.
IAMBIC VERSE.

Norr 1.—This is simply the union of two Trochaic Dimeters, the first catalectic and the second catalectic, separated by diaeresis.¹

Norr 2.—In Latin this verse is used chiefly in comedy, and accordingly admits great licence in the use of feet. The Irrational Troches (598, 1, 1) and its equivalents may occur in any foot except in the last dipody.

Norr 3.—The Trochaic Tetrameter Acatalectic also occurs in the earlier poets:
Ipse summis | saevis fixis || asperis || visceratras. Hor.

IV. IAMBIC VERSE.

621. The IAMBIC DIPODY, the measure of Iambic verse, consists of two Iambi, the first of which is sometimes irrational (598, 1, 2) —i. e., it has the form of a Spondee with the time of an Iambus:

\[ \text{\textbullet \textbullet \textbullet \textbullet} \] or \[ \text{\textbullet \textbullet \textbullet} \]

Norr 1.—The Tribrach for the Iambus, and the Dactyl² or Anapaest³ for the Irrational Iambus, are rare, except in comedy.

Norr 2.—In the Ionic Dipody, the first foot has a heavier iambus than the second.

622. The IAMBIC TRIMETER, also called Senarius, consists of three Iambic Dipodies. The Caesura is usually in the third foot, but may be in the fourth:

\[ \text{\textbullet \textbullet \textbullet \textbullet} | \text{\textbullet \textbullet \textbullet} | \text{\textbullet \textbullet \textbullet} \]

Quid obsèrva- | tis || auribus | fundis procès! Hor.
Neptùnus al- | tò || tundit hi- | bernus salò. Hor.
Hás intér spu- | lás || ut juvat | pàstas ovês. Hor.⁴

1. In Proper Names, a Cyclic Anapaest is admissible in any foot except the last, but must be in a single word.

2. In Horace the only feet freely admitted are the Iambus and the Sponde; their equivalents, the Tribrach, the Dactyl, and the Anapaest, are used very sparingly. The Tribrach never occurs in the fifth foot and only once in the first. The Anapaest occurs only twice in all.

3. In Comedy great liberty is taken, and the Sponde and its equivalents are freely admitted in any foot except the last.

¹ Compare the corresponding English measure, in which the two parts appear as separate lines:

"Lives' of great men | all' remind us .
We' can make our | lives' sublime,
And', departing, | leave' behind us
Foot'prints on the | sands' of time."

² The Dactyl thus used has the time of an Iambus and is marked > \textbullet \textbullet \textbullet; the Anapaest is cyclo (598, 1, 4), marked \textbullet \textbullet \textbullet.

³ This same scale, divided thus, \textbullet \textbullet \textbullet | \textbullet \textbullet \textbullet | \textbullet \textbullet \textbullet | \textbullet \textbullet \textbullet \textbullet, represents Trochaic Tetrameter Catalectic with Anacrusis. Thus all Iambic verses may be treated as Trochaic verses with Anacrusis.

⁴ Compare the English Alexandrine, the last line of the Spenserian stanza:

When Phoe'bus lifts | his head' out of | the win'ter's wave.
4. The *Choliambus* is a variety of *Iambic Trimeter* with a Trochee in the sixth foot: ⁠¹
   Miser Catul- | le dēsinās | ineptre. *Catul.*

623. The *Iambic Trimeter Catalectic* occurs in Horace with the following scale:
   \[ \text{\u2013\u2013\u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013} \]
   Vosātus at- | que nōn vocā- | tus audit. *Hor.*

*Note.*—The Dactyl and the Anapaest are not admissible; the Tribrach occurs only in the second foot.

624. The *Iambic Dimeter* consists of two Iambic Dipodies:
   \[ \text{\u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013} \]
   Queruntur in | silvis avēs. *Hor.*
   Imbrēs nīvēs- | que comparat. *Hor.*
   Ast ego vīcis- | sim rīserō. *Hor.*

*Note 1.*—Horace admits the Dactyl only in the first foot, the Tribrach only in the second, the Anapaest not at all.

*Note 2.*—Iambic Dimeter is sometimes catalectic.

625. The *Iambic Tetrameter* consists of four Iambic Dipodies. It belongs chiefly to comedy:
   Quantum intellēx- | 1 modo senis || sententiam | dē nuptiās. *Ter.*

*Note.*—Iambic Tetrameter is sometimes catalectic:
   Quot commodās | rūs attulī? | quot aetem adē | mi currēs. *Ter.*

V. *IONIC VERSE.*

626. The Ionic Verse in Horace consists entirely of Lesser Ionics. It may be either Trimeter or Dimeter:
   \[ \text{\u2013\u2013\u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013\u2013\u2013} \]
   Neque pūgnō | neque sāgni | pede vīctus;
   Catus idem | per apertum. *Hor.*

*Note 1.*—In this verse the last syllable is not common, but is often long only by position (p. 883, foot-note 8). Thus us in *victus* is long before s in *catus*.

*Note 2.*—The *Ionic Tetrameter Catalectic*, also called *Sotadicon Verse*, occurs chiefly in comedy. It consists in general of Greater Ionics, but in Martial it has a Ditrochee as the third foot:
   \[ \text{\u2013\u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013\u2013} \]
   Hās cum geminis | nā compede | dēdicat ca- | tēnas. *Mart.*

¹ *Choliambus*, or *Scansion*, means *iams* or *Umping Iambus*, and is so called from its limping movement. It is explained as a Trochaic Trimeter Catalectic with Anacrusis, and with syncope (683, VII.) in the fifth foot. The example here given may be represented thus: \[ \text{\u2013\u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013\u2013 | \u2013\u2013\u2013} \]
LOGAOEDIC VERSE.

VI. LOGAOEDIC VERSE.

627. Logaedic \(^1\) Verse is a special variety of Trochaic Verse. The Irrational Trochee \(\sim >\), the Cyclic Dactyl \(\sim \omega\), and the Syncopeated Trochee \(\sim (\omega\omega\omega, \text{VII.) are freely admitted. It has an apparently light ictus.}\(^2\)

Novs.—Logaedic verses show great variety of form, but a few general types will indicate the character of the whole.

628. The following Logaedic verses appear in Horace:

I. The ADONIC:

\[\sim \omega | \sim \omega | \sim \omega \]

Montis f- | mágó. Hor.

II. The FIRST PHERECRATIC \(^4\) or the ARISTOPHANIC:

\[\sim \omega | \sim \omega | \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega \]

Cúr neque | mili- | táría. Hor.

Novs.—Pherecric is the technical term applied to the regular Logaedic Tripody. It is called the First or Second Pherecric according as its Dactyl occupies the first or the second place in the verse. In each form it may be acatalectic or catalectic:

1) \(\sim \omega | \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega ^\wedge\)

2) \(\sim > | \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega ^\wedge\)

In Logaedic verse the term base or base, marked \(\times\), is sometimes applied to the foot or feet which precede the Cyclic Dactyl. Thus, in the Second Pherecric, the first foot \(\sim >\) is the base.

III. The SECOND GLYCONIC \(^5\) CATALECTIC:

\[\sim > | \sim \omega | \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega \]

Dónece | grátus e- | ram ti- | \text{b. Hor.}

Novs. 1.—Glyconic is the technical term applied to the regular Logaedic Tetrapody. It is called the First, Second, or Third Glyconic according as its Dactyl occupies the first, second, or third place in the verse. In each form it may be either acatalectic or catalectic.

Novs. 2.—The Second Glyconic sometimes has a Syncope (608, VII.) in the third foot.

IV. The LESSER ASCLEPIADÉAN \(^6\) consists of two Catalectic Pherecratics, a Second and a First:

\[\sim > | \sim \omega | \sim \omega | \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega ^\wedge\]

Maeoe- | nás ata | vis | \text{èdite | règi}- | bus. Hor.

\(^1\) From λόγος, prose, and ἀδώνι, song, applied to verses which resemble prose.

\(^2\) The free use of long syllables in the thesis causes the postical ictus on the axis to appear less prominent.

\(^4\) Pherecric, Glyconic, and Asclepiadén verses may be explained as Choriambic:

Pherecric, \(\sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega ^\wedge\)

First Glyconic, \(\sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega ^\wedge\)

Asclepiadén, \(\sim > | \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega \sim \omega | \omega ^\wedge\)
V. The Greater Asclepiadæan consists of three catalectic verses, a Second Pherecratic, an Adonic, and a First Pherecratic:

\[ \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \bar{\alpha} \]

Seus plu- | réís hie- | mész, || seu tribu- | it || Júppiter | últi- | mam. Hor.

VI. The Lesser Sapphic consists of a Trochaic Dipody and a First Pherecratic:

\[ \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \bar{\alpha} \]

Namque | mé sil- | vâ lupus | in Sa- | bina. Hor.

VII. The Greater Sapphic consists of two Catalectic Glyconics, a Third and a First with Syncope:

\[ \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \bar{\alpha} \]

Inter | acqua- | lés equi- | tat, || Gallica | nec lu- | pâ- | tis. Hor.

VIII. The Lesser Alcaic consists of two Cyclic Dactyly and two Trochees:

\[ \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \]

Purpure- | ô vari- | us co- | lôre. Hor.

IX. The Greater Alcaic consists of a Trochaic Dipody with Anacrusis and a Catalectic First Pherecratic:

\[ \varepsilon : \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \varepsilon \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \varepsilon \mid \varepsilon \bar{\alpha} \]

Vi- | dés ut | alta | stet nive | candi- | dum. Hor.

X. The Greater Archilochian\(^1\) consists of a Dactylic Tetrameter (616) followed by a Trochaic Tripody. The first three feet are either Dactyls or Spondees; the fourth, a Dactyl; and the last three, Trochees:

\[ \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \]

Vitae | summa bre- | via spem | nos vetat, || inco- | are | longam. Hor.

Nore.—This verse may be explained either as Logaoedic or as Compound. With the first explanation, the Dactyls are cyclic and the Spondees have irrational time; with the second explanation, the first member of the verse has the Dactyl as its characteristic foot and the second member the Trochee; see 601, note 2.

629. The following Logaoedic verses not used in Horace deserve mention:

I. The Phalaeonian is a Logaoedic Pentapody:\(^2\)

\[ \varepsilon \varepsilon \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \mid \sim \varepsilon \mid \sim \varepsilon \mid \sim \bar{\alpha} \]

Nôns est | vivere, | sed va- | ôre | vita. Mart.

\(^1\) For the Lesser Archilochian, see 617, note.

\(^2\) This verse differs from the Lesser Sapphic in having the Dactyl in the second foot, while the latter has the Dactyl in the third.
II. The Second Priapic consists of two Catalectic Second Glyconics with Syncope:

\[ \text{Quercus} | \text{árida} | \text{rusti-} | \text{cà} | \text{consor-} | \text{matse} | \text{ca-} | \text{rl. Catul.}\]

SECTION III.

THE VERSIFICATION OF THE PRINCIPAL LATIN POETS.

630. Vergil and Juvenal use the Dactylic Hexameter; Ovid, the Hexameter in his Metamorphoses and the Elegiac Distich in his Epistles and other works; Horace, the Hexameter in his Epistles and Satires, and a variety of metres in his Odes and Epodes.

LYRIC METRES OF HORACE.

631. For convenience of reference, an outline of the lyric metres of Horace is here inserted.

Stanzas of Four Verses or Lines.

I. ALCAIC STANZA.—First and second lines, Greater Alcaics (628, IX.); third, Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis (619, I); fourth, Lesser Alcaic (628, VIII.):

1. \( \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)
2. \( \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)
3. \( \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)
4. \( - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)

In thirty-seven Odes: I, 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; II., 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; III., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; IV., 4, 9, 14, 15.

II. SAPPHIC STANZA.—The first three lines, Lesser Sapphics (628, VI.); the fourth, Adonic (628, I):

1. \( \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)
2. \( \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)
3. \( \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)
4. \( - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)

In twenty-six Odes: I, 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 26, 30, 32, 38; II., 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; III., 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; IV., 2, 11; and Secular Hymn.

III. GREATER SAPPHIC STANZA.—First and third lines, First Glyconics Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (608, VII.); second and fourth lines, Greater Sapphics:

1. \( \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)
2. \( \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)
3. \( \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)
4. \( - \text{E} | - \text{E} | - \text{E} | \text{E} \)
LYRIC METRES OF HORACE. 365

2. \{ \sim \mid \rightarrow | \sim \mid \ll | \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

In Ode I., 8.

IV. FIRST ASCLEPIADÆAN GLYCNONIC STANZA.—The first three lines, Lesser Asclepiadæans (§§ 28, IV.); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (§§ 28, III.):

1. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

2. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

3. \}

4. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

In nine Odes: I., 6, 15, 24, 33; II., 12; III., 10, 16; IV., 5, 12.

V. SECOND ASCLEPIADÆAN GLYCNONIC STANZA.—The first two lines, Lesser Asclepiadæans (§§ 28, IV.); the third, Second Glyconic Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (§§ 28, III., note 2); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (§§ 28, III.):

1. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

2. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

3. \}

4. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

In seven Odes: I., 5, 14, 21, 23; III., 7, 13; IV., 18.

VI. GLYCNONIC ASCLEPIADÆAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Second Glyconics Catalectic (§§ 28, III.); second and fourth, Lesser Asclepiadæans (§§ 28, IV.):

1. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

2. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

3. \}

4. \}

In twelve Odes: I., 3, 13, 19, 36; III., 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; IV., 1, 8.

VII. LESSER ASCLEPIADÆAN STANZA.—Four Lesser Asclepiadæans:

1. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

2. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

3. \}

4. \}

In three Odes: I., 1; III., 30; IV., 8.

VIII. GREATER ASCLEPIADÆAN STANZA.—Four Greater Asclepiadæans (§§ 28, V.):

1. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

2. \{ \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \sim \mid \kappa \wedge

3. \}

4. \}

In three Odes: I., 11, 18; IV., 10.
IX. Double Alcaic Stanza.—First and third lines, Dactylic Hexameters (610); second and fourth, Dactylic Tetrameters (616):

1. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty \\
2. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty \\
3. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty \\
4. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty |

In two Odes: L, 7, 28.

Note.—This stanza is formed by the union of two Alcaic stanzas; see XIX. below.

X. Trochaic Stanza.—First and third lines, Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic (619); second and fourth, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (623):

1. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty |
2. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty |
3. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty |
4. \{ \infty | \infty |

In Ode II., 18.

XI. Dactylic Archilochian Stanza.—First and third lines, Dactylic Hexameters; second and fourth, Catalectic Dactylic Trimeters (617, note):

1. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty |
2. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty |
3. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty |
4. \{ \infty | \infty |

In Ode IV., 7.

XII. Greater Archilochian Stanza.—First and third lines, Greater Archilochians (628, X.); second and fourth, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (623):

1. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty |
2. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty |
3. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty |
4. \{ \infty | \infty |

In Ode I., 4.

Note.—The second and fourth lines are sometimes read with syncope, as follows:

\[ \infty : \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty | \infty \]

XIII. Ionic Stanza.—First and second lines, Ionic Dimeters (626); third and fourth, Ionic Trimeters (626):

1. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty |
2. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty |
3. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty |
4. \{ \infty | \infty | \infty |

In Ode III., 12.

Note.—This ode is variously arranged in different editions, sometimes in stanzas of three lines and sometimes of four.
LYRIC METRES OF HORACE.

Stanzas of Three Lines.

XIV. FIRST ARCHILOCCHIAN STANZA.—First line, Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter; third, Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic:

1. \( \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim \)
2. \( \varepsilon \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim \sim \)
3. \( \sim \sim \varepsilon | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim \)

In Epode 13.

Note.—In some editions, the second and third lines are united.

XV. SECOND ARCHILOCCHIAN STANZA.—First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic; third, Iambic Dimeter:

1. \( \varepsilon \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim \)
2. \( \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim \)
3. \( \varepsilon \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim \sim \)

In Epode 11.

Note.—In some editions, the second and third lines are united.

Stanzas of Two Lines.

XVI. IAMBIQUE STANZA.—First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Iambic Dimeter:

1. \( \varepsilon \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim \)
2. \( \varepsilon \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim \sim \)

In the first ten Epodes.

XVII. FIRST PYTHIAMBIC STANZA.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter (624):

1. \( \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim \)
2. \( \varepsilon \sim \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim \sim \)

In Epodes 14 and 15.

XVIII. SECOND PYTHIAMBIC STANZA.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Trimeter:

1. \( \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim \)
2. \( \varepsilon \sim \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim \sim \)

In Epode 16.

XIX. ALCMANIAN STANZA.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Dactylic Tetramer:

1. \( \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim \)
2. \( \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim \)

In Epode 12.

Not grouped into Stanzas.

XX. IAMBIQUE TRIMETER:

\( \varepsilon \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim | \varepsilon \sim \sim \sim \)

In Epode 17.
## METRES OF CATULLUS.

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<td>VIII.</td>
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<td>II.</td>
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<td>XIII.</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>II.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>II.</td>
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<td>IV.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>VI.</td>
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<td>L</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>IV.</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>I.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>II.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>VI.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I.</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 633. The metres of the following poets must be briefly mentioned:

I. **Catullus** uses chiefly (1) the Elegiac Distich (615); (2) Phalaecian
verse (622, I); (8) Choliambus or Scason (622, 4); (4) Iambic Trimeter (622); (5) Priapean (629, II).

II. Martial uses largely the Choliambus or Scason and the Phalaecian verse.

Notes 1.—Martial also uses Iambic and Dactylic measures.
Notes 2.—Seneca in his choral odes imitates the lyric metres of Horace. He uses Sapphics very freely, and often combines them into systems closing with the Adonic.
Notes 3.—Seneca also uses Anapaestic verse with Spondees and Dactyls as equivalents. This consists of one or more dipodies:

Venient annis | saecula æternæ.

III. Plautus and Terence use chiefly various Iambic and Trochaic metres, but they also use—

1. **Bacchiac** metre, generally Tetrameter or Dimeter:
   Multās rēs | simil'tū in | meō' cor- | de vor'sō. *Plaut.*
   At ta'men ubī | fidēs' t si | rogē's', nil | pendent' hie. *Ter.*

   Note.—The Molosus, — — —, may take the place of the Bacchius, as in meātūs rēs, and the long syllables may be resolved, as in at tamen ubi.

2. **Cretic** metre, generally Tetrameter or Dimeter:
   Nam' dole | nōn' dole | sunt', nisi as- | tā' colēs. *Plaut.*
   Ut' mals | gau'deant | at'que ex in- | com'modis. *Ter.*

   Note 1.—Plautus also uses Anapaestic metres, especially Dimeters:
   Quod asō' subit, ad- | secus' sequitur. *Plaut.*

   This measure admits Dactyls and Spondees, rarely Proceleusamatics, — — — —

   Note 2.—For Trochaic and Iambic Metres in Comedy, see 630, note 2; 632, 3.
   Note 3.—For *Special Peculiarities* in the prosody of Plautus and Terence, see 576, notes 2 and 3; 578, note 2; 580, notes 2, 3, and 4.
   Note 4.—On the free use of *Synferesis* in Comedy, see 633, III., note 3.

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1 See 663, note 1; 597, note 1.
2 For a full account of the metres of Plautus and Terence, see editions of these poets; as the edition of Plautus by Ritseh, of a part of Plautus by Harrington, the edition of Terence by Wagner, and the edition by Crowell; also Spengel, 'Plautus: Kritik, Prosodie, Metrik.'
APPENDIX.

I. FIGURES OF SPEECH.

634. A Figure is a deviation from the ordinary form, construction, or signification of words.

Note.—Deviations from the ordinary forms are called Figures of Etymology; from the ordinary constructions, Figures of Syntax; and from the ordinary significations, Figures of Rhetoric.

635. The principal Figures of Etymology are—
1. ANAPHORIS, the taking of one or more letters from the beginning of a word: 'at for est.
2. SYNCOPE, the taking of one or more letters from the middle of a word: diex for diœces.
3. APOCRYPHA, the taking of one or more letters from the end of a word: max' for maxime.
4. EPELEPSIS, the insertion of one or more letters in a word: Alumina for Alumina.
5. MOUTH, the transposition of letters: pietas for pilitæ.
6. See also Figures of Prosody, 868.

636. The principal Figures of Syntax are—
I. ELLIPSIS, the omission of one or more words of a sentence:
Habitabat ad Iovis (ac. templum), he dwelt near the temple of Jupiter. Liv.
Hic illus arma (suo), hic currus fuit, here were her arms, here her chariot.
Verg.
1. ASYNDETON is an ellipsis of a conjunction:1
Ved, vid, etc., I came, I saw, I conquered. Suet. See also 554, I, 6, with note 1.
2. For the ELLIPSIS of fas pò, diòb, etc., see 368, 2, note 1; 533, I, note; 568, II, 2.
3. For APOCRYPHA of Hecatom, see 637, XI, 9.

II. BRACHYLOGY, a concise and abridged form of expression:
Nostri Graeci nesciunt nec Graeci Latinê, our people do not know Greek and the Greeks (do not) know Latin. Cic. Natùra hominis belùs antecédit, the nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes. Cic.
1. ZOOGMA employs a word in two or more connections, though strictly applicable only in one:
Pacem an bellum gerÌna,8 whether at peace or waging war. Sall. Ducès plotáque eütre carinæ, slov the leaders and burn the painted ships. Verg.

1 Asynedeton is sometimes distinguished according to its use, as Adverbesation, Ex
dication, Enumeratification, etc.; see Nagelsbach, 'Stilistik,' § 200.
2 Here nesciunt suggests scient, and débile in the second example is equivalent to débile nátura.
3 Gerìna, applicable only to bellum, is here used also of pacem.
2. *Syllepsis* is the use of an adjective with two or more nouns, or of a verb with two or more subjects:

Pater et mater mortui sunt, *father and mother are dead* (439). Ter. Tu et Tullia valetis, *you and Tullia are well*. Cic.

III. **Pleonasm** is a full, redundant, or emphatic form of expression:

Erant itineris duo, quibus itineribus extra possent, *there were two ways by which ways they might depart*. Cæs. Eurusque Notusque ruunt, *both Eurus and Notus rush forth*. Verg.

1. **POLYSYNDTON** is a pleonasm in the use of conjunctions, as in the last example.

2. **HENDIADYS** is the use of two nouns with a conjunction, instead of a noun with an adjective or genitive:

Arms virisque *for arms armâts, with armed men*. Tsc.

3. **ANAPHEOSIS** is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses:

Mé cuncta Italia, mé universa civitâté cons规模以上 déclarâvit, *me all Italy, me the whole state declared cons*. Cic.

4. **Epiphora** is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses:

Laetus návus est, dōctus erat, *Laetus was diligent, was learned*. Cic.

5. **ERustralis** is the emphatic repetition of a word:

Fuit, fuit quondam in hâc ré públicâ virtús, *there was, there was formerly virtue in this republic*. Cic.

6. *Monosyllabic* prepositions are often repeated before successive nouns, regularly so with *et*—*et*:

Et in bellis et in civilitâb officiis, *both in military and in civil offices*. Cic.

**Note.**—Other prepositions are sometimes repeated.

7. A demonstrative pronoun or adverb—*id, hic, illud, etc.*, etc.—is often used somewhat redundantly to represent a subsequent clause. So also *quid, in quid consûtis with a clause*:

Illud lato ut diligitis sta, *I ask you (that thing) to be (that you be) diligent*. Cic.

8. Pronouns are often redundant with *quidem*; see 450, 4, note 2.

9. *Pleonasm* often occurs with *licet*:

Ut licet permititur = *licet, it is lawful* (is permitted that it is, etc.). Cic.

10. Circumlocutions with *ris, genus, modus, and ratio* are common.

IV. **Enallage** is the substitution of one part of speech for another, or of one grammatical form for another:


1. **Antithesis** is the use of one part of speech for another, as in the first two examples.

2. **Hyphallage** is the use of one case for another, as in the last two examples.

3. **Prolepsis** or **Anticipation** is the application of an epithet in anticipation of the action of the verb:

Scítis latentís conducunt, *they conceal their hidden shields*. Verg. See also 449, 2.

4. **Synecdoche** is a construction according to sense, without regard to grammatical forms. For examples, see 438, 6; 448, 5; 461.

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1 *Pleonasm*, a full or emphatic expression, differs widely from *Tautology*, which is a needless repetition of the same meaning in different words.
APPENDIX.

5. Attraction unites in construction words not united in sense:
Animal quem (for quod) vocamus hominem, the animal which we call man. Cic.
See also 4.45, 4, 6, and 9.

6. Anapólœthos is a want of harmony in the construction of the different parts of a sentence:
Sit ut dicamus, omnis Græci esse (Græs sunt), if, as they say, all are Greeks. Cic.

V. Hýperbaton is a transposition of words or clauses:
Præter arma nihil erat super (supererat), nothing remained, except their arms. Nep. Valet atque vivit (vivit atque valet), he is alive and well. Ter.
Subeunt lacæ, fluviumque reliquunt, they enter the grove and leave the river. Verg.

1. Anastrophe is the transposition of words only, as in the first example.
2. Hysterion Proteron is a transposition of clauses, as in the last example.
3. Threnos is the separation of the parts of a compound word:
Nec plus respéxi quam venimus, nor did I look back before (sooner than) we arrived. Verg.

4. Chlorismus is an inverted arrangement of words in contrasted groups; see 562.

637. Figures of Rhetoric comprise several varieties. The following are the most important:

I. A Simile is a direct comparison:
Mamæ effugit imméns pár levisbus ventis volucrīque simillima somnò, the image, like the swift winds, and very like a fleeting dream, escaped my hands. Verg.

II. Metaphor is an implied comparison, and assigns to one object the appropriate name, epithet, or action of another:
Rēs publicae vulnus (for damnōm), the wound of the republic. Cic. Naufragium fortūnæ, the wreck of fortune. Cic. Auriæ véritati clauses sunt, his ears are closed against the truth. Cic.

1. Allegory is an extended metaphor, or a series of metaphors. For an example, see Horace, L., Ode 14: Ô nāvis . . . occupā portum, etc.

III. Metonymy is the use of one name for another naturally suggested by it:
Aequō Mārti (for proelio) pugnātum est, they fought in an equal contest.

NOTE.—By this figure the cause is often put for the effect, and the effect for the cause; the property for the possessor, the place or age for the people, the sign for the thing signified, the material for the manufactured article, etc.: Mārti for bellum, Vulcānus for ignis, Bacchus for vinum, nōbilitās for nōbiús, Græcia for Græch, laurea for victoria, argentum for oras argentae, etc.

1 On Figurative Language, see the eighth and ninth books of Quintilian, 'Dé Institutione Oratôriâ,' and the fourth book of 'Anctor ad Herennium' in Cicero's works.

2 In this beautiful allegory the poet represents the vessel of state as having been well-nigh wrecked in the storms of the civil war, but as now approaching the haven of peace.
1. *Autonomacia* designates a person by some title or office, as *tesseract* Kartháginis for Scipio, Románus eloquentiae princeps for Cicero.

IV. *Synecdoche* is the use of a part for the whole, or of the whole for a part; of the special for the general, or of the general for the special:

Statiō male fida cartis (návibus), a station unsafe for ships. Verg.

V. *Irony* is the use of a word for its opposite:

Légātōs bonus (for malus) imperātor vester nōn admisit, your good commander did not admit the ambassador. Liv. See also 507, 3, note 1.

Note.—Metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, and irony are often called Tropes.

VI. *Climax* (ladder) is a steady ascent or advance in interest:

Africānō industria virtūtem, virtūs glōriam, glōria semulās comparāvit, industry procured virtue for Africanus, virtue glory, glory rivals. Cic.

VII. *Hyperbole* is an exaggeration:

Ventīs et fulminīs òcior ātis, swifter than the winds and the wings of the lightning. Verg.

VIII. *Litotes* denies something instead of affirming the opposite:

Non opus est = permiciōsum est, it is not necessary. Cic.

IX. *Personification or Prosopopoeia* represents inanimate objects as living beings:

Cārus latus ille mūcrō petēbat? whose side did that weapon seek? Cic.¹

X. *Apostrophe* is an address to inanimate objects or to absent persons:


XI. The following figures deserve brief mention:

1. *Alliteration*, a repetition of the same letter at the beginning of successive words:

Vi victa via est, force was conquered by force. Cic. Fortissimī virtūs, the virtue of a most brave man. Cic.

2. *Apophasis or Paralkipsis*, a pretended omission:²

Non dixō tē peconiās' accīpisse; rapīnās tuās omnēs omittō, I do not state that you accepted money; I omit all your acts of rapine. Cic.

3. *Aposiopesis or Reticentia*, an ellipsis which for rhetorical effect leaves the sentence unfinished:

Quō ego—sed mōtōs praestāt compōnere fluctūs, whom I—but it is better to calm the troubled waves. Verg.

4. *Euphemism*, the use of mild or agreeable language on unpleasant subjects:

St quid mihi humanitās accidisset, if anything common to the lot of man should befall me—i. e., if I should die. Cic.

¹ See also First Oration against Catiline, VII: Qase tōcum... tacitā leqūitur, etc.
² Sometimes called *occupātīd*. 
5. **Onomatopoeia**, the use of a word in imitation of a special sound:

6. **Oxymoron**, an apparent contradiction:
   Absentēs adsunt et agentēs abundant, *the absent are present and the needy have an abundance*. Cic.

7. **Paronomasia** or **Agnomination**, a play upon words:
   Hunc avium dulcedō dācit ad ávium,¹ *the attraction of birds leads him to the pathless wood*. Cic.

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**II. Latin Language and Literature.**

638. The Latin derives its name from the *Latini* or *Latines*, the ancient inhabitants of Latium in Italy. It belongs to the *Indo-European* or *Aryan* family, which embraces seven groups of tongues known as the *Indian* or *Sanskrit*, the *Persian* or *Zend*, the *Greek*, the *Italian*, the *Celtic*, the *Slavonic*, and the *Teutonic* or *Germanic*. The Latin is the leading member of the Italian group, which also embraces the *Umbrian* and the *Ocean*. All these languages have one common system of inflection, and in various respects strikingly resemble each other. They are the descendants of one common speech spoken by a single race of men untold centuries before the dawn of history.

**Nota 1.**—In illustration of the relationship between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English, compare the following paradigms of declension:²

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<td>ped,</td>
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<td>wōdē,</td>
<td>pēdē,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
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<td>wōdēs,</td>
<td>pedēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>pade,</td>
<td>wōdē,</td>
<td>pedī,</td>
</tr>
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<td>pādām,</td>
<td>wōdēs,⁰</td>
<td>pedēm,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>padēs,</td>
<td>wōdēs,</td>
<td>pedēs,⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ins.</td>
<td>pade,</td>
<td>wōdēs,</td>
<td>pedēs,⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loc.</td>
<td>padi,</td>
<td>wōdēs,</td>
<td>pedēs,⁴</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| PLURAL. | | | |
| Nom., | pādēs, | pedēs, | foot. |
| Voc. | pādēs, | pedēs, | foot. |
| Gen. | pādēs, | pedēs, | of feet. |
| Dat. | pādēs, | pedēs, | to feet. |
| Acc. | pādēs, | pedēs, | from feet. |
| Abl. | pādēs, | pedēs, | with feet. |
| Ins. | pādēs, | pedēs, | in feet. |

¹ The pun, lost in English, is in the use of *āvium*, a remote or pathless place, with *āvium*, of birds.
² See also p. 71, foot-note 2; p. 88, foot-note 8.
³ The *Ablative*, the *Instrumental*, and the *Locative* are lost in Greek, but their places are supplied by the *Genitives* and the *Datives*.
⁴ The final consonant, probably *s* of the original *Ablative* ending is changed to *s* in *padēs* and dropped in *pedēs*. The *Instrumental* and the *Locative* are lost in Latin, but their places are supplied by the *Ablative*. 
Latin Language.

Nota 3.—In these paradigms observe that the initial p in pod, pod-, pod-, becomes f in foot, and that the final d becomes t. This change is in accordance with Grimm's Law of the Rotation of Mutes in the Germanic languages. This law is as follows:

The Primitive Mutes, which generally remain unchanged in Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, are changed in passing into the Germanic languages, to which the English belongs. Thus the Sonants, d, g, in passing into English, become burs, t, k; the Burda, c, k, p, t, become Aspirates, k, toh, f (for ph), dh; the Aspirates, bh, dh, ph, become Sonants, b, d, g.  

Nota 4.—The relationship between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English may be abundantly illustrated by comparing the forms of familiar words in these different languages.  

639. The earliest specimens of Latin whose date can be determined are found in ancient inscriptions, and belong to the latter part of the fourth century before Christ or to the beginning of the third. Fragments, however, of laws, hymns, and sacred formulas, doubtless of an earlier though uncertain date, have been preserved in Cato, Livy, Cicero, and other Latin writers.

1 Bh generally is represented in Latin by b or f; dh by d or f, and gh by g, h, or f; see Schleicher, pp. 244-251.  
2 For an account of Grimm's Law, with its applications, see Max Müller, 'Science of Language,' Second Series, Lecture V.; Papillon, pp. 85-91.  
3 Compare the following:

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<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>δικ</td>
<td>dno</td>
<td>two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>traya</td>
<td>τρέτα</td>
<td>trés</td>
<td>three</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qai</td>
<td>ἕτος</td>
<td>sex</td>
<td>six</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sepita</td>
<td>ἑπτά</td>
<td>septem</td>
<td>seven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>daça</td>
<td>δέκα</td>
<td>decem</td>
<td>ten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dvis</td>
<td>δίς</td>
<td>bís</td>
<td>twice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trís</td>
<td>τρίς</td>
<td>ter</td>
<td>thrice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matá</td>
<td>μητέρα</td>
<td>mater</td>
<td>mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pitá</td>
<td>πατέρα</td>
<td>pater</td>
<td>father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>náus</td>
<td>ναῦς</td>
<td>návis</td>
<td>navy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vák</td>
<td>υᾶξ</td>
<td>vox</td>
<td>voice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 Such are the ancient forms of prayer found in Cato and other writers, the fragments of Sullan hymns, of the formulas of the Festal priests, and of ancient laws, especially of the laws of the Twelve Tables. The following inscription on the tomb of the Scipios shows some of the peculiarities of early Latin:

| HONOR OINO | FLORIVM | CONSENTIUNT | R |
| DVNOCRO | OPTIMO | FYE | VERO |
| LYCIUM | SCIPIONE | FILIOS | SABBATT |
| CONSOL | CENSOR | AIDILIS | HOC | FYET | A |
| HEC | CEPIT | CORSICA | ALEMIACVS | YRBS |
| DEDAT | TEMPESTATEBUS | AIDE | MERETO |

In ordinary Latin:

Hunc fnum plurim consientient Bogad
bonorum optimum fuisse virum evorum,
Luctum Scipione. Filius Barbati
cosam, censor, sedili hoc fuit apud eda.
Hic cepit Coriscam Alaricaque urbem paganae;
dedit tempestatibus sedem meritis est esse.

See Wordsworth, 'Early Latin,' Part II; F. D. Allen, 'Early Latin'; Roby, I., p. 418.
APPENDIX.

640. The history of Roman literature begins with Livius Andronicus, a writer of plays, and the earliest Roman author known to us. It embraces about eight centuries, from 250 B.C. to 550 A.D., and has been divided by Dr. Freund into three principal periods. These periods, with their principal authors, are as follows:

I. The Ante-Classical Period, from 250 to 81 B.C.:

Ennius, Plautus, Terence, Lucretius.

II. The Classical Period, embracing—

1. The Golden Age, from 81 B.C. to 14 A.D.:

Cicero, Nepos, Horace, Tibullus,
Caesar, Livy, Ovid, Propertius,
Sallust, Vergil, Catullus.

2. The Silver Age, from 14 to 180 A.D.:

Phaedrus, The Plinies, Quintilian, Persius,
Velleius, Tacitus, Suetonius, Lucan,
The Senecas, Curtius, Juvenal, Martial.

III. The Post-Classical Period, embracing—

1. The Brass Age, from 180 to 476 A.D.:

Justin, Eutropius, Lactantius, Claudian,
Victor, Macrobius, Ausonius, Terentian.

2. The Iron Age, from 476 to 550 A.D.:

Boethius, Cassiodorus, Justinian, Priscian.

III. THE ROMAN CALENDAR.

641. The Julian Calendar of the Romans is the basis of our own, and is identical with it in the number of months in the year and in the number of days in the months.

642. Peculiarities.—The Roman calendar has the following peculiarities:

I. The days were not numbered from the beginning of the month, as with us, but from three different points in the month:

1. The Calends, the first of each month.
2. The Nones, the fifth—but the seventh in March, May, July, and October.
3. The Ides, the thirteenth—but the fiftenth in March, May, July, and October.

II. From these three points the days were numbered, not forward, but backward.

Note.—Hence, after the Ides of each month, the days were numbered from the Calends of the following month.

III. In numbering backward from each of these points, the day before
ROMAN CALENDAR.

Each was denoted by pridēs Kalendēs, Nōnēs, etc.; the second before each by div tertīō (not secundō) ante Kalendēs, etc.; the third, by div quartō, etc.; and so on through the month.

1. This peculiarity in the use of the numerals, designating the second day before the Calends, etc., as the third, and the third as the fourth, etc., arises from the fact that the Calends, etc., were themselves counted as the first. Thus pridēs Kalendēs becomes the second before the Calends, div tertīō ante Kalendēs, the third, etc.

2. In dates the name of the month is added in the form of an adjective in agreement with Kalendēs, Nōnēs, etc., as, div quartō ante Nōndēs Jānūrīās, often shortened to quartō ante Nōndēs Jān., or IV. ante Nōndēs Jān., or without ante, as, IV. Nōndēs Jān., the second of January.

3. Ante diem is common, instead of div—ante, as, ante diem quartum Nōndēs Jān., for div quartō ante Nōndēs Jān.

4. The expressions ante diem Kal., etc., pridēs Kal., etc., are often used as invariable nouns with a preposition, as, ex ante diem V. Ídēs Oct., from the 11th of Oct. Ídeo. Ad pridēs Nōndēs Māēsēs, till the 6th of May. Ídeo.

643. CALENDAR FOR THE YEAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days of the Month</th>
<th>March, May, July, October</th>
<th>January, August, December</th>
<th>April, June, September, November</th>
<th>February</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Kalendēs</td>
<td>Kalendēs</td>
<td>Kalendēs</td>
<td>Kalendēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>VI. Nōnēs</td>
<td>IV. Nōnēs</td>
<td>IV. Nōnēs</td>
<td>IV. Nōnēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>Pridēs Nōnēs</td>
<td>Pridēs Nōnēs</td>
<td>Pridēs Nōnēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>Nōnēs</td>
<td>Nōnēs</td>
<td>Nōnēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Pridēs Nōnēs</td>
<td>VII. Idēs</td>
<td>VII. Idēs</td>
<td>VII. Idēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Nōnēs</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>VI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>VII. Idēs</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>IV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>Pridēs Idēs</td>
<td>Pridēs Idēs</td>
<td>Pridēs Idēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>Idēbās</td>
<td>Idēbās</td>
<td>Idēbās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Pridēs Idēa</td>
<td>XIX. Kalendēs</td>
<td>XVIII. Kalendēs</td>
<td>XVI. Kalendēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Idēns</td>
<td>XVII.</td>
<td>XVII.</td>
<td>XV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>XIX. Kalendēs</td>
<td>XV.</td>
<td>XV.</td>
<td>XV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>XVI.</td>
<td>XIV.</td>
<td>XIV.</td>
<td>XIV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>XV.</td>
<td>XII.</td>
<td>XII.</td>
<td>XII.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>XIV.</td>
<td>XI.</td>
<td>XI.</td>
<td>XI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>XIII.</td>
<td>X.</td>
<td>X.</td>
<td>X.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>XII.</td>
<td>IX.</td>
<td>IX.</td>
<td>IX.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>XI.</td>
<td>VIII.</td>
<td>VIII.</td>
<td>VIII.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>X.</td>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>VII.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>IX.</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>VI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>VIII.</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td>V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>IV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Pridēs Kalendēs</td>
<td>Pridēs Kalendēs</td>
<td>Pridēs Kalendēs</td>
<td>Pridēs Kalendēs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 To the Calends, Nones, etc., the name of the month must of course be added. Before Nōnēs, Ídēa, etc., ante is sometimes used and sometimes omitted (642, III. 2).

2 The Calends of the following month are of course meant; the 16th of March, for instance, is XVII. Kalendēs Aprilēs.

3 The inclosed forms apply to leap-year.
APPENDIX.

644. ENGLISH AND LATIN DATES.—The table (643) will furnish the learner with the English expression for any Latin date, or the Latin expression for any English date; but it may be convenient also to have the following rule:

I. If the day is numbered from the Nones or Ides, subtract the number diminished by one from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fall:

VIII. ante Idas Jan. = 13 — (8 — 1) = 13 — 7 = 6th of January.

II. If the day is numbered from the Calends of the following month, subtract the number diminished by two from the number of days in the current month:


Note.—In leap-year the 24th and the 25th February are both called the sixth before the Calends of March, VI. Kal. Mart. The days before the 24th are numbered as if the month contained only 28 days, but the days after the 25th are numbered regularly for a month of 29 days: V., IV., III. Kal. Mart., and prid. Kal. Mart.

645. The Roman day, from sunrise to sunset, and the night, from sunset to sunrise, were each divided at all seasons of the year into twelve hours.

1. The night was also divided into four watches of three Roman hours each.

2. The hour, being uniformly 1/12 of the day or of the night, of course varied in length with the length of the day or night at different seasons of the year.

IV. ROMAN MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

646. The principal Roman coins were the denarius, of copper; the sesterius, quinarius, denarius, of silver; and the aureus, of gold. Their value in the classical period may be approximately given as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coin</th>
<th>Approximate Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>As</td>
<td>1 to 2 cents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sestertius</td>
<td>5 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quinarius</td>
<td>10 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denarius</td>
<td>20 &quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aureus = 25 denarii</td>
<td>$5.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The denarius, the unit of the Roman currency, contained originally a pound of copper, but it was diminished from time to time till at last it contained only 1/24 of a pound.

Note.—An denarius, whatever its weight, was divided into twelve unciae.

2. The sesterius contained originally 21/4 denarii, the quinarius 5, and the denarius 10; but as the denarius depreciated in value, the number of denarii in these coins was increased.

3. The denarius is also used as a general unit of measure. Thus—

1) In Weight, the denarius is a pound, and the uncia an ounce.

2) In Measure, the denarius is a foot or a jupiter (648, IV. and V.), and the uncia is 1/12 of a foot or of a jupiter.

3) In Interest, the denarius is the unit of interest—i. e., 1 per cent. a month,
or 12 per cent. a year; the uncia is $\frac{1}{12}$ per cent. a month, or 1 per cent. a year; and the semis is $\frac{1}{24}$ per cent. a month, or 6 per cent. a year, etc.

4) In Inheritance, the as is the whole estate, and the uncia $\frac{1}{12}$ of it: heres ex asse, heir of the whole estate; heres ex dodrante, heir of $\frac{1}{12}$.

647. Computation of Money.—In all sums of money the common unit of computation was the sesteriūs, also called nummus; but four special points deserve notice:

I. In all sums of money, the units, tens, and hundreds are denoted by sesteriūs with the proper cardinals:

Quinque sesteriūs, 5 sesterces; viginti sesteriūs, 20 sesterces; ducenti sesteriūs, 200 sesterces.

II. One thousand sesterces are denoted by mille sesteriūs, or mille sesterciūm.

III. In sums less than 1,000,000 sesterces, the thousands are denoted either (1) by milia sesterciūm (gen. plur.), or (2) by sestertia:

Duo milia sesterciūm, or duo sestertia, 2,000 sesterces; quinque milia sesterciūm, or quinque sestertia, 5,000 sesterces.

Note.—With sestertia the distributives are generally used, as, dīna sestertia.

IV. In sums containing one or more millions of sesterces, sesterciūm with the value of 100,000 sesterces is used with the proper numeral adverb, deciēs, viciēs, etc. Thus—

Deciēs sesterciūm, 1,000,000 (10 × 100,000) sesterces; viciēs sesterciūm, 2,000,000 (20 × 100,000) sesterces.

1. Sesterciūm.—In the examples under IV., sesterciūm is treated as a neuter noun in the singular, though originally it was probably the genitive plural of sestertius, and the full expression for 1,000,000 sesterces was Deciēs centēna milia sesterciūm. Centēna milia was afterward generally omitted, and finally sesterciūm lost its force as a genitive plural, and became a neuter noun in the singular, capable of declension.

2. Sometimes sesterciūm is omitted, leaving only the numeral adverb: as, deciēs, 1,000,000 sesterces.

3. The sign HS is often used for sestertius, and sometimes for sestertia, or sesterciūm:

Decem HS = 10 sesterces (HS = sestertius). Dēna HS = 10,000 sesterces (HS = sestertia). Deciēs HS = 1,000,000 sesterces (HS = sesterciūm).

648. Weights and Measures.—The following weights and measures deserve mention:

I. The Libra, also called Ās or Pondō, equal to about 11½ ounces avoirdupois, is the basis of Roman weights.

1. The Libra, like the as in money, is divided into 12 parts.

II. The Modius, equal to about a peck, is the basis of dry measure.

III. The Amphora, containing a Roman cubic foot, equivalent to about seven gallons, is a convenient basis of liquid measure.

IV. The Roman Pēs or Foot, equivalent to about 11.6 inches, is the basis of long measure.

Note.—Ouditus is equivalent to 1½ Roman feet, passus to 8, and stadiūm to 625.
V. The Jagerum, containing 28,800 Roman square feet, equivalent to about six tenths of an acre, is the basis of square measure.

V. ROMAN NAMES.

649. A Roman citizen usually had three names. The first, or praenōmen, designated the individual; the second, or nōmen, the gens or tribe; and the third, or cognōmen, the family. Thus, Publius Cornelius Scipio was Publius of the Scipio family of the Cornelius gens, and Gaius Julius Caesar was Gaius of the Caesar family of the Julian gens.

1. The praenōmen was often abbreviated:

| A. = Aulus. | M. = Mārcus. | S. (Sex.) = Sextus. |
| D. = Decimus. | P. = Pāblius. | Ti. (Tib.) = Tiberius. |
| L. = Lūcius. | Q. (Qu.) = Quintus. |

2. Sometimes an āgnōmen or surname was added. Thus Scipio received the surname Africānus from his victories in Africa: Publius Cornelius Scipio Africānus.

3. An adopted son took (1) the full name of his adoptive father, and (2) an āgnōmen in ānus formed from the name of his own gens. Thus Octāvius when adopted by Caesar became Gaius Iulius Caesar Octāviānus. Afterward the title of Augustus was conferred upon him, making his full name Gaius Iulius Caesar Octāviānus Augustus.

4. Women were generally known by the name of their gens. Thus the daughter of Iulius Caesar was simply Julia; of Tullius Cicerō, Tullia; of Cornelius Scipio, Cornelia. Three daughters in any family of the Cornelius gens would be known as Cornelia, Cornelia Secunda or Minor, and Cornelia Tertia.

650. Various abbreviations occur in classical authors:

| Aed. = sedilis. | Id. = Ídus. | Proc. = prōcōnsul. |
| Cos. = cōnsulēs. | Leg. = légātus. | Resp. = rēs pūblica. |
| Eq. Rom. = eques Rō-mānus. | Pr. = prætor. |
VI. VOWELS BEFORE TWO CONSONANTS OR A DOUBLE CONSONANT.

651. On the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, a double consonant, or the letter j, observe—

I. That vowels are long before ns and nf; generally also before gn and j:

conscius, conscensus, constans, construo, consul, insanus, inscribo, insequor, instans, insula, amans, monens, regens, audiens; confero, conficio, confuo, infansia, infelix, infensus, infero, infrequens; abiegnus, benignus, magnum, malignus, regnum, signum, stignum; cojus, ejus, hujus, major, paejor.

II. That all vowels which represent diphthongs, or are the result of contraction, are long:

existimor, amasse, audissem, introrsum, introrsus, proorsus, quorsum, rursum, sursum, malle, mallem, nolle, nollem, nullus, ullus, Mares, Martis.

III. That the long vowels of Primitives are retained in Derivatives—

1. In ascē, ascē, and ascē in Inceptive verbs from the first, second, or fourth conjugation:

gelascē, labascē, acesē, arasē, flōresē, latesē, patēscē, silēscē, virēscē, édormescē, obdormescē, scisē, cōscisēcē.

2. In large classes of words of which the following are examples:


IV. That vowels are long in the ending of the Nominative Singular of nouns and adjectives with long increments in the Genitive:

frux, lex, lux, pāx, plēbs, rex, thōrāx, vox.

V. That in the second person of the Perfect Active i is long in the penult:

amāvisti, amāvistis, monuisti, monuistis, rēxistī, rēxistis, audīvisti, audīvistis.

---

1 It is often difficult, and sometimes absolutely impossible, to determine the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, but the subject has of late been somewhat carefully investigated by Ritschel, Schmitz, and others. An attempt has been made in this article to collect the most important results of these labors. The chief sources of information upon this subject are (1) ancient inscriptions, (2) Greek transcriptions of Latin words, (3) the testimony of ancient grammarians, (4) the comic poets, and (5) etymology. See Schmitz, 'Beiträge'; Ritschel, 'Rheinisches Museum,' vol. xxxi., pp. 681—692; Scholl, 'Acta Societatis Philologae Lipsiensi,' vol. vi., pp. 71—215; Mäle, 'Orthographiae et Prosodiæ Latinarum Summārum'; Foerster, 'Rheinisches Museum,' xxxiii., pp. 391—399.

2 introrsum from introrserum; ullus from unius; Mares from Mavores.
Nort.—According to Priscian, 1 s is long before ei, aest, etc., in the Perfect Active: réct, réct, réctum, réctum.

VI. That long vowels occur in the following words and in their derivatives:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Maximus</th>
<th>Rectus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actio</td>
<td>Maximus</td>
<td>Rectus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actito</td>
<td>Mille</td>
<td>Sallustius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actio</td>
<td>Nàrro</td>
<td>Åescenl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actus</td>
<td>Nòhra</td>
<td>Sestius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Áxila</td>
<td>Numius</td>
<td>Stræctor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clásis</td>
<td>Òrðo</td>
<td>Stræcða</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cripus</td>
<td>Òrnamentum</td>
<td>Stræctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dàmmna</td>
<td>Òrnó</td>
<td>Táxillus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Æmpus</td>
<td>Pæstæ</td>
<td>Tæxillusae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Festus</td>
<td>Pæxillus</td>
<td>Træstis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Festus</td>
<td>Pollió</td>
<td>Træctiò</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juppiter</td>
<td>Popðlius</td>
<td>Træctiò</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lectito</td>
<td>Præcæus</td>
<td>Træctor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lector</td>
<td>Propinquus</td>
<td>Træctæa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lectus</td>
<td>Præximus</td>
<td>Træctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lector</td>
<td>Querèllæ</td>
<td>Væstæ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Littera</td>
<td>Quinque</td>
<td>Væxillæ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maxilla</td>
<td>Rectiò</td>
<td>Vælla</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marcus</td>
<td>Rector</td>
<td>Vipsænius</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VII. That vowels are probably short before nt and nd: 2

amant, amantis, monent, momentis, prædentia, prædentia, amandus, mon-endus, regendus.

VIII. That the short vowels of Primitives are retained in Derivatives:
inter-nus, juven-tus, liber-tæs, mânum-culum, patr-imoğium, pauper-culæ, super-bus, vir-tæs.

IX. That vowels are generally short in the ending of the Nominative Singular of nouns and adjectives with short increments in the Genitive:
adeps, calix, dux, grex, hiema, jùdex, nœx, nux.
Nort.—Vowels before final æ are of course excepted.

X. That the first vowel in the following endings is short:
1. ernus, ernus, erninus; urnus, urnius, urninus:
maternus, paternus, Litterinus, Litterinus, taucturnus, Saturnius, Saturninus.

2. ustus, estus, oster, estis, estius, estinus, estris:
robustus, venustus, vetustus, honestus, modestus, campester, silvester, agrestia, casestia, domesticus, clandestinus, terrestria.

XI. That all vowels are to be treated as short unless there are good reasons for believing them to be long.

1 See Book IX, 26.
2 See p. 31, foot-note 2; p. 61, foot-note 2.
INDEX OF VERBS.

This Index contains an alphabetical list, not only of all the simple verbs in common use which involve any important irregularities, but also of such compounds as seem to require special mention. In regard to compounds of prepositions (344) observe—

1. That the elements—preposition and verb—often appear in the compound in a changed form; see 344, 4-6.

2. That the stem-vowel is often changed in the Perfect and Supine; see 221.

A

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1 Final s in verbs is sometimes shortened, though rarely in the best writers.
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Note.—The numbers refer to articles, not to pages. Acc. or accus. = accusative; adj. = adjectives; comp. = composition; compds. = compounds; conj. = conjunction; conjunc. = conjunctions; constr. = construction; f. = and the following; gen. or genit. = genitive; gend. = gender; ger. = gerund; loc. or locat. = locative; prep. = prepositions; st. = with.

It has not been thought advisable to overload this index with such separate words as may be readily referred to classes, or to general rules, or even with such exceptions as may be readily found under their respective heads. Accordingly, the numerous exceptions in Dec. III. are not inserted, as they may be best found under the respective endtags, 69–115.

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