Gildersleeve's

Latin Grammar
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Latin Grammar

Third Edition, Revised and Enlarged

By

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PREFACE.

The first edition of this Latin Grammar appeared in 1867, the second in 1872; the third edition, carefully revised and very much enlarged, is herewith presented to the public. In the preparation of this third edition the office of the senior collaborator has been chiefly advisory, except in the Syntax. In the syntax nearly everything that pertains to the history of usage has been brought together by Professor Lodge; but for all deviations from the theory of former editions we bear a joint responsibility.

A manual that has held its place, however modest, for more than a quarter of a century, hardly needs an elaborate exposition of the methods followed; but as the new grammar embraces a multitude of details that were not taken up in the old grammar, it has been thought fit that Professor Lodge should indicate the sources of the notes with which he has enriched the original work.

B. L. Gildersleeve.
Gonzalez Lodge.

August 1, 1895.

The following supplementary note may serve to embody a partial bibliography of the more important works used in this revision, and some necessary explanations of the method:

Fairly complete bibliographies of works on Latin Etymology and Syntax may be found in Reisig's Vorlesungen über lateinische Sprachwissenschaft (new edition, by Hagen, Schmalz, and Landgraf, 1881–1888), and in the Lateinische Grammatik of Stolz and Schmalz (in Müller's Handbuch der klassischen Altertumswissenschaft; 2d edition, 1890). Important also are the Grammars of Kühner (1877, 1878)* and Roby (1881, 1882); though many statements in both, but especially in the former, must be corrected in the light of more recent study. Some indications of more modern theories may be found in

*A new Historical Grammar, by Stolz, Schmalz, Landgraf, and Wagener, was announced by Teubner in 1891.
the *Erläuterungen zur lateinischen Grammatik* of Deecke (1893). Many matters of importance both in Etymology and Syntax are treated in the *Archiv für lateinische Lexicographie*, and the constructions with individual words are often well discussed in Krebs’ *Antilibarbarus der lateinischen Sprache* (6th edition, by Schmalz, 1886).

For the accentuation and pronunciation of Latin we have also Coeszen’s *Aussprache, Vocalismus und Betonung der lateinischen Sprache* (1868, 1870), and Seelmann’s *Die Aussprache des Latein* (1885).

For the Etymology we must refer to Bücheler’s *Grundriss der lateinischen Declination* (2d edition, by Windekiide, 1879) and to Schweizer-Sidler’s *Lateinische Grammatik* (1888); also to many articles in various journals, most of which are given by Stolz. Indispensable is Neue’s *Formenlehre der lateinischen Sprache*, of which the second volume of the third edition has already appeared (1892) and the first parts of the third volume (1894), under the careful revision of Wagener; also Georges’ *Lexikon der lateinischen Wortformen* (1890).

For the Formation of Words and the relation of Latin forms to those of the related languages we have Henry’s *Précis de Grammaire Comparée* and Brugmann’s *Grundriss der vergleichenden Grammatik*, both now accessible in translations. On these, in connection with Schweizer-Sidler, the chapter on the Formation of Words has been based.

In the historical treatment of the Syntax we must still rely in large measure on Draiseger’s *Historische Syntax der lateinischen Sprache* (2d edition, 1878, 1881), faulty and inaccurate though it often is: many of the false statements have been corrected on the basis of more recent individual studies by Schmalz; but even Schmalz is not always correct, and many statements of his treatise have been silently emended in the present book. For the theoretical study of some problems of Latin Syntax Haase’s *Vorlesungen über lateinische Sprachwissenschaft* (1880) should not be overlooked. Since the appearance of the second edition of Schmalz, in 1890, considerable progress has been made in the various journals and other publications, as may be seen from Deecke’s summary in Bursian’s *Jahresbericht* for 1893. Every effort has been made to incorporate in this grammar the main results of these studies as far as practicable. We may also draw attention to the following important articles, among others, some of which are mentioned in the books above referred to:

Wölfflin’s numerous articles in the *Archiv*; Thielmann’s articles in the *Archiv* on habère with Perfect Participle Passive, and on the Reciprocal Relation; Landgraf’s articles on the *Figura Etymologica*, in the second volume of the *Acta Seminarii Erlangensis*, and on the Future Participle and the Final Dative, in the *Archiv*; Hale’s treatise on the *Cum Constructions*, attacking the theories of Hoffmann (*Lateinische Zeitpartikeln, 1874*) and Lübbert (*Die Syntax von Quom, 1869*).
Hoffmann's reply to Hale (1891), and Wetzel's *Der Streit zwischen Hoffmann und Hale* (1892); Dahl's *Die lateinische Partikel ut* (1882), with Gutjahr-Probst's *Der Gebrauch von ut bei Terenz* (1888); Zimmernann's article on *quod und quia* im älteren Latein (1880); Scherer's article on *quando*, in *Studemund's Studien*; Morris's articles on the Sentence Question in *Plautus and Terence* in the A.J.P. (vols. x. and xi.); Hale's articles on the Sequence of Tenses in the A.J.P. (vols. viii. and ix.), containing a discussion of the earlier Literature; Elmer's articles on the *Latin Prohibitive* in A.J.P. (vol. xv.)

A bibliography of the treatises on Prosody and Versification may be found in Gleditsch's treatise in the second volume of Müller's *Handbuch*; this, with Plessis' *Métrique Grecque et Latine* (1889), has been made the basis of the chapter on Prosody; but in the treatment of early metres, regard has been had to Klotz (*Altrömische Metrik*, 1890), and to Lindsay's recent papers on the Saturnian in the A.J.P. (vol. xiv.). In the matter of the order of words we have followed Weil's treatise on the Order of Words, translated by Super (1887).

The question of the correct measurement of hidden quantities is still an unsettled one in Latin; for the sake of consistency the usage of Marx, *Hülfsbüchlein für die Aussprache der lateinischen Vokale in positionslangen Silben* (2d edition, 1889) has been followed.

The quotations have been made throughout from the Teubner Text editions except as follows: *Plautus* is cited from the Triumvirate edition of Ritschl; *Vergil* from the Editio Maior of Ribeck; *Ovid* and *Terence* from the Tauchnitz Texts; *Horace* from the Editio Minor of Keller and Holder; *Lucretius* from the edition of Munro; *Ennius* and *Lucilius* from the editions of L. Müller; fragmentary Scenic Poets from the edition of Ribeck. Special care has been taken to make the quotations exact both in spelling and wording; and any variation in the spelling of individual words is therefore due to the texts from which the examples are drawn.

Where it has been necessary to modify the quotations in order to make them suitable for citation, we have enclosed within square brackets words occurring in different form in the text, and in parentheses words that have been inserted; where the passage would not yield to such treatment, *Cf.* has been inserted before the reference. We have not thought it necessary to add the references in the Prosody except in the case of some of the citations from early Latin.

In the spelling of Latin words used out of quotation, as a rule *u* and *v* have been followed by *o* rather than by *u*; but here the requirements of clearness and the period of the language have often been allowed to weigh. Otherwise we have followed in the main Brambach's *Hülfsbuchlein für lateinische Rechtschreibung* (translation by McCabe, 1877).

G. L.
## CONTENTS.

### ETYMOLOGY.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letters and Syllables</th>
<th>1-15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alphabet, 1; Vowels, 2, 3; Diphthongs, 4; Consonants, 6, 7; Phonetic Variations, 8, 9; Syllables, 10, 11; Quantity, 12-14; Accentuation, 15.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parts of Speech</th>
<th>16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inflection of the Substantive</td>
<td>17-71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definitions, 18; Gender, 19-21; Number, 22; Cases, 23-25; Declensions, 26; Endings, 27; First Declension, 29, 30; Second Declension, 31-34; Third Declension, 35-60; Fourth Declension, 61, 62; Fifth Declension, 63, 64; Greek Substantives, 65, 66; Irregular Substantives, 67-71.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Inflection of the Adjective | 72-90 |
| Definition, 72; First and Second Declension, 73-76; Pronominal Adjectives, 76; Third Declension, 77-83; Irregular Adjectives, 84, 85; Comparison of Adjectives, 86-90. |

### Adverbs | 91-93 |
| Formation of Adverbs, 91, 92; Comparison, 93. |

### Numerals | 94-98 |
| Cardinals, 94; Ordinals, 94; Distributives, 97; Adverbs, 98. |

### Pronouns | 99-111 |
| Personal, 100-102; Determinative, 103; Demonstrative, 104; Relative, 105; Interrogative, 106; Indefinites, 107; Adjectives, 108; Correlative, 109-111. |

### Inflection of the Verb | 112-175 |
| Definitions, 112, 113; Endings, 114, 115; Inflection of esse, 116, 117; of prōdesse, 118; of posse, 119. Regular Verbs, 120-167; Division, 120; Rules for forming Tenses, 121. First Conjugation, 122; Second Conjugation, 123, 124; Third Conjugation, 125, 126; Fourth... |
Conjugation, 127; Deponents, 128; Periphrastic, 129; Notes, 130, 131. Formation of the Stems, 132-135; Change in Conjugation, 136; List of Verbs, 137-167. Irregular Verbs, 163-174; ire, 169; 2; quire, nequire, 170; ferre, 171; edere, 172; fierf, 173; velle, nölle, målle, 174; Defective Verbs, 175.

Formation of Words . . . . . . . 176-200
Simple Words, 179-192; Substantives, 180, 181; Adjectives, 182; Substantives without Suffixes, 183; Suffixes, 184-189; Verbs, 190-192; Compound Words, 193-200; Substantives, 194-198; Verbs, 199, 200.

SYNTAX.

Simple Sentence . . . . . . . . . . . . . 202-471
Subject, 203, 204; Predicate, 205-209; Concord, 210, 211; Voices, 212-221. Tenses, 222-252; Present, 227-230; Imperfect, 231-234; Perfect, 235-240; Pluperfect, 241; Future, 242, 243; Future Perfect, 244, 245; Periphrastic, 246-251; Tenses in Letters, 252. Moods, 253-283; Indicative, 254; Subjunctive, 255-265; Imperative, 266-275; Tenses in Moods and Verbal Substantives, 276-283.

Simple Sentence Expanded . . . . . . . . . 284-471
Multiplication of the Subject . . . . . . 285-287
Qualification of the Subject . . . . . . 288-325
Adjectives, 289-303; Numerals, 292-295; Comparatives and Superlatives, 296-303; Pronouns, 304-319; Personal, 304; Demonstrative, 305-307; Determinative and Reflexive, 308-311; Possessive, 312; Indefinite, 313-319; Apposition, 320-325; Predicative Attribution and Apposition, 325.

Multiplication of Predicate . . . . . . . . . 326
Qualification of Predicate . . . . . . . . . 327-449
The Cases . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 328-418
Accusative, 328-343; Dative, 344-359; Genitive, 360-383; Ablative, 384-410; Locative, 411; Prepositions, 412-418; with Accusative, 416; with Ablative, 417; with Accusative and Ablative, 418.

Infinitive . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 419-424
Subject, 422; Object, 423; Predicate, 424.
CONTENTS.

Gerund and Gerundive .......................... 425-433
   Genitive, 428; Dative, 429; Accusative, 430; Ablative, 431; with Prepositions, 432, 433.
Supine ........................................... 434-436
   Accusative, 435; Ablative, 436.
Participles ...................................... 437, 438
Adverbs .......................................... 439-449
   Negatives, 441-449.
Incomplete (Interrogative) Sentence .......... 450-471
   Direct Simple Questions, 453-457; Direct Disjunctive Questions, 458, 459; Indirect Questions, 460;
   Moods in Direct, 462-466; Moods in Indirect, 467.

Compound Sentence .............................. 472-670
Coördinate Sentence ............................. 473-503
   Copulative, 474-482; Adversative, 483-491; Disjunctive, 492-497; Causal and Illative, 498-503.
Subordinate Sentences .......................... 504-670
   Moods in, 508; Sequence of Tenses, 509-519; Reflexive in, 520-522.
Object Sentences ................................ 523-537
   Introduced by quod, 524, 525; in Accusative and Infinitive, 526, 527, 532-535; in Nominative and
   Infinitive, 528; in Participle, 536, 537.
Causal Sentences ................................ 538-542
   Introduced by quod, quia, etc., 539-541; by quod, with verbs of Emotion, 542.
Sentences of Design and Tendency .............. 543-558
   Final, 544-550; Pure Final, 545; Complementary Final, 546-549; After verbs of Fear, 550.
   Consecutive, 551; Pure Consecutive, 552; Complementary Consecutive, 553-557; Exclamatory Questions, 558.
Temporal Sentences .............................. 559-588
   Antecedent Action, 561-567; Iterative Action, 566, 567; Contemporaneous Action, 568-573; Subsequent
   Action, 574-577; Sentences with cum, 578-588.
Conditional Sentences ........................... 589-602
   Logical, 595; Ideal, 596; Unreal, 597; Incomplete, 598-601; Of Comparison, 602.
Concessive Sentences ............................ 603-609
# CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relative Sentences</td>
<td>610-637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concord, 614-621; Tenses, 622, 633; Moods, 624-637.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative Sentences</td>
<td>638-644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlative, 642; with atque or ac, 643; with quam, 644.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Abridged Sentence</td>
<td>645-663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical Infinitive, 647; Ölätio Obliqua, 648; Moods in, 650-652; Tenses in, 653-655; Conditional Sentences in, 656-659; Pronouns, 660; Partial Obliquity, 662, 663.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participial Sentences</td>
<td>664-670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrangement of Words and Clauses</td>
<td>671-687</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figures of Syntax and Rhetoric</td>
<td>688-700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal Rules of Syntax</td>
<td>Pp. 437-444</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## PROSODY.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td>702-717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Rules, 702-706: of Final Syllables, 707-713; of Stem Syllables, 714; of Compounds, 715; in Early Latin, 716, 717.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figures of Prosody</td>
<td>718-728</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Versification</td>
<td>729-827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition, 729-754; Versus Italicus, 755; Saturnian Verse, 756; Iambic Rhythms, 757-767; Trochaic Rhythms, 768-776; Anapaestic Rhythms, 777-782; Dactylic Rhythms, 783-789; Logaecic Rhythms, 790-805; Cretic and Bacchic Rhythms, 806-814; Ionic Rhythms, 815-819; Compound Verses, 820-823; Cantica, 824, 825; Metres of Horace, 826, 827.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appendix</td>
<td>491-493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roman Calendar, Roman Weights and Measures, Roman Money, Roman Names.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index of Verbs</td>
<td>494-502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Index</td>
<td>503-546</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LATIN GRAMMAR.

ETYMOLOGY.

Alphabet.

1. The Latin alphabet has twenty-three letters:

A B C D E F G H I K L M N O P Q R S T V X Y Z

Remarks.—1. The sounds represented by C and K were originally distinct, C having the sound of G, but they gradually approximated each other, until C supplanted K except in a few words, such as Kalendae, Kaeso, which were usually abbreviated, Kal., K. The original force of C is retained only in C. (for Gaius) and Gn. (for Gnaeus).

2. J, the consonantal form of I, dates from the middle ages. V represented also the vowel u in the Latin alphabet; and its resolution into two letters—V for the consonant, and U for the vowel—also dates from the middle ages. For convenience, V and U are still distinguished in this grammar.

3. Y and Z were introduced in the time of Cicero to transliterate Greek v and ζ. In early Latin v was represented by u (occasionally by i or oi), and ζ by ss or s. Z had occurred in the earliest times, but had been lost, and its place in the alphabet taken by G, which was introduced after C acquired the sound of K.

Note.—The Latin names for the letters were: a, be, ce, de, e, ef, ge, ha, i, ka, el, em, en, o, pe, qu (= cu), er, es, te, u, ex (ix), to be pronounced according to the rules given in 3, 7. For Y the sound was used, for Z the Greek name (ζητα).

Vowels.

2. The vowels are a, e, i, o, u, (y); and are divided:

1. According to their quality (i.e., the position of the organs used in pronunciation), into

guttural (or back), a, o, u;    palatal (or front), e, i, (y).

2. According to their quantity or prolongation (i.e., the time required for pronunciation), into

long, (—);    short, (—).
Remark.—Vowels whose quantity shifts in poetry are called common (see 13), and are distinguished thus:

\[ \approx, \text{by preference short;} \quad \approx, \text{by preference long.} \]


\[ a = a \text{ in father.} \quad o = o \text{ in bone.} \]
\[ e = e \text{ in prey.} \quad u = oo \text{ in moon.} \]
\[ i = i \text{ in caprice.} \quad y = u \text{ in sûr (French), German ü.} \]

Remark.—The short sounds are only less prolonged in pronunciation than the long sounds, and have no exact English equivalents.

Diphthongs.

4. There are but few diphthongs or double sounds in Latin. The theory of the diphthong requires that both elements be heard in a slur. The tendency in Latin was to reduce diphthongs to simple sounds; for example, in the last century of the republic ae was gliding into e, which took its place completely in the third century A. D. Hence arose frequent variations in spelling: as glæba and glēba, sod; so oboedīre and obēdīre, obey; faenum (foenum) and fēnum, hay.

\[ ae = aye \text{ (āh-eh).} \quad ei = ei \text{ in feint (drawled).} \]
\[ oe = oy \text{ in boy.} \quad eu = eu \text{ in Spanish deuda (čh-oo).} \]
\[ au = ou \text{ in our.} \quad (ui = we, almost). \]

Note.—Before the time of the Gracchi we find ai and oi instead of ae and oe.

5. The sign \( \cdot \) (Diērēsis—Greek = separation) over the second vowel shows that each sound is to be pronounced separately; aēr, air; Oenomātis, aloë.

Consonants.

6. Consonants are divided:

1. According to the principal organs by which they are pronounced, into

- **Labials** (lip-sounds): b, p, (ph), f, v, m.
- **Dentals** (tooth-sounds): d, t, (th), l, n, r, s.
- **Gutturals** (throat-sounds): g, c, k, qu, (ch), h, n (see 7).

Note.—Instead of dental and guttural, the terms lingual and palatal are often used.

2. According to their prolongation, into

A. **Semi-vowels**: of which

- l, m, n, r, are liquids (m and n being nasals).
- h is a breathing.
- s is a sibilant.
B. **Mutes:** to which belong

- **P-mutes,** p, b, (ph), f, labials.
- **T-mutes,** t, d, (th), dentals.
- **K-mutes,** k, c, qu, g, (ch), gutturals.

Those on the same line are said to be of the *same organ*.

**Mutes** are further divided into

- **Tennés** (thin, smooth): p, t, k, c, qu, hard (surd).
- **Mediae** (middle): b, d, g, soft (sonant).
- **Aspirātae** (aspirate, rough): ph, th, ch], aspirate.

Those on the same line are said to be of the *same order*.

The aspirates were introduced in the latter part of the second century B.C. in the transliteration of Greek words, and thence extended to some pure Latin words; as, *pulcher, Gracchus.*

3. **Double consonants** are: z = dz in adze; x = cs (ks), gs; i and u between two vowels are double sounds, half vowel, half consonant.

### Sounds of the Consonants.

7. The consonants are sounded as in English, with the following exceptions:

- **C** is hard throughout = k.
- **Ch** is not a genuine Latin combination (6, 2). In Latin words it is a k; in Greek words a kh, commonly pronounced as ch in German.
- **G** is hard throughout, as in get, give.
- **H** at the beginning of a word is but slightly pronounced; in the middle of a word it is almost imperceptible.
- **I consonant (J)** has the sound of a broad y; nearly like y in yule.
- **N** has a guttural nasal sound before c, g, qu, as in anchor, anguish.
- **Qu = kw** (nearly); before o, qu = c. In early Latin qu was not followed by u. Later, when o was weakened to u, qu was replaced by c; thus *quom* became *cum*. Still later qu replaced c, yielding *quum*.
- **R** is trilled.
- **S and X** are always hard, as in hiss, axe.
- **T** is hard throughout; never like t in nation.
- **U consonant (V)** is pronounced like the vowel, but with a slur. In the third century A.D. it had nearly the sound of our w. In Greek it was frequently transliterated by Oö; so Ὠὐαλέριος = Valerius.

### Phonetic Variations in Vowels and Consonants.

8. **Vowels.**

1. **Weakening.**—In the formation of words from roots or stems short vowels show a tendency to weaken; that is, a tends to become e
and then i, or o and then u, while o tends towards e or i, and u towards i. This occurs most frequently in compound words, to a less degree in words formed by suffixes. Diphthongs are less frequently weakened and long vowels very rarely. The principal rules for these changes are as follows, but it must be remembered that to all there are more or less frequent exceptions:

A.—1. In the second part of compound words, and in reduplicated words, the root-vowel ä is weakened to e, which usually passes over into i in open syllables (11, r.), and often to ã before l and labial mutes: cōn-scendō (scandō); con-cidō (cadō); dē-sultō (saltō); fefelli (fallō).

2. As final vowel of the stem ä is weakened in the first part of a compound word, usually to i, rarely to ò or ã: aquili-fer (aquila-); causi-dicus (causa-).

3. In or before suffixes, ã becomes ì: domi-tus (doma-).

Note.—A frequently resists change, especially in verbs of the First and Second Conjugations: as, sē-parāre (parāre); circum-iacère (iacère); so satis-facere (facere) and others.

E.—1. In the second part of compound words, root vowel ò is usually retained in a close (11, r.) syllable, and weakened to ì in an open syllable; but it is invariably retained before r: in-flectō (flectō); obtīneō (teneō); ad-vertō (vertō).

2. In or before suffixes, and in the final syllable of a word, it also becomes ì: geni-tor (gene-); ùn-decim (decem).

I.—At the end of a word ì is changed to ò: mare (mari).

O.—1. In composition final stem-vowel ò is usually weakened to ì; before labials sometimes to ū: agri-cola (agro-); auru-fex (usually aurifex). 2. In suffixes, and in final syllables, it is weakened to ì: amīci-tia (amico-); gracili-s (also gracilu-s).

U.—In composition final stem-vowel ù is usually weakened to ì; the same weakening occurs sometimes within a word or before a suffix: mani-fēstus (also manu-fēstus); lacrima (early lacruma).

AE, AU.—In the second part of a compound word root-diphthong ae is usually weakened to ì, but often there is no change; an is occasionally changed to û: ex-quīrō (quærō); con-clūdō (claudō).

2. Omission.—Vowels are frequently omitted both in simple and compound words, either within the word (syncope) or at the end (apocope): dextera and dextra; princēps (for primīceps, from primīceps); pergrō (for perregō); ut (utī); neu (nève).

3. Epenthesis.—Vowels are sometimes inserted to ease the pronunciation, but usually before liquids or in foreign words: ager (agro-) see '31; Daphinē (= Daphnē); drachuma (= drachma).

4. Assimilation.—Two vowels in adjoining syllables tend to become like each other; this assimilation is usually regressive (i. e., of the first to the second), especially when l separates them; it is rarely progressive. Compare facilis with facul, familia with famulus, bene with bonus.
5. A vowel before a liquid tends to become û, less often o or e: adulísecáns and adulíseças; vulgus and volgus; decumus (decem); compare tempus with temporis; peperi (from pariá), etc.


1. Assimilation.—When two consonants come together in Latin, they tend to assimilate one to the other. This assimilation is usually regressive; sometimes it is progressive. It is either complete, that is, the two consonants become the same; or partial, that is, the one is made of the same order or same organ as the other. These changes occur both in inflection and in composition, but they are especially noteworthy in the last consonant of prepositions in composition.

Scip-tum for scrip-tum (regressive partial); ac-cédere for ad-cédere (regressive complete); cur-súm for cur-tum (progressive partial); celer-rímus for celer-símus (progressive complete).

2. Partial Assimilation.—(a) The sonants g and b, before the surd t, or the sibilant s, often become surds (c, p); the surds p, c, t before liquids sometimes become sonants (b, g, d); the labials p, b before n become m; the labial m before the gutturals c, q, g, h, i (j), the dentals t, d, s, and the labials f, v, becomes n; the dental n before labial p, b, m, becomes m; réc-tum (for rég-tum); scrip-sí (for scrib-sí); seg-mentum (for sec-mentum); som-nus (for sop-nus); prín-ceps (for prim-ceps).

Note.—Similar is the change of q (qu) to c before t or s: coc-tum (for coqu-tum).

(b) After l and r, t of the suffixes tor, tus, tum, becomes s by progressive assimilation: cur-súm (for cur-tum).

3. Complete Assimilation.—There are many varieties, but the most important principle is that a mute or a liquid tends to assimilate to a liquid and to a sibilant: puella (puer); cur-rere (for cur-sere); cés-sí (for céd-sí); corólla (coróna), etc.

4. Prepositions.—Ab takes the form á before m or v, and in á-fui; appears as au in au-feró, au-fugió; as abs before c, t; as as before p. Ad is assimilated before c, g, l, p, r, s, t, with more or less regularity; before gn, sp, sc, st, it often appears as á. Ante appears rarely as anti. Cum appears as com before b, m, p; con before c, d, f, g, i, q, s, v; có before gn, n; assimilated sometimes before 1 and r. Ex becomes é before b, d, g, i (j), l, m, n, r, v; ef or ec, before f. In usually becomes im before b, m, p; before 1, r it is occasionally assimilated; the same holds good of the negative prefix in. Ob is usually assimilated before c, f, g, p; appears as o in o-mittó, o-perió, obs in obs-oléscó, and os in ostendeó. Sub is assimilated before c, f, g, p, r; appears as sus in a few words, as sus-ciπiô; occasionally su before s, as su-spiciô. Trán sometimes becomes trã before d, i (j), n; trã before s. Amb- (inseparable) loses b before a consonant, and am is sometimes assimilated. Circum sometimes drops m before i. Dis becomes dif before f; dir before a
vowel; ð before consonants, except c, p, q, t, s, followed by a vowel, when it is usually unchanged. The ð of red and sed is usually dropped before consonants.

Note.—In early Latin assimilation is much less common than in the classical period.

5. Dissimilation.—To avoid the harshness of sound when two syllables begin with the same letter, the initial letter of the one is often changed; this is true especially of liquids, but occasionally of other letters: singu-lä-ris (for singu-lä-lis); meri-dié (for medi-dié).

Note.—This principle often regulates the use of -brum or -bulum, and of -crum or -culum in word formation (181, 6): compare perculum with simulacrum.

6. Omission.—(a) When a word closes with a doubled consonant or a group of consonants, the final consonant is regularly dropped in Latin; sometimes after the preceding consonant has been assimilated to it. In the middle of a word, after a long syllable, ss and ll are simplified; ll is sometimes simplified after a short vowel, which is then lengthened if the syllable is accented (compensatory lengthening); but if the syllable is unaccented, such lengthening need not take place. In this case other doubled consonants may also be simplified.

fel (for fell); lac (for lact); vigil (for vigils); lapis (for lapid-s, lapiss); mis (for mis-si); villa and vilicus; but currus and curulis.

Note.—X is retained, even after l and r, as in calx, arx; also ps, bs, as in stirps, urbs; ms is found in hiems only.

(b) In the tendency to easier pronunciation consonants are often dropped both at the beginning and in the middle of a word: stimulus (for stigmulus); pastor (for päsctor); ät (for ätiō); natus (for gnätus, retained in early Latin, rarely later); lätus (for tlätus), etc.

7. Epenthesis.—Between m and l, m and s, m and t, a p is generated: ex-em-p-lum (ex-imō); cöm-p-si (cömö); ēm-p-tus (emō).

8. Metathesis or transposition of consonants occurs sometimes in Latin, especially in Perfect and Supine forms: cernō; Pf. crē-vi, etc.

Syllables.

10. The syllable is the unit of pronunciation; it consists of a vowel, or a vowel and one or more consonants.

A word has as many syllables as it contains separate vowels and diphthongs.

In dividing a word into syllables, a consonant, between two vowels, belongs to the second: a-mō, I love; li-xa, a sutler.
Any combination of consonants that can begin a word (including mn, under Greek influence) belongs to the following vowel; in other combinations the first consonant belongs to the preceding vowel: a-sper, rough; fau-stus, lucky; li-bri, books; a-mnis, river.

Remarks.—i. The combinations incapable of beginning a word are (a) doubled consonants: si-cus, dry; (b) a liquid and a consonant: al-mus, fostering; am-bō, both; an-guis, snake; ar-bor, tree.

2. Compounds are treated by the best grammarians as if their parts were separate words: ab-igo, I drive off; res-pública, commonwealth.

11. The last syllable of a word is called the ultimate (última, last); the next to the last the penult (paene, almost, and ultima); the one before the penult, the antepenult (ante, before, and paenúltima).

Remark.—A syllable is said to be open when it ends with a vowel; close, when it ends with a consonant.

Quantity.

12. i. A syllable is said to be long by nature, when it contains a long vowel or diphthong: mōs, custom; caelum, heaven.

Remarks.—i. A vowel before nf, ns, gm, gn, is long by nature: infelix, unlucky; mēnsa, table; ágmen, train; ágnus, lamb. In many cases, however, the n has disappeared from the written word; so in some substantival terminations: òs (Acc. Pl., 2d decl.), ās (Acc. Pl., 4th decl.); in adjectives in òsus (fürmōsus, shapely, for förmōnsus); in the numerical termination ësimus (= ēnsimus). See 95, n. 5.

2. Before consonant (j) a vowel is long by nature: Pompeius, Pompey; except in compounds of iugum, yoke (bī-iugus, two-horse), and in a few other words.

Note.—From about 134 to about 74 B.C. ą, ē, ū, were often represented by aa, ee, uu; ĩ by ei. From the time of Augustus to the second century ĩ was indicated by a lengthened ĩ. From Sulla’s time until the third century long vowels (rarely, however, ĩ) were indicated by an Apex (‘).

2. A syllable is said to be long by position, when a short vowel is followed by two or more consonants, or a double consonant: ārs, art; cōllum, neck; abrumpō, I break off; pēr mare, through the sea; nēx, murder.
3. A syllable is said to be short when it contains a short vowel, which is not followed by two or more consonants: lōcus, place; tābūla, picture.

Remark.—A vowel is short by nature when followed by another vowel, or by nt, nd: déus, God; innocēntia, innocence; amāndus, to be loved.

13. A syllable ending in a short vowel, followed by a mute with l or r, is said to be common (anceps, doubtful): tenēbrae, darkness.

Remark.—In prose such syllables are always short. In poetry they were short in early times, common in the Augustan period.

14. Every diphthong, and every vowel derived from a diphthong, or contracted from other vowels, is long: saevus, cruel; conclūdō, I shut up (from claudō, I shut); cōgō (from co-agō), I drive together.

Accentuation.

15. 1. Dissyllabic words have the accent or stress on the penult: équōs (= equus), horse.

2. Polysyllabic words have the accent on the penult, when the penult is long; on the antepenult, when the penult is short or common: mandāre, to commit; mandere, to chew; intēgrum, entire; circūmdare, to surround; supérstitēs, survivors.

Remarks.—1. The little appendages (enclitics), que, ve, ne, add an accent to the ultimate of words accented on the antepenult: lūmināque, and lights; flūmināve, or rivers; vōmerēne? from a ploughshare? Disyllables and words accented on the penult are said to shift their accent to the final syllable before an enclitic: egōmet, I indeed; amārēve, or to love; but it is more likely that the ordinary rule of accentuation was followed.

2. Compounds (not prepositional) of facere and dare retain the accent on the verbal form: calefācit, vēnumdāre.

3. Vocatives and genitives of substantives in ius of the second declension, as well as genitives of substantives in ium, retain the accent on the same syllable as the nominative: Vergīli.

Note.—Other exceptions will be noted as they occur. In the older language the accent was not bounded by the antepenult: áccipiō (accipió), concutiō (concūtiō).
Parts of Speech.

16. The Parts of Speech are the Noun (Substantive and Adjective), the Pronoun, the Verb, and the Particles (Adverb, Preposition, and Conjunction), defined as follows:

1. The Substantive gives a name: vir, a man; Cocles, Cocles; dōnum, a gift.
2. The Adjective adds a quality to the Substantive: bonus vir, a good man.
3. The Pronoun points out without describing: hic, this; ille, that; ego, I.
4. The Verb expresses a complete thought, whether assertion, wish, or command: amat, he loves; amet, may he love; amā, love thou!
5. The Adverb shows circumstances.
6. The Preposition shows local relation.
7. The Conjunction shows connection.

Remarks.—1. Substantive is short for noun-substantive, and adjective for noun-adjective. Substantives are often loosely called nouns.
2. The Interjection is either a mere cry of feeling: ah! ah! and does not belong to language, or falls under one of the above-mentioned classes.
3. The Particles are mainly mutilated forms of the noun and pronoun.

Notes.—1. The difference between substantive and adjective is largely a difference of mobility; that is, the substantive is fixed in its application and the adjective is general.
2. Noun and pronoun have essentially the same inflection; but they are commonly separated, partly on account of the difference in signification, partly on account of certain peculiarities of the pronominal forms.

Inflection.

17. Inflection (inflexiō, bending) is that change in the form of a word (chiefly in the end) which shows a change in the relations of that word. The noun, pronoun, and verb are inflected; the particles are not capable of further inflection.

The inflection of nouns and pronouns is called declension, and nouns and pronouns are said to be declined.

The inflection of verbs is called conjugation, and verbs are said to be conjugated.
The Substantive.

18. A Substantive is either concrete or abstract; concrete when it gives the name of a person or thing; abstract when it gives the name of a quality; as amicitia, friendship.

Concrete substantives are either proper or common:
Proper when they are proper, or peculiar, to certain persons, places, or things: Horátius, Horace; Neápolis, Naples; Padus, Po.
Common when they are common to a whole class: dominus, a lord; urbs, a city; amnis, a river.

Gender of Substantives.

19. For the names of animate beings, the gender is determined by the signification; for things and qualities, by the termination.

Names of males are masculine; names of females, feminine. Masculine: Rómulus; Iúppiter; vir, man; equus, horse. Feminine: Cornélia; Iūnō; fēmina, woman; equa, mare.

20. Some classes of words, without natural gender, have their gender determined by the signification:
I. All names of months and winds, most names of rivers, and many names of mountains are masculine; as: Aprilis, April, the opening month; Aquilo, the north wind; Albis, the River Elbe; Athós, Mount Athos.

Remarks.—1. Names of months, winds, and rivers were looked upon as adjectives in agreement with masculine substantives understood (mēnsis, month; ventus, wind; fluvius, amnis, river).
2. Of the rivers, Allia, Lēthē, Matrona, Sagra, Styx are feminine; Albula, Acherōn, Garumna vary, being sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine.
3. Of the mountains, Alpēs, the Alps, is feminine; so, too, sundry (Greek) names in a (G. ae), ē (G. ēs): Aetna (usually), Calpē, Cyllēnē, Hybla, Ída, Ossa (usually), Oeta (usually), Rhodopē, Pholoē, Pyrēnē, and Carambis, Pelōris. Pélion and Sōracte (usually), and names of mountains in a (G. ērum), as Maenal (G. Maenalōrum), are neuter.

II. Names of countries (terrae, fem.), islands (insulae, fem.), cities (urbēs, fem.), plants (plantae, fem.), and trees
(arborēs, fem.), are feminine: Aegyptus, Egypt; Rhodus, Rhodes; pīrus, a pear-tree; abīēs, a fir-tree.

Remarks.—1. Names of countries and islands in us (os) (G. i) are masculine, except Aegyptus, Chius, Chersonēsus, Cyprus, Délos, Æpīrus, Lēmnos, Lesbos, Peloponnēsus, Rhodus, Samos, Bosporus (the country).

2. Many Greek names of cities follow the termination. Towards the end of the republic many feminine names change the ending -us to -um and become neuter: Abýdus and Abýdum, Saguntus and Saguntum.

3. Most names of trees with stems in -tro (N. -ter) are masculine: oleaster, wild olive; pinaster, wild pine. So also most shrubs: dūmus, bramble-bush; rhūs, sumach. Neuter are acer, maple; lāser, a plant; papāver, poppy (also masc. in early Latin); rōbur, oak; sīler, willow; siser, skirret (occasionally masc.); ūber, cork-tree; ūber, mushroom.

III. All indeclinable substantives, and all words and phrases treated as indeclinable substantives, are neuter: fās, right; ā longum, ā long; soīre tuum, thy knowing; trīste valē, a sad “farewell.”

21. 1. Substantives which have but one form for masculine and feminine are said to be of common gender: cīvis, citizen (male or female); cōmes, companion; iūdex, judge.

2. Substantiva móbilia are words of the same origin, whose different terminations designate difference of gender: magister, master, teacher; magistra, mistress; servus, serva, slave (masc. and fem.); victor, victrix, conqueror (masc. and fem.).

3. If the male and female of animals have but one designation, mās, male, and fēmina, female, are added, when it is necessary to be exact: pāvō mās (masculus), peacock; pāvō fēmina, peahen. These substantives are called epicene (ētrikōina, utrique generī commūnia, common to each gender).

Number.

22. In Latin there are two numbers: the Singular, denoting one; the Plural, denoting more than one.

Remark.—The Dual, denoting two, occurs in Latin only in two words (duo, two; ambō, both), in the nominative and vocative of the masculine and neuter.
Cases.

23. In Latin there are six cases:

1. Nominative (Case of the Subject).
   Answers: who? what?

2. Genitive (Case of the Complement).
   Answers: whose? whereof?

3. Dative (Case of Indirect Object or Personal Interest).
   Answers: to whom? for whom?

4. Accusative (Case of Direct Object).
   Answers: whom? what?

5. Vocative (Case of Direct Address).

6. Ablative (Case of Adverbial Relation).
   Answers: where? whence? wherewith?

Note.—These six cases are the remains of a larger number. The Locative (answers: where?), is akin to the Dative, and coincident with it in the 1st and 3d Declensions; in the 2d Declension it is lost in the Genitive; it is often blended with the Ablative in form, regularly in syntax. The Instrumental (answers: wherewith?), which is found in other members of the family, is likewise merged in the Ablative.

24. 1. According to their form, the cases are divided into strong and weak: The strong cases are Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative. The weak cases are Genitive, Dative, and Ablative.

2. According to their syntactical use, the cases are divided into Casus Recti, or Independent Cases, and Casus Obliqui, or Dependent Cases. Nominative and Vocative are Casus Recti, the rest Casus Obliqui.

25. The case-forms arise from the combination of the case-endings with the stem.

1. The stem is that which is common to a class of formations.

Notes.—1. The stem is often so much altered by contact with the case-ending, and the case-ending so much altered by the wearing away of vowels and consonants, that they can be determined only by scientific analysis. So in the paradigm mēnsa, the stem is not mēns, but mēnsā, the final ā having been absorbed by the ending in the Dative and Ablative Plural mēnsīs. So -d, the ending of the Ablative Singular, has nearly disappeared, and the locative ending has undergone many changes (ē, ēi, ē, ē). The "crude form" it is often impossible to ascertain.

2. The root is an ultimate stem, and the determination of the root belongs to com-
parative etymology. The stem may be of any length, the root was probably a monosyllable. In *penna* the stem is *pennā*; in *pennula, pennulā*; in *pennātulus, pennātulo*; the root is *pet* (*petna, pesna, penna*), and is found in *pet-ere, to fall upon, to fly at*; Greek, *πέτ-ομα, πετοῦ*; English, *feather*.

2. The case-endings are as follows, early forms being printed in parenthesis:

Sg.—N.V. Wanting or m. f. -s; n. -m. Pl.—N.V. -es (eis, is); -i; n. -a.

G. -is (-os, -us, -es); -i.

D. -i (-ē, -ei).

Ac. -m, -em.

Ab. Wanting (or -d); -e.

Declensions.

26. There are five declensions in Latin, which are characterised by the final letter of their respective stems (*stem-characteristic*).

For practical purposes and regularly in lexicons they are also improperly distinguished by the ending of the Genitive Singular.

**STEM CHARACTERISTIC. GENITIVE SINGULAR.**

I. ā (ā).

II. ō.

III. ī, ū, a consonant.

IV. ĕ.

V. ē.

**REMARK.**—The First, Second, and Fifth Declensions are called Vowel Declensions; the Third and Fourth, which really form but one, the Consonant Declension, ī and ū being semi-consonants.

27. The case-endings in combination with the stem-characteristics give rise to the following systems of terminations:

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>us (os);</td>
<td>s; wanting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>wanting;</td>
<td>is (us, es)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>um (om)</td>
<td>ī (ē)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>ae (ās, āī, āi)</td>
<td>ī (ēī)</td>
<td>ī (ē, ī)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ō (ōi)</td>
<td>em, im</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>ae (āī)</td>
<td>um (om)</td>
<td>s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>e; wanting</td>
<td>e, ī (ēd, īd)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac</td>
<td>am</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab</td>
<td>ā (ād)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>V.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>----</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. V.</td>
<td><strong>us</strong>; <strong>ā</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>ēs</strong>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td><strong>ūs</strong> (uos, uis).</td>
<td><strong>ēi, ē (es)</strong>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td><strong>ui</strong>; <strong>ū</strong> (ueī).</td>
<td><strong>ēī, ē</strong>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td><strong>um</strong>; <strong>ū</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>em</strong>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td><strong>ū</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>ē.</strong></td>
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</table>

**Plural.**

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>III.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. V.</td>
<td><strong>ae</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>i</strong> (oe, ē, ēi); <strong>ā</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>ēs</strong> (ēis, īs); <strong>a, ia</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td><strong>ārum</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>um</strong> (om), <strong>ōrum</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>um, ium</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. A.</td>
<td><strong>is</strong> (ēís); <strong>ābus</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>is</strong> (ēís), <strong>ibus</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>ibus</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td><strong>ās</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>ēs</strong>; <strong>ā</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>īs, ēs; a, ia</strong>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>IV.</th>
<th>V.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. V.</td>
<td><strong>ūs</strong> (ues, uus); <strong>ua</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>ēs</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td><strong>uum</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>ārum</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. A.</td>
<td><strong>ubus</strong>, <strong>ibus</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>ēbus</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td><strong>ūs</strong>; <strong>ua</strong>.</td>
<td><strong>ēs</strong>.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE.—**Final -s and -m are frequently omitted in early inscriptions.

**28. General Rules of Declension.**

**I.** For the strong cases:

Neuter substantives have the Nominative and the Vocative like the Accusative; in the Plural the strong cases always end in ā.

In the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Declensions the strong cases are alike in the Plural.

The Vocative is like the Nominative, except in the Singular of the Second Declension when the Nominative ends in -us.

**II.** For the weak cases:

The Dative and the Ablative Plural have a common form.

**FIRST DECLENSION.**

**29.** The stem ends in ā, which is weakened from an original ā. The Nominative has no ending.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>mēnsa (f.), <strong>the table</strong>,</td>
<td>a table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>mēnsae, <strong>of the table</strong>,</td>
<td>of a table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>mēnsae, <strong>to, for the table</strong>,</td>
<td>to, for a table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>mēnsam, <strong>the table</strong>,</td>
<td>a table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>mēnsa, <strong>O table!</strong></td>
<td>table!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>mēnsā, <strong>from, with, by, the table</strong>,</td>
<td>from, with, by, a table.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECOND DECLENSION.

Pl.—N. mēnsae, the tables, tables.
G. mēnsārum, of the tables, of tables.
D. mēnsīs, to, for the tables, to, for tables.
Ac. mēnsās, the tables, tables.
V. mēnsae, O tables!
Ab. mēnsīs, from, with, by, the tables, from, with, by, tables.

Remarks.—1. The early ending of the Gen., ās, found in a few cases in early poets, is retained in the classical period (but not in Caesar or Livy) only in the form familiās, of a family, in combination with pater, father, mater, mother, filius, son, filia, daughter, viz.: paterfamiliās, materfamiliās, filius familiās, filia familiās.

2. The Loc. Sing. is like the Genitive: Rōmae, at Rome; militiae, abroad.

3. The Gen. Pl. sometimes takes the form -um instead of -ārum; this occurs chiefly in the Greek words amphora (amphora, measure of tonnage), and drachma, franc—(Greek coin). The poets make frequent use of this form in Greek patronymics in -da, -dās, and compounds of -cola (from colō, I inhabit) and -gena (from root gen, beget).

4. The ending -ābus is found (along with the regular ending) in the Dat. and Abl. Pl. of dea, goddess, and filia, daughter. In late Latin the use of this termination becomes more extended.

Notes.—1. A very few masc. substantives show Nom. Sing. in ās in early Latin.
2. A form of the Gen. Sing. in āī, subsequent to that in ās, is found in early inscriptions, and not unfrequently in early poets, but only here and there in classical poetry (Verg., A., 3, 354, etc.) and never in classical prose.
3. The early ending of the Dat. āī (sometimes contracted into ā), is found occasionally in inscriptions throughout the whole period of the language.
4. The older ending of the Abl., ād, belongs exclusively to early Latin. Inscriptions show āis for ās in Dat. and Abl. Pl., and once ās in the Dat. Plural.

30. Rule of Gender.—Substantives of the First Declension are feminine, except when males are meant.

Hadria, the Adriatic, is masculine.

SECOND DECLENSION.

31. The stem ends in ȫ, which in the classical period is weakened to ŭ, except after ŭ (vowel or consonant), where ȫ is retained until the first century A.D. In combination with the case-endings it merges into ȫ or disappears altogether. In the Vocative (except in neuters) it is weakened to ū.

The Nominative ends in s (m. and f.) and m (n.). But many masculine stems in which the final vowel, ȫ, is preceded by r, drop the (os) us and e of the Nominative and Vocative, and insert ē before the r if it was preceded by a consonant.
SECOND DECLENSION.

32. i. Stems in -ro. The following stems in -ro do not drop the (os) us and e of the Nom. and Voc.:  

erus, master;  
hesperus, evening star;  
icterus, jaundice;  
îniperus, juniper;  
môrus, mulberry;  
númerus, number;  
taurus, bull;  
vîrus, venom;  
umerus, shoulder;  
uterus, womb.

Note.—Socerus is found in early Latin. Plautus uses uterum (n.) once.

2. In the following words the stem ends in -ero and the e is therefore retained throughout:  

adulter, adulterer;  
gener, son-in-law;  
Liber, god of wine;  
puer, boy;  
socer, father-in-law;  
vesper, evening;  
and in words ending in -fer and -ger, from fero, I bear, and gerô, I carry, as,  

signifer, standard-bearer, armiger, armor-bearer.

Also Îber and Celtîber (names of nations) have in the Plural Îberî and Celtîberî.

33. Hortus (m.), garden;  
puer (m.), boy;  
ager (m.), field;  
bellum (n.), war;  
are thus declined:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>hortus</th>
<th>puer</th>
<th>ager</th>
<th>bellum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>hortî</td>
<td>puerî</td>
<td>agrî</td>
<td>belî</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>hortô</td>
<td>puerô</td>
<td>agrô</td>
<td>belô</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>hortum</td>
<td>puerum</td>
<td>agrum</td>
<td>bellum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>horte</td>
<td>puer</td>
<td>agr</td>
<td>bell</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>hortô</td>
<td>puerô</td>
<td>agrô</td>
<td>bellô</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pl.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>hortî</th>
<th>puerî</th>
<th>agrî</th>
<th>bella</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>hortôrûm</td>
<td>puerôrûm</td>
<td>agrôrûm</td>
<td>bêllôrûm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>hortîs</td>
<td>puerîs</td>
<td>agrîs</td>
<td>bêllîs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>hortôs</td>
<td>puerôs</td>
<td>agrôs</td>
<td>bêllà</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>hortî</td>
<td>puerî</td>
<td>agrî</td>
<td>bêll</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>hortîs</td>
<td>puerîs</td>
<td>agrîs</td>
<td>bêllîs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remarks.—1. Stems in -io have Gen. Sing. for the most part in i until the first century A. D., without change of accent:  

ingeni (N. ingenium),  
of genius, Vergili, of Vergil.  
See 15, r. 3.

2. Proper names in -ius (stems in -io) have Voc. in i, without change of accent:  
Antôni, Tullî, Gâî, Vergili.  
Filîus, son, and genius, genius,  
form their Voc. in like manner:  
fill, geni.  
In solemn discourse -us of the Nom. is employed also for the Vocate.  
(See Liv. i. 24, 7.)  
So regularly deus, God!

3. The Loc. Sing. ends in i (apparent Genitive), as Rhodî, at Rhodes,  
Tarentî, at Tarentum.

4. In the Gen. Pl. -um instead of -ûrum is found in words denoting coins and measures;  
as, nummum, of moneys (also -ûrum) = sêstertium, of sesterces;  
dênrûm (occasionally -ûrum);  
talentûm (occasionally -ûrum);  
tetrachmum;  
môdium (also -ûrum), of measures;  
âgerum;  
medium (also -ûrum).  
Likewise in some names of persons:  
deum (also
-orum); fabrum (in technical expressions; as praefectus fabrum, otherwise -orum); liberum (also -orum); virum (poetical, except in technical expressions, as triumvirum); socium (also -orum). Some other examples are poetical, rare or late.

5. The Loc. Pl. is identical with the Dative: Delphi at Delphi.

6. Deus, God, is irregular. In addition to the forms already mentioned, it has in Nom. Pl. dei, divi, dī; in Dat. and Abl. Pl. deis, divis, diis, dis.

**NOTES.**
1. The ending -ēi for -ī in the Gen. Sing. is found only in inscriptions subsequent to the third Punic War.
3. The original Abl. ending -ē belongs to early inscriptions.
4. In early inscriptions the Nom. Pl. ends occasionally in ēs, ēlis, īs: magistrēs (for magistrī) virēis (for virī). The rare endings oe and ī (pōrīrumē for plūrimī) and the not uncommon ending ēī belong to the same period.
5. Inscriptions often show ēis for īs in Dat. and Abl. Plural.

34. **Rule of Gender.**—Substantives in -us are masculine; in -um neuter.

**Exceptions.**—Feminine are: 1st. Cities and islands, as, Corinthus, Samus. 2d. Most trees, as, Ἔλαις, beech; pīrus, pear-tree. 3d. Many Greek nouns, as, atomus, atom; dialectus, dialect; methodus, method; paragraphus, paragraph; periodus, period. 4th. Alvus, belly (m. in Plaut.); colus (61, N. 5), distaff (also m.); humus, ground; vannus, wheat-fan.

Neuters are: pelagus, sea; virus, venom; vulgus, the rabble (sometimes masculine).

**THIRD DECLENSION.**

35. 1. The stem ends in a consonant, or in the close vowels i and u.

2. The stems are divided according to their last letter, called the stem-characteristic, following the subdivisions of the letters of the alphabet:

I.—**Consonant Stems.**

A. Liquid stems, ending in l, m, n, r.

B. Sibilant stems, ending in s.

C. Mute stems, ending in a T-mute, d, t.

II.—**Vowel Stems.**

1. Ending in i.

2. Ending in u.

(Compare the Fourth Declension.)

3. Ending in a P-mute, b, p.

36. 1. The Nominative Singular, masculine and feminine, ends in s, which, however, is dropped after l, n, r, s, and combines with a K-mute to form x. The final vowel of the stem undergoes various changes.
The Vocative is like the Nominative.
In the other cases, the endings are added to the unchanged stem.

2. Neuters always form:
The Nominative without the case-ending s.
The Accusative and Vocative cases in both numbers like the Nominative.
The Nominative Plural in ā.

Notes on the Cases.

37. Singular.
1. Genitive.—In old Latin we find on inscriptions the endings -us (Gr. -ος) and -es.
2. Dative.—The early endings of the Dat. are -ē and -ē. These were succeeded by ē after the second century B. C., ē being retained in formulas like iūrē dicundō (Livy., 42, 28, 6), in addition to the nsonal form.
3. Accusative.—The original termination -im, in stems of the vowel declension, loses ground, and stems of this class form their Acc. more and more in -em, after the analogy of consonant stems. For the classical usage see 57, r. 1.
4. Ablative.—In inscriptions of the second and first centuries B. C. we find -ē, -ī, and -e. But -ē soon disappears, leaving ε and I. In general ē is the ending for the consonant stems and I for the vowel. But as in the Acc., so in the Abl., the ē makes inroads on the ī, though never to the same extent. (See 57, r. 2.) On the other hand, some apparently consonant stems assume the ending ī. Thus some in -ās, -ās: hārēditāti (300 B. C.), actāti (rare); litī (rare), supellēctīl (classical; early ē); also the liquid stems which syncopate in the Gen., as imber. The ending -ā is rare and confined to early inscriptions.
5. Locative.—Originally coincident in form with the Dat., the Loc. of the Third Declension was finally added with Abl., both in form and in syntax. In the following proper names the old form is frequently retained: Karthāginī, at Carthage, Sulmōni, at Sulmo, Lacedaemonī, at Lacedaemon, Sicīōnī, Troezēnī, Anxurī, Tiburī. Also Acheruntī. In the case of all except Anxurī, Tiburī, Acherūns, the regular form is more common.
The following Loc. forms of common nouns are found: herī, lūcī, noctū (principally in early Latin), orbī (Cic.), peregrī (early Latin), praefescīnī (early Latin), rūri, temperī (the usual form in early Latin), vesperī. In all cases the Abl. form in ē is also found.

38. Plural.
1. Nominative.—Early Latin shows -ēs, -īs in the masc. and feminine. The latter was usually confined to vowel stems, but also occurs occasionally in consonant stems (iōndicus). Later the ending was -ās for all kinds of stems.
2. Genitive.—The ending -um, uniting with the vowel in vowel stems, gives -ium. But many apparently consonant stems show their original vowel form by taking -ium; (1) Many fem. stems in -ātē (N. tās) with -ium as well as -um. (2) Monosyllabic and polysyllabic stems in -ē, -e, with preceding consonant. (3) Monosyllables in -p and -b, sometimes with, sometimes without, a preceding consonant. (4) Stems in -ss-; see 48, r.
3. Accusative.—Old Latin shows also -ēs. The classical form is -ēs for consonant and -īs for vowel stems. But -ēs begins to drive out -īs in some vowel stems and wholly supplants it in the early Empire. On the other hand, some apparently original consonant stems show -īs in early Latin, but the cases are not always certain.
I.—CONSONANT STEMS.

A.—Liquid Stems.

1. Liquid Stems in I.

39. Form the Nominative without s and fall into two divisions*:

A. Those in which the stem characteristic is preceded by a vowel:

1. -al, -alis: sāl (with compensatory lengthening), sālt; Punic proper names like Adherbal, Hannibal.
2. -il, -ilis: mūgil (mūgīlis is late), mūllet; pugīl (pugīlis in Varro), boxer; vigīl, watchman. -īl, -īlis: sīl, ochre; Tanaquīl (with shortened vowel), a proper name.
4. -ul, -ulis: cōnsul, consul; exsul, exile; praesul, dancer.

B. Two neuter substantives with stems in -II, one of which is lost in the Nominative: mel, mellis, honey; fel, fellis, gall.

SG.—N. cōnsul, consul (m.).
G. cōnsulis,
D. cōnsuli,
Ac. cōnsulem,
V. cōnsul,
Ab. cōnsule.

Pl.—N. cōnsūls, the consuls.
G. cōnsulīm,
D. cōnsulīs,
Ac. cōnsulēs,
V. cōnsulēs,
Ab. cōnsulībus.

Rules of Gender.—1. Stems in -I are masculine.

Exceptions: sīl, ochre, and sāl, salt (occasionally, but principally in the Sing.), are neuter.

2. Stems in -II are neuter.

2. Liquid Stems in m.

40. Nominative with s. One example only: hiem(p)s, winter (f.); Gen., hiem-is, Dat., hiem-ī, etc.

3. Liquid Stems in n.

41. Most masculine and feminine stems form the Nominative Singular by dropping the stem-characteristic and changing a preceding vowel to o.

* In the following enumerations of stem-varieties, Greek substantives are as a rule omitted.
Some masculine and most neuter stems retain the stem-characteristic in the Nominative and change a preceding i to e.

The following varieties appear:

1. -ēn, -ēnis: the masculine substantives liēn, splēn, spleen; rēnēs (pl.), kidneys.

2. -ō, -ōnis: homō, man; nēmō, no one; turbō, whirlwind; Apollo, Apollo. Also substantives in -ō (except praedō, G. -ōnis, robber); and in -gō (except harpagō, G. -ōnis, grappling-hook; ligō, G. -ōnis, mattock); as, grandō, hail; virgō, virgin. -en, inis: the masc. substantives flāmen, priest; ōscen (also f.), divining bird; pecten, comb; musical performers, cornicen, fidicen, liticen, tībicen, tūbicen. Also many neuters: as nōmen, name.

3. -o (in early Latin o, in classical period weakened), -ōnis: leō, lion; and about seventy others. -o, -onis: Saxo, Saxon (late).

4. Irregular formations: carō, G. carnis, flesh; Aniō, G. Aniēnis, a river; Nēriō, G. Nēriēnis, a proper name. Sanguīs, blood, and pollis, flour, drop the stem characteristic and add s to form nominative; G. sanguinis, pollinis.

### 42. **MASCULINE.**  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>leō, lion (m.)</td>
<td>imāgō, likeness (f.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>leōnis</td>
<td>imāginis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>leōnī</td>
<td>imāginī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>leōnem</td>
<td>imāginem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>leō</td>
<td>imāgō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>leōne</td>
<td>imāgine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pl.</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>imāginēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>leōnēnum</td>
<td>imāginum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>leōnibus</td>
<td>imāginibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>imāginēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>imāginēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>leōnibus</td>
<td>imāginibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.**—Early Latin shows homōnem, etc., occasionally.

### 43. Rules of Gender.—1. Substantives in -ō are masculine, except carō, flesh, and those in -dō, -gō, and -iō.

**Exceptions.**—Masculine are cardō, hinge; ērdō, rank; harpagō, grappling-hook; ligō, mattock; margō, border (occasionally fem. in late Latin); and concrete nouns like pūgiō, dagger, titiō, firebrand, vespertiliō, bat.

2. Substantives in -en (-men) are neuter. See exceptions, 41, 1, 2.
CONSONANT STEMS.

4. Liquid Stems in r.

44. Form Nominative without s.

Stems fall into the following classes:

1. -ar, -aris: salar, trout; proper names like Caesar, Hamilcar; the neuters baccar, a plant; iubar, radiance; nectar, nectar. -är, -āris: Lār, a deity. -ār, āris: Nār (ENN., VERG.), a river.

2. -er, -eris: acipēns, a fish; agger, mound; ānser, goose; asser, pole; aster, a plant; cancer, the disease; carcer, prison; later, brick; mulier (f.), woman; passer, sparrow; tūber (m. and f.), apple; vesper, evening (68, 10); vōmer, ploughshare (47, 2). The neuters acer, maple; cadāver, dead body; cicer, pea; lāser, a plant; papāver, poppy; pipéri, pepper; sīler, willow; sīser, skirtel; sūber, cork; tūber, tumor; ūber, teat; [verber], thong. -ēr, -ēris: four words, accipiter, hawk; frāter, brother; māter, mother; pater, father. Also some proper names, as Diēspiter, Falacer, and the names of the months, September, Octōber, November, December. Also, imber, shower, linter, skiff, fīter, bag, venter, belly, which were probably vowel stems originally (see 45, R. 1). -ēr, -ēris: āer, air; aēther, ether. -ēr, -ēris: āer, air, spring.

3. -or, -oris: arbor (f.), tree (stem originally in -ōs); some Greek words in -ōr, as rhētor, rhetorician; slave names in -por, as Mārcipor; the neuters: ador, spelt; aequor, sea; marmor, marble. -ōr, -ōris: very many abstract words, as amor, love; color, colour; clāmor, outcry; soror, sister; uxor, wife; these may come from stems in ōs (see 47, 4); also verbals in -ōr, as victor.

4. -ur, -uris: augur, augur; furfur, bran; turtur, dove; vultur, vulture; lemures (pl.), ghosts; and a few proper names; also the neuters fulgur, lightning; guttur, throat; murmūr, murmūr; sulfur, sulphur. -ūr, -ūris: fūr, thief.

5. Four neuters, ebūr, iberus; femur, thigh; iecur, liver; rōbur, oak, show Gen. in -oris; two of these, femur, iecur, have also the irregular forms feminis and iecineris, iecinoris, iecinoris. Iter, way, has G. itineris; and supellēx, furniture, has G. supellēcēlis.


N. labor, toil (m.), labōrēs, pater, father (m.), patrēs,
G. labōris, labōrum, patris, patrum,
D. labōrī, labōribus, patri, patribus,
Ac. labōrem, labōrēs, patrem, patres,
V. labor, labōrēs, pater, patres,
Ab. labōre, labōribus, patre. patribus.
THIRD DECLENSION.

Remarks.—1. Imber, shower, linter, skiff, äter, bag, venter, belly, show the vowel nature of their stems by having Gen. Pl. in -iwm. Imber has also sometimes Abl. Sing. in l. (See 37, 4.)

2. Röbur, strength, also forms a Nom. röbus (47, 4), and vömer, plough-share, vömis (47, 2).

Note.—Arbor, and many stems in -ör, were originally stems in -s; the s became r (47) between two vowels in the oblique cases, and then reacted upon the Nominative. But many Nominals in -ös are still found in early Latin; and some are still retained in the classical times: arböś (regularly in Verg., frequently in Lucr., Hor., Ov.), honös (regularly in Verg., commonly in Cic., Livy), and others.

46. Rules of Gender.—1. Substantives in -er and -or are masculine. 2. Substantives in -ar and -ur are neuter.

Exceptions.—Masculine are salar, trout, and proper names in -ar; augur, augur; furfur, bran; names of animals in -ur and a few proper names in -ur.

Feminine are arbor, tree; mulier, woman; soror, sister; uxor, wife. Neuter are acer, maple; ador, spell; aequor, sea; cadäver, dead body; cicer, pea; iter, way; läser, a plant; läver, a plant; marmor, marble; papäver, poppy; piper, pepper; siller, willow; siser, skirret; süber, cork; tüber, tumor; über, teat; vër, spring; [verber], thong.

B.—Sibilant Stems.

47. The Nominative has no additional s, and changes in masculines e to i, and in neuters e or o to u before s.

In the oblique cases, the s of the stem usually passes over, between two vowels, into r (rhotacism).

There are the following varieties of stems:

1. -äs, -aris: mäs, male. -üs, -asis: väs (n.), vessel. -äss, -assis: äs (m.), a copper (vowel long in Nom. by compensatory lengthening), and some of its compounds (with change of vowel), as bes, semis.

2. -ös, -eris: Cerös, Ceres. -is, -eris: cinis, ashes; cucumis, cucumber (see 57, r. 1), pulvis (occasionally pulvis), dust; vömis, plough-share (see 45, r. 2). -üs, -eris: Venus, and occasionally pignus, pledge (see 4).

3. -is, -iris: gläs, dormouse.

4. -ös, -ösis: old Latin ianitös, labös, clämös (see 45, n.). -ös, -ossis: os (n.), bone. -ös, -öris: flös, flower; glös, sister-in-law; lepös, charm; mös (m.), custom; -ös (n.), mouth; rös, dev. -us, -or is: corpus, body; decus, grace; pignus, pledge, and twelve others; on röbus (see 45, r. 2).

5. -us, -uris: Ligus, Ligurian. -üs, -uris: telläs (f.), earth; müs (m.), mouse; the neuters: crüs, leg; iüs, right; püs, pus; rüs, country; tüs, incense.

6. aes, aeris, brass.
CONSONANT STEMS.

48. **SINGULAR.**
   N. A. V. genus, kind (n.), genera,
   G. generis, generenum, corporis,
   D. genert, generibus, corpori,
   Ab. genere. generibus. corpor.  

**PLURAL.**
   corpus, body (n.), corpora,
   corporis, corporum,
   corpori, corporibus,
   corpor. corporibus.

**Remark.**—As, a copper, and os, bone, form the Gen. Pl. in -ium, after the usage of vowel stems (see 38, 2). So also müs, mouse.

49. **Rule of Gender.**—Masculine are substantives in -is (-eris), and -öss, -öris: except ös, mouth (G. öris), which is neuter.

Neuter are substantives in -us (G. -eris, -oris), and in -ūs (G. -ūris); except tellūs, earth (G. tellūris), which is feminine; and the masculines, lepus, hare (G. leporis); müs, mouse (G. müris).

C.—Mute Stems.

50. All masculines and feminines of mute stems have s in the Nominative. Before s a P-mute is retained, a K-mute combines with it to form x, a T-mute is dropped.

Most polysyllabic mute stems change their final vowel i into e in the Nominative.

The stems show variations as follows:

51. **Stems in a P-mute.**
   1. -ab, -abis: trabs, beam; Arabs. -aps, -apis: [daps], feast.
   2. -eb, -ebis: plebs, commons.
   4. -ops, -opis: [ops], power.
   5. -eps, upis: anceps, fowler, and the old Latin manceps, contractor.
   6. -rps, -rbis: urbs, city.
   7. -rps, -rpis: stirps, stock.

   **Sg.**—N. princeps, chief (m.), Pl.—principēs,
   G. principis, principum,
   D. principi, principibus,
   Ac. principem, principēs,
   V. princeps, principēs,
   Ab. principe.

52. **Stems in a K-mute.**
   1. -ax, -acis: fax, torch, and many Greek words in -ax, Atax, proper name. -āx, -ācis: fornāx, furnace; limāx, snail; pāx, peace; and Greek cordāx, thōrāx.
2. -ex, -ecis: faenisex, mower; nex, murder; [prex], prayer; [resex], stump. -ex, -ecis: allēx (also allēs), brine; verrēx, wether. -ex, -egis: grex, herd; aquilex, water-inspector. -ēx, -ēgis: interrēx; lēx, law; rēx, king.

3. -ex, -ecis: auspex, soothsayer, and about forty others. -ex, -egis: rēmex, rower. -ix, -icis: cervīx, neck, and about thirty others; verba in -ix, as victrix. -ix, -icis: appendix, appendix, and ten others. -ix, -egis: strīx, screech-owl; also many foreign proper names, as Dumnorīx, which may, however, be forms in -ix, -egis.


6. -nx,-nds: faīx, sickle; calx, heel, lime. -nx, -ndis: lanx, dish; compounds of -uux, as quincunx, and a few names of animals; phalanx has G. phalangis.

7. Unclassified: nīx (G. nivis), snow; bōs (G. bovis; see 71), ox; [faux] (G. faucis), throat; faex (G. faecis), dregs.

So.—N. rēx, king (m.). Pl.—rēgēs,
G. rēgis,
D. rēgī,
Ac. rēgem,
V. rēx,
Ab. rēge,

53. Stems in a T-mute

1. -ās, -ātis: many feminine abstracts, as aétās, age; some proper names, as Maecēnās. -as, -atis: anās, duck. -as, -adis: vas, bail; lampās, torch.

2. -es,-etis: indigēs, patron deity; interpres, interpreter; praeëps, bird; segēs, crop; tegēs, mat. -ēs, -etis: abīēs, fir; ariēs, ram; parīēs, wall. -ēs, -etis: quiēs, quiet; requēs, rest. -ēs, -edis: pēs, foot, and its compounds. -ēs, -ēdis: hērēs, heir; mercēs, hire.


4. -ōs, -ōtis: cōs, whetstone; dōs, dowry; nepōs, grandson; sacerdōs, priest. -ōs, -ōdis: cūstōs, guard.

5. -ūs,-utis: glūs, glue, and some abstracts: iuventūs, youth; salūs, safety; senectūs, old age; servitūs, servitude; virtūs, manliness. -us, -udis: pecūs, sheep. -ūs, -ūdis: incūs, anvil; palūs, marsh; subscūs, tenon.
6. *-aes, -aedis*: praes, surety. *-aus, -audis*: laus, praise; fraud, fraud.

7. *-is, -itis*: pula, porridge. *-ns, -ntis*: infans, infant; dens, tooth; fons, fountain; mons, mountain; frons, brow; pons, bridge; gens, tribe; lens, lentil; mens, mind; rudens, rope; torrent, torrent. *-s, -ntis*: latinised Greek words like gigas, giant. *-rs, -rtis*: ars, art; cohors, cohort; for, chance; Mars; mors, death; sor, lot.

8. Unclassified: cor (G. cordis), heart; nox (G. noctis), night; caput (G. capitis), head; lac (G. lactis), milk.

54. Many substantives of this class were originally vowel stems (see 56), and show their origin by having the termination -ium in the Gen. Pl. and -i in the Abl. Singular. Some not originally vowel stems do the same. (See 38, 2.)

Monosyllabic mute stems, with the characteristic preceded by a consonant, have the Gen. Pl. in -ium: urbiun, of cities; arcium, of citadels; montium, of mountains; partium, of parts; noctium, of the nights. But -um is also found in gentum (ATTIUS), partum (ENNUS); so always opum.

Monosyllabic mute stems, with characteristic preceded by a long vowel or diphthong, vary: dot-ium, lit-ium, fauci-um, fraud-um (-ium), laud-um (-ium). But praed-um, vocum.

Monosyllabic mute stems with characteristic preceded by a short vowel have -um; but fac-ium, nuc-um (-ium), niv-ium (-um).

The polysyllabic stems in -nt and -rt have more frequently -ium, as clientium (-um), of clients; cohortium (-um), of companies. So adulcentium (-um), amantium (-um), infantium (-um), parentium (-ium), serpentium (-um), torrentium (-um); but only quadrantum.

Of other polysyllabic stems feminine stems in -at have frequently both -um and -ium, as aetatum and aetatis, civitatum and civitatium, etc.; the rest have usually -um: but artifex, (h)aruspex, extispex, iudex, suppex, coniux, remex, and usually fornix have -ium. Forceps, manceps, munciaes, princese have -um. Palus has usually paludium.

Notes. -i. The accusative lentim from [lens] is occasionally found, and partim from pars, as an adverb.

2. Sporadic ablatives in -i occur as follows: animanti (Ctc.), bidenti (Lucr.), tridenti (Sil., Verg.), capiti, consonanti (gram.), heredi (Inscr.), legi (Inscr.), lentii (Tit., Col.), luci (early), menti (Col.), occupiti (Pers., Aus.), paci (Varro), parti, rudenti (Vitr.), sorti, torrenti (Sen.).
55. Rule of Gender.—Mute stems, with Nominative in s, are feminine.

1. Exceptions in a k-mute.

Masculines are substantives in -ex, -ēx, -ix, and -unx; except cortex, bark, forfex, shears, frutex, shrub, imbrex, tile, latex, fluid, ōbex, bolt, silex, flint, varix, varicose vein, which are sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine; and faex, dregs, forpex, tongs, lēx, law, nex, slaughter, vibex, weal, and forms of [prex], prayer, which are feminine. Calx, heel, and calx, chalk, are sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine.

2. Exceptions in a t-mute.

Masculine are substantives in -es, -itis, except merges (f.), sheaf; also pēs, foot, and its compounds; parēs, wall; lapis, stone.

Masculines in -ns are: dēns, tooth, and its compounds; fōns, spring; mōns, mountain; pōns, bridge; rudēns, rope; torrēns, torrent; also some substantivised adjectives and participles.

Neuters are only: cor, heart, lac, milk, and caput, head.

II.—VOWEL STEMS.

1. Vowel Stems in i.

56. Masculines and feminines form their Nominative in s. Some feminines change, in the Nominative, the stem-vowel i into e.

Neuters change, in the Nominative, the stem-vowel i into e. This e is generally dropped by polysyllabic neuters after l and r.

Stems in i have Genitive Plural in -ium.

Neuter stems in i have the Ablative Singular in i, and Nominative Plural in -ia.

The varieties of stems are:

1. -is, -is: nearly one hundred substantives, like civis, citizen.

2. -ēs, -ēs: thirty-five, like vulpēs, fox. Some of these have also variant nominatives in -is in good usage.

3. -e, -is: some twenty neuters, as mare, sea.

4. -e, -es: twenty-four neuters, which form Nominative by dropping the stem characteristic and shortening the preceding vowel: animal, -ālis, animal; calcar (G. calcāris), spur.

5. For substantives in -er, -ris, see 44, 2. Irregular is senex, (G. senis; see 57, r. 3), old man.
### Vowel Stems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sa.—N.</td>
<td>collis, hill</td>
<td>turris, tower</td>
<td>vulpes, fox</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>collis, turris</td>
<td></td>
<td>vulpis, maris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>collis, turri</td>
<td></td>
<td>vulpi, mar,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>collis, turrim(em),</td>
<td></td>
<td>vulpem, mare,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>collis, turris</td>
<td></td>
<td>vulpes, mare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>colle, turri(e)</td>
<td></td>
<td>vulpe, mar,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 57. Remarks.

1. The proper ending of the Acc. Sing. -im, is retained *always* in amussis, būris, cucumis (see 47, 2), fūtis, mephitis, rāvis, rūmis, sitis, tussis, vis; and in names of towns and rivers in -is, as Neapolis, Tiberis; *usually* in febris, puppis, pelvis, restis, secūris, turris; *occasionally* in bipennis, clāvis, crātis, cutis, len(t)is (see 54, N. 1), messis, nāvis, neptis, praesaepis, sēmentis, strigilis.

2. The Abl. in -i is found in substantives that regularly have -im in Acc. (except perhaps restis): also not unfrequently in amnis, avis, bipennis, canālis, civis, clāssis, finis (in formulae), fūtis, ignis (in phrases), orbis, sēmentis, strigilis, unguis; *occasionally* in anguis, bilis, clāvis, collis, convallis, corbis, messis, neptis; regularly in neuters in e, al, and ar, except in rēte, and in the towns Caere, Praeneste.

**Note.**—So also the adjectives of this class, when used as substantives by ellipsis: annālis (sc. liber, book), chronicle; nātālis (sc. diēs, day), birthday; Aprilī (sc. mensis, month), and all the other months of the Third Declension: Abl., annālī, nātālī, Aprilī, Septembri, etc. But iuvenis, young man; and aedilīs, aedilē, have Abl., iuvene, aedile; adjectives used as proper nouns have generally Abl. in -e, as, Iuvenālī, Iuvenāle.

3. In the Gen. Pl., instead of the ending -iūm, -um is found *always* in canis, dog, iuvenis, young man, pānis, bread, senex, old, struēs, heap, volucris, bird; *usually* in apis, bee, sēdēs, seat, vātēs, bard; *frequently* in mensis, month. On imber, etc., see 45, B. 1. Post-classical and rare are ambāgum, caedum, clādum, veprum, and a few others; marum (the only form found) occurs once.

4. In the Nom. Pl. -ēs and -ēs are found in early Latin. So occasionally in consonant stems (see 38, 1), but in classical times such usage is doubtful.

5. The proper ending of the Acc. Pl., -is (archaic, -ēs), is found frequently in the classical period along with the later termination -ēs, which supplants -is wholly in the early empire. On the other hand, -is for -ēs in consonant stems is confined to a few doubtful cases in early Latin.
58. Rule of Gender.—1. Vowel stems, with Nominative in -ēs are feminine; those with Nominative in -is are partly masculine, partly feminine.

Masculine are: amnis, river (t., early); antēs (pl.), rows; axis, axle; būris, plough-tail; cassēs (pl.), tolls; caulis, stalk; collis, hill; crīnis, hair; ēnīs, glaive; fascis, faugō; follis, bellows; fūnīs, rope (L., Lucr.); fūstīs, cudgel; ignīs, fire; mānēs (pl.), Mānes; mēnīs, month; mūgilīs (pl.), mullet; orbīs, circle; pānīs, bread; postīs, door-post; torrīs, fire-brand; unguīs, nail; vectīs, lever; vermīs, worm.

Common are: callīs, footpath; canālis, canal; clūnīs, haunch; corīs, basket; finīs, end; rētīs, net (also rēte, n.); sentīs (usually pl.), bramble; scrobīs, ditch; torquīs (es), necklace; tōlēs (pl.), goitre; veprīs (pl.), bramble.

Remark.—Of the names of animals in -is, some are masculine; tigrīs, tiger (fem. in poetry); canīs, dog (also fem.); piscīs, fish; others feminine: apis, bee; avis, bird; ovīs, sheep; fēlis, cat (usually fēlēs).

2. Vowel stems, with Nominative in -ē, -al, -ar, are neuter.

2. Vowel Stems in u.

59. Of stems in u, the monosyllabic stems, two in number, belong to the Third Declension.

Sg.—N. grūs, crane (f.)
G. gruīs
D. gruī
Ac. gruēm
V. grūs
Ab. gruē

Pl.—grūēs
gruūm
gruībus
gruēs
gruēs
gruībus.

Sūs, swine (commonly f.), usually subus, in Dat. and Abl. Plural.

Table of Nominative and Genitive Endings of the Third Declension.

The * before the ending denotes that it occurs only in the one word cited.

60. A. NOMINATIVES ENDING WITH A LIQUID.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-āl</td>
<td>-ālis animal, animal,</td>
<td>-ēr</td>
<td>* -ēris far, spell.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ēl</td>
<td>-ēlis Hannibal, proper name.</td>
<td>-ēr</td>
<td>-ēris ānser, goose.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ēl</td>
<td>-ēlis salt.</td>
<td>-r-is pater, father.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-el</td>
<td>-ell-is mel, honey.</td>
<td>*-iner-is iter, journey.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-il</td>
<td>-il-is pugil, boxer.</td>
<td>-ēr</td>
<td>*-ēris vēr, spina.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-īl</td>
<td>-īlis Tanaquīl, proper name.</td>
<td>-or</td>
<td>-ōr-is color, colour.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ōl</td>
<td>*-ōl-is sōl, the sun.</td>
<td>-or</td>
<td>-is aequor, expance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ul</td>
<td>-ul-is consul, consul.</td>
<td>*-ord-is cor, heart.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ēn</td>
<td>-ēnis rēnēs (pl.), kidneys.</td>
<td>-ur</td>
<td>-ur-is fulgur, lightining.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-en</td>
<td>-ēnis nōmen, name.</td>
<td>-or</td>
<td>-is robour, oak.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ar</td>
<td>-āris calcar, spur.</td>
<td>-ūr</td>
<td>-ūris fūr, thief.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ari</td>
<td>-ari-s nectar, nectar.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Vowel Stems.

B. NOMINATIVES ENDING WITH s, OR x (cs, gs).

Nom. Gen.
-ās *-ās-is vās, dish.
*-ar-is mās, male.
*-ass-is ās, a copper.
*-āt-is aetās, age.
-as *-ad-is vās, surety.
*-at-is anās, duck.
-aes* -ad-is praes, surety.
*-aer-is aeis, brass.
-aus *aud-is fraus, cheatery.
-
-es *-is nūbēs, cloud.
-ed-is pēs, foot.
-*er-is Cerēs, Ceres.
-et-is abīis, frr.
-
-ōt-is quīēs, rest.
-es *et-is seges, crop.
-id-is obes, hostage.
-it-is miles, soldier.
-
-is *-is amnis, river.
-id-is lapis, stone.
-
-in-is sanguis, blood.
-er-is cinis, ashes.
-
-Is *-It-is lis, suit at law.
-
-fr-is glīs, dormouse.
-
-ōs *-ōd-is cūstōs, keeper.
-
-ōr-is flōs, flower.
-
-ōt-is cōs, whetstone.
-
-ōv-is bōs, ox.
-
-os *os-is os, bone.
-
-us *ud-is pecus, cattle, sheep.
-*ur-is Lūgus, a Ligurian.
-
-or-is corpus, body.
-
-er-is scelus, crime.
-
-ūs *-us-is sūs, swine.
-
-ūd-is incūs, awell.
-
-ūr-is ūs, right.
-
-ūt-is salūs, weal.

Nom. Gen.
-īs *-It-is puls, porridge.
*-m(p)s *-m-is hiems, winter.
-
-ns *-nd-is frōns, leafy branch.
-
-nt-is frōns, forehead.
-
-rs *-rd-is concors, concordant.
-
-rt-is pars, part.
-
-bs *-b-is urbs, city.
-
-ps *-p-is stirps, stalk.
-
-eps *-ip-is prīnceps, chief.
-
-*-up-is auceps, fowler.
-
-āx *-ēc-is pāx, peace.
-
-ax *-ac-is fāx, torch.
-
-aex *-aec-is faex, dregs.
-
-aux *-auc-is [faux,] throat.
-
-ec *-ec-is nex, death.
-
-ic-is iūdex, judge.
-
-eg-is grex, flock.
-
-*ig-is rēmex, rover.
-
-ēx *-ēc-is allēx, pickle.
-
-*ic-is vibēx(īx), weal.
-
-ēg-is rēx, king.
-
-*ig-is strix, screech-owl.
-
-*iv-is nix, snow.
-
-*ox *-oc-is vōx, voice.
-
-*oc-is praecox, early-ripe.
-
-*og-is Allobroкс, Allobrogian.
-
*-oct-is nox, night.
-
-ux *-c-is crux, cross.
-
-ug-is cōniux, spouse.
-
-*ux *-ūc-is lūx, light.
-
-ūg-is [frūx,] fruit.
-
-lix *-lc-is fālx, sickle.
-
-nc-is lanx, dish.
-
-*-n-is carō, flesh.
FOURTH DECLENSION.

61. The Fourth Declension embraces only disyllabic and polysyllabic stems in u.

The endings are those of the Third Declension.

In the Genitive and Ablative Singular, and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural (sometimes, too, in the Dative Singular), the u of the stem absorbs the vowel of the ending, and becomes long. In the Dative and Ablative Plural it is weakened to i before the ending -bus.

The Accusative Singular, as always in vowel stems, has the ending -m, without a connecting vowel (compare the Accusative in -i-m of the stems in i), hence -u-m.

### MASCULINE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SG. - N.</th>
<th>fructus, fruit.</th>
<th>PL. - fructūs,</th>
<th>SG. - cornū, horn.</th>
<th>PL. - cornua,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G. fructūs,</td>
<td>fructuum,</td>
<td>cornūs,</td>
<td>cornuum,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. fructūl (fructū),</td>
<td>fructibus,</td>
<td>cornū,</td>
<td>cornibus,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. fructūm,</td>
<td>fructūs,</td>
<td>cornū,</td>
<td>cornua,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. fructus,</td>
<td>fructūs,</td>
<td>cornū,</td>
<td>cornua,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ah. fructū.</td>
<td>fructūm.</td>
<td>cornua.</td>
<td>cornibus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### NEUTER.

**Remarks.** - 1. Dat. Abl. The original form -u-bus is retained always in acus, arcus, quercus, tribus, and in classical times in partus. But artus, genu, lacus, portus, specus, tonitrū, verū, have both forms.


### Notes. - 1. Singular: Genitive. In early inscriptions we find the ending -os, as senātus; and in early authors not infrequently -is, along with the contraction -ūs (-uis), which becomes the regular form in classical times. In inscriptions under the empire -us is occasionally found, as exercitūs. The termination -i, after the analogy of the Second Declension, is common in early Latin, and is still retained in some words even into the classical period; as senātī (Cic., Sall., Livy), tumultī (Sall.).

2. Dative. In the early time -uēi is found very rarely for -ui. Also ū, as senātū, fructū, which became the only form for nerters. In classical times -ū in masc. and fem. is poetical only (Caesar uses, however, cáṣū, exercitū, magistrātū, senātū, quaestū), lint extends to prose in the Augustan age and later.


4. Genitive. The poets frequently contract -um into -um for metrical reasons, and this usage was sometimes extended to prose (not by Cicero) in common words; as passūm for passuum.

5. Colus, distaff, belongs properly to the Second Declension, but has variants: G. colūs, Ab. colū, Pl. N., Ac., colūs, from the Fourth.
62. Rule of Gender.—Substantives in -us are masculine; those in -ā are neuter.

Exceptions.—Feminines are acus, needle (usually), domus, house, idūs (pl.), the Ides, manus, hand, penus, victuals (also m.), porticus, piazza, quinquātrūs (pl.), festival of Minerva, tribus, tribe. Early and late Latin show some further variations.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

63. The stem ends in -ē; Nominative in s.

In the Genitive and Dative Singular -ē has been shortened after a consonant.

In the Accusative Singular we find always ē.

The ending in the Genitive Singular is that of the Second Declension, -ī; the other endings are those of the Third.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MASCULINE</th>
<th>FEMININE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Pl.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dīēs, day</td>
<td>dīēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. dīēt</td>
<td>dīērum,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. dīēt</td>
<td>dīēbus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. diēm</td>
<td>dīēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. dīēs</td>
<td>dīēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. dīē</td>
<td>dīēbus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Pl.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēs, thing</td>
<td>rēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. rēt</td>
<td>rērum,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. rēt</td>
<td>rēbus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. rēm</td>
<td>rēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. rēs</td>
<td>rēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. rē.</td>
<td>rēbus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remarks.—1. Plural: Gen., Dat., Abl. Common in but two substantives, dīēs, rēs. Late Latin shows also specīēbus, and very rarely specēbus and acīēbus.

2. Many words of the Fifth Declension have a parallel form, which follows the First Declension, as mollitēs, softness, and mollitēia. Where this is the case, forms of the Fifth Declension are usually found only in the Nom., Acc., and Abl. Singular.

Notes.—1. Singular: Genitive. The older ending -ē-s is found sporadically in early Latin, but usually the ending -ē-l, which became later -ē-l after consonants, though early poets show numerous examples of rēī, spēī, fidēī. Ėī was occasionally scanned as one syllable, whence arose the contraction ē, which is retained not unfrequently in the classical period; so acīē (Caes., Sall.), dīē (Pl., Caes., Sall., Livy, later), fidēī (Pl., Hor., Ov., late Prose), and other less certain cases; ē occurs very rarely, principally in early Latin (but dīī, Verg., perrīcīī, Cic.). Plebēēs, in combination with tribūnus, aedīlis, scītum, often shows a Gen. plebī (plebēi).

2. Dative. The contraction -ē is found, but less often than in the Gen.: acē (Sall.); dīē, facēī (early Latin); fidēī (early Latin, Caes., Sall., Livy), perrīcīē (Livy), and a few other forms. The Dat. in -ē is found very rarely in early Latin.

64. Rule of Gender.—Substantives of the Fifth Declension are feminine except dīēs (which in the Sing. is common, and in the Pl. masculine), and meridīēs (m.), midday.
Declension of Greek Substantives.

65. Greek substantives, especially proper names, are commonly Latinised, and declined regularly according to their stem-characteristic. Many substantives, however, either retain their Greek form exclusively, or have the Greek and Latin forms side by side. These variations occur principally in the Singular, in the Plural the declension is usually regular.

Singular Forms of Greek Substantives.

First Declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Penelopē,</th>
<th>Leōnidās,</th>
<th>Anchiseēs,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>Penelopēs,</td>
<td>Leōnidae,</td>
<td>Anchiseae,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>Penelopae,</td>
<td>Leōnidae,</td>
<td>Anchisae,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>Penelopēn,</td>
<td>Leōnidam, an,</td>
<td>Anchisēn, am,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>Penelopē,</td>
<td>Leōnidā,</td>
<td>Anchisē, ē, ā,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Second Declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Délos, us,</th>
<th>Ílion, um,</th>
<th>Panthūs,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>Délfí,</td>
<td>Ílii,</td>
<td>Panthī,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>Déloē,</td>
<td>Íliō,</td>
<td>Panthō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>Délon, um,</td>
<td>Ílion, um,</td>
<td>Panthūn,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>Déle,</td>
<td>Ílion, um,</td>
<td>Panthū,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third Declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Solôn, Solo,</th>
<th>Ær, air.</th>
<th>Xenophōn,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>Solōnis,</td>
<td>Æris,</td>
<td>Xenophōntis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>Solōnī,</td>
<td>Ærī,</td>
<td>Xenophōntē,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>Solōna, em,</td>
<td>Æra, em,</td>
<td>Xenophōnta, em,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>Solōn,</td>
<td>Ær,</td>
<td>Xenophōn,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>Solōne.</td>
<td>Ære.</td>
<td>Xenophōnte.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mixed Declensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Orphēus,</th>
<th>Athōs,</th>
<th>Oedipūs,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>Orpheī, ēi,</td>
<td>Athō, ēonis,</td>
<td>Oedip-odis, -ī,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>Orphēō,</td>
<td>Athō,</td>
<td>Oedipōdī,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>Orpheum, ea,</td>
<td>Athō, ēon, ēonem,</td>
<td>Oedip-um, -oda,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>Orphēū,</td>
<td>Athōs,</td>
<td>Oedipe,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### IRREGULAR SUBSTANTIVES.

#### 1. Singular: Genitive.

The Greek termination **οο** (**ω**) appears rarely in early Latin, but **ι** (**ω**) is more frequent, especially in geographical names, etc. The termination **-ος** (**ο**) is rare except in feminine patronymics in **-ις**, **-ας**, **-ιδος**, **-αδος**.

#### 2. Dative.

The ending **-ι** is very rare; and rarer still is the Dat. in **-ο** from feminines in **-ι», and Dat. in **-ηι» from Nominatives in **-υς**.

#### 3. Accusative.

**-α» is the most common termination in the Third Declension, and is found regularly in some words otherwise Latinised; as **αερα», aetherá. Stems in **-ο» usually have **-ο», very rarely **-οι».

#### 4. Plural.

In the Second Declension **ος** is found occasionally in the Nom., in early Latin; as, **αδελφοι». The Third Declension shows frequently **εσ** in the Nom. and **εο» in the Accusative; also occasionally **ε» in the Nom. and Acc. of neuters, and **-ει» (but only in the poets) in the Dative.

#### 5. For other peculiarities, not observable in the paradigms, the dictionaries should be consulted. Sometimes the forms are merely transliterations of Greek cases.

### IRREGULAR SUBSTANTIVES.

#### A. Heterogeneous Substantives, or those whose gender varies:

1. The variation occurs in several cases in either number or in both.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin (um)</th>
<th>English (Latin)</th>
<th>Family Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abrotonum</td>
<td>a plant (rare)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aevom</td>
<td>age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>baculum</td>
<td>staff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>balteus</td>
<td>girdle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buxus</td>
<td>box-wood (rare)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[calamister]</td>
<td>curling-iron (rare)</td>
<td>intibus, -um, succory (rare),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cæsus</td>
<td>cheese</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cavom</td>
<td>cavity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cingulum</td>
<td>belt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clipeus</td>
<td>shield</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>collum</td>
<td>neck</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>costum</td>
<td>a plant (rare)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forum</td>
<td>market</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gladius</td>
<td>sword</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ignulum</td>
<td>collar-bone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nardum</td>
<td>nard (rare)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nāsus</td>
<td>nose</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palátum, -us, palate,</td>
<td>Thésaurus, -um, treasure,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pileus, -um, cap,</td>
<td>Uterus, -um, womb,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sagum, -us, cloak,</td>
<td>Vallus, -um, palisade,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tergum, -us, back,</td>
<td>and many others.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. The gender varies in Singular and Plural. a. The Plural has -a sometimes, while the Singular ends in -us (or -er): clívs, hill, ícus, fest, locus (loca, localities; loci, usually passages in books, topics), and many others, especially names of places.

b. The Plural has -i, while the Singular ends in -um: filum, thread, frénum, bit, rásstrum, hoe, and many others.

68. B. Heteroclites, or substantives which show different stems with the same Nominative; Metaplasts, or those which have certain forms from another than the Nominative stem.

| 1st, 2d. essedá, -um, chariot, | margaríta, -um, pearl, |
| 1st, 5th. dúritia, -és, hardness, | mätéra, -és, matter, |
| 2d, 1st. mendúm, -a, fault, | sertum, -a, wreath. |

The following form their Plural according to the First Declension only: balneum, bath, délicium, pleasure, épulum, banquet, fulmentum, prop.

4. 2d, 3d. sequester, trustee, Mulciber, Vulcan.

5. 2d, 4th. Many names of trees of the Second Declension have certain cases according to the Fourth; never, however, the Gen. and Dat. Pl., and very rarely the Dat. Sing.; as cornus, cupressus, fágus, fícus, laurus, myrútus, plínus, and a few others.

Also angíportus, alley, colús, distaff, domus, house, and a large number of substantives of the Fourth Declension which have one or two cases of the Second; so arcús has G. arci; cónátus (-um), iúsus (-um), vultúus have Nom. Pl. in a; senátus has Gen. Sing. senáti. See 63, R. 2.

Finally, some substantives of the Second Declension form individual cases according to the Fourth: fasíst (Ac. Pl. fástús), fretum (N. fretus, Ab. fretú), lectus (G. lécvíus), tribútum (N. tribútus), and others.

6. 2d, 5th. dilívíum, -íís, flood.

7. 3d, 2d. Vás, vessel, and vásáum; palumbes, pigeon, and palumbus; [iácigen], acré, and iúgerum; all Greek nouns in -a (G. atis), as poémá, poem (G. poématis), but Pl. Gen. poémátórum, Dat. Abí. poématis.

8. 3d, 5th. Fámes, hunger, tábes, corruption, have Abí. famé, tábe; requíes, quiet (G. -étis) has Acc. requíem, Abí. requí; sátiás (G. étis) is early and late for sátiétás, sufficiency, and a form sátiás is cited from late authors; plébs (G. plébis), commons, and plébés (G. plébei).

9. 4th, 3d. Specús, cave, has occasionally forms of the Third Declension.

10. 2d, 3d, 1st. Vesper, evening, has Acc. vesperum; Dat. Abí. vesperí; Pl. Nom. vesperá of the Second Declension; Acc. vesperam; Abí. vesperá of the First; Gen. vesperís; Abí. vesper; Loc. vesperí of the Third.

11. 4th, 2d, 3d. Penus, food, (G. ús). Forms of the Second Declension are rare; of the Third early and late.

12. Variations in the same Declension: femur (G. femoris, feminís, etc.); iécur (G. iécoris, iécinorís, etc.); pecus, early, also pecú (G. pecorís, pecudís, etc.). Also lílē and líléx, baccar and baccaris, cassis and cassída, lac and lacte (early), pānis and pāne (early), réte and rétis, sátiás and sátiétás.
II. Defective Substantives.

I. SUBSTANTIVES DEFECTIVE IN NUMBER.

69. A. Substantives used in Singular only: *Singularia tantum.*
Most abstract substantives, and names of materials; such as

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Substantive</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>iustitia</td>
<td>justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aurum</td>
<td>gold</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Substantives used in Plural only: *Pluralia tantum.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Substantive</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>altaria, ium,</td>
<td>altar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ambages,</td>
<td>round about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>angustiae,</td>
<td>straits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>antae,</td>
<td>door-posts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>antes,</td>
<td>rows (of vines)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arma,orum,</td>
<td>arms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>armamenta,orum,</td>
<td>dessert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bella,orum,</td>
<td>two-horse, four-horse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bigae, quadrigae,</td>
<td>chariot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cancelli,</td>
<td>lattice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>casses,</td>
<td>toils (snare)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caulae,</td>
<td>opening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cervicis,</td>
<td>neck (sing. early, late, and poet.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cibaria,</td>
<td>victuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>claustrum,</td>
<td>lock (sing. late)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clitellae,</td>
<td>pack-saddle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>codicilli,</td>
<td>a short note</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compedes,</td>
<td>fetters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crepundia,orum,</td>
<td>rattle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cuinae,</td>
<td>cradle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>divitiae,</td>
<td>riches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dumeta,orum,</td>
<td>thorn-bush</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>epulae (epulum),</td>
<td>banquet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excubiae,</td>
<td>watching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exsequiae,</td>
<td>funeral procession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exta,orum,</td>
<td>the internal organs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exuviae,</td>
<td>equipments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>facetiae,</td>
<td>witticism (sing. early and late)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fasti (fastus),</td>
<td>calendar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fauces,</td>
<td>gullet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feriae,</td>
<td>holidays</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flabra,</td>
<td>breezes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foris,</td>
<td>door (sing. early, late and poet.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fraga,orum,</td>
<td>strawberries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grates,</td>
<td>thanks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hiberna,</td>
<td>winter quarters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idus, Kalendae,</td>
<td>Ides, Calends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nones,</td>
<td>Nones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incunabula,</td>
<td>swaddling-clothes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indutiae,</td>
<td>truce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inferiae,</td>
<td>sacrifices for the dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insidia</td>
<td>intestines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lactes</td>
<td>lamentations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lamenta</td>
<td>stone-quarries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lautomiae,</td>
<td>children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>liber,</td>
<td>shades of the dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manes</td>
<td>spoils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manubiae,</td>
<td>threats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minae</td>
<td>town-wall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moenia, ium,</td>
<td>market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nundinae (-num)</td>
<td>wedding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nuptiae,</td>
<td>eyelids (sing. late)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>palpebrae,</td>
<td>festival for dead relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parentalia,</td>
<td>ruines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parietinae,</td>
<td>the Penates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>penates,</td>
<td>trappings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phalarae,</td>
<td>diaphragm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praeordia,orum,</td>
<td>jugglers' tricks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praestrigiae,</td>
<td>prayer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>precis,-um,</td>
<td>first-fruits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>primitiae,</td>
<td>rubbish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisquiliae,</td>
<td>remains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reliquiae,</td>
<td>kidneye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>renes,</td>
<td>salt-pits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>salinae,</td>
<td>stairway</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scalae,</td>
<td>brambles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sentes,</td>
<td>spoils (sing. late, and poet.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spolia,orum,</td>
<td>betrothal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sponsalia, ium,</td>
<td>succor (early and late)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suppetiae,</td>
<td>winged sandals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>talaria, ium,</td>
<td>darkness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenebrae,</td>
<td>warm baths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thermæ,</td>
<td>tonsils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tonsillæ,</td>
<td>colic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tormina,</td>
<td>tricks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tricæ,</td>
<td>necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>utensilia, ium,</td>
<td>folding-doors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>valvae,</td>
<td>scouring (sing. poet. and late)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verbera,um,</td>
<td>a legal claim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vindiciae,</td>
<td>shrubbery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>virgulta,orum,</td>
<td>entrails (sing. poet. and late)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viscera,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Notes.—1. Four of these have the Abl. Sing. in -e: ambäge, compede, fauce, prece.

2. Names of persons or towns, and collectives and the like, may be either singuläria tantum, as Iūppiter; Rōma; capillus, hair; or plurälia tantum, as mālōres, ancestors; Quīritēs; liberī, children; pulmōnēs, lungs. Many of these are not included in the above list, which is meant to contain only the principal forms.

Akin to plurälia tantum are:

C. Substantives used in Plural with a special sense: Heterologa.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aedēs, is</td>
<td>temple (better aedis)</td>
<td>house, palace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aqua,</td>
<td>water,</td>
<td>mineral springs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auxilium,</td>
<td>help,</td>
<td>auxiliaries, reinforcements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carcer,</td>
<td>prison,</td>
<td>barriers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>castrum,</td>
<td>fort,</td>
<td>camp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cēra,</td>
<td>wax,</td>
<td>waxen tablets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comitium,</td>
<td>place of assemblage,</td>
<td>assemblage for voting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cópia,</td>
<td>abundance,</td>
<td>forces, troops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>délicium,</td>
<td>pleasure,</td>
<td>pet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>facultās,</td>
<td>capability,</td>
<td>goods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fnis,</td>
<td>end, limit,</td>
<td>territory, borders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fortūna,</td>
<td>fortune,</td>
<td>possessions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habēna,</td>
<td>strap,</td>
<td>reins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impedimentum,</td>
<td>hindrance,</td>
<td>baggage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>littera,</td>
<td>letter (of the alphabet),</td>
<td>epistle, literature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lūdus,</td>
<td>game, school,</td>
<td>public games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opera,</td>
<td>work,</td>
<td>workmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pars,</td>
<td>part,</td>
<td>also role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rōstrum,</td>
<td>beak,</td>
<td>the tribunal at Rome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sors,</td>
<td>lot,</td>
<td>also oracles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tabula,</td>
<td>board, tablet,</td>
<td>picks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vigilia,</td>
<td>a night-watch,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. SUBSTANTIVES DEFECTIVE IN CASES

70. A. Substantives occurring in only one case: Gen. dicis, form.; Acc. Ënītiās (ire), (to) lie; pessum (ire), (to) perish; Abl. pondō, in weight; sponte, of free will; tābō, corruption (Gen. late); and many verbs in ū, as accūtū, adominūtū, arcessūtū, coāctū, compressū, concēssū, domītū, inducētū, interpositū, invītūtū, īussū (other forms late), īnīussū, mandātū, missū, nātū, permīssū, prōmīttū, rogātū. A few others occur occasionally in ante-classical and post-classical Latin.

B. Substantives with only two cases: fas, nefās, Sing. N. Ac.; instar, Sing. N. Ac.; interecēō, Sing. Ac. Ab.; naecum, Sing. G. Ac.; secus, Sing. N. Ac.; spīnter, Sing. N. Ac.; suppētāe, Plur. N. Ac., and a few others. Some verbs in -ns have in Plural only Nom. and Acc., as impetūs, monītūs. Greek neuters in -os have only Nom. and Acc. Singular.


D. Defective substantives with more than three cases are numerous, but in the classical period the most important are: calx, lume, cōs, [daps], dica, [diciō], flāmen, blast, forum, [frūx], [indāgo], later, lūx, [ops], ēs, mouth, pāx, rēmēx, vis, [vix], and most substantives of the Fifth Decension. The Nominatives in brackets do not occur, but only oblique cases.

E. Nēmō, nobody, substitutes for Gen. and Abl. nŭllus hominis, and nŭllō homine. In the Dat. and Acc. it is normal; nēmini, nēminem.
ADJECTIVES.

71. III. Peculiarities.

äs, assis (m.), a copper.
anceps, auncipis, aower.
bös (for bovs), bovis (c.), ox, cow.
G. Pl. boum.
D. Ab. būbus, bōbus.
caput, capitis (n.), head.
anceps, ancipitis, two-headed.
praeceps, -cipitis, headlong.
carō, carnis (f.), flesh.
Pl. G. carnium.
Cerēs, Cereris, Ceres.
fār, farris (n.) spelt.
fell, fellis (n.), gall.
femur, femoris (m.), thigh.
feminis.
iter, itineris (n.), way, route.
ieceur, iecoris (m.), liver.
iecinoris, iecineris, iocineris.
Iūppiter, Iovis.
mel, mellis (m.), honey.
nix, nivis (f.), snow.
ōs, ōris (n.), mouth.
pollis, pollinis (m.), flour.
sanguis, sanguinis (m.), blood.
senex, senis, old man.
supellēx, supellēctilis (f.), furniture.
Venus, Veneris, Venus.

ADJECTIVES.

72. The adjective adds a quality to the substantive. Adjectives have the same declension as substantives, and according to the stem-characteristic are of the First and Second, or Third Declension.

Adjectives of the First and Second Declension.

73. Stems in -o for masculine and neuter, -a for feminine; nominative in -us, -a, -um; (er), -a, -um. The same variations in termination occur as in the substantives; except that adjectives in -ius form Singular Genitive and Vocative regularly. See 33, R. 1 and 2.

Bonus, bona, bonum, good.

M. F. N. M. F. N.
Sg.—N. bonus, bona, bonum. Pl.—boni, bonārum, bonārum.
G. boni, bona, bonum. bonis.
D. bonō, bona, bonē. bonē.
Ac. bonum, bonam, bonum. bonis, bonā, bona.
V. bone, bona, bonum. bon, bonis.
Ab. bonō, bonā, bonō. bonum.

Miser, misera, miserum, wretched.

Sg.—N. miser, misera, miserum. Pl.—miserī, miserārum, miserārum.
G. miserī, miserae, miserē. miseris, miserīs, miserīs.
D. miserū, miserae, miserō. miserō, miserēs, miserēs.
Ac. miserum, miseraum, miserum. miserū, miserē, miserē.
V. miser, misera, miserum. miserī, miserae, miserēs.
Ab. miserū, misera, miserē.

SG. — N. pl. — pl.

miser, misera, miserum.
miserī, miserae, miserī,
miserō, miserē, miserō.
miserum, miseraum, miserēs.
ADJECTIVES.

Piger, pigra, pigrum, slow.

SG.—N. piger, pigra, pigrum. Pl.—pigri, pigrae, pigra.
G. pigri, pigrae, pigri. pigrorum, pigrarum, pigrorum.
D. pigro, pigrae, pigro. pigris, pigris, pigris.
Ac. pigrum, pigram, pigro. pigri, pigrae, pigra.
V. piger, pigra, pigrum. pigri, pigrae, pigra.
Ab. pigro, pigra, pigro. pigris, pigris, pigris.

Remark.—For irregularities in the declension of ambō, both, duo, two, see 95; for meus, my, see 100, r. 1.

74. Stems in -ro follow the same principle in the formation of the Nominative masculine as the substantives, except that -us is retained in ferus, wild, properus, quick, praeproperus, praeposterus, absurd, inferus, lower (infer is early), superus, upper (super is early), and a few others in late Latin; also when -ro is preceded by a long vowel; as, austerus, harsh, matūrus, early, procērus, tall, purus, pure, severus, serious, sincērus, sincere, sērus, late, vērus, true.

Remarks.—1. Dextera, dexterum, etc., right, are found side by side with dextra, dextrum, etc., throughout the language (see 8, 2). Caesar uses only the shorter form.
2. A few adjectives of this class lack the Nom. Sing. wholly or in part; so there is no cēterus or posterus in the classical period.

75. Notes on the Cases.—1. The Gen. Sing. in -ā from adjectives in -ius occurs occasionally in inscriptions and in late authors. The Gen. Sing. fem. in early Latin had sometimes -ā, and in inscriptions occasionally -aes and -es.
2. The Dat. Sing. fem. in early Latin occasionally ended in -ā, and in the oldest inscriptions in -ā.
3. In early inscriptions the -d of the Abl. is occasionally retained.
4. Very rarely in early inscriptions does the Nom. Pl. masc. end in -ēs, and in one case the Nom. Pl. fem. of a perfect participle ends in -āl.
5. In poetry, but at all periods, we find -um alongside of -orum and -ārum in the Gen. Plural.
6. In the Dat. and Abl. Pl. -ēs from adjectives in -ius is often contracted to ēs; usually in names of months and in adjectives formed from proper names. In early inscriptions -ābus is found occasionally for -ēs in the Dat. and Abl. Pl. feminine.

76. The so-called pronominal adjectives alter, one of the two; alteruter (a combination of alter and utter), either of the two; alius, other; neuter, neither; nūllus, none; sōlus, sole; tōtus, whole; āllus, any; ānus, one; uter, which of the two, and their compounds, show the following variations in declension.
ADJECTIVES.

1. They usually make the Gen. Sing. in -ius for all genders.

REMARKS.—1. The Gen. alius is very rare, and as a possessive its place is usually taken by aliēnus.

2. The 1 of the ending -ius (except in alius) could be shortened in poetry. This was usually the case with alter, and regularly in the compounds of uter; as, utriusque.

Note.—The regular forms are early and rare; in classical prose only nūllī (Cic. Rosc. Com. 16, 48) and occasionally aliae.

2. They usually make the Dat. Sing. in -i.

Note.—Regular forms are sometimes found, but in classical prose only alterae, nūlīō, tōtō, and perhaps tōtæ. Aliū is found in early Latin for aliī.

3. In the compound alteruter we find usually both parts declined; sometimes the second only.


Note.—Alis and alid, for alius and aliud, are early and rare; the latter, however, occurs several times in LuC. and once in Catullus.

Adjectives of the Third Declension.

77. The declension of the adjectives of the Third Declension follows the rules given for the substantives.

Most adjectives of the Third Declension are vowel stems in -i, with two (rarely three) endings in the Nominative.

The remaining adjectives of the Third Declension are consonant stems and have one ending only in the Nominative.

Adjectives of Two Endings.

78. 1. These have (except stems in -ri) one ending in the Nominative for masculine and feminine, one for neuter.

Most stems in -i form the masculine and feminine alike, with Nominative in s; but the Nominative neuter weakens the characteristic i into e. (Compare mare, sea.)

2. Several stems in -i, preceded by r (cr, tr, br), form the Nominative masculine, not by affixing s, but by dropping the i and inserting short e before the r, as, stem acri, sharp, Nom., ācer (m.), ācris (f.), ācre (n.).

These adjectives are ācer, alacer, campester, celeber, celer, equester, paluster, pedester, puter, salīber, silvester, terrester, volucer, and the last four months; and are sometimes called adjectives of three endings.

The e belongs to the stem in celer, celeris, celerē, swift, and therefore appears in all cases.
ADJECTIVES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M. and F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sg.—N.</strong> facilis, <em>easy.</em></td>
<td>facile,</td>
<td>acer, <em>sharp,</em></td>
<td>acris,</td>
<td>acre,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. facilis,</td>
<td>facilis,</td>
<td>acris,</td>
<td>acris,</td>
<td>acris,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. facili,</td>
<td>facili,</td>
<td>acri,</td>
<td>acri,</td>
<td>acri,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. facilem,</td>
<td>facile,</td>
<td>acrem,</td>
<td>acri,</td>
<td>acre,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. facili,</td>
<td>facile,</td>
<td>acer,</td>
<td>acris,</td>
<td>acre,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. facili,</td>
<td>facilil,</td>
<td>acri,</td>
<td>acri,</td>
<td>acri,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pl.—N.</strong> facilès,</td>
<td>facilia,</td>
<td>acrēs,</td>
<td>acrēs,</td>
<td>acria,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. facilium,</td>
<td>facilium,</td>
<td>acrium,</td>
<td>acrium,</td>
<td>acrium,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. facilibus,</td>
<td>facilibus,</td>
<td>acribus,</td>
<td>acribus,</td>
<td>acribus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. facilès (is),</td>
<td>facilia,</td>
<td>acrēs (is),</td>
<td>acrēs (is),</td>
<td>acria,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. facilès,</td>
<td>facilia,</td>
<td>acrēs,</td>
<td>acrēs,</td>
<td>acria,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. facilibus,</td>
<td>facilibus.</td>
<td>acribus,</td>
<td>acribus,</td>
<td>acribus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Remark.**—Stems in -āli and -āri differ from the substantival declension in not suffering apocope in the Nom. Sing. neuter, except occasionally capital. See 56.

79. **Remarks.**—1. Many adjectives of two endings (except stems in -ri) have also -e in the Ablative. This is found chiefly in the poets, very rarely, if ever, in classical prose, occasionally in early and pre-Augustan prose, and more often in inscriptions. When, however, these adjectives become proper names, -e is the rule. See 57, r. 2, n.

2. The Gen. Pl. in -um is found occasionally in inscriptions, frequently in the poets. In classical prose are found only Titiiēsum and familiiārum.

**Notes.**—1. The Nom. Pl. has in early Latin not unfrequently -is.

2. In the Acc. Pl., masc. and fem., of adjectives, the ending -is (ēs) is found alongside of -ēs in every period of the language, though in decreasing proportion, and after the Augustan period principally in omnis.

### ADJECTIVES OF ONE ENDING.

80. Adjective stems of one ending (consonant stems) close with l, r, s, a p mute, a k mute, or a t mute. Examples are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>vigil</th>
<th>alert</th>
<th>memor</th>
<th>mindful</th>
<th>pauper</th>
<th>poor</th>
<th>cieur</th>
<th>tame</th>
<th>pūbēs</th>
<th>adult</th>
<th>vetus</th>
<th>old</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>caelebs</td>
<td>unmarried</td>
<td>inops</td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>inopis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>particips</td>
<td>sharing</td>
<td>caelibus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audāx</td>
<td>bold</td>
<td>felix</td>
<td>lucky</td>
<td>duplex</td>
<td>double</td>
<td>ferōx</td>
<td>fierce</td>
<td>trux</td>
<td>savage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audācis</td>
<td>felicis</td>
<td>duplicis</td>
<td>ferōcis</td>
<td>trucis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dives</td>
<td>rich</td>
<td>déses</td>
<td>slothful</td>
<td>composit</td>
<td>possessed</td>
<td>prūdēns</td>
<td>wise</td>
<td>concors</td>
<td>harmonious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dīvitis</td>
<td>désidis</td>
<td>compotis</td>
<td>prūdentis</td>
<td>concordis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Present active participles are also consonant stems and follow the same declension.

81. The stem varieties are:

1. Liquid stems in (a) -1: vigil (G. vigil-is), alert, pervigil; (b) -r: par (G. par-is), equal, impar (these two lengthen the vowel in the Nom.), compar, and three others; pauper (G. pauper-is), poor, über; memor (G. memor-is), mindful, immemor; concolor (G. -dr-is), and three other compounds of color; dégener (G. -er-is), from genus (G. gener-is).

2. Sibilant stems in (a) -s: exos (G. exoss-is), boneless (LUCR.); (b) -r: gnárus (G. gnárur-is; PLAUT.), Ligus, vetus; pübes (G. püber-is), impübes.

3. Mute stems in (a) a K-mute: audäx (G. audäc-is), bold, and four others; félx (G. félisc-is), pernix, atröx (G. atröc-is), feröx, vélöx; exölx (G. -lág-is); trux (G. truc-is), redux; the multiplicatives in -plex (G. -plic-is), as simplex, etc. (b) A P-mute: inops (G. inop-is); cælæbs (G. caelib-is); compounds of -cëps (G. -clp-is, from capere), as particeps, and of -céps (G. -cipit-is, from caput), as anceps, praecëps (PLAUT. sometimes uses, in the Nom., ancipæs, praecipæs, etc.). (c) A T-mute: hebes (G. hebet-is) and three others; locuplës (G. -plét-is) and three others; dives (G. divít-is), for which in poetry dis (G. dit-is), sósres; compos (G. compot-is), impos; superstes (G. -sti-tis), àles; exhérës (G. ed-is); déses (G. désid-is), reses; compounds from substantives: cónsors (G. -sort-is), exsors; concors, discors, misercors, sóors, vécors; expers (G. -ért-is), iners, sollers; ámëns (G. áment-is), dëmëns; intercus (G. cut-is); pernox (G. -noct-is); bipës (G. -ped-is), quadrupës, álipës; adjectives and participles in -àns, -ëns (G. -ánt-is, -ent-is); and proper names in -ás (G. át-is), -ís (G. -it-is), -ns (G. -nt-is), -rs (G. -rt-is), Arpinás, Samnís, Veiëns, Camers.

82. The consonant stems have the same forms in all the genders, except that in the Accusative Singular, and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural, the neuter is distinguished from the masculine and feminine.

In the oblique cases they follow in part the declension of vowel stems; thus,

1. In the Ablative Singular they have 1 and e—when used as adjectives commonly 1; when used as substantives commonly e.

The participles, as such, have e; but used as substantives or adjectives, either e or i, with tendency to 1.

2. In the neuter Plural they have ia; except vetus, old, which has vetera. Many have no neuter.

3. In the Genitive Plural they have: ium, when the stem-characteristic is preceded by a long vowel or a consonant; um, when the characteristic is preceded by a short vowel. The participles have ium.
### ADJECTIVES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M. and F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M. and F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M. and F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—N. felix, lucky, felix,</td>
<td>prudens, wise, prudens,</td>
<td>vetus, old, vetus,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. felicitas, felice,</td>
<td>prudentia, prudentis,</td>
<td>veteris, veteris,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. feliciter, felici,</td>
<td>prudenti, prudenti,</td>
<td>vetrici, vetrici,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. felicem, felix,</td>
<td>prudentem, prudens,</td>
<td>veterem, vetus,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. felix, felix,</td>
<td>prudens, prudens,</td>
<td>vetus, vetus,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. felici (e) felici (e)</td>
<td>prudenti (e) prudenti (e)</td>
<td>vetere (i) vetere (i)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Pl.—N. felices, felicia, | prudentes, prudentia, | veteres, vetera, | | | |
| G. felicitum, felicium, | prudentium, prudentium, | veterum, veterum, | | | |
| D. feliciebus, feliciebus, | prudentibus, prudentibus, | veteribus, veteribus, | | | |
| Ac. felicem, felicia, | prudentes, prudentia, | veteres, vetera, | | | |
| V. felices, felicia, | prudentes, prudentia, | veteres, vetera, | | | |
| Ab. feliciebus, feliciebus, prudentibus, | prudentibus, veteribus, | veteribus, | | | |

### 83. REMARK.—In early and late Latin, and at all periods in the poets, -e is often found for -i in the Abl. Singular. In classical prose we find regularly compote, dèside, impùbere, participe, paupere, pùbere, superstite, vetere, and frequently divite (but always diti), quadrupede, sapiente. With participles, -i is usual when they are used as adjectives, but classical prose shows -e also in antecèdens, candèns, consentiens, dèspiciens, effluens, hiàns, imminéns, influens, proflueens, conseqüens (but sequéns not before Livy), titubéns, verténs.

### Notes.—1. In the Nom. and Acc. Pl. -is for ès belongs to early Latin and the poets, but a few cases of the Acc. are still found in Cicero. In the case of participles -is is very common, and is the rule in Virg. and Horace. In the neuter, -a for -ia is found only in ùbera, vetera; dìtia is always used for the unsynchronized form divitiae.

2. Compound adjectives, whose primitives had -um in Gen. Pl., have usually -um instead of -ium; quadrupès, quadrupedum, and other compounds of pès; inopes, inopum; supplicium. Also, cicer, cicurum; vetus, veterum; dives, dividum; locuples, locupletum (rare, usually -ium). In the poets and in later writers, -um is not unfrequently found where classical prose uses -ium.

### Irregular Adjectives.

### 84. A. ABUNDANTIA.

1. Some adjectives which end in -us, -a, -um, in the classical times, show occasionally in early Latin, in the poets, and in later Latin, forms in -is, -e, e. g., imbecillus and imbecillis; infréns and infréns; biugus and biugis; violentus and violéns; indecorus and indecoris; so also perpetus and perpes. In a number of other adjectives the variant forms are very rare or disputed.
ADJECTIVES.

2. Many adjectives which end in -is, -e, in the classical times, show parallel forms in -us, -a, -um, in early Latin, and more rarely in late Latin. Adjectives in -us, -a, -um, in early Latin, seem to have had a tendency to go over into forms in -is, -e. Thus, hilarus is the regular form in early Latin; in Cicero it is used side by side with hilaris, and later hilaris is universal. Other examples in the classical period are inermis and inermus; imberbis and imberbus; alaris and alarius; auxiliarius and auxiliarius; intercalarius and intercalarius; talarius and talarius.

85. B. Defective.

1. Several adjectives lack a Nom. Singular, wholly or in part: as, cetera (f.), ceterum, perperum (n.), nuperum (n.), primorius (G.), bimarius (G.), bimatrix (G.), tricornis (G.), and a few others.

2. Some adjectives are defective in other cases: thus, expes and perdus, -a are found only in the Nom.; exlex only in the Nom. and Acc. (exlægem); pernox only in Nom., Abl. (pernocte), and Nom. Pl. (pernoctës, rare); centimanus has only the Acc. Sing. (Hor., Ov.); also unimanus (Liv.), and a few others.

C. Indeclinables.
Nēquam; potis, and pote (early); frugi; manu (mactus, -um, very rare); necesse, necessum, and necessus (early and poetical); volup and volupe (early); and the judicial damnās.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

86. The Degrees of Comparison are: Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

The Comparative is formed by adding to the consonant stems the endings -ior for the masculine and feminine, and -ius for the neuter.

The Superlative is formed by adding to the consonant stems the endings -is-simus, -a, -um (earlier -is-sumus).

Vowel stems, before forming the Comparative and Superlative, drop their characteristic vowel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>altus, a, um, high</td>
<td>altior, higher, altius</td>
<td>altissimus, a, um, highest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fortis, e, brave</td>
<td>fortior, fortius</td>
<td>fortissimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>utilis, e, useful</td>
<td>utilis,</td>
<td>utilissimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audax, bold</td>
<td>audacior, audaci,</td>
<td>audacissimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prudens, wise</td>
<td>prudentior, prudentius</td>
<td>prulentissimus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—In early Latin we find very rarely -iōs for ior; also -iōr used for the neuter as well.
Peculiarities.

87. 1. Adjectives in -er add the Superlative ending (-rumus) -rimus (for -simus by assimilation; see 9, i) directly to the Nominative masculine. The Comparative follows the rule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>miser, a, um</td>
<td>wretched</td>
<td>miserius,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>celer, is, e</td>
<td>swift</td>
<td>celerius,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ater, ateris, ater</td>
<td>sharp</td>
<td>aterius,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remarks.—1. Dexter, right, and sinister, left, have always dexterior and sinisterior in the Comparative. Deterior, worse, deterrimus, lacks a Positive.

2. Vetus, old, has Comp. veterior (archaic) or vetustior; Sup., veterrimus. Matürus, ripe, has occasionally Sup. matürrimus in addition to the normal matürissimus.

Note.—In early Latin and in Inscriptions this rule is occasionally violated. Thus celerissimus in Ennius; integriissimus, miserissimus, in Inscriptions.

2. Some Comparatives in -er-ior, whose Positive is lacking or rare, form the Superlative either in -rēmus by metathesis; or in -imus or -umus; or in both. These are: citerior, on this side, citimus (rare); exterior, outer, extre*mus, extimus (latter not in Cic.); dexterior (87, i, r. 1; once in Cic.), dextimus (rare; not in Cic.); inferior, lower, infimus, imus; interior, inner, intimus; posterior, hinder, postremus, postumus; superior, upper, suprēmus, summus.

3. Six adjectives in -ilis add -limus to the stem, after dropping -i, to form the Superlative; perhaps by assimilation: facilis, easy; difficilis, hard; similis, like; dissimilis, unlike; gracilis, slender, and humilis, low.

facilis, Facilior, Sup. facillimus.

4. Adjectives in -dicus, -ficus, -volus, borrow the Comparative and Superlative from the participial forms in -dicens, -ficens, and -volens.

benevolus, benevolent, Comp. benevolentior, Sup. benevolentissimus.
maledicus, scurrilous. maledicentior, maledicentissimus.
magnificus, distinguished. magnificentior, magnificentissimus.

Note.—Benevolens, malevolens, maledicens, still occur in early Latin.

5. In like manner egênsus and prôvidus form their Comparative and Superlative.

egênsus, needy, egentior, egentissimus.
prôvidus, far-sighted, prôvidentior, prôvidentissimus.
6. Adjectives in -us (os), preceded by a vowel (except those in -quos), form the Comparative and Superlative by means of magis and maxime, more and most.

idoneus, idoneus. Comp. magis idoneus, Sup. maxime idoneus.

But antiquos, old, Comp. antiquior, Sup. antiquissimus.

Remark.—But pius, pious, which lacks the Comparative, forms the Superlative regularly, piissimus (in inscriptions also piëtissimus); likewise in late Latin, implius.

Notes.—1. A few words, chiefly in early Latin, show the normal comparison. In Cíc. only, assiduissimé (adv.) and alsius.

2. Comparison by means of plus and plurimum is late.

7. Some Comparatives and Superlatives are in use, whilst the corresponding Positive is either lacking or rare.

So deterior (87, i. 1, the); diescr, swift, dèssimus; potior, better, potissimus; exterior, outer (87, 2), from exterus, on the outside, and prep. extra, without; superior, upper (87, 2), from superus, on the top, and prep. suprà, above; inferior, lower (87, 2), from inferus, below, and prep. infrà, below; posterior, hinder (87, 2), from posterus, coming after, and prep. post, after; citior, on this side (87, 2), from citer, and prep. citrà, on this side.

8. The Positive stem of existing Comparatives is sometimes met with only in a preposition or an adverb; as, ante, before; anterior, that is before; prope, near; propior, proximus; ulterior, further, ultimus, from ultra, beyond; interior, inner, intimus, from intrà, within; prior, former, primus, first, from prò, before; sequior (late), worse, from secus.

9. Many adjectives lack one or both of the degrees of comparison; especially those denoting material, relationship, time, etc.

Novus, new, falsus, untrue, meritus, deserved, have no Comparative.

Longinquos, afar, propinquos, near, salutaris, healthful, iuvenis, young (Comparative iùnior), and senex, old (Comparative senior), have no Superlative.

"Youngest" and "oldest" are expressed by minimus, maximus (màtì).  

Note.—The Pleatine and late medioximus, middlemost, lacks Positive and Comparative.

10. Dives, rich, shows in Cíc. only divitior and divitissimus; otherwise the Comparative and Superlative are found principally in poetry and later prose, the more usual forms being the syncopated ditior, ditissimus.

88. Participles used as adjectives are subject also to the same laws of comparison: as, amândus, loving, amantior, amantissimus; apertus, open, apertior, apertissimus.
ADJECTIVES.

89. The Superlative follows the declension of adjectives of Three Endings of the First and Second Declensions. The Comparative is declined according to the Third Declension, thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M. and F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Pl.—altiorés,</th>
<th>altiora.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—N.</td>
<td>altior,</td>
<td>altius.</td>
<td>altiorum,</td>
<td>altiorum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>altiörís,</td>
<td>altiörís.</td>
<td>altiöribus,</td>
<td>altiöribus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>altiörf,</td>
<td>altiörí.</td>
<td>altiörés,</td>
<td>altiörá.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>altiörrem,</td>
<td>altius.</td>
<td>altiörês,</td>
<td>altiörá.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>altior,</td>
<td>altius.</td>
<td>altiörés,</td>
<td>altiörá.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>altiöre and -I,</td>
<td>altiöre and -I,</td>
<td>altiöribus,</td>
<td>altiöribus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Remarks.**—1. In classical prose the Abl. Sing. ends in -e. In the poets and in early and late prose often in -i.

2. Extremely rare is the ending -is for -és in the Nom. Plural. In the Acc. Pl. this ending -is (élis) is more common but still not frequent, and confined mainly to plúris, minóris, máiorís, melióris. The neuter in -ia is found rarely in complúria, and perhaps once in plúria.

3. The Gen. Pl. in -ium is found in pluríum and complúrium only.

90. **Irregular Comparison.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>melior,</th>
<th>melius,</th>
<th>optimus.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bonus,</td>
<td>good,</td>
<td>pélior,</td>
<td>pélus,</td>
<td>pessimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>malus,</td>
<td>bad,</td>
<td>máior,</td>
<td>máius,</td>
<td>máximus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>māgnus,</td>
<td>great,</td>
<td>minor,</td>
<td>minus,</td>
<td>minimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parvus,</td>
<td>small,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multus,</td>
<td>much,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nēquam,</td>
<td>worthless,</td>
<td>nēquior,</td>
<td>nēquius,</td>
<td>nēquissimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frugí (indecl.), frugal,</td>
<td>frugálíor,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>frugálissimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ADVERBS.

91. Most adverbs are either oblique cases or mutilated forms of oblique cases of nominal or pronominal stems.

The cases from which they are derived are principally the Accusative and the Ablative.

1. (a) From the Accusative are Substantival Adverbs in -tim. This was a favorite formation, and is used very often in all periods. In the classical times the adverbs of this form are:

Acervátim, articulátim, centuriátim, centúrim, generátim, gradátim, gregátim, membrátim, paulátim, prívátim, separátim, singulátim, statim, summátim, virítim, tribútim, strictim, pedetemtim, réptim, fúrtim, partim, præsertim, conféstim, and a few others; disguised forms of -tim are: caesim, incisim, sensim, cursim, passim, vicissim, for caed-tim (9, 1–3), etc.: also interim.
(b) A few very common adverbs are, perhaps, from Accusative Singular feminine of adjectives and pronominal stems. Chiefly clam, secretly, cōram, in one's presence, palam, openly, perperam, wrongly, tam, so, quam, as, aliquam, some, iam, already; and forms in -fāriam, as bifāriam, multifāriam, etc.

(c) The Accusative Singular neuter of many adjectival and pronominal stems is used as an adverb. This is true of all Comparatives.

Multum, much; paulum, a little; nimium, too much; cēterum, for the rest; prīnum, first; postrēnum, finally; potissimum, chiefly; facile, easily; dulce, sweetly; triste, sadly; impūne, scot-free; aliquantum, somewhat, and others.

To the Comparatives belong magis, more; nimis, too; satis, enough.

(d) The Accusative Plural feminine is found in alīs, at other times, perhaps in forās, out-of-doors. The Accusative Plural neuter is found in alia, cētera, omnia, and occasionally in reliqua and a few others.

2. (a) From the Ablative are some substantival adverbs; the principal ones in classical Latin being domō, at home; impendiō, greatly; inītō, at the outset; modo, only; oppidō, very; prīcipiō, in the beginning; privātō, privately; vulgo, commonly; forte, by chance; māgnopere, greatly, and other compounds of -opere; grātīs, for nothing, and ingrātīs, and a few others.

(b) Ablatives are also adverbs in ē from adjectives in -us and -er: altus, lofty, altē; pulcher, beautiful, pulchrē; miser, wretched, miserē.

Also ferē and fermē (Sup.), almost.

(c) The Ablative of some adjectives and pronouns serves as an adverb:

tūtō, safely; falsō, falsely; perpetuō, ceaselessly; continuō, forthwith; imprōviso, unexpectedly; prīmō, at first; hōc, here; istō, there, etc.

(d) In a few cases the adverbial form is the Abl. Sing. feminine:

alīs, otherwise; alīquā, somehow; dexterā and dextrā, to the right; sinistrā and laevā, to the left hand; quā, on which side; rēctā, straightway, and some others.

(e) A large number of these adjectives show adverbs in two endings, sometimes with a difference in meaning:

consulē and consulō, purposely; certē, at least, and certō, certainly (certē sciō, I certainly know; certō sciō, I know for certain); rārē, thinly, and rārō, seldom; vērē, in truth, and vērō, true but; rēctē, correctly, and rēctā, straightway; dexterā or dextrā, to the right; and dexterē, skilfully.

(f) Ablatives are also quī, how (archaic), nēquīquam, to no purpose; aliōquī, otherwise; perhaps also diū, by day, and its compounds.
3. Locative in origin are the following, in addition to those mentioned under 37, 5: diē (in combination with numeral adjectives in early Latin, as diē septimi) and its compounds cottidīē, daily, hodīē, tod−

ady, pridīē, the day before, postridīē, the day after; quotannis, yearly; foris, outside. Also many forms from the pronominal stems, as hic, illic, istic (isti belongs to early Latin and Verg.); sic, so, ut (utī, utēī), as; ibi, there, and its compounds alibi, ibidem; ubi (cubī), where, and its compounds.

4. A number of adverbs cannot be referred to a definite case, as:

adverbs of separation: hinc, hence, illinc (illum), istic (istim), thence;
temporal adverbs: tunc, then, cum, when, quondam, once, quandō, when? and its compounds; also, ante, before; post (poste), after; paene, almost; prope, propter, near; saepe, often; circiter, around; praeter, past; ergō, therefore; crās, to−morrow; hand (hau, haut), not; item, likewise; susque dēque, up and down; vix, scarcely.

92. 1. Adjectives and participles of the Third Declension form their adverbs by adding −ter (−iter) to the stem; stems in −nt dropping the t, and stems in a k−mute inserting the connecting vowel i before the ending;

also a few adjectives of the Second Declension:

fortis, brave, fortiter; ferōx, wild, ferōciter; prūdēns, foreseeing, prūdenter.

Exceptions: audāx, bold, audāciter (seldom audāciter); difficilis, hard to do, difficulter, difficultiter (but generally, nōn facile, vix, aegrē), and others.

2. A large number of adjectives of the Second Declension in −us, −a, −um, and −er, −era, −erum, form in early and late Latin their adverbs by dropping the stem vowel and adding −ter (those in −tus added −er only). Many of these occur in classical writers alongside of the normal form in −ē: hūmāniter and hūmānē, humanely; largiter and largē, lavishly; turbulenter and turbulente, riotously.

3. Some adverbs of origin are formed from substantival or adjectival stems by the ending −tus. In classical Latin mainly antiquitus, from early time; divīnitus, from the gods; funditus, from the foundation; penitus, from the depths; rādicitus, from the roots; also intus, from within.

4. The termination −vorsus, −vorsum, is used to show direction whither; but in classical Latin it is found principally in the adverbs: intrōvorsus (intrōvorsus), inwards; prōrsus (−um), onwards; rūrsus (−um, rūsum), back; sūrsum (sūsum), up; vorsum, towards.

5. A very large number of adverbs are formed by adding various other terminations; as, −de: inde, thence, unde, whence; −dem: pridem, long ago, itidem, likewise, etc.; −ō: quandō, when, etc.; −dam: quondam, once; −dum: dūdum, a while ago; vixdum, hardly yet, etc.; −per: nūper, lately, parumper, a little, semper, always, etc.; −quam: umquam, ever, numquam, never, etc.; −secus: extrinsecus, outside, etc.; −tenus: quātenus, how far? etc.
6. Syntactical and miscellaneous: admodum, very (to a degree), de nūō, anew, imprimis; super, above, and its compounds, desu per, insuper; ex-templō, at once; uisque, to, and its compounds; invicum, in turn; adeō, so; antēa, before; interea, meanwhile; postea, after; praeterea, besides; propterea, on that account, and a few others.

**COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.**

93. The Comparative of the adverb is the Accusative neuter of the Comparative of the adjective. The Superlative ends in -is-simē, -er-rimē, etc., according to the Superlative of the adjective.

**POSITIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>altē,</td>
<td>altius,</td>
<td>altissimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pulchrē,</td>
<td>pulchrior,</td>
<td>pulcherrimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miserē,</td>
<td>miserius,</td>
<td>miserrimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fortēr,</td>
<td>fortius,</td>
<td>fortissimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audāctēr,</td>
<td>audacius,</td>
<td>audācissimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tūtō,</td>
<td>tūtius,</td>
<td>tūtissimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>facile,</td>
<td>facilior,</td>
<td>facilissimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bene,</td>
<td>melius,</td>
<td>optimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male,</td>
<td>pēius,</td>
<td>pessimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[parvus],</td>
<td>minus,</td>
<td>nūmē, least.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[māgnus],</td>
<td>magis,</td>
<td>maximē, most.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multum,</td>
<td>plūs,</td>
<td>plūrimēm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cito,</td>
<td>citius,</td>
<td>citissimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diū,</td>
<td>diūtius,</td>
<td>diūtissimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saepe,</td>
<td>saepius,</td>
<td>saepissimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nāper,</td>
<td>maius,</td>
<td>nūperrimē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>satis,</td>
<td>satius,</td>
<td>better,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NUMERALS.**

**NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.**

94. The Cardinal numerals answer the question quot, how many? and are the numbers used in counting. The Ordinal numerals are derived from these and answer the question quotus, which one in the series? They are as follows:

1. **CARDINAL NUMBERS.**

| 1 I | ūnus, ūna, ūnum |
| 2 II | duō, duae, duō |
| 3 III | trēs, tria |
| 4 IV | quattuor |
| 5 V | quīnque |
| 6 VI | sex |
| 7 VII | septem |

2. **ORDINAL NUMBERS.**

| 1 | primus, -a, -um (prior) |
| 2 | secundus (alter) |
| 3 | tertius |
| 4 | quartus |
| 5 | quintus |
| 6 | sextus |
| 7 | septimus |
1. **Cardinal Numbers.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numeral</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>octō</td>
<td>octavius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX</td>
<td>novem</td>
<td>nonus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>decem</td>
<td>decimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XI</td>
<td>undecim</td>
<td>undecimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XII</td>
<td>duodecim</td>
<td>duodecimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIII</td>
<td>tredecim</td>
<td>tertius decimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIV</td>
<td>quattuordecim</td>
<td>quarti decimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XV</td>
<td>quindecim</td>
<td>quintus decimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVI</td>
<td>sexdecim</td>
<td>sextus decimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVII</td>
<td>septendecim</td>
<td>septimus decimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVIII</td>
<td>duodeviginti</td>
<td>duodeviginti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIX</td>
<td>undeviginti</td>
<td>undeviginti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XX</td>
<td>viginti</td>
<td>vicimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXI</td>
<td>viginti unus</td>
<td>vicimus primus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXII</td>
<td>viginti duo</td>
<td>vicimus secundus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXIII</td>
<td>viginti tres</td>
<td>vicimus tertius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXIV</td>
<td>viginti quattuor</td>
<td>vicimus quartus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXV</td>
<td>viginti quinque</td>
<td>vicimus quintus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXVI</td>
<td>viginti sex</td>
<td>vicimus sextus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXVII</td>
<td>viginti septem</td>
<td>vicimus septimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXVIII</td>
<td>duodevigintae</td>
<td>duodevigintae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXIX</td>
<td>undevigintae</td>
<td>undevigintae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XXX</td>
<td>trigintae</td>
<td>tricus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XL</td>
<td>quadrugintae</td>
<td>quadrugintae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>quinquagintae</td>
<td>quinquagintae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LX</td>
<td>sexagintae</td>
<td>sexagintae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LXX</td>
<td>septuagintae</td>
<td>septuagintae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LXXX</td>
<td>octogintae</td>
<td>octogintae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XC</td>
<td>nonagintae</td>
<td>nonagintae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>centum</td>
<td>centesimae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI</td>
<td>centum et unus</td>
<td>centesimus primum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CXV</td>
<td>centum et quindecim</td>
<td>centesimus (et) quintus decimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CXX</td>
<td>centum et viginti</td>
<td>centesimus vigesimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CXXI</td>
<td>centum viginti unus</td>
<td>centesimus vigesimus primus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC</td>
<td>ducenti, -ae, -a</td>
<td>ducentesimae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCC</td>
<td>trecenti</td>
<td>trecentesimae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCCC</td>
<td>quadrugentae</td>
<td>quadrugentesimae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D (IO)</td>
<td>quingentae</td>
<td>quingentesimae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC</td>
<td>sescenti</td>
<td>sescentesimae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DCC</td>
<td>septingentae</td>
<td>septingentesimae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DCCC</td>
<td>octingentae</td>
<td>octingentesimae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DCCCC</td>
<td>noningentae</td>
<td>noningentesimae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M (CL)</td>
<td>mille</td>
<td>milliesimae</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Ordinal Numbers.**
1. Cardinal Numbers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numeral</th>
<th>Roman</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1001</td>
<td>MI</td>
<td>mille et unus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1101</td>
<td>MCI</td>
<td>mille centum unus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1120</td>
<td>MCXX</td>
<td>mille centum viginti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1121</td>
<td>MCXXI</td>
<td>mille centum viginti unus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1200</td>
<td>MCC</td>
<td>mille ducenti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>duo milia (milia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2223</td>
<td></td>
<td>duo milia ducenti viginti duo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>DCC</td>
<td>quinque milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>CCCI</td>
<td>decem milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>unum et viginti milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>centum milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>decies centena (centum)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Ordinal Numbers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numeral</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.001</td>
<td>millésimus primus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.101</td>
<td>millésimus centésimus primus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.120</td>
<td>millésimus centésimus vicésimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.121</td>
<td>millésimus centésimus vicésimus unus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.200</td>
<td>millésimus centésimus ducentésimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>bis millésimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.223</td>
<td>bis millésimus ducentésimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>quinquiés millesimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.000</td>
<td>decies millesimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.000</td>
<td>unum et viginti millesimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100.000</td>
<td>centies millesimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000.000</td>
<td>decies centies millesimus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

95. The Cardinal numerals are indeclinable, except: unus, one, duo, two, tres, three, the hundreds beginning with ducenti, two hundred, and the plural milia, thousands, which forms milium and milibus.

Like duo is declined ambò, -ae, -ō, both.

Remarks.—1. For the declension of unus see 76. It occurs also in plural forms in connection with plurália tantum, as finis litteris (Cic. Att., v. 9, 2), or with another numeral in the sense only; in the latter sense also with substantives.

2. The Gen. of the hundreds, ducenti, etc., ends in -um and not -ōrum. This must be distinguished from the use of the neuter singular in -um as a collective, as argenti seiscentum (Luc.), a six hundred of silver.

3. The Pl. milia, milium, milibus, are treated almost always as substantives, the adjectival form being the Singular.

Notes.—1. The form oinos for unus is found in early Latin. A Voc. ūne is occasional (Cat., 37, 17).

2. For duae late Latin shows occasionally duo, and in inscriptions dua, for neuter
duo, is sometimes found. The Gen. duum (old duom) for duōrum is not un-
 coolest. In the Dat. and Abl., duo is found in inscriptions, and for ambōbus occasionally ambīs. In the Acc. Pl. masc., duo and ambō for duōs and ambōs are quite common in early Latin, and also in classical times, but the better forms are duōs, ambōs.

3. Quattor is found for quattuor occasionally in inscriptions, and in early poetry quattuor was sometimes scanned as a dissyllable.

4. In inscriptions the forms mēlīa and milliā are also found.

5. In regard to spelling of the Ordinals we find in early Latin quīnctus as well as quintus; septūmus and decumus regularly, and often the endings -ēnsimus and -ēnsimus in Ordinals from vicēnsimus on.

96. 1. Compound Numerals.

1. From 10 to 20, as in the tables, or separately: decem et trēs.

2. The numbers 18, 19, 28, 29, etc., are commonly expressed by subtraction; occasionally, as in English, but never in Cicero, and very rarely in other classical authors. duōdecēnum is not found, and annē-
centum but once (Plin. Mai.).

3. From 20 to 100, the compound numerals stand in the same order as the English: twenty-one, viginti unus; or, one and twenty, unus et (atque) viginti; as, twenty-one years old: annōs unus et viginti (viginti unus), unus et viginti annōs nātus. But compounds like septuāgintā et trēs are not uncommon, though avoided by good writers.

4. From 100 on, et may be inserted after the first numeral, if there be but two numbers; as, centum quattuor, or centum et quattuor. If the smaller number precedes, the et should be inserted; likewise in all cases where a word is inserted within the compound numeral, as ducenti anni et viginti. If there be three numerals, the et is regularly omitted; exceptions are very rare.

5. In compound ordinals alter is preferred to secundus.

6. Centēna mēlia is often omitted after the numeral adverb decies = 1,000,000; especially in stating sums of money.

7. Fractions are expressed by pars (omitted or expressed) in com-

bination with dimidia (½), tertia (⅓), quārta (¼), etc. A Plural numera-
tor is expressed by a Cardinal; as, duae quintae (⅓). The fraction is often broken up; as, pars dimidia et tertia (⅓ = ⅓ + ⅓). The even de-
nominators could be divided; as, dimidia tertia (⅓ × ⅔ = ⅓). Instead of dimidia without pars, dimidium is used.

2. Numeral Signs.

D is short for IO, M for IOO. Adding C on the right of IO multiplies by 10; IOO = 5000; ICCC = 50,000. Putting C before as often as it stands after multiplies the right-hand number by 2; IOO = 1000; CIOO = 10,000; CCCCIOO = 100,000. A line above multiplies by 1000; V = 5000. A line above and at each side multiplies by 100,000: |XIII| XXXVII D or |XIII| XXXVII MD = 1,337,500. Plin., N. H. iv., 12, 24. Other signs are ⊥, ⊥ ⊥ (inscr.) for 50, ⊥ ⊥, ⊥ (inscr.) for 1000, and ⊥ for 100,000 (inscr.), and ⊥ for 500,000 (inscr.).
### 3. Distributive Numerals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numeral</th>
<th>Cardinal</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 singuli, -ae, -a, <em>one each</em></td>
<td>30 tricēnī</td>
<td>These answer the question <em>quotēnī, how many each?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 bīnī, -ae, -a, <em>two each</em></td>
<td>40 quadrāgēnī</td>
<td><strong>REMARKS.</strong>—1. The Gen. Pl. masc. and neuter ends usually in -um, except that <em>singulus</em> has always <em>singulōrum</em>, and Cicero uses <em>binōrum</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 ternī (trim)</td>
<td>50 quinquāgēnī</td>
<td>2. The Distributives are used with an exactness which is foreign to our idiom, whenever repetition is involved, as in the multiplication table. But when <em>singuli</em> is expressed, the Cardinal may be used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 quaternī</td>
<td>60 sexāgēnī</td>
<td>3. The Distributives are used with <em>plurālia tantum</em>: binae litterae, <em>two epistles</em>. But with these <em>ānī</em> is used for <em>one</em>, <em>trīnī</em> for <em>three</em>: <em>ānae litterae</em>, <em>trīnae litterae</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 quinī</td>
<td>70 septuāgēnī</td>
<td>4. The same rules as to the insertion or omission of <em>et</em> apply to the Distributives as to the Ordinals (96, 1, 3, 4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 senī</td>
<td>80 octāgēnī</td>
<td><strong>NOTES.</strong>—1. The poets and later prose writers occasionally use the Distributives for Cardinals, with words other than <em>plurālia tantum</em> (<em>n. 3</em>); also some forms of the Singular. Especially noteworthy is the combination <em>trīnum nūndinum</em>, which is technical, and therefore found also in model prose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 septēnī</td>
<td>90 nōnāgēnī</td>
<td>2. Parallel forms not found in classical times are <em>quadrīnī</em> (early, late), and the late <em>du(o)centēnī</em>, <em>trecentēnī</em>, <em>quadringentēnī</em>, <em>quingentēnī</em>, <em>ses(x)centēnī</em>, <em>millēnī</em>, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 octēnī</td>
<td>100 centēnī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 novēnī</td>
<td>102 centēnī bīnī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 dēnī</td>
<td>125 centēnī vicēnī quīnī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 ūndēnī</td>
<td>200 ducēnī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 duōdenī</td>
<td>300 trecēnī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 ternī dēnī</td>
<td>400 quadrāgēnī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 quaternī dēnī</td>
<td>500 quinquāgēnī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 quīnī dēnī</td>
<td>600 sexāgēnī (sēscēnī)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 sēnī dēnī</td>
<td>700 septuāgēnī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 septēnī dēnī</td>
<td>800 octāgēnī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 octēnī dēnī, duōdēvīcēnī</td>
<td>900 nōnāgēnī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 novēnī dēnī, ūndēvīcēnī</td>
<td>1000 singula mīlia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 vicēnī</td>
<td>2000 bīna mīlia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 vicēnī singuli</td>
<td>3000 trīna mīlia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 victēnī bīnī, bīnī et vicēnī</td>
<td>10,000 dēna mīlia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 duōdētricēnī</td>
<td>100,000 centēna mīlia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only the following forms occur:

1. simplex, single,
2. duplex, double,
3. triplex, triple,
4. quadruplex, quadruple.

The answer the question, how many fold?

5. Proportional Numerals.

Only the following forms occur:

1. simplus, -a, -um, single,
2. duplus, double,
3. triplus

These answer the question, how many times as great?

98. NUMERAL ADVERBS.

1. semel, once,
2. bis, twice.
3. tr[en],
4. quater
5. quint[ens], -a, -urn,
6. sext[ens], -i,
7. sept[ens], -i,
8. oct[ens], -i,
9. nov[ens], -i,
10. dec[ens], -i,
11. undec[ens], -i,
12. duodec[ens], -i,
13. ter dec[ens], -i,
14. quater dec[ens], -i,
15. quinqu[ens], -i,
16. sex[ens], -i,
17. sept[ens], -i,
18. duod[ens], -i,
19. und[ens], -i,
20. vici,[es]
21. semel et vici,[es], vici,[es] et semel,

These answer the question quotiens (es): how often?

* Not semel vici,[es], bis vici,[es], etc., because that would be, once twenty times = 20 times; twice twenty times = 40 times; this, however, does not hold for numerals between 10 and 20.
Remarks.—1. These adverbs, from quinquiēs on, have an older form in -ēns; quinquiēns. In totiēns, so often, and quotiēns, how often, this remained the more usual form in classical times.

2. The combination of an adverb with a distributive adjective was much liked by the Romans: as bis bīna for quaterna, etc. But the normal forms are not unfrequent.

Note.—For the adverbs from undeciēs on, examples are very rare, and some are cited only from the grammarians. So, when two forms are given, one is often due to the grammarians; thus quinquiēs deciēs, sexiēs deciēs, are cited only from Priscian. The order, too, of compound adverbs varies.

PRONOUNS.

99. Pronouns point out without describing.

Note.—The pronoun is not a word used instead of a noun. The noun says too much, for all nouns (proper as well as common) are originally descriptive; the pronoun simply points out. The noun says too little, because it cannot express person, as ego, I, tú, thou; it cannot express local appurtenance, as hic, this (here), ille, that (there).

A. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

100. 1. Personal Pronouns of the First Person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Substantive</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—N.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ego,</td>
<td>I,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. me,</td>
<td>of me,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. mihi,</td>
<td>to, for me,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. mē,</td>
<td>me,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. mē,</td>
<td>from, with, by me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—N.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nós,</td>
<td>we,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. nostrī,</td>
<td>of us,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nostrum,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. nobis,</td>
<td>to, for us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. nós,</td>
<td>us,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. nobis,</td>
<td>from, with, by us.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remarks.—1. The Voc. Sing. masc. of meus is mi, except when meus is used with a substantive which does not change its form in the Voc.; thus, meus ocellus (Plaut.; possibly, however, appositional), but mi anime.

2. Nostrum in the Gen. Pl. is the form for the Partitive Genitive.

Notes.—1. Early Latin shows the following: Sg., N. egō; G. mis; D. mi, mīhēl (inscr.); mīhē (inscr.); Ac. mēd, mēmē; Ab. mēd (mēmē is doubtful); Pl., N. Ac. ēnōs (in Carmen Arvalē only); G. nostrōrum, nostrārum (for nostrum); D. Ab. nōbēlīs (inscr.).


3. The forms of meus, of tui and tuos, of sui and suos, very frequently suffer Synizesis (797) in early Latin.

4. On the combination of these pronouns with -met and -pte see 103, N. 2, 3.
101. II. Personal Pronouns of the Second Person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBSTANTIVE</th>
<th>POSSESSIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Possessive.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. <em>thou</em>, tu, <em>of thee</em>, tul, to, for thee, tibi, thee, tē, from, with, by thee.</td>
<td><em>tuus</em> (-os), -a, -um (-om), thy or thine.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PL.</strong></td>
<td><em>vester</em> (archaic <em>voster</em>), <em>vestra</em>, <em>vestrum</em>, your or yours.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTES.**
2. *Vestrum* is for the Partitive Genitive.
3. *Tuom* and *vostrom* in the Gen. Pl. of the Possessives are rare and confined to early Latin.
4. On Synizesis see 100, N. 3. On combination with -met or -pte see 102, N. 2, 3.

III. Personal Pronouns of the Third Person.

102. The original personal pronoun of the third person, together with its possessive, is used only as a reflexive in Latin, and therefore lacks a Nominative. Its place is taken in the oblique cases by the Determinative *is* (103).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DE TERMINATIVE.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUBSTANTIVE.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>ēius</em>, of him, <em>ēius</em>, his, hers, its.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REFLEXIVE.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUBSTANTIVE.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. <em>suī</em>, <em>sui</em> of him, her, it(self), <em>suus</em> (-os), -a, -um (-om), <em>his</em>, <em>hers</em>, <em>its</em> (own).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. <em>sibī</em>, to, for him(self), her(self), <em>suus</em> (-os), -a, -um (-om), <em>their</em> (own), <em>theirs</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. <em>sē</em>, <em>sēsē</em>, him(self), her(self), <em>suus</em> (-os), -a, -um (-om), <em>their</em> (own), <em>theirs</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. <em>sē</em>, <em>sēsē</em>, from, with, by him(self), <em>suus</em> (-os), -a, -um (-om), <em>their</em> (own), <em>theirs</em>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Notes.—1. Inscriptions show sibēi. The use of sēsē in classical prose is regulated, mainly by artistic reasons. Suom in Gen. Pl. from suus is rare and early.

2. The enclitic -met may be added to all the forms of ego (except nostrum), to all the forms of tū (except tū and vestrum), to sibi, sē, and some forms of suus; egomet, I myself. Instead of tūmet, tūte is found; from which early poets formed occasionally tūtemet, tūtimet. Met is also occasionally appended to forms of meus (early) and tuus (late).

3. The enclitic -pte is joined very rarely to forms of the Personal Pronoun (mēpte, P.L., Men. 1059) more often to the Abl. Sing. of the Possessives; it is especially common with suū; suūpte ingenio, by his own genius.

4. From noster and vester and also from cūius, whose? are formed the Gentile adjectives of one ending: nostrās, of our country; vestrās, of your country; cūiās, of whose country? G. nostrātis, vestrātis, cūlātis.

103. B. DETERMINATIVE PRONOUNS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>is, ea,</td>
<td>ei, id, i, eae, ea,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eius, eīus, eīus, eōrum, eōrum,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>el, eal, ei, eis, eis, is,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eum, eam, id, eōs, eās, eā,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eē, eō, eis, eis, is,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—The following variations in the forms are found: N. it for id (post-cl.); G. eīus (inscr.), eīus (early poetry); D. eīl (inscr.), eī, eī (early poetry), eae (i.); Ac. em, im (early), for eum; Pl. N. ēls, eēls, iēls, iēl (early and rare), for el; the usual classical form is iēl; G. eum (inscr.) for eōrum; D. eēls, eēls, iēls (inscr.), eībus (early poetry and rare); the usual classical form is iēs. The early forms sum, sās, sās, for eum, eam, eōs, eās, are cited by Festus. Acc. and Abl. Sing. and Gen. Pl. often suffer Synizesis in early poetry.

2. Idem (is + dem), the same.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>idem, eadem, idem, ifdem, eadem, eadem,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eisdem, eisdem, eisdem, eōrundem, eārundem, eōrundem,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>idem, eadem, eadem,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eēsdem, eēsdem, eēsdem,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—Variations in form: N. eēsdem, eēdem (inscr., early) for idem; D. idem (inscr.) for eēdem; Pl. N. idem (more usual in poetry), eēsdem, eēdem (inscr.); D. Ab. ifdem (rare), eēsdem (uncommon in classical prose). Synizesis is common.

3. Ipse (perhaps is + pse), he, self.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ipse, ipsa, ipsum, ipsum, ipsē, ipsae, ipsa,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ipsēs, ipsēs, ipsēs, ipsōrum, ipsōrum, ipsōrum,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ipsi, ipsi, ipsis, ipsis, ipsis,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ipsum, ipsam, ipsum, ipsōs, ipsās, ipsās,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ipsō, ipsō, ipsis, ipsis, ipsis, ipsis,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Notes.—1. In the earlier time the first part of ipse was also declined, thus: N. eipse; Ac. equence, eapse; Ab. eipse, eapse. Other forms are doubtful.
2. For ipse the form ipsus was very commonly employed in early Latin, but fades out with Terence, and later is only sporadic.
3. Inflectional variations are: D. ipso, ipsae (late); Pl. N. ipsei (inscr.). The few other forms are uncertain. Ipsus is dissyllabic twice in Terence.
4. Plautus shows ipsissimus (comp. Gr. avrövatos), and in late Latin ipsimus and ipsima are found. A post-Ciceronian colloquialism was isse, issa.
5. Ipse combines with -met: ipsemet and ipsimet (N. Pl.), both rare.

104. C. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

I. Demonstrative Pronoun for the First Person.

hic, this.

Sg.—N. hic, haec, hoc, Pl.—hi, hae, haec, these,

G. huius, huius, huius, horum, härum, hörum,

D. huic, huic, huic, his, his, his,

Ac. hunc, hanc, hoc, hős, hós, haec,

Abl. hoc, hác, hoc, his, his, his,

Notes.—1. The full forms of hic in -ce are still found in limited numbers in early Latin; G. hóiuse (in the phrase hóiuse modi, the form is common in the classical period and later); D. höce (inscr.); Pl. N. hölse, hisse (not uncommon); G. hörunc (rare); D., Ab. hisse (in Plaut. and Ter. usually before vowels); Ac. höse, häse (not uncommon; occasionally in Cic.).

2. Other variations in form are: G. huius and húmus (in early poetry for metrical reasons); D. hae (rare and early); Ac. honc; Pl. N. hiel, héis for hi, haec for hae (in Plaut. and Ter. regularly before vowels or h, occasionally before consonants; occasionally also in classical times and later); G. hörunc, hárunc (early). Pl. N. hic for hi and D. Ab. hibus for his are doubtful.

3. Hic combines with -ne. Usually -ne was appended to hice, etc., and the e weakened to i. Sometimes -ne is added directly to the regular forms. The examples are frequent in early Latin, but occur also in Cic. and later writers: hitine, haecine, hócinne, huicine, huncine, hancine, hócine, hásine, haecine (N. Pl. fem.); haeceine (N. Pl. neut.); hiscine, haecine, hásine; also hícne, haecne, hócnne, húisne, huncne, hancne, hócne, hácne, haecne, hásne, hásne.

II. Demonstrative Pronoun for the Second Person.

iste, that.

Sg.—N. iste, ista, istud, Pl.—isti, istae, ista,

G. istius, istius, istius, istórum, istārum, istūrum,

D. isti, istī, istī, istīs, istis, istis,

Ac. istum, istam, istud, istōs, istās, ista,

Abl. istō, istā, istō, istis, istis, istis.

Notes.—1. The Dat. Sing. shows istō in late and istae in early Latin.
2. Iste combines with -ce. In a very few cases (three times in early, once in late Latin) this -ce is retained unchanged, but usually it is shortened to -c. The following forms occur, all except istuc (more common than istud in classical Latin) and istaece
(neuter, occasionally in Cic., Ep. and later), being wholly confined to early and late Latin. N. istic, istaec, istuc (istuc, once); D. istic; Ac. istunc, istanc; Ab. istoc, istâc. Pl. N. istaec (f.), istaec (n.).

3. In a few cases in Plaut. and Ter. -ne is appended to istic, etc., the preceding e being weakened to i: isticine, istâcine, istâcine, istâscin'.

III. Demonstrative Pronoun for the Third Person.

Sg.—N. ille, illa, illud, Pl.—illâ, illae, illa,
G. illus, illius, illus, illorüm, illarum, illorüm,
D. illi, illi, illi, illis, illis, illis,
Ac. illum, illam, illud, illæs, illas, illa,
Ab. illâ, illâ, illâ, illis, illis, illis.

Notes.—1. The older forms from stem ollu- occur on early inscriptions, in laws, and in the poets (except Plaut. and Ter.), even to a very late period, as follows: N. ollus, -e (early); D. oll; Pl. N. oll, olla; G. ollom, ollarum (early); D. ollâs, ollus; Ac. ollâs (early).

2. Inscriptions show illât occasionally for illud. Other rare forms are: G. illâ (doubtful); D. illâce; Pl. N. illât. Illus is often dissyllabic in early Latin.

3. Ille often combines with -ce, which is, however, usually shortened to -c: illuâce, illâce, illôce, illôce, illâce, illâce, illâce, in early Latin; shortened forms: N. ilic, iliae, illuc; D. ilic; Ac. illunc, illanc; Ab. ilic, ilic; Pl. N. iliae, iliae (f.), iliae (n.), all with rare exceptions confined to Plautus and Terence.

4. A few cases of combination with -ne: illicine, illancine occur in Plautus and Terence.

105. D. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

qui (Substantive and Adjective), who.

Sg.—N. qui, quae, quod, Pl.—qui, quae, quae,
G. cuilus, culius, culius, quorum, quârum, quorum,
D. cuî, cuî, cuî, quibus, quibus, quibus,
Ac. quem, quam, quod, quos, quás, quae,
Ab. quâ, quà, quâ, quibus, quibus, quibus.

General Relatives are:

Substantive. quisquis, whoever, quidquid, quiçquid, whatever.
Adjective. (quïqui, quaequae, quodquod), whosoever.
quiçunque, quaeçunque, quodçunque, whichever.

Notes.—1. Archaic and legal are quis and quid as relatives.

2. The prevalent form of Gen. on inscriptions of the Republican period and in early Latin is qoìius; quius, cuiius, and other variations are also found. Other archaic forms are: D. qui. D. Pl. qüis. D. Pl. quis is common in the poets at all periods; and also in prose writers; but not cited from Caesar, and only from the letters of Cicero.

3. The Abl. Sing. qui for all genders is the prevalent form in early times, and in combination with cum is preferred to quô, quâ by Cicero.

4. Quisquis is occasionally used as an adjective, but not in classical Latin. Occasionally, also, but rarely in Cicero, it is used for quisque, quidque. The Nom. Sing. of the adjective quiqi, etc., probably does not occur. In the other cases the forms are
the same as those of *quisquis* and can be distinguished only by the usage. In combination with *modi* we find *culcul* in Gen. sometimes in Cicero. In the Plural the only form found is *quibusquibus*. (Liv. xli., 8, 10.)

5. In *quicumque* the *-cumque* is often separated by tmesis. The only variations in form are *quelquomque, quescumque* in early Latin, and occasionally *quiscumque* for *quibuscumque* (several times in Cicero).

### 106. E. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

**Substantive.**  
quis? who?  
**Adjective.**  
quī? quae? quod? which?

**Subst. and Adj.**  
uter? utra? utrum? who, which of two?

**Sg. N.**  
quis? quid? who? what?  
**G.**  
cūius? cūius? whose? cūius, cūia, cūium, whose?

**D.**  
cui? to, for whom?

**Ac.**  
quem? quid? whom? what?

**Ab.**  
quō? quō? from, with, by whom or what?

The plural of the substantive interrogative pronoun and both numbers of the adjective interrogative pronoun coincide with the forms of the relative *qui, quae, quod, who, which.*

**Strengthened Interrogatives.**

**Substantive.**  
quisnam? who, pray?  
equis? is there any one who?

**Adjective.**  
quīnām? quaeām?  
equī? ecqua? (ecqua?)}

**Posessive.**  
cuius? whose?

**Remark.**—In the poets *qui* is sometimes found as a substantive for *quis* in independent sentences. In dependent sentences the use always fluctuates. A difference in meaning can hardly be made other than that *qui* is generally used in much the same sense as *quālis*. On the other hand, *quis* is often used as an adjective for *qui*; usually, however, the substantive which follows is best looked upon as in apposition. In the classical period *qui* is the normal form for the adjective in dependent questions.

**Notes.**—1. Inscriptions show here and there *quit* and *quot* for *quid* and *quod*. *Quid* is sometimes used for *quod*, but usually in the phrase *quid nōmen tibi est* and only in early Latin. Sometimes *quae* seems to be used as a substantive, but another explanation is always possible.

2. In the oblique cases the same variations occur as in the oblique cases of the relative. The Abl. *qui* means how?

3. For the declension of *uter* see 76.

4. The possessive *cūius (quōius), -a, -um* was used both as relative and as interroga-
tive. It is frequent in Plaut. and Ter., but rare in other authors. Besides the Nom, the only forms found are Ac. quōium, quōiam; Ab. quōiā; Pl. N. quōiāe, and, perhaps, G. Pl. quōium.

5. Quisnam is sometimes used as an adjective for quinam and quinam occasionally for quisnam as a substantive. The -nam may be separated by tmesis. Ecquis and ecquif are not common, and are subject to the same fluctuations as quis and qui. Ecquis combines with -nam to form ecquisnam and a few other occasional forms, as: ecquaenam, ecquidnam, ecquodnam, ecquōnam, ecquōisnam.

107. F. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. Substantive. aliquis, aliqua (rare), aliquid, } somebody, some one quis, qua, quid, } or other.

Adjective. aliqui, aliqua, aliquid, } some, any. qui, quae, qua, quod, } quid, quisnam,

Remark.—The common rule is that quis and qui occur properly only after si, nisi, nē, num, or after a relative; otherwise aliquis, aliqui.

Notes.—1. Aliquis and quis are not unfrequently used as adjectives instead of aliquid, qui, but rarely in early Latin. Occasionally (not in early Latin) aliquid is used as a substantive. Qui is also so used, but only after si, sin, sive, nē.

The use of quid and aliquid for quod and aliquid, and of aliquid for aliquid, is very rare and late.

2. Besides the variations in form mentioned under the relative and interrogative, the indefinite quis shows quēs as an early form for qui (N. Pl.), and in Pl. Nom. Acc. neut. quae and qua in equally good usage. Aliquis shows in Abt. Sing. aliqui (rare and early), in the Pl. Nom. Acc. neut. always aliqua, and not unfrequently in post-classical Latin aliquis for aliquibus.

2. quidam, quaedam, quiddam (and quoddam), a certain, certain one.

Remark.—Quidam, quaedam occur both as substantives and adjectives, but quiddam is always substantive, quoddam always adjective. The Plural is rare in early Latin (never in Plautus).

3. quispiam, quaepiam, quidpiam (and quodpiam), some one, some. quisquam, ———, quicquam, any one (at all). No plural.

Notes.—1. quispiam, quaepiam are rare as adjectives. In the neuter, quippiam and quoppiam occur rarely. The comic poets do not use the Plural, and it is rare elsewhere.

2. Quisquam is seldom used as an adjective, except with designations of persons; scriptor quisquam, any writer (at all), Gallus quisquam, any Gaul (at all). The corresponding substantive is ulla. The use of quisquam as a feminine is only in early Latin. Quidquam is a poor spelling for quicquam. In Abt. Sing. quicquam occurs occasionally. In Sing. Gen. Dat. Acc. frequently, and in Plural always, forms of ulla were used.
4. quivis, quaevís, quidvis (and quodvis), \{ any one you please, quilibet, quaælibet, quidlibet (and quodlibet), \} you like.

**NOTE.**—**Quivis**, quaevís, quilibet (archaic -lubet), quaælibet may be used either as substantives or adjectives, but quidvis, quidlibet are substantives only, quodvis, quodlibet are adjectives only. Peculiar forms of quivis are G. quivis in quovis-modi (Plaut.); D., quovis (late); Ab., quivis (Plaut., Ter.), and the compounds cůliusviscumque (Lucr. III, 388) and quoviscumque (Mart. XIV, 2, 1). Quilibet may be separated by tmesis into quí and libet (Sall., Cat. 5, 4).

5. quisque, quaeque, quidque and quodque, each one.

unusquisque, unaquaeque, unumquidque and unumquodque, each one severally.

**NOTE.**—Quisque occurs occasionally in early Latin as a feminine, and with its forms is not unfrequently found in early and late Latin for quisquis, or quicumque. Quid-que is substantive, quodque adjective. In the Abl. Sing. quisque occurs occasionally. The Plural is regular, but rare until post-classical times. In Nom. Pl. quaæque is either fem. or neuter.

108. The declension of the pronominal adjectives has been given in 76. They are:

ullus, -a, -um, any; nǔllus, -a, -um, no one, not one. The corresponding substantives are nēmō (76) and nihil, the latter of which forms only nihil (Gen.) and nihilō (Abl.), and those only in certain combinations.

nōnn ullus, -a, -um, some, many a, declined like nǔllus.

alius, -a, -ud, another; the Possessive of alius is aliēnus.
alter, -era, -erum, the other, one (of two).
neuter, neutra, neutrum, neither of two.
alteruter, alterutra, alterutrum, the one or the other of the two.
uterque, utraque, utrumque, each of two, either. ambō, -ae, -ō, both.
utervis, utravis, utrumvis,
uterlibet, utralibet, utrulumbet, \{ whichever you please of the two. \}

**CORRELATIVES.**

109. 1. CORRELATIVE PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interrogatives</th>
<th>Demonstratives</th>
<th>Relatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quis ? who ?</td>
<td>is, that,</td>
<td>qui, who.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quālis ? of what kind ?</td>
<td>tālis, such (of that kind),</td>
<td>quālis, as (of which kind).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quantus ? how much ?</td>
<td>tantus, so much,</td>
<td>quantus, as much.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quot ? how many ?</td>
<td>tot, so many,</td>
<td>quot, as many.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
110. II. CORRELATIVE PRONOMINAL ADVERBS.

1. Pronominal adverbs of place.

ubi ? where ? ibi, there. ubi, where.
quā ? where, hic, hac, here, this way. quā, where, which
which way ?

istīc, istāc, there, that way.
illic, illāc, there, yonder way.
hinc, hence.
istīnc, thence.
ilīnc, thence, from yonder.

hūc, (hōc,) hither.
istūc, (istōc,) thither.
ilūc, (illōc,) thither, yonder.

2. Pronominal adverbs of time.

quandō ? when ? tum, then. quandō, when.
tunc, at that time. quom, cum.
nunc, now.

quotiens ? how often ? totiens, so often. quotiens, as often as.

3. Pronominal adverbs of manner.

quōmodo ? qui ? how ? ita, sic, so, thus. ut, uti, as.
quam ? how much ? tam, so much. quam, as.

111. III. COMPOUNDS OF THE RELATIVE FORMS.

1. The relative pronouns become indefinite by prefixing ali-:

aliquantus, somewhat great; aliquot, several, some; alicubī, somewhere; alicunde, from somewhere; aliquandō, at some time.

2. The simple relatives become universal by doubling themselves, or by suffixing -cunque (-cumque), sometimes -que:

quantuscunque, however great; quāliscunque, of whatever kind; quot-quot, however many; ubicunque, wheresoever; quandōcunque, quandōque, whenever; quotiēscunque, however often; utut, in whatever way; utcunque, howsoever; quamquam, however, although.

3. Many of the relatives are further compounded with -vis or -libet:

quantuslibet, quantusvis, as great as you please; ubivis, where you will; quamvis, as you please, though.
112. The inflection given to the verbal stem is called Conjugation, and expresses:
1. Person and Number;
2. Voice—Active or Passive.

The Active Voice denotes that the action proceeds from the subject: amō, I love.

The Passive Voice denotes that the subject receives the action of the Verb: amor, I am loved.


The Present, amō, I love; Future, amābō, I shall love; Pure Perfect, amāvī, I have loved; Future Perfect, amāverō, I shall have loved, are called Principal Tenses.

The Imperfect, amābam, I was loving; Historical Perfect, amāvī, I loved; Pluperfect, amāveram, I had loved, are called Historical Tenses.

**Remark.**—The Pure and Historical Perfects are identical in form.


The Indicative Mood is the mood of the fact: amō, I love.

The Subjunctive Mood is the mood of the idea: amem, may I love, I may love; amet, may he love, he may love; si amet, if he should love.

The Imperative Mood is the mood of command: amā, love thou!

For further distinctions see Syntax.

5. These forms belong to the Finite Verb. Outside of the Finite Verb, and akin to the noun, are the verbal forms called Infinitive, Supine, Participle, Gerund.

The Infinitive active and the Supine are related to the noun, the former being originally a Dative or Locative and the Supine showing two cases, Accusative and Ablative.

No adequate uniform translation can be given, but for the general meaning see paradigms.

113. A large number of Verbs have the passive form but
are active in meaning: hortor, ἡεξήρτω. These are called deponent (from δεπόνερε, to lay aside).

114. The Inflection of the Finite Verb is effected by the addition of personal endings to the verb stems.

1. The personal endings are mostly pronominal forms, which serve to indicate not only person, but also number and voice. They are:

Active.

Pl. -r.

Passive.

Pl. -r.

SG. -m (or a vowel, coalescing with the characteristic ending); Pf. ι,

2. -s; Pf. -s-ί; Impv. -τό(τ) or wanting,

3. -t; Impv. τό(τ).

Pl. -mus,

2. -tis; Pf. -tis-; Impv. -te or -tōte,

3. -nt; Pf. ήρυτν or ήρε; Impv. -ntό(τ),

2. The personal endings are added directly to the stem in the Present Indicative and Imperative only, except in the third conjugation, in some forms of the Future Indicative. In the other tenses certain modifications occur in the stem, or tense signs are employed:

(a) In the Present Subjunctive final a of the stem is changed to e(e); final ι to ια (ia); final e to a (a). In the Future Indicative final e is changed to a or e (e); final ι to ια (iα, iε).

(b) The tense signs are: for the Imperfect Indicative, βα (ba); for the Imperfect Subjunctive, ῥε (re); for the Future Indicative in α and ε verbs βι (b, bu); for the Perfect Indicative, ι (i); for the Perfect Subjunctive, ε[ip]i; for the Pluperfect Indicative, ερα (era); for the Pluperfect Subjunctive, issε (isse); for the Future Perfect Indicative, ερι (er).

3. The stem itself is variously modified; either by change of vowel or by addition of suffixes, and appears in the following forms:

(a) The Present stem; being the stem of the Present, Imperfect, and Future tenses. These forms are called the Present System.

(b) The Perfect stem; being the stem of the Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect tenses. These forms are called the Perfect System.

(c) The Supine* stem; being the stem of the Future Active and Perfect Passive Participles and of the Supine. These forms are called the Supine System.

Note.—For details as to the formation of these stems, see 132 ff.

* This designation is retained because it is an established terminus technicus; as a matter of fact the Supine stem is not the stem of the Participles.
115. 1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect tenses in the Passive are formed by the combination of the Perfect Passive Participle with forms of the verb sum, I am.
   2. The Future Passive Infinitive is formed by the combination of the Supine with the Present Passive Infinitive of eō, I go.
   3. The infinite parts of the verb are formed by the addition of the following endings to the stems:

   **Active.**
   - Infinitive: Pr. -re, Pf. -isse, Fut. -tūrum (-a, -um), esse.
   - Participles: Pr. -ns (G. -ntis), Pf. —, Fut. -tūrus (-a, -um).
   - Gerund: -ndi (-dō, -dum, -dō).

   **Passive.**
   - Infinitive: Pr. -ī, Pf. -tus (-ta, -tum).
   - Participles: Pr. -nfl (G. -ntis), Pf. -torus (-a, -tum).
   - Gerund: -ndus (-a, -um).
   - Supine: -tum; -tū

116. **The Verb sum, I am.**

(Pres. stem es-, Perf. stem fu-)

**Indicative.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>1. sum,</th>
<th>I am,</th>
<th>sim,</th>
<th>I be,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. es,</td>
<td>thou art,</td>
<td>sis,</td>
<td>thou be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. est,</td>
<td>he, she, it is.</td>
<td>sit,</td>
<td>he, she, it be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pl.</th>
<th>1. sumus,</th>
<th>we are,</th>
<th>simus,</th>
<th>we be,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. estis,</td>
<td>you are,</td>
<td>sitis,</td>
<td>you be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. sunt,</td>
<td>they are.</td>
<td>sint,</td>
<td>they be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>1. eram,</th>
<th>I was,</th>
<th>essem,</th>
<th>I were (forem),</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. erēs,</td>
<td>thou wast,</td>
<td>essēs,</td>
<td>thou wert (foreēs),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. erat,</td>
<td>he was.</td>
<td>esset,</td>
<td>he were (foret).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pl.</th>
<th>1. erēmus,</th>
<th>we were,</th>
<th>essēmus,</th>
<th>we were,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. erātis,</td>
<td>you were,</td>
<td>essētis,</td>
<td>you were,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. erant,</td>
<td>they were,</td>
<td>essent,</td>
<td>they were (forent).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>1. erō,</th>
<th>I shall be,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. eris,</td>
<td>thou will be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. erit,</td>
<td>he will be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pl.</th>
<th>1. erimus,</th>
<th>we shall be,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. eritis,</td>
<td>you will be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. erunt,</td>
<td>they will be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SG.</th>
<th>PL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fui,</em></td>
<td><em>fuerimus,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have been, I was,</td>
<td>we have, may have, been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fueīs,</em></td>
<td><em>fueīs,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thou hast been, thou was,</td>
<td>thou have, mayest have, been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fueīt,</em></td>
<td><em>fueīt,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he has been, he was.</td>
<td>he have, may have, been.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Pluperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SG.</th>
<th>PL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fueram,</em></td>
<td><em>fuerāmus,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had been,</td>
<td>we had been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fueīs,</em></td>
<td><em>fueīs,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thou hadst been,</td>
<td>thou hadst, mightst have, been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>fueīt,</em></td>
<td><em>fueīt,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he had been.</td>
<td>he had, might have, been.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Imperative.

### Present.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SG.</th>
<th>PL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>es, thou shalt be,</td>
<td>estō, thou shall be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>este,</em></td>
<td><em>este,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ye, thou shall be,</td>
<td>thou shalt be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Future.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SG.</th>
<th>PL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>estō, thou shall be.</td>
<td>estō, thou shall be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>estōte,</em></td>
<td><em>estōte,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you shall be,</td>
<td>you shall be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3.</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suntō, they shall be.</td>
<td><em>futurum</em> (-am, -um) esse (fore), to be about to be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>esse, to be,</td>
<td>fuisse, to have been,</td>
<td><em>futurum</em> (-am, -um) esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>futūrus, -a, -um, about to be,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Notes.—1. Early forms are:
(a) In the Pres. Ind. es for es; regularly in Plautus and Terence, but the quantity of the vowel is disputed.
(b) In the Pres. Subjv. siem, siès, siet, sient; regularly in inscriptions until the first century B.C. and common in early poets chiefly for metrical reasons; side by side with this occur fum, füas, fuat, fuant (also Lucr. iv., 637, Verg. x., 108, Liv. xxv., 12, 6), which are taken up again by very late poets. Sit is also common.
(c) In the Impf. Subjv. the forms forem, forès, foret, forent were probably in very early times equivalent to futurus essem, etc.; and occasionally this force seems to be still present in the later period, especially in Sallust; usually, however, they are equivalent to essem, essès, esset, essent; in the Inf. fore always remained the equivalent of futurum esse.
(d) In all the Perfect forms the original length was fü, which is still found occasionally in early Latin.
(e) Early and principally legal are the rare forms escit, escet, esit, for erit; -essint for erunt.
2. The Pres. Part. is found only in the compounds; ab-sëns, absent, and prae-sëns, present.

117. Compounds of sum, I am.

ab-sum, I am away, absent. Pf. ob-sum, I am against, I hurt. Pf. (abful) äful.
ad-sum, I am present. Pf. aful. pos-sum, I am able. præ-sum, I am over, I superintend. prö-sum, I am for, I profit.
da-sum, I am wanting. prö-sum, I am want- ing. prö-fuerim, prö-fuissem.
dë-sum, I am in. prö-fuI.
inter-sum, I am between. prö-fuum, prö-fuit, prö-fuisse.
sub-sum, I am under. No Pf. in-sum, I am in. super-sum, I am, or remain, over.

These are all inflected like sum; but prösum and possum require special treatment by reason of their composition.

Prösum, I profit.

118. In the forms of prösum, pröd- is used before vowels.

Indicative.

Present. prö-sum, pröd-es, pröd-est, prö-sumus, pröd-estis, prö-sunt,
Imperfect. pröd-eram, pröd-erä, prö-fui,
Perfect. prö-fueram, prö-fuerä,
Pluperfect. prö-fueram, prö-fuerä,
Future perf. prö-fuerim, prö-fuissem.

Infinitive. Pres. pröd-esse; Fut. pröd-futurum esse (-fore); Perf. prö-fuisse. Possum, I am able, I can.

119. Possum is compounded of pot (potis, pote) and sum; t becomes s before s; in the perfect forms, f (pot-fui) is lost.
### THE VERB.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PRESENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pos-sum, (_I am able, can)</td>
<td>pos-sim, (_I be able)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. pot-es,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. pot-est.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pos-sumus,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. pot-estis,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. pos-sunt.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMPERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pot-eram, (_I was able, could)</td>
<td>pos-sem, (_I were, might be, able)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. pot-erās,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. pot-erat.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pot-erāmus,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. pot-erātis,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. pot-erant.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FUTURE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pot-erō, (_I shall be able)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. pot-eris,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. pot-erit.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pot-erimus,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. pot-eritis,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. pot-erunt.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pot-ui, (_I have been able)</td>
<td>pot-uerim, (_I have, may have, been able)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. pot-ui̇sti,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. pot-ui̇t.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pot-ui̇mus,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. pot-ui̇tis,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. pot-ui̇rant.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PLUPERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pot-ueram, (_I had been able)</td>
<td>pot-ui̇sem, (_I had, might have, been able)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. pot-uerās,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. pot-uerat.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pot-ui̇mus,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. pot-ui̇tis,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. pot-ui̇rant.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FUTURE PERFECT.

So. — 1. pot-uerō, I shall have been  Pl. — 1. pot-uerīmus,
  2. pot-uerīs, 2. pot-uerītis,
  3. pot-uerīt.  3. pot-uerint.

NOTES. — 1. In the early Latin the fusion of the two parts of the compound has not fully taken place; we accordingly find not unfrequently: potis sum, potis es, potis est, potis sunt; potis siem, potis sis, potis sit, potis sint; potis erat; pote fuisse; and sometimes (even in classical and Augustan poets) potis and pote alone, the copula being omitted. Partial fusion is seen in Inf. pot-esse, potisse; Subjv. poti-sit (inscr.), poti-sset.

2. Occasional passive forms (followed by a passive infinitive) are found in early Latin (not in Plaut. or Ter.) and Lucretius: potestur, possētur, possessur, poter-ētur. Poterint for poterunt is doubtful.

REGULAR VERBS.
SYSTEMS OF CONJUGATION.

120. 1. There are two Systems of Conjugation, the Thematic and the Non-thematic (132). The Non-thematic is confined to a small class. The Thematic System comprises four Conjugations, distinguished by the vowel characteristics of the present stem, ā, ē, ĕ, ī, which may be found by dropping -re from the Present Infinitive Active. The consonant preceding the short vowel stem-characteristic is called the consonant stem-characteristic.

2. From the Present stem, as seen in the Present Indicative and Present Infinitive active; from the Perfect stem, as seen in the Perfect Indicative active; and from the Supine stem, can be derived all the forms of the verb. These tenses are accordingly called the Principal Parts; and in the regular verbs appear in the four conjugations as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. am-ō,</td>
<td>amā-re,</td>
<td>amā-vi,</td>
<td>amā-tum, to love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. déle-ō,</td>
<td>déle-re,</td>
<td>déle-vi,</td>
<td>déle-tum, to blow out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>monē-ō,</td>
<td>mon-uī,</td>
<td>mon-i-tum, to remind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. em-ō,</td>
<td>eme-re,</td>
<td>ēm-i,</td>
<td>ēm(p)-tum, to buy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>statu-ō,</td>
<td>statu-i,</td>
<td>statū-tum, to settle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>scrib-ō,</td>
<td>scrib-e-re,</td>
<td>scrip-si, to write.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>capi-ō,</td>
<td>cap-e-re,</td>
<td>cap-tum, to take.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. audi-ō,</td>
<td>audi-re,</td>
<td>audi-vi,</td>
<td>audi-tum, to hear.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Rules for forming the Tenses.

121. 1. The Present System. From the Present stem as obtained by dropping -re of the Pres. Inf. Active, form

   a. Pres. Subjv. by changing final a to e, e to ea, e to a (or -ia), 1 to ia, and adding -m for active, -r for passive; Pres. Impv. Passive by adding -re; Fut. Impv. by adding -to for Active and -tor for the Passive; Pres. Part. by adding -ns and lengthening preceding vowel; Gerund by adding -ndl after shortening a and e, changing 1 to ie, and in a few verbs e to ie. Pres. Impv. Active is the same as the stem; Pres. Indic. Passive may be formed from Pres. Indic. Act. by adding -r (after shortening ò).

   b. Impf. Indic. by adding -bam for active and -bar for passive to the stem in the first and second conjugations; to the lengthened stem in the third and fourth (e to ò or is, 1 to is); Impf. Subjv. by adding the endings -rem and -rer, or by adding -m and -r respectively to the Pres. Inf. Active.

   c. Future, by adding -bo and -bor to the stem in the first and second conjugations; -m and -r in the third and in the fourth (e being changed to a (ia); 1, to ia).

2. The Perfect System. From the Perfect stem as obtained by dropping final i of the Perfect, form


3. The Supine System. From the Supine stem as obtained by dropping final -m of the Supine, form


   b. Fut. Part. Active by adding -rus (preceding u being lengthened to û).

   c. The Compound Tenses in the Passive and the Periphrastic forms by combining these Participles with forms of esse, to be.

Remark.—Euphonic changes in the consonant stem-characteristic. Characteristic b before s and t becomes p; g and qu before t become c; e, g, qu, with s, become x; t and d before s are assimilated, and then sometimes dropped. See further, 9.

scrib-ò, scrip-si, scrip-tum; legò, lèctum; coqu-ò, cocc-tum; dic-ò, dixi (dic-si); iung-ò, iùnx-i (iùng-si); coqu-ò, coxi (coqu-si); ed-ò, è-sum (ed-sum); céd-ò, cèss-si (cèd-si); mitt-ò, mìs-si (mit-si), mis-sum (mit-sum).
First Conjugation.

**Conjugation of amāre, to love.**

**Prin. Parts:** am-ō, amā-re, amā-vī, amā-tum.

**Active.**

### Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Am loving, do love, love.</td>
<td>Be loving, may love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—i. am-ō,</td>
<td>ame-m,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-s,</td>
<td>amē-s,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-t,</td>
<td>ame-t.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—i. amā-mus,</td>
<td>amē-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-tis,</td>
<td>amē-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-nt,</td>
<td>ame-nt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Was loving, loved.</th>
<th>Were loving, might love.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—i. amā-ba-m,</td>
<td>amā-re-m,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-bā-s,</td>
<td>amā-rē-s,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-ba-t,</td>
<td>amā-re-t.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—i. amā-bā-mus,</td>
<td>amā-rē-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-bā-tis,</td>
<td>amā-rē-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-ba-nt,</td>
<td>amā-re-nt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Future.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shall be loving, shall love.</th>
<th>Have loved, did love.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—i. amā-b-ō,</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-m,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-bi-s,</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-s,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-bi-t,</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-t.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—i. amā-bi-mus,</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-bi-tis,</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-bu-nt.</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-nt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have loved, did love.</th>
<th>Have, may have, loved.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—i. amā-v-ī,</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-m,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-v-istī,</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-s,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-v-it,</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-t.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—i. amā-v-imus,</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-v-istis,</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-v-ērunt (-ēre),</td>
<td>amā-v-ērī-nt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Note:** The table provides the conjugation of the verb *amāre* (to love) in its various tenses and moods. The table is structured to show the present, imperfect, and future tenses for both the indicative and subjunctive moods. The principal parts (am-ō, amā-re, amā-vī, amā-tum) are provided for reference.
# First Conjugation.

## ACTIVE.

### INDICATIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pluperfect</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Had loved.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Had, might have, loved.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future Perfect.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Future.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### SG.

1. *ama-v-era-m*,
2. *ama-v-era-s*,
3. *ama-v-era-t*,

#### Pl.

1. *ama-v-era-mus*,
2. *ama-v-era-tis*,
3. *ama-v-era-nt*,

#### IMPERATIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SG.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Pl.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. <strong>—</strong>,</td>
<td><strong>—</strong>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>—</strong>,</td>
<td><strong>—</strong>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pl.</strong></td>
<td><strong>—</strong>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>—</strong>,</td>
<td><strong>—</strong>,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### INFINITIVE.

Pres. *ama-re*, to love.

Perf. *ama-v-isse*, to have loved.

Fut. *ama-tūr-um*, -am, -um esse, to be about to love.

### GERUND.

**N.** [ama-re], loving.

**G.** ama-nd-ĭ, of loving.

**D.** ama-nd-ŏ, to loving.

**Ac.** [ama-re],

(ad) ama-nd-um, loving, to love.

**Ab.** ama-nd-ŏ, by loving.

**Ac.** ama-tūm, to love.

Ab. ama-tū, to love, in the loving.

### PARTICIPLES.

**Present.** N. *ama-n-s* (G. ama-nt-is), loving.

**Future.** *ama-tūr-us*, -a, -um, being about to love.
## First Conjugation.

### PASSIVE.

#### INDICATIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Am loved.</th>
<th>Be, may be, loved.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present.</td>
<td>SUBJUNCTIVE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Am loved.</td>
<td>Be, may be, loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—1. amo-r,</td>
<td>ame-r,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amä-ris (-re),</td>
<td>ame-ri-r (-re),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amä-tur,</td>
<td>ame-tur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—1. amä-mur,</td>
<td>ame-mur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amä-mini,</td>
<td>ame-mini,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amä-ntur,</td>
<td>ame-ntur,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IMPERFECT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Was loved.</th>
<th>Were, might be, loved.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—1. amä-ba-r,</td>
<td>amä-re-r,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amä-bä-ris (-re),</td>
<td>amä-re-ri-r (-re),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amä-bä-tur,</td>
<td>amä-re-tur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—1. amä-bä-mur,</td>
<td>amä-re-mur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amä-bä-mini,</td>
<td>amä-re-mini,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amä-bä-ntur,</td>
<td>amä-re-ntur,</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### FUTURE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shall be loved.</th>
<th>Have, may have, been loved.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—1. amä-bo-r,</td>
<td>Have, may have, been loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amä-be-ris (-re),</td>
<td>amä-t-us, -a, -um sim,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amä-bi-tur.</td>
<td>sis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—1. amä-bi-mur,</td>
<td>amä-t-i, -ae, -a simus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amä-bi-mini,</td>
<td>sitis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amä-bi-ntur,</td>
<td>sint,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
First Conjugation.

PASSIVE.

__INDICATIVE.__

**Pluperfect.**

*Had been loved.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>i.</th>
<th>amā-t-us, -a, -um</th>
<th>eram,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
<td>erās,</td>
</tr>
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<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td>erat,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>i.</td>
<td>amā-t-i, -ae, -a</td>
<td>erāmus,</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
<td>erātis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td>erant.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Had, might have, been loved.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>i.</th>
<th>amā-t-us, -a, -um</th>
<th>essem,</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
<td>essēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td>esset,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>i.</td>
<td>amā-t-i, -ae, -a</td>
<td>essēmus,</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
<td>essētis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td>essent.</td>
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**Future Perfect.**

*Shall have been loved.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>i.</th>
<th>amā-t-us, -a, -um</th>
<th>erō,</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
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<td>erit.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>i.</td>
<td>amā-t-i, -ae, -a</td>
<td>erimus,</td>
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<td>2.</td>
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<td>eritis,</td>
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**IMPERATIVE.**

**Present.**

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<th>i.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>amā-re, be thou loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>——,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>i.</td>
<td>——,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>amā-minī, be ye loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>——,</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

**Amā-tor, thou shalt be loved.**

**Amā-tor, he shall be loved.**

**Amāntor, they shall be loved.**

**INFINITIVE.**

**Pres.** amā-ri, to be loved.

**Perf.** amā-t-um, -am, -um esse, to have been loved.

**Fut.** amā-tum iri, to be about to be loved.

**Fut. Pf.** amā-t-um, -am, -um fore.

**PARTICIPE.**

**Perf.** amā-t-us, -a, -um, loved.

**Gerundive.**

**Ama-nđ-us, -a, -um, (one) to be loved.**
### Second Conjugation.

#### Conjugation of *delère*, *to destroy* (*blot out*).

**Prin. Parts:** *déle-ō, déle-re, déle-vi, déle-tum.*

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<tr>
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<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td><strong>Subjv.</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Sg.—<em>déle-ō</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-o-r</em>,</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>déle-s</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-ā-s</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>déle-t</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-ā-t</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—<em>déle-mus</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-ā-mus</em>,</td>
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<td><em>déle-tis</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-ā-tis</em>,</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>déle-nt</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-ā-nt</em>,</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Imperfect.</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<td><em>déle-re-s</em>,</td>
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<td><em>déle-ba-t</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-re-t</em>,</td>
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<td>Pl.—<em>déle-ba-mus</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-re-mus</em>,</td>
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<td><em>déle-ba-tis</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-re-tis</em>,</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>déle-ba-nt</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-re-nt</em>,</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Future.</strong></td>
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<td><em>déle-bo-r</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>déle-bi-s</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-be-r</em> (<em>re</em>),</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>déle-bi-t</em>,</td>
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<td>Pl.—<em>déle-bi-mus</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-bi-mur</em>,</td>
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<td><em>déle-bi-tis</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-bi-mini</em>,</td>
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<td><em>déle-bu-nt</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-bu-ntur</em>,</td>
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<td><strong>Perfect.</strong></td>
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<td><em>déle-veri-m</em>,</td>
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<td><em>déle-veri-s</em>,</td>
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<td><em>déle-v-it</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-veri-t</em>,</td>
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<td><em>déle-v-isti</em>,</td>
<td><em>déle-veri-tis</em>,</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>déle-v-erunt</em> (<em>ēre</em>),</td>
<td><em>déle-veri-nt</em>,</td>
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</table>
### Second Conjugation.

#### ACTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>3s</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indic.</strong></td>
<td>dele-va, m</td>
<td>dele-visse, s</td>
<td>dele-tam, issem,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dele-va-s</td>
<td>dele-visse-s</td>
<td>dele-tis, essis,</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>dele-va-t</td>
<td>dele-visset</td>
<td>dele-tet, esset,</td>
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</table>

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>3pl</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pluperf.</strong></td>
<td>dele-va-mus, s</td>
<td>dele-visse-mus, s</td>
<td>dele-tam, issem,</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>dele-va-tis, s</td>
<td>dele-visse-tis, s</td>
<td>dele-tis, essis,</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dele-va-nt, s</td>
<td>dele-visse-nt, s</td>
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#### PASSIVE.

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indic.</strong></td>
<td>dele-tam, issem,</td>
<td>dele-tis, essis,</td>
<td>dele-tet, esset,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dele-tam, issem,</td>
<td>dele-tis, essis,</td>
<td>dele-tet, esset,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dele-tam, issem,</td>
<td>dele-tis, essis,</td>
<td>dele-tet, esset,</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
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<th>1pl</th>
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<th>3pl</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pluperf.</strong></td>
<td>dele-tam, issem,</td>
<td>dele-tis, essis,</td>
<td>dele-tet, esset,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dele-tam, issem,</td>
<td>dele-tis, essis,</td>
<td>dele-tet, esset,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dele-tam, issem,</td>
<td>dele-tis, essis,</td>
<td>dele-tet, esset,</td>
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</table>

#### Future Perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>1s</th>
<th>2s</th>
<th>3s</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indic.</strong></td>
<td>dele-tam, issem,</td>
<td>dele-tis, essis,</td>
<td>dele-tet, esset,</td>
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<td>dele-tam, issem,</td>
<td>dele-tis, essis,</td>
<td>dele-tet, esset,</td>
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<td>dele-tam, issem,</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Pluperf.</strong></td>
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#### Imperative.

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<td><strong>Pluperf.</strong></td>
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<td>dele-ten-te</td>
<td>dele-ten-t</td>
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#### Infinitive.

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<th>3pl</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>dele-tur-um, -am, -um esse</td>
<td>dele-tur-um, -am, -um esse</td>
<td>dele-tur-um, -am, -um esse</td>
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#### Gerund.

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<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
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<th>3pl</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>dele-tum, -am, -um esse</td>
<td>dele-tum, -am, -um esse</td>
<td>dele-tum, -am, -um esse</td>
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#### Participles.

<table>
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<th>2pl</th>
<th>3pl</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>dele-tur-us, -a, -um</td>
<td>dele-tur-us, -a, -um</td>
<td>dele-tur-us, -a, -um</td>
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#### Participle.

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<tr>
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<td>dele-tum, -am, -um esse</td>
<td>dele-tum, -am, -um esse</td>
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#### Gerundive.

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<td>dele-nd-us, -a, -um</td>
<td>dele-nd-us, -a, -um</td>
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<td>dele-nd-us, -a, -um</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
124. Like delere, to destroy, are conjugated only, nere, to spin, flère, to weep, and the compounds of -plère, fill, and -olère grow (the latter with Supine in -itum); also cière, to stir up. See 137(b).

All other verbs of the Second Conjugation retain the characteristic e in the Present System, but drop it in the Perfect System, changing vi to ui, and weaken it to i in the Supine System.

Second Conjugation.

**Conjugation of monère, to remind.**

**Prin. Parts:** mone-ô, monē-re, mon-ui, moni-tum.

**Active.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—mone-ô,</td>
<td>monea-m,</td>
<td>mone-o-r,</td>
<td>monea-r,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monē-s,</td>
<td>monea-s,</td>
<td>monē-ris (-re),</td>
<td>monea-ris (-re),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mone-t,</td>
<td>mone-t,</td>
<td>monē-tur,</td>
<td>mone-tur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—monē-mus,</td>
<td>monea-mus,</td>
<td>monē-mur,</td>
<td>monea-mur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monē-tis,</td>
<td>monea-tis,</td>
<td>monē-mini,</td>
<td>monea-mini,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mone-nt,</td>
<td>monea-nt.</td>
<td>mone-a-ntur.</td>
<td>mone-a-ntur.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

| Sg.—monē-ba-m, | monē-re-m, | monē-ba-r, | monē-re-r, |
| monē-ba-s, | monē-re-s, | monē-ba-ris (-re), | monē-ba-ris (-re), |
| monē-ba-t, | monē-re-t, | monē-ba-tur, | monē-ba-tur, |
| Pl.—monē-ba-mus, | monē-re-mus, | monē-ba-mur, | monē-ba-mur, |
| monē-ba-tis, | monē-re-tis, | monē-ba-mini, | monē-ba-mini, |
| monē-ba-nt, | monē-re-nt, | monē-ba-ntur. | monē-ba-ntur. |

**Future.**

| Sg.—monē-b-ô, | monē-bo-r, | monē-bo-r, |
| monē-bi-s, | monē-be-ris (-re), | monē-bi-ris (-re), |
| monē-bi-t, | monē-bi-tur, | monē-bi-tur, |
| Pl.—monē-bi-mus, | monē-bi-mini, | monē-bi-mini, |
| monē-bi-tis, | monē-bi-ntur. | monē-bi-ntur. |

**Perfect.**

| Sg.—mon-u-f, | mon-u-erí-m, | moni-t-us sum, | moni-t-us sim, |
| mon-u-isti, | mon-u-erí-s, | es, | sis, |
| mon-u-it, | mon-u-erí-t, | est, | sit, |
| Pl.—mon-u-imus, | mon-u-erí-mus, | moni-t-í sumus, | moni-t-í simus, |
| mon-u-istis, | mon-u-erí-tis, | estis, | sitis, |
| mon-u-érun (-äre), mon-u-erí-nt, | sunt. | sint. |
### Second Conjugation.

#### ACTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indic.</th>
<th>Subjv.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sg.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Passive.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-era-m,</td>
<td>mon-u-isse-m,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-erā-s,</td>
<td>mon-u-isse-s,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-era-t,</td>
<td>mon-u-isse-t.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pl.</strong></td>
<td>mon-u-erā-mus, mon-u-isse-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-erā-tis,</td>
<td>mon-u-isse-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-era-nt.</td>
<td>mon-u-isse-nt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Future Perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indic.</th>
<th>Subjv.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sg.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-erā,</td>
<td>erō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-erī-s,</td>
<td>eris,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-erī-t,</td>
<td>erit,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pl.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-erī-mus,</td>
<td>erimus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-erī-tis,</td>
<td>eritis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-erī-nt.</td>
<td>erunt.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

#### Imperative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Futh.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sg.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monē,</td>
<td>monē-tō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>monē-tō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pl.</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>monē-te,</td>
<td>monē-tōte,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>monē-ntō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Infinitive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monē-re.</td>
<td>monē-isse,</td>
<td>moni-tār-um, -am, -um esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monē-tūr-um, -am, -um esse.</td>
<td>monē-tūr-us, -a, -um.</td>
<td>monē-tā.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### GERUND.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Participle.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. [monē-re].</td>
<td>N. monē-ns; G. monēnt-is.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. mone-nd-ī.</td>
<td>Fut. moni-tūr-us, -a, -um.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. mone-nd-ō.</td>
<td>Perf. moni-tūr-us, -a, -um.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ad) mone-nd-um.</td>
<td>GERUNDIVE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. mone-nd-ō.</td>
<td>Ab. moni-tā.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mone-nd-us, -a, -um.</td>
<td>mone-nd-us, -a, -um.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONJUGATION OF *emere*, *to buy*.

**PRIN. PARTS:** *em-o*, *em-e-re*, *em-i*, *em(p)-tum*.

### ACTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDIC.</th>
<th>SUBJV.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg. — <em>em-o</em>,</td>
<td><em>ema-m</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>emi-s</em>,</td>
<td><em>emē-s</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>em-i-t</em>,</td>
<td><em>ema-t</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. — <em>emi-mus</em>,</td>
<td><em>emē-mus</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>emi-tis</em>,</td>
<td><em>emē-tis</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>emu-nt</em>,</td>
<td><em>ema-nt</em>,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PASSIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDIC.</th>
<th>SUBJV.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg. — <em>emē-ba-m</em>,</td>
<td><em>eme-re-m</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>emē-bā-s</em>,</td>
<td><em>eme-re-s</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>emē-ba-t</em>,</td>
<td><em>eme-re-t</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. — <em>emē-bā-mus</em>,</td>
<td><em>eme-re-mus</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>emē-bā-tis</em>,</td>
<td><em>eme-re-tis</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>emē-ba-nt</em>,</td>
<td><em>eme-re-nt</em>,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IMPERFECT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUTURE.</th>
<th>PERFECT.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg. — <em>ema-m</em>,</td>
<td><em>ema-r</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>emē-s</em>,</td>
<td><em>emicris (-re)</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. — <em>emē-mus</em>,</td>
<td><em>emē-mur</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>emē-tis</em>,</td>
<td><em>emē-mini</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>emē-nt</em>,</td>
<td><em>emē-ntur</em>,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Sg. — *em-i*, | *ēm-eri-mus*, | *ēmp-t-us sum*, | *ēmp-t-us sim*, |
| *ēm-istī*, | *ēm-eri-s*, | *ēs*, | *sis*, |
| *ēm-it*, | *ēm-eri-t*, | *est*, | *sit*, |
| Pl. — *ēm-imus*, | *ēm-eri-mus*, | *ēmp-t-i sumus*, | *ēmp-t-i simus*, |
| *ēm-istis*, | *ēm-eri-tis*, | *estis*, | *sitis*, |
| *ēm-ērunt (-ēre)*, | *ēm-eri-nt*, | *sunt*, | *sint*. |
REGULAR VERBS.

Third Conjugation.

ACTIVE.

INDIC. | SUBJ. | INDIC. | SUBJ.
---|---|---|---
Pluperfect.
G. — ēm-era-m, ēm-isse-m, ēmp-t-us eram, ēmp-t-us essem,
ém-erā-s, ēm-isse-s, erās, essēs,
ém-erā-t, ēm-isse-t, erat, esset,
L. — ēm-erā-mus, ēm-isse-mus, ēmp-t-l erāmus, ēmp-t-l essēmus,
ém-erā-tis, ēm-isse-tis, erātis, essētis,
ém-erā-nt. ēm-isse-nt. erant. essent.

Future Perfect.
G. — ēm-erē-ū, ēm-erēs, ēmp-t-us erē,
ém-erī-t,
L. — ēm-erī-mus, ēm-erī-tis, ēmp-t-l erimus,
ém-erī-nt.

Imperative.

---|---|---|---
G. — | — | eme, emi-tō, | eme-re, emi-tor,
ém-erē-t,
L. — | — | emi-te, emi-tōte, | emi-mini,
ém-erē-nt.

Infinitive.

Pres. eme-re.
Perf. ēm-isse.
Fut. ēmp-tur-um, -am, -um esse.
Fut. Pf. ēmp-t-um īri.

Gerund.

Sapine.

Participles.

Pres. N. ēmē-n-s; G. ēme-nt-is.
Fut. ēmp-tur-um, -a, -um.
Perf. ēmp-t-us, -a, -um.

Ac. ēmp-tum.

Gerundive.

Ab. ēmp-tū.

em-e-n-d-us, -a, -um.
126. Many verbs of the third conjugation with stem in ie (Pres. Indic. in iō) weaken this ie to e before -re, and to i before m, n, and t in all tenses of the Present System except the Future. Otherwise they follow the inflection of eme-re.

These verbs are capiō, cupiō, faciō, fodīō, fugiō, iaciō, parīquatiō, rapiō, sapiō, and their compounds; also compounds of -liciō, -spiciō, and the deponents gradior and its compounds, morior and its compounds, patior and its compounds.

**Synopsis of Present System of cape-re, to take.**

**Prin. Parts:** capi-ō, cape-re, cēp-ī, cap-tum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVE</th>
<th>PASSIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDIC.</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJ.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—capi-ō</td>
<td>capia-m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capi-s</td>
<td>capiā-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capi-t</td>
<td>capia-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—capi-mus</td>
<td>capiā-mus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capi-tis</td>
<td>capiā-tis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiu-nt</td>
<td>capia-nt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperfect.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—capiē-ba-m</td>
<td>cap-e-re-m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etc.</td>
<td>etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—cape</td>
<td>capi-ā-tō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capi-tō</td>
<td>capi-mini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capi-te</td>
<td>capiu-ntō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperative.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. cape-re.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Infinitive.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cap-i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participle.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Gerund.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. capiē-n-s</td>
<td>G. capie-nd-i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Fourth Conjugation

**CONJUGATION OF audire, to hear.**

**Prin. Parts:** audi-ō, audi-re, audi-vi, audi-tum.

**Active.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDIC.</th>
<th>SUBJ.V.</th>
<th>INDIC.</th>
<th>SUBJ.V.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—audi-ō, audiē-ō, audī-t</td>
<td>audi-o-r, audiē-o-r, audi-tur</td>
<td>audiia-r, audiē-r, audi-tur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audi-s, audiē-s, audī-t</td>
<td>audi-r-is (re), audiē-r-is (re), audi-tur</td>
<td>audiia-r, audiē-r, audi-tur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audi-t, audiē-t, audī-t</td>
<td>audi-tur</td>
<td>audiia-tur, audiē-tur, audi-tur</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—audi-mus, audiē-mus, audī-tis, audiē-tis, audī-tu-nnt</td>
<td>audi-mur, audiē-mur, audi-tur</td>
<td>audiia-mur, audiē-mur, audi-tur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audi-tis, audiē-tis, audī-tu-nnt</td>
<td>audi-minī, audiē-minī, audi-tur</td>
<td>audiia-minī, audiē-minī, audi-tur</td>
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<tr>
<td>audi-nt, audiē-nt, audī-tu-nnt</td>
<td>audi-u-nntur</td>
<td>audiia-u-nntur, audiē-u-nntur, audi-tur</td>
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**Imperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDIC.</th>
<th>SUBJ.V.</th>
<th>INDIC.</th>
<th>SUBJ.V.</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Future.</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—audiia-m, audiē-m, audī-t</td>
<td>audi-re-m, audiē-re-m, audi-tur</td>
<td>audiia-r, audiē-r, audi-tur</td>
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<tr>
<td>audiē-s, audiē-s, audī-t</td>
<td>audi-rē-s, audiē-rē-s, audi-tur</td>
<td>audiia-r, audiē-r, audi-tur</td>
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<tr>
<td>audiē-t, audiē-t, audī-t</td>
<td>audi-tur</td>
<td>audiia-tur, audiē-tur, audi-tur</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—audiē-bā-mus, audiē-bā-mus, audī-bā-tis, audiē-bā-tis, audī-bā-tu-nnt</td>
<td>audi-re-m, audiē-bā-mur, audi-tur</td>
<td>audiia-re, audiē-bā-mur, audi-tur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiē-bā-tis, audiē-bā-tis, audī-bā-tu-nnt</td>
<td>audi-re-m, audiē-bā-minī, audi-tur</td>
<td>audiia-re, audiē-bā-minī, audi-tur</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiē-bā-tis, audiē-bā-tis, audī-bā-tu-nnt</td>
<td>audi-re-m, audiē-bā-tur</td>
<td>audiia-re, audiē-bā-tur, audi-tur</td>
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**Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>INDIC.</th>
<th>SUBJ.V.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—audi-v-ī, audiē-v-ī, audī-t</td>
<td>audi-v-e-rī-m, audi-re-us sum, audi-t-us sum,</td>
<td>audiia-r, audiē-r, audi-tur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audi-v-ī-stī, audiē-v-ī-stī, audī-t</td>
<td>audi-v-e-rī-s, audi-re-s, est</td>
<td>audiia-r, audiē-r, audi-tur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audi-v-it, audiē-v-it, audī-t</td>
<td>audi-v-e-rī-t, audi-re-t, est</td>
<td>audiia-r, audiē-r, audi-tur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—audi-v-ī-mus, audiē-v-ī-mus, audī-t</td>
<td>audi-v-e-rī-mus, audi-re-tus sumus, audi-t-us sumus</td>
<td>audiia-r, audiē-r, audi-tur</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>audi-v-ī-stīs, audiē-v-ī-stīs, audī-t</td>
<td>audi-v-e-rī-tis, estis</td>
<td>audiia-r, audiē-r, audi-tur</td>
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<tr>
<td>audi-v-ī-trunt (-ōre), audiē-v-ī-trunt</td>
<td>audi-v-e-rī-trunt, sunt</td>
<td>audiia-r, audiē-r, audi-tur</td>
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</table>
Fourth Conjugation.

**ACTIVE.**  
**PASSIVE.**

<table>
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<th>SUBJ.</th>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sg.—audī-ν-er-a-m,</td>
<td>audī-ν-isse-m,</td>
<td>audī-t-us eram,</td>
<td>audī-tu-s essem,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audī-ν-er-a-s,</td>
<td>audī-ν-isse-s,</td>
<td>erās,</td>
<td>essēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audī-ν-er-a-t,</td>
<td>audī-ν-isse-t,</td>
<td>erat,</td>
<td>esset,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—audī-ν-er-a-m-us,</td>
<td>audī-ν-isse-m-us,</td>
<td>audī-t-i erāmus,</td>
<td>audī-t-i essēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audī-ν-er-a-tis,</td>
<td>audī-ν-isse-tis,</td>
<td>erātis,</td>
<td>essētis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audī-ν-er-a-nt,</td>
<td>audī-ν-isse-nt.</td>
<td>erant,</td>
<td>essent,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDIC.</th>
<th>SUBJ.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—audī-ν-er-i,</td>
<td>audī-t-us erō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audī-ν-er-i-s,</td>
<td>eris,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audī-ν-er-i-t,</td>
<td>erit,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—audī-ν-er-i-m-us,</td>
<td>audī-t-i erimus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audī-ν-er-i-tis,</td>
<td>eritis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audī-ν-er-i-nt.</td>
<td>erunt,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audī,</td>
<td>audī-tō,</td>
<td>audī-re,</td>
<td>audī-tor,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>audī-tō,</td>
<td></td>
<td>audī-tor,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audī-te.</td>
<td>audī-tōte,</td>
<td>audī-min,</td>
<td>audī-ntō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>audiu-ntō.</td>
<td></td>
<td>audiu-ntor.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audī-re.</td>
<td>audī-isse.</td>
<td>audī-tūr-um, -am, -um esse.</td>
<td>audī-tūr-us, -a, -um.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>audī-tum iri.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>audī-t-um, -am, -um fore.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gerund.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N.</th>
<th>G.</th>
<th>D.</th>
<th>Ac.</th>
<th>Ab.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(ad) audie-nd-um.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Supine.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. audiē-n-s, G. audie-nt-is.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. audi-tūr-us, -a, -um.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. audī-t-us, -a, -um.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Participles.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GERUNDIVE.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GERUNDIVE.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Deponent verbs have the passive form, but are active in meaning. They have also the Present and Future Active Participles, and the Future Active Infinitive. Thus a deponent verb alone can have a Present, Future, and Perfect Participle, all with active meaning. The Gerundive, however, is passive in meaning as well as in form.

The conjugation differs in no particular from that of the regular conjugation.

I. First Conjugation.

Conjugation of hortāri, to exhort.

Prin. Parts: hort-or, hortā-ri, hortā-tus sum.

Indicative.

Exhort.

Present.

horta-r, horta-ris (-re), horta-tur,

Subjunctive.

Be exhorting, may exhort.

horte-r, horte-ris (-re), horte-tur,

Imperfect.

Were exhorting, might exhort.

hortā-rē-r, hortā-rē-ris (-re), hortā-rē-tur,

Shall exhort.

Future.

hortā-bo-r, horta-be-ris (-re), horta-bi-tur,

horta-bā-mur, hortā-bā-mini, hortā-ba-ntur.
### Perfect

**Have exorted, exorted.**

Sg. — hortā-t-us, -a, -um sum, es, est,

Pl. — hortā-t-i, -ae, -a sumus, estis, sunt.

**Had exorted.**

Sg. — hortā-t-us, -a, -um erām, erās, erat,

Pl. — hortā-t-i, -ae, -a erāmus, erātis, erant.

**Shall have exorted.**

Sg. — hortā-t-us, -a, -um erō, eris, erit,

Pl. — hortā-t-i, -ae, -a erimus, eritis, erunt.

### Pluperfect

**Had, might have, exorted.**

Sg. — hortā-t-us, -a, -um sim, sis, sit,

Pl. — hortā-t-i, -ae, -a simus, sitis, sint.

### Future Perfect

**Shall have exorted.**

Sg. — hortā-t-us, -a, -um erē, erēs, erēt,

Pl. — hortā-t-i, -ae, -a erēmus, erētis, erent.

**FUTURE PERFECT.**

### Imperative

**Present.**

Sg. — hortā-re, exhort thou.

Pl. — hortā-mini, exhort ye.

**INFINITIVE.**

Pres. hortā-ri, to exhort.

Fut. hortā-tūr-um, am, -um esse, to be about to exhort.

Perf. hortā-t-um, -am, -um esse, to have exorted.

F. P. hortā-t-um, -am, -um fore.

**SUPINE.**

Ac. hortā-tum, to exhort, for exhorting.

Ab. hortā-tā, to exhort, in the exhorting.

### Participles

**FUTURE.**

hortā-tor, thou shalt exhort.

hortā-tor, he shall exhort.

horta-nitor, they shall exhort.

**PARTICIPLES.**

Pres. hortā-n-s, exhorting.

Fut. hortā-tūr-us, -a, um, about to exhort.

Perf. hortā-t-us, -a, -um, having exorted.

**GERUNDIVE.**

hortā-nd-us, -a, -um, [one] to be exhorted.

**GERUND.**

G. hortā-nd-I, of exhorting.
2. Second, Third, Fourth Conjugations.

**Synopsis of** **verēri**, to fear; **loqui**, to speak; **mentiri**, to lie.

**Prin. Parts**: vere-or, verē-ri, veri-tus sum; loqu-or, loqu-i, locū-tus sum; menti-or, menti-ri, menti-tus sum.

### Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>vere-o-r</td>
<td>loqu-o-r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vere-ris (-re), etc.</td>
<td>loque-ris (-re), etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf.</td>
<td>verē-ba-r</td>
<td>loquē-ba-r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>verē-bo-r</td>
<td>loqua-r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>veri-t-us sum,</td>
<td>locū-t-us sum,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plupf.</td>
<td>veri-t-us eram,</td>
<td>locū-t-us eram,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Pf.</td>
<td>veri-t-us erō.</td>
<td>locū-t-us erō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subjunctive.

| Pres.    | vero-r          | loqua-r        | mentia-r      |
|          | vero-ris (-re), etc. | loquē-ris (-re), etc. | mentiā-ris (-re), etc. |
| Imperf.  | verē-re-r       | loque-re-r     | menti-re-r    |
| Perf.    | veri-t-us sim,  | locū-t-us sim, | menti-t-us sim, |
| Plupf.   | veri-t-us essem, | locū-t-us essem. | menti-t-us essem. |

### Imperative.

| Pres.    | vero-re         | loque-re       | menti-re      |
|          | vero-tor        | loqui-tor      | menti-tor     |

### Infinitive.

| Pres.    | verē-rī         | loqu-i         | menti-rī      |
|          | veri-tūr-um esse, | locū-tūr-um esse, | menti-tūr-um esse, |
| Perf.    | veri-t-um esse, | locū-t-um esse, | menti-t-um esse, |
| Fut. Pf. | veri-t-um fore, | locū-t-um fore. | menti-t-um fore. |

### Participles.

| Pres.    | vero-n-s        | loquē-n-s      | mentiō-n-s     |
|          | verē-tūr-us     | locū-tūr-us    | menti-tūr-us,  |
| Perf.    | veri-tus        | locū-tus       | menti-t-us.    |
| Gerund.  | vere-nd-i, etc., | loque-nd-i, | mentio-nd-i, |
| Gerundive| vere-nd-us,     | locū-nd-us,    | menti-nd-us,   |
| Supine.  | veri-tum        | locū-tum,      | menti-tum,     |
|          | veri-tū.        | locū-tū,       | menti-tū.      |
Periphrastic Conjugation.

129. The Periphrastic Conjugation arises from the combination of the Future Participle active and the Gerundive with forms of the verb sum.

**ACTIVE.**

- **INDICATIVE.**
  - Pres. amāturus (-a, -um) sum,
    - Am about to love.
  - IMPF. amāturus eram,
    - Was about to love.
  - FUT. amāturus erō,
    - Shall be about to love.
  - PERF. amāturus fuī,
    - Have been, was, about to love.
  - PLUPERF. amāturus fueram,
    - Had been about to love.
  - FUT. PERF. amāturus fuerō,
    - Shall have been about to love.

- **SUBJUNCTIVE.**
  - amāturus (-a, -um) sim,
    - Be about to love.
  - amāturus essem,
    - Were about to love.
  - amāturus fuerim,
    - Have, may have, been about to love.
  - amāturus fuissem,
    - Had, might have, been about to love.

**PASSIVE.**

- **PBES.**
  - Pres. amandus (-a, -um) sum,
    - Have to be loved.
  - IMPF. amandus eram,
    - Had to be loved.
  - FUT. amandus erō, Shall have to be loved.
  - PERF. amandus fuī,
    - Have had to be loved.
  - PLUPERF. amandus fueram,
    - Had had to be loved.

- **SUBJUNCTIVE.**
  - amandus (-a, -um) sim,
    - Have to be loved.
  - amandus essem, forem,
    - Had to be loved.
  - amandus fuerim,
    - Have had to be loved.
  - amandus fuissem,
    - Should have had to be loved.

**INFINITIVE.**

- **PBES.**
  - amandum (-am, -um) esse, To be about to love.
  - amandum fuisse, To have been about to love.

- **PBES.**
  - amandus (-a, -um) sum,
    - Have to be loved.
  - amandus essem, forem,
    - Had to be loved.
  - amandus fuerim,
    - Have had to be loved.
  - amandus fuissem,
    - Should have had to be loved.

**PBES.**

- amandum (-am, -um) esse, To have to be loved.
- amandum fuisse, To have had to be loved.
Notes on the Four Conjugations.

130. The Present System.

1. Present Indicative.—(a) In the third person Singular active, early Latin, and occasionally later poets, often retain the original length of vowel in the endings -āt, -ēt, and -ēt of the first, second, and fourth conjugations. Final -ēt in the third conjugation is rare, and due, perhaps, to analogy or to metrical necessity. In the first person Plural the ending -mās is found a few times in poetry. In third person Plural an earlier ending, -onti, is found only in a Carmen Saliare, and is disputed. The ending -ont is frequent in early Latin for -unt.

(b) In the second Singular, passive, in all tenses of the Present stem, the ending -re is much more common in early Latin than -ris, and is regular in Cic. except in the Pr. Indic., where he prefers -ris on account of confusion with Pr. Inf., admitting -re only in deponents, and then but rarely. In general, in the Pr. Indic. -re is rare in the first and second conjugations, more rare in the third, and never found in the fourth, in prose authors. Post-Ciceronian prose writers, e.g., Livy, Tacitus, prefer -ris, even in the other tenses of the Present stem. The poets use -ris or -re to suit the metre.

2. Imperfect Indicative.—In the fourth conjugation, instead of -ić, we find in early times -ī-. This is common in early Latin (especially seebam), in the poets to suit the metre, and occasionally in later prose. In the verb eō, and its compounds (but ambire varies), this form was regular always.

3. Future Indicative.—Plautus shows sporadic cases of -it, as erēt, vēnībit (vēnedī). In the fourth conjugation -ībō for -iam is very common in early Latin (especially seebam), and forms in -ībō of the third conjugation are occasional.

4. Present Subjunctive.—Final -ēt of the third person Singular active is occasional in early Latin and also in later poets. In early Latin the active endings -im, -īs, -īt, -īnt are found in dare (and some compounds), which forms very often duim, diūs, dūt, dūint. On similar forms from esse, see 116; from edere, see 172.

5. Imperative.—(a) Four verbs, dicere, dūcere, facere, ferre (171), form the Pr. Impv. active dic, dūc, fac, fer. But in early Latin dīce, dūce, face are not uncommon. The compounds follow the usage of the simple verbs, except non-prepositional compounds of faciō. Scire, to know, lacks the Pr. Impv. scī.

(b) The original ending of the Fut. Impv. active -tōd is found in early Inscriptions, but very rarely.

(c) The Pr. Impv. passive (second and third Singular) ends occasionally in early Latin in -mīnō.

6. Present Infinitive Passive.—The early ending -rīr (-ier) is very common in early Latin and occasionally in poetry at all periods. Plautus shows about 140 such formations. In literary prose it does not appear till very late.

7. The Present Participle occurs sporadically in early Latin with the ending -ās, -ēs, the n having been omitted owing to its weak sound; see 12, R. 1.

8. The older ending of the Gerund and Gerundive in the third and fourth conjugations was -undus; and -endus was found only after u. In classical times -undus is frequent, especially in verbs of third and fourth conjugations. Later, -endus is the regular form.

131. The Perfect System.

1. Syncopated Forms.—The Perfects in -ēvi, -ēvi, -ivī, often drop the v before s or r, and contract the vowels throughout, except those in -ivī, which admit the contraction only before s.

The syncopated forms are found in all periods, and in the poets are used to suit the metre.
Perfect.

| Sing. 1. | 1. amāvisti, amāstī. | dēlēvisti, dēlēstī. | audīvisti, audīstī. |
| Plur. 1. | 2. amāvistis, amāstīs. | dēlēvistis, dēlēstīs. | audīvistis, audīstīs. |
| Subjv. | amāverim, amārim, etc. | dēlēverim, dēlērim, etc. | audīverim, audīerim, etc. |

Pluperfect.

| Indic. | amāveram, amāram, etc. | dēlēveram, dēlēram, etc. | audīveram, audīeram, etc. |
| Subjv. | amāvissem, amāssem, etc. | dēlēvissem, dēlēssem, etc. | audīvissem, audīssem, etc. |

Future Perfect.

| amāverō, amārō, etc. | dēlēverō, dēlērō, etc. | audīverō, audīrō, etc. |

Infinitive Perfect.

| amāvisse, amāsse. | dēlēvisse, dēlēsse. | audīvisse, audīsse. |

2. In the first and third persons Sing. and in the first person Pl. of the Perfect, syncope occurs regularly only in Perfects in īvi, and no contraction ensues. It is most common in the Perfects of ire (169) and petere. In other verbs this syncopeation is post-Ciceronian, except in a few forms. So Cicero uses dormiit, ērudīt, expedīt, mollīt, cupidīt (also Plautus); Caesar, commūniit, rescīt, quaeśīt. Dēsinere forms dēsiī and dēsiit, once each in early Latin (Cicero uses dēstītī and dēstītīt instead), and then in post-Augustan Latin; dēsiimus is cited once from Cicero. The unsyncopeated forms are always common except those of ire (169), which are very rare in classical prose, but occur more often in the poets for metrical reasons.

Note.—The forms nōmus (Enn. = nōvimus), ēnārāmus (Ter., Ad., 365), fēmus, mūtāmus, and nārāmus (Prop.), suēmus (Lucr.), in the Perfect, are sporadic and sometimes doubtful.

3. nōvi, I know, and mōvi, I have moved, are also contracted, in their compounds especially.

| Sing.—2. nōstī. | Plur.—2. nōstīs. | 3. nōrunt. | Subjv. nōrim, etc. |
| Plupf. nōram, etc. | Subjv. nōssem, etc. | Inf. nōsse. |

But the Fut. Perf. nōrō is found only in compounds.

Similar contractions are seen in mōvi, but not so often; īavi shows also a few cases of syncope in poetry.

4. (a) In the early Latin poets frequently and occasionally in later, syncope takes place in Perfects in -sī. These drop the s and contract. A few cases are found in Cicero, especially in the letters. Examples are dīxiī (found also in Crs. and probably an earlier formation, and not by syncope for dīxiītī); dūxiī, principally in compounds; intellexītī (once in Crs.); scripsti; mistī (misisti) and several others; also scripstitis.

(b) Akin to these are a number of forms in -sō for Fut. Perfect; -sim for Pf. Subjv. and more rarely -sem for Plupf. Subjv. These forms are most usual in the third conjugation, but are also not unfrequent in the other three; thus,
1. Future Perfect: faxó (facere); capsó (capere) and compounds; iūssó (iubère; VERA.); amássó (amáre); servássó (serváre) and compounds, together with some others.

2. Perfect Subjunctive: faxim and compounds; dúxim; ausim (audère, also used by Cic.); iūssim; ëmpsísm (emere); locássim (locáre); negássim (negáre). In the second and third persons Sing., where the Fut. Pf. Indic. and the Pf. Subjv. are identical, the forms are much more common. The plural forms are much less frequent.

3. Pluperfect Subjunctive: faxem; pró-míssem; intel-lexès; re-césset and a few other forms; érëpèsmus (Hor., S., i. 5, 79). These forms are rare.

4. Infinitive: dixe; dē-spexe; ad-dûxe, etc.; intel-lexe; dē-trâxe, etc.; ad-vexe; ad-mísse, and a few others. Also the Future forms ëveruncássere, reconciliássere, impétrássere, oppúgnássere.

The exact origin of these forms is still a matter of dispute, but the common view is that they are aoristic formations.

5. From the earliest times the third Plural of the Pf. Indic. active shows two endings, -érunt (later -éruṇt) and -ére. The form in -éruṇt was always preferred, and in classical prose is the normal form. The form in -ére seems to have been the popular form, and is much liked by Livy and later writers. Tacitus seems to have preferred -éruṇt for the Pure Perfect, and -ére for the Historical Perfect. The poets scan, according to the exigencies of the metre, at all periods also -érunt.

6. In regard to the other endings, we have to notice in early Latin -is occasionally in the Pf. Subjv. and Fut. Pf. Indic. active; Perfects in -i are always written with -ieon inscriptions; in other Perfects the third person Singular in -él (older -ēt), or -ī; as dedet; occasionally the first person ends in -ēī and the second in -istēī. Peculiar forms are dedrot (dedro), (for dederunt), fecēd (for fecit), and a few others.

THE STEM.

132. With the exception of the verbs sum, I am, edō, I eat, eō, I go, ferō, I bear, volō, I wish (perhaps dō, I give), and their compounds, most of whose forms come directly from the root, all verbs in Latin form their stems from the root by the addition of a vowel or of a combination of a vowel with a consonant. This vowel is called the thematic vowel; see 190.

In the first, second, and fourth conjugations, and in some verbs of the third conjugation, the stem thus formed is found throughout the whole conjugation; in other verbs the present stem shows different forms from the other stems.

1. THE PRESENT STEM.

133. I. The Stem or Thematic class: To this class belong those verbs whose stems are formed by the addition of a thematic vowel (usually i, sometimes u) to the root, as in the third conjugation, or to a stem formed by the addition of ã, ë, or i to the root, as in the first, second, and fourth conjugations. The stem thus formed is seen (with lengthened vowel sometimes) in all forms of the verb. To this class belong verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, and in the
third (a) verbs formed from a strong root, i. e., verbs with i, ü, ä, e, ö, ae, au; and with e in the stem; as dicō (= diecō), dācō (= doucō), rādō, cēdō, rōdō, caedō, plaudō; vehō, vergō, pendō, etc.; (b) verbs formed from a weak root, i. e., those with vowel i, ü, ò, and probably those with a: as di-vidō, furō, olō (olerē), ago.

II. The Reduplicated class: The Present stem is formed by reduplication, with i in the reduplicated syllable:

gen-, gi-gnō (for gi-gen-o), gi-gne-re, to beget; sta-, si-stō, si-ste-re, to set, stand. Compare stāre, to stand. Other forms, as sidō (for si-s(e)do), serō (for si-so), and perhaps bibō, have the Reduplication concealed.

III. The T class: The root, which usually ends in a guttural, is strengthened by to, te: flectō (flec-), flecte-re, to bend.

IV. The Nasal class: In this class the root is strengthened by no, ne, the nasal being inserted

A. In vowel-stems: sinō (si-), sine-re, to let; linō (li-), line-re, to be-smear.

B. After the characteristic liquid: cernō (cer-), cerne-re, to sift, separate; temnō (tem-), temne-re, to scorn.

Notes.—1. After i assimilation takes place: pellō (for pel-nō), pelle-re, to drive.
2. In a few verbs the strengthened forms (-no after a vowel, -ino after a liquid) are confined mainly to the third person Plural active of the Present, and are found not later than the close of the sixth century of the city: danunt (= dant), explēnunt (= explent), nequinont (= nequeunt), and a few others.

C. Before the characteristic mute: vincō (vic-), vince-re, to conquer; frangō (frag-), frange-re, to break; fundō (fud-), funde-re, to pour.

Before a p-mute n becomes m: rumpō (rup-), rumpe-re, to rend; cumbō (cub-), cumbe-re, to lie down.

D. Here belong also those verbs in which the root is strengthened by -nuō, nue; as sternuō (ster-), sternue-re, to sneeze.

Note.—In verbs like tinguō, I soak, the consonantal u disappears before a consonant in the Pf. and Supine: tinxī, tinc-tum.

V. The Inchoative class: The Present stem has the suffix -scō, -see.

irā-scor, I am in a rage; crē-scō, I grow; ob-dormi-scō, I fall asleep; api-scor, I reach; pro-fici-scor, I set out; nanci-scor (nac-), I get; nō-scō (= gnō-scō), I become acquainted; pō-scō (= porc-scō), I demand; mis-ceō (= mic-sc-eō), I mix; discō (= di-dc-scō), I learn. A number of Inchoatives are derivative formations from substantives; as, lapidēscō (from lapis), I become stone.

VI. The I class: Instead of the simple thematic vowel i the root is increased by the form ie. In some forms of the Present stem, i. e., the Pr. Inf., Impf. Subjv., second Sing., Pr. Impv., this appears in the form e; in some other forms it appears as i: capi-ō (cap-), cape-re, to take.
Note.—Verbs of the fourth conjugation also belong to the i class; but for convenience the i class is here restricted as above.

VII. The Mixed class: Some verbs that originally belong to the i class have gone over in the Present stem to the forms of the stem class: as veniō (VEN-), venī-re, to come; videō (VID-), vidē-re, to see; sonō (SON-), sonā-re, to sound.

II. THE PERFECT STEM.

134. I. Perfect in -vi (or -uf): These are formed by the addition
(a) Of -vi to the stem as it appears in the Present Inf. in combination with the thematic vowel. To this class belong the Perfects of the first and fourth conjugations, and the few verbs of the second conjugation mentioned in 124; amā-re, amā-vi; audi-re, audi-vi; delē-re, delē-vi.
(b) Of -uf to the Present stem after its characteristic vowel is dropped. Here belong the majority of the verbs of the second conjugation; monē-re, mon-uf.

II. Perfect in -si: These are formed by the addition of -si to the root; which is, as a rule, long either by nature or position. This class comprises a large number of verbs in the third conjugation in which the stem-characteristic consonant is a mute; three in which it is -m (preme-re, to press; sūme-re, to take; con-tem(n)e-re, to scorn); and a few in which it is -s, as ēr-ō, I burn, ūs-si; haereō, I stick, haesī (= haes-si).

Examples are rēpō, I creep, rēp-si; scribō, I write, scrip-si; dicō, I say, dixī (= dic-si); carpō, I pluck, carp-si; rādō, I scrape, rāsi (= rād-si).

Note.—But verbs in -ndō, take I in the Perfect: défend-ō, I strike (ward) off, défend-i; perhaps because they formed originally a reduplicated perfect; as, mandō, I chew, man(di)di; so (fe)fendī, I have struck.

III. Reduplicated Perfects: These are formed by prefixing to the unstrengthened root its first consonant (or consonantal combination) together with the following vowel, a and ae being weakened to e, or, if the root began with a vowel, by prefixing e, and adding the termination -l. In Latin but few of these forms remain, and they have been variously modified: discō, I learn, di-dicē; spondeō, I pledge, spo(s)pōndī; tangō, I touch, te-ti-gī; tundō, I strike, tu-tud-ī; ago, I act, ēgī (= e-ag-l); emo, I buy, ēml (= e-em-l).

In composition the reduplication is in many cases dropped; so always in compounds of cade-re, to fall; caede-re, to fell; cane-re, to sing; fallē-re, to deceive; pange-re, to fix; parce-re, to spare; pare-re, to bear; pendē-re, to hang; punge-re, to prick; tange-re, to touch; tendē-re, to stretch (occasionally retained in late Latin); tondē-re, to shear (but occasionally retained in late Latin); tunde-re, to strike. Disc-ere, to learn, always retains it, and so pōsce-re, to demand, and ad-mordēre, to bite. Of compounds of curre-re, to run, succurrere always
drops the reduplication, praecurrere always retains it; the others vary. Of compounds of dare, abscondere usually drops it, but all trisyllabic compounds that change the a, and all quadrisyllabic compounds, retain it. Compounds of sistere, to set, and stäre, to stand, retain it.

IV. Perfect in I. Verbs of the third conjugation, with a short stem-syllable, take I in the Perfect, after lengthening the stem-syllable and changing a into ä. In many cases these Perfects are the remains of reduplicated forms: legō, I read, lég-ī; vide-ō, I see, vid-ī; fodi-ō, I stab, fōd-ī; fugi-ō, I flee, fāg-ī; frang-ō, I break, frēg-ī.

V. Denominative verbs in -uō, like acuō, I sharpen; metuō, I fear; also sternuō, I sneeze, form the Perfect in -u-ī after the analogy of primary verbs, and the formation in -uf gradually extended in Latin.

III. THE SUPINE STEM.

135. 1. Supīne in -tum, Perfect Passive Participle in -tus: The stems are formed by the addition of -tu or -to

(a) To the stem as it appears in the Present Infinitive active. Here belong most verbs of the first and fourth conjugations, and those verbs of the second conjugation that are mentioned in 124: amā-tum, delē-tum, audi-tum. Those verbs of the second conjugation which form Perfect in -uī, form the Supine stem by weakening the thematic vowel e to i, and adding -tu, -to, except cēnsā-re, to deem, docē-re, to teach, miscē-re, to mix, tenē-re, to hold, torrē-re, to scorch, which omit the thematic vowel, and form cēsum, doctum, mixtum, (tentum), tōstum.

(b) To the unstrengthened stem. Here belong most verbs of the third conjugation and the five verbs of the second just given, with sporadic forms in the other conjugations: cap-tum (capiō, I take), rēp-tum (rēpō, I creep), dic-tum (dico, I say), fac-tum (facio, I do).

In combinations of -t- with a dental, assimilation took place, giving usually ss after a short vowel and s after a long vowel: scissum (scindō, I cleave), caesum (caedō, I fell). On the analogy of this and under the influence often of Perfect in -si, we find -s- also in some other stems:

1. In stems with a guttural characteristic; as, fix-um (figō, I fix); often with a preceding liquid: mersum (mergō, I slip; Pf. mersī); tersum (tergeō, I wipe; Pf. tersī); parsum (parcō, I spare; Pf. parsi, old); spar-sum (spargō, I sprinkle; Pf. sparsi); mul-sum (muleō, I milk; Pf. mul-sī); but far-tum (farcīo, I stuff; Pf. farsi); turtum (torqueō, I twist; Pf. torsī); indul-tum (rare and post-classical, from indulgeō, I indulge; Pf. indulsi).

2. In one with a labial characteristic: lāp-sum (lābor, I slip).

3. In some stems with characteristic s; as, cēsānum (cēnseō, I deem; see I. a.); haesum (haerēō, I stick); pīnsum (pinsō, I pound).

4. In some stems with a nasal characteristic: pressum (premō, I press; Pf. pressī); mānsum (maneō, I remain; Pf. mānsī).

5. In stems where II, rr has arisen by assimilation: pulsum (pellō, I drive); falsum (fallō, I falsify); vulsum (vellō, I pluck); cursum (currō, I run); versum (verrō, I sweep).
II. Future Active Participle in -tūrus.—The same changes occur in the stem as are found in the case of the Supine.

1. In some stems ending in -u a thematic vowel i is inserted; as arguitūrus (arguere, to prove); luitūrus (luere, to loose); abnuitūrus (abnuere, to deny); ruitūrus (ruere, to rush); eruitūrus (eruere, to root out); fruitūrus (ruitur, to enjoy).

2. Some Future Participles are found without corresponding Perfect: calitūrus (calere, to be warm); caritūrus (cargere, to lack); dolitūrus (dolere, to grieve); iacitūrus (iacere, to lie); pāritūrus (pare, to obey); valitūrus (valere, to be well).

3. Irregular are: āgnōtūrus, āgnītūrus (āgnoscere, to know well); discitūrus (discere, to learn); hausrūrus, haustūrus (haunrēre, to drain); nītīrus (niti, to lean); morītūrus (morī, to die); nōscitūrus (noscere, to know); orītūrus (orīrī, to arise); parītūrus (parere, to bear).

Change of Conjugation.

136. A change of Conjugation occurs in verbs which show a long thematic vowel in the Present stem, but not in the Perfect stem, or the reverse.

1. Verbs with Perfect and Supine formed regularly, according to the third conjugation, have the Present stem formed according to one of the other three:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Stem</th>
<th>Perfect Stem</th>
<th>Supine Stem</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aug-e-ō</td>
<td>aug-e-re</td>
<td>aux-i</td>
<td>to increase.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>senti-ō</td>
<td>senti-re</td>
<td>sēn-si</td>
<td>to feel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saepi-ō</td>
<td>saepi-re</td>
<td>saep-si</td>
<td>to hedge about.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>veni-ō</td>
<td>veni-re</td>
<td>vēn-i</td>
<td>to come.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vide-ō</td>
<td>vidē-re</td>
<td>vidī-l</td>
<td>to see.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vinci-ō</td>
<td>vincī-re</td>
<td>vincī-x</td>
<td>to bind.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Verbs with Perfect and Supine formed according to the first, second, or fourth conjugations, have the Present stem formed according to the third, in consequence of strengthening:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Stem</th>
<th>Perfect Stem</th>
<th>Supine Stem</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ster-n-ō</td>
<td>ster-ne-re</td>
<td>strā-vī</td>
<td>to strew.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crē-sce-ō</td>
<td>crē-sce-re</td>
<td>crē-vī</td>
<td>to grow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>li-n-ō</td>
<td>line-re</td>
<td>lē-vī (li-vī)</td>
<td>to smear.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Verbs with the Present formed regularly according to the third conjugation, have the Perfect and Supine formed according to (a) the second, or (b) the fourth conjugation:

(a) accumbere, to recline; fremere, to rage; gemere, to groan; glgnere, to begai; molere, to grind; strepere, to resound; vomere, to vomit, form Perfect in -ul, Supine in -itum.

alere, to nourish; colere, to cultivate; consulere, to consult; frendere, to show the teeth; occultere, to conceal; rapere, to snatch, and its compounds form Perfect in -ul, Supine in -tum (-sum). For ali-tus, see 142, 3.
compescere, to check, con-cinere, to sing together, and other compounds of canere, to sing, excellere, to excel, stertere, to snore, tremere, to tremble, form Perfect in -ui, but no Supine.

(b) arcessere, to summon, incessere, to enter, cupere, to desire, petere, to seek, quaerere, to search, and its compounds, rudere, to roar, sapere, to savor, form Perfect in -ivi, Supine in -itum.

4. Stems vary among the first, second, and fourth conjugations.

(a) Verbs with the Present formed according to the first, and Perfect and Supine according to the second conjugation:
crepare, to crackle, cubare, to lie, domare, to conquer, micare, to flash, plicare, to fold, sonare, to sound, tonare, to thunder, vetare, to forbid, with Perfect in -ui, Supine in -itum:
fricare, to rub, necare, to kill, secare, to cut, with Perfect in -ui, Supine in -itum (but participles in atus are occasional, principally in later Latin).

(b) Verbs with Present formed according to fourth, and Perfect and Supine according to the second: amicire, to wrap, aperire, to open, operire, to cover, salire, to leap, and compounds.

(c) Of the second and fourth conjugations is cie-o (ci-o), cie-re (ci-re), civi, cium (ci-tum), to stir up, and its compounds; while poto, potare, to drink, forms Sup. pot-tum or pot-tatum, and Fut. Part. pot-turus or pota-turus.

5. dare, to give, and stare, to stand, pass over to the third conjugation in the Perfect, in consequence of reduplication.

LIST OF VERBS ACCORDING TO THE PERFECT FORM.

PERFECT: -vi; SUPINE: -itum.

137. Stem class:
(a) Verbs of first and fourth conjugations, except those mentioned in 136, 4. Irregular in Supine is
sepell-o, sepell-re, sepell-vi, sepul-tum, to bury.

(b) In the second conjugation:
dele-o, dele-re, dele-vi, dele-tum, to destroy.
file-o, file-re, file-vi, file-tum, to weep.
ne-o, ne-re, ne-vi, ne-tum, to spin.
-ole-o (ab-, in-), -ole-re, -ole-vi, to grow.
These compounds form Supine in itum; abolitum, inolitus.
-pleo, -ple-re, ple-vi, ple-tum, to fill.
So the compounds with com-, in-, ex-, re-, sup-.
vie-o, vie-re, vie-tus, to plait.

Irregular is
cie-o (ci-o), cie-re (ci-re), ci-vi, cium (ci-tum), to stir up.
In the compounds we find the Participles concitus or concitus, percitus, excitus or excitus, but accitus.
ACCORDING TO THE PERFECT FORM.

(c) In the third conjugation:

arcessō, arcesse-re, arcessī-vī, arcessī-tum, to send for.

So, too,iacessō, I tease, capessō, I lay hold of. In early Latin we often find accessor, the relation of which to arcessō is variously explained. The forms arcessīrētūr, and later accessorētūr, from the fourth conjugation, also occur.

in-cessō, in-cesse-re, in-cessī-vī (cessī), to attack.

So faccessō, I cause, make off.

petō, pete-re, petī-vī, petī-tum, to seek (fly at).

quarerō, quare-re, quaesī-vī, quaesī-tum, to seek.

conquirō, conquire-re, conquisī-vī, conquisī-tum, to hunt up.

So other compounds of -quirō (quāerō).

rudō, rude-re, rudī-vī, rudī-tum, to roar.

terō, tere-re, trī-vī, trī-tum, to rub.

Tib., i., 4, 48, has at-ternisse, and Apuleius has similar forms.

138. Reduplicated class:

serō, sere-re, sē-vī, sa-tum, to sow.

So conserō, but with Sup. con-situm.

139. Nasal class:

A. li-nō, li-ne-re, lē-vī, li-tum, to besmear.

So compounds of linō. Pf. lī-vī is rare.

si-nō, si-ne-re, si-vī, si-tum, to let.

So dē-sinō, I leave off, and in early Latin, pōnō (= po-sinō), I put.

B. cer-nō, cer-ne-re, crē-vī, (crē-tum), to separate.

So dēcernō, I decide.

sper-nō, sper-ne-re, sprē-vī, sprē-tum, to despise.

ster-nō, ster-ne-re, strā-vī, strā-tum, to strew.

140. Inchoative class:

inveterā-scō, inveterā-sce-re, inveterā-vī, inveterā-tum, to grow old.

pā-scō, pā-sce-re, pā-vī, pās-tum, to graze (trans.).

vesperā-scō, vesperā-sce-re, vesperā-vī, to become evening.

So advesperāscō.

crē-scō, crē-sce-re, crē-vī, crē-tum, to grow.

So the compounds.

concupi-scō, -cupi-sce-re, -cupi-vī, -cuptum, to long for.

obdormi-scō, -dormi-sce-re, -dormi-vī, -dormi-tum, to fall asleep.

So condormiscō, ēdormiscō.

exolē-scō, -olē-sce-re, -olē-vī, -olē-tum, to get one's growth.

So ob-solēscō, I grow old. But abolēscō, I disappear, has abolitum; co-alēscō, I grow together, co-alitum; adolēscō, I grow up, ad-ultum in the Sup.; and inolēscō lacks the Supine.

quiē-scō, quiē-sce-re, quiē-vī, quiē-tum, to rest.

scī-scō, scī-sce-re, scī-vī, scī-tum, to decree.

So ad-scīscō, I take on.
LIST OF VERBS

98

su-esc-ē, suē-scere, suē-vi, suē-tum, to accustom one's self.

So compounds as-, con-, de-, man-.

(g)no-esc-ē, nō-sce-re, nō-vi, (nō-tum), to know.

So ignōsco, I pardon; but oō-gnōsco, I recognise, and other compounds of nōsco, have Sup. in -itum.

re-sip-esc-ē, -srip-scere, -srip-vi, — to come to one's senses

141. I-class:

cupī-ō, cupe-re, cupī-vi, cupī-tum, to desire.
sapi-ō, sape-re, sapī-vi (-ui), — to have a flavor.

PERFECT: -ui; SUPINE: -itum.

142. Stem class:

1. The majority of the verbs of the second conjugation; see 134, 1, b, and 135, a. But

sorbe-ō, sorbē-re, sorb-ul, — to sup up.
Pf. sorp-si occurs in VAL. MAX. and LUCAN.

2. Of the first conjugation:

crep-ō, crepā-re, crep-ul, crepi-tum, to raddle.

So the compounds, but in early and late Latin the regular forms of dis-crepāro and in-crepare are occasional.

cub-ō, cubā-re, cub-ul, cubi-tum, to lie.

Occasional regular forms in post-Ciceronian Latin.

dom-ō, domā-re, dom-ul, domi-tum, to tame.

fric-ō, fricā-re, fric-ul, fric-tum (-ā-tum), to rub.

Occasionally in early and more often in post-classical Latin, the regular forms are found in the compounds; so always -fricā-turus.

mic-ō, micā-re, mic-ul, — to quiver, flash.

But di-micāre, to fight (out), is regular, except occasionally in OVID.

nec-ō, necā-re, necā-vi (nec-ui rare), necā-tum, to kill.

The compound ēnecā-re, to kill off, has ēnecāvi in early Latin, otherwise ēnecul (rare); and ēnecus (but PLIN. MAI., ēnecātus).

plic-ō, plicā-re, (plicā-vi), plici-tum, to fold.

The simple forms of plicāre are rare. The compounds ap-, com-, ex-, im-, vary between -āvi and -ul in the Pf., and -ātum and -itum in the Sup.; but CICERO uses always applicāvi, applicātum; complicāvi, complicātum; and usually explicāvi, always explicātum; always implicāvi, implicātum; circumplicāre is always regular; forms of replicāre are rare.

sec-ō, secā-re, sec-ul, sec-tum, to cut.

Regular forms are early, late, and rare.

son-ō, sonā-re, son-ul, soni-tum, to sound.

But regularly sonātūrus. Regular forms are late. In early Latin the forms sonere, sonit, sonunt, resonit, resonunt, show that the simple verb was sonere.

ton-ō, tonā-re, ton-ul, — to thunder.

But at-tonitus and intonatūs (HON., Epod. 2, 51).
ACCORDING TO THE PERFECT FORM.

vet-ô, vetē-re, vet-ui, veti-tum, to forbid.

But Persius (5, 90) uses vetā-vī.

3. Of the third conjugation:

frem-ô, fremē-re, frem-ui, — to roar, rage.
gem-ô, geme-re, gem-ui, — to groan.
vom-ô, vome-re, vom-ui, vomi-tum, to vomit.

al-ô, ale-re, al-ui, al-tum, to nourish.

Participle ali-tus occurs from Livy on.

col-ô, cole-re, col-ui, cul-tum, to cultivate.

con-cin-ô, -cine-re, -cin-ui, — to sing together.

So occinere, praecinere.

cōn-sul-ô, cōn-sule-re, cōn-sul-ui, cōn-sul-tum, to consult.
deps-ô, depse-re, deps-ui, deps-tus, to knead.
mol-ô, mole-re, mol-ui, moli-tum, to grind.
occul-ô, occule-re, occul-ui, occul-tum, to conceal.

pīns-ô, pīnse-re, pīns-ui, pīnsi-tum, to pound.

Sup. also pīnsum, pīstum. Collateral forms of pīsō, pīserē, are early and rare; so also is pīnsībant.

ser-ô, sere-re, — (ser-tum), to string (out).

Common in compounds: as, dēserō, dēserere, dēserui, dēsertum, to desert. The same forms are found occasionally in compounds of serere, to sow (138), but not in classical Latin.

stert-ô, sterte-re, stert-ui, — to snore.
strep-ô, strepe-re, strep-ui, (strepī-tum), to make a din.
tex-ô, tex-e-re, tex-ui, tex-tum, to weave.

Irregular are

met-ô, mete-re, mess-ui, mes-sum, to mow.
vol-ô, vel-le, vol-ui, — to wish.

So nōlō, mālō; see 174.

4. In the fourth conjugation:

amici-ô, amici-re, amic-ui (amixī), amic-tum, to clothe.
aperī-ô, aperī-re, aper-ui, aper-tum, to open.
operī-ô, operī-re, oper-ui, oper-tum, to cover up.
sali-ô, salī-re, sal-ui, sal-tum, to leap.

The regular Perfects salīvī, salī are found in compounds, but usually in post-classical writers, and often syncopated.

143. Reduplicated class:

gi-gn-ô (gen-), gi-gne-re, gen-ui, geni-tum, to beget.

Early Latin has the Present forms genit, genunt, genat, genitur, genuntur, genendi, geni.
144. Nasal class:

Frend-ð, frende-re, frē-sum, frēs-sum, to gnash.
Also in the form frende-ð, frende-re.

Ac-cumb-ð, -cumbe-re, cub-uī, cubi-tum, to lie down.
So also the compounds con-, dis-, in.; but re-cumbō lacks the Supine.

Ex-cell-ð, -cell-re, (cell-uī), (cel-sus), to surpass.
But per-cellere, to beat down, has Pf. per-culī, Sup. per-culsum. Excelluērunt
is found in GELL. xiv. 3, 7, and in Augustine; otherwise forms of Pf. and Sup. do
not occur.

145. The Inchoative class:

dispēsc-ð, dispēsc-re, dispēsc-uī, compēscere, to check.

So a large number of verbs are formed from verbs of the second con-
jugation, or from substantives or adjectives, and take Pf. in -uī; as,

Co-alēsc-ð, alēsc-re, al-uī, ali-tum, to grow together.
See 140.
	e-vānēsc-ð, vānēsc-re, vān-uī, to disappear.
con-valēsc-ð, valēsc-re, val-uī, vali-tum, to get well.
in-gemīsc-ð, gemīsc-re, gem-uī, to sigh.
nōtēsc-ð, nōtēsc-re, nōt-uī, to become known.
incalēsc-ð, incalēsc-re, incal-uī, to get warm.

146. The I-class:

Rapi-ð, rape-re, rap-uī, rap-tum, to snatch.
Cor-ripiō, ripe-re, rip-uī, rep-tum, to seize.
So other compounds. In early Latin, surripere syncopates some of its forms, as
surpuit, surperē; surpuerat occurs in Hor.; aoristic forms, as rapēsī, surrepēsī,
belong also to the early period. 131, 4, b. 2.

PERFECT: -si; SUPINE: -tum, -sum.

147. Stem class:

1. In the second conjugation:

Iube-ð, iubē-re, iūs-si, iūs-sum, to order.
On sorbeō see 142, 1.

Ārde-ð, ārde-re, ār-si, ār-sum, to be on fire.
Rīde-ð, rīde-re, rī-si, rī-sum, to laugh (at).
Haere-ð, haerē-re, hae-si, (hae-sum), to stick (to).
Mane-ð, manē-re, mān-si, mān-sum, to remain.
Suāde-ð, suāde-re, suā-si, suā-sum, to counsel.

With dental dropped before ending of Pf. and Supine.

Auge-ð, auge-re, auxī, auc-tum, to cause to wax.
Frige-ð, frigē-re, (frīxī), to be chilled.
Lūce-ð, lūce-re, lūxī, to give light.
ACCORDING TO THE PERFECT FORM.

lūge-ō, lūgē-re, lūxi, — to be in mourning.
alge-ō, alge-re, al-si, — to freeze.
fulge-ō, fulge-re, ful-si, — to glow.

In early Latin, forms of the third conjugation occur: fulgit, fulgere, effulgere (VERG., A, VIII. 677).

indulge-ō, indulge-re, indul-si, (indul-tum), to give way.
mulce-ō, mulce-re, mul-si, mul-sum, to stroke.

Rarely mulc-tus in compounds.
mulge-ō, mulge-re, mul-si, mul-sum(ctum), to milk.
terге-ō, terге-re, ter-si, ter-sum, to wipe.

Forms of the third conjugation: tergit, tergitur, terguntur, are occasionally found; and so too in some late compounds. Varro has tertus.

torque-ō, torque-re, tor-si, tor-tum, to twist.
turge-ō, turge-re, tur-si, — to swell.
urge-ō, urge-re, ur-si, — to press.
cō-nive-ō (gnīgiv), -nive-re, -nīxi (īvī), — to close the eyes.

2. In the third conjugation:

carp-ō, carpe-re, carp-si, carp-tum, to pluck.
dē-cerp-ō, dē-cerpe-re, dē-cerp-si, dē-cerp-tum, to pluck off.
clep-ō, clepe-re, clep-si (clēp-I), clep-tum, to filch.

Rare and ante-classic.

nūb-ō, nūb-e-re, nūp-si, nūp-tum, to put on a veil (as a bride).
rēp-ō, rēp-e-re, rēp-si, rēp-tum, to creep.
sclap-ō, scalp-e-re, scalp-si, scalp-tum, to scrape.
scrib-ō, scrib-e-re, scrip-si, scrip-tum, to write.
sculp-ō, sculpt-e-re, sculpt-si, sculpt-tum, to chisel.
serp-ō, serpe-re, serp-si, serp-tum, to creep.
prem-ō (-primō), preme-re, pres-si, pres-sum, to press.

Some compounds of emo, I take, buy, have Pf. in -si, Sup. in -tum, before which a euphonic p develops:

cōm-ō, cōme-re, cōm-p-si, cōm-p-tum, to adorn.
dēm-ō, dēme-re, dēm-p-si, dēm-p-tum, to take away.
prōm-ō, prōme-re, prōm-p-si, prōm-p-tum, to take out.
sūm-ō, sūme-re, sūm-p-si, sūm-p-tum, to take.

On contemn-ō see 149, c.

dic-ō, dice-re, dīxi (dīc-si), dic-tum, to say.

Impv. dic, see 130, 5. Occasionally in old Latin dicebō for Future.

dūc-ō, dūce-re, dūxi, duc-tum, to lead.

Imperative dūc, see 130, 5.

fig-ō, fīge-re, fīxi, fīxum, to fasten.

Part. fictus for fixus is occasional in early Latin.

-fīg-ō (con-, af-, in-), -fīge-re, -fīxi, -fīc-tum, to strike.

Simple verb is found occasionally in early Latin.

frīg-ō, frīge-re, frixi, frīc-tum, to parch.
IO2

LIST OF VERBS

sug-ō, sug-re, suxi, sūc-tum, to suck.

Fut. exsūgēbō is found in PLAUT., Ep. 188.

merg-ō, merge-re, mer-si, mer-sum, to plunge.

sparg-ō, sparge-re, spar-si, spar-sum, to strew.

con-sparg-ō, con-sperge-re, con-sper-si, con-sper-sum, to besprinkle.

coqu-ō, coque-re, coc-tum, to cook.

[-lig-ō (leg-), -lige-re, -lēxi, -lēc-tum,] to love.

dī-lig-ō, dī-lige-re, dī-lēxi, dīlēc-tum, to understand.

negligō, or

neg-leg-ō, neg-lege-re, neg-lēxi, neg-lēc-tum, to neglect.

Other compounds have lēgī. SALL., J. 40, 1, has neglēgisset.

reg-ō, rege-re, rēxi, rēc-tum, to keep right.

dī-rig-ō, dī-riage-re, dī-rēxi, dīrēc-tum, to guide.

per-g-ō, per-ge-re, per-rēxi, per-rēc-tum, to go on.

But expergō formed expergitus in carry and late Latin.

reg-ō, rege-re, rēxi, rēc-tum, to keep right.

dī-rig-ō, dī-riage-re, dī-rēxi, dīrēc-tum, to guide.

per-g-ō, per-ge-re, per-rēxi, per-rēc-tum, to go on.

su-rig-ō, su-riage-re, sur-rēksi, sur-rēc-tum, to rise up.

reg-o, rege-re, re-si, re-sum, to keep right.

die-re, die-re, die-sum, to guide.

per-re, per-re, per-re, per-re, to go on.

su-re, su-re, sur-re, sur-re, to rise up.

reg-ō, rege-re, re-si, re-sum, to keep right.

die-re, die-re, die-sum, to guide.

per-re, per-re, per-re, per-re, to go on.

su-re, su-re, sur-re, sur-re, to rise up.

reg-ō, rege-re, re-si, re-sum, to keep right.

die-re, die-re, die-sum, to guide.

per-re, per-re, per-re, per-re, to go on.

su-re, su-re, sur-re, sur-re, to rise up.

reg-ō, rege-re, re-si, re-sum, to keep right.

die-re, die-re, die-sum, to guide.

per-re, per-re, per-re, per-re, to go on.

su-re, su-re, sur-re, sur-re, to rise up.

reg-ō, rege-re, re-si, re-sum, to keep right.

die-re, die-re, die-sum, to guide.

per-re, per-re, per-re, per-re, to go on.

su-re, su-re, sur-re, sur-re, to rise up.

reg-ō, rege-re, re-si, re-sum, to keep right.

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su-re, su-re, sur-re, sur-re, to rise up.

reg-ō, rege-re, re-si, re-sum, to keep right.

die-re, die-re, die-sum, to guide.

per-re, per-re, per-re, per-re, to go on.

su-re, su-re, sur-re, sur-re, to rise up.
148. The T-class:

flect-ō, flecte-re, flexī, flexum, to bend.
nect-ō, necte-re, nexit (nexui), nexum, to knot.


pect-ō, pecte-re, pexī, pexum, to comb.
plect-ō, plecte-re, (plexi), plexum, to plait.

149. The Nasal class:

(a) Supine without N:

fing-ō, finge-re, finxi, fic-tum, to form.
ming-ō, minge-re, minxi, mic-tum, to urinate.
ōng-ō, pinge-re, pinxi, pic-tum, to paint.
string-ō, stringe-re, strinxī, stric-tum, to draw tight.

(b) Supine with N:

ang-ō, ange-re, anxi, —
to throttle, vex.
cing-ō, cinge-re, cinxi, cinc-tum, to gird.
ē-mung-ō, ē-munge-re, ē-munxi, ē-munc-tum, to wipe the nose.
iung-ō, iunge-re, iunxi, iunctum, to yoke, join.
ling-ō, lingre-re, linxi, linc-tum, to lick.
ning-ō, ninge-re, nixi, —
to snow.
pang-ō, pange-re, paxi, pactum, to drive in.

Perfect also pāgī, and Supine pācticum. Compare 153 and paciscor, 165.

plang-ō, plange-re, planxi, planctum, to smite.

So the compounds ex-, dis-, re-; the simple verb is ante-classic.

-stinguō, -stinguere, -stinxī, -stinc-tum, to put out.
ting-ō (tingu-ō), ting(u)e-re, tinxi, tinc-tum, to wet, dye.
unγ-ō (unγu-ō), unγ(u)e-re, unxi, unctum, to anoint.

(c) tem-n-ō (rare) and its compounds form the Pf. with a euphonic p:

con-tem-n-ō, -temne-re, -tem-p-st, -tem-p-tum, to despise.

150. The I-class:

1. In the third conjugation:

[-lici-ō (lac), lice-re, -lexī, -lec-tum], to lure.
pel-lici-ō, pel-lice-re, pel-lexi, pel-lec-tum, to allure.

So allicere, illicere, which, however, have early Pf. in -ul, as does pellicere also.
But ē-llicere has -ul regularly in classical times, and ē-lexi only later.

[-spici-ō (spec), -spice-re, -spexi, -spec-tum], to peer.
per-spici-ō, per-spice-re, per-spexi, per-spec-tum, to see through.

So the compounds with ad-, con-, de-, in-,
In the fourth conjugation:

- saepi-ō, saepi-re, saep-si, saep-tum, to hedge in.
- sanci-ō, sanci-re, sānxi, sānc-tum, to hallow.
  The Sup. sanci-tum is rare.
- vinci-ō, vinci-re, vinni, vinctum, to bind.
- farci-ō (-ferci-ō), farci-re, far-si, far-tum, to stuff.
- fulci-ō, fulci-re, ful-si, ful-tum, to prop.
- sarci-ō, sarci-re, sar-si, sar-tum, to patch.
- senti-ō, senti-re, sēn-si, sēn-sum, to feel.
- hauri-ō, hauri-re, hau-si, haus-tum, to drain.

Verg., A. iv., 383, has hausūrus. Early Latin shows haurībant (Locr.) and haurīturus is very late.

- rauci-ō, rauci-re, rau-si, rau-sum, to be hoarse.

This verb is very rare.

PERFECT: -I WITH REDUPLICATION; SUPINE: -sum, -tum.

151. In the first conjugation:

1. dō, da-re, ded-i, da-tum, to give, put, do.
   Everywhere a, except in das, thou givest, and da, give thou.

   - Like dō, are conjugated the compounds with dissyllabic words, such as: circum-dō, I surround; satis-dō, I give bail; pessum-dō, I ruin; vēnum-dō, I sell; thus:
     - circum-dō, circum-da-re, circum-de-dī, circum-da-tum, to surround.

2. The compounds of da-re with monosyllabic words pass over wholly into the Third Conjugation.

- ab-dō, ab-de-re, ab-did-i, ab-di-tum, to put away.
- ad-dō, ad-de-re, ad-did-i, ad-di-tum, to put to.
- con-dō, con-de-re, con-did-i, con-di-tum, to put up (found).
- abs-con-dō, abs-con-de-re, abs-con-did-i, abs-con-di-tum, to put far away.

Pf. abscondidī is found in Pl., Mer. 360, then not until late Latin.

- crē-dō, crē-de-re, crē-did-i, crē-di-tum, to put faith.
- dē-dō, dē-de-re, dē-did-i, dē-di-tum, to give up.
- ē-dō, ē-de-re, ē-did-i, ē-di-tum, to put out.
- in-dō, in-de-re, in-did-i, in-di-tum, to put in.
- per-dō, per-de-re, per-did-i, per-di-tum, to fordo (ruin).
- prō-dō, prō-de-re, prō-did-i, prō-di-tum, to betray.
- red-dō, red-de-re, red-did-i, red-di-tum, to give back.
- trā-dō, trā-de-re, trā-did-i, trā-di-tum, to give over.
- vēn-dō, vēn-de-re, vēn-did-i, vēn-di-tum, to put up to sale.

Note.—In early Latin dare formed the Pr. Subjv., also duim. So in some of its compounds, as perduim. See 130, 4.

2. stō, stā-re, stet-i, (stā-tū-rus), to stand.

So the compounds:

- ad-stō, ad-stā-re, ad-stit-i, to stand by.
- còn-stō, còn-stā-re, còn-stit-i, to stand fast.
According to the Perfect Form.

**ACCORDING TO THE PERFECT FORM.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Perfect Preposition</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>in-stō</em></td>
<td><em>ante</em></td>
<td><em>to stand upon.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ob-stō</em></td>
<td><em>inter</em></td>
<td><em>to stand out.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>per-stō</em></td>
<td><em>ante</em></td>
<td><em>to stand firm.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>praestō</em></td>
<td><em>inter</em></td>
<td><em>to stand ahead.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>re-stō</em></td>
<td><em>ante</em></td>
<td><em>to stand over.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>distō</em></td>
<td><em>ante</em></td>
<td><em>to stand apart.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ex-stō</em></td>
<td><em>ante</em></td>
<td><em>to stand out.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All compounds of *stāre* with disyllabic prepositions have, however, *-steti* in the Perfect, as: *ante-stō,* *I am superior;* *inter-stō,* *I am between;* *super-stō,* *I stand upon;* thus:

- *circum-stō,* *circum-stāre,* *circum-steti,* *to stand round.*

**Note.** Compare *sistō* and its compounds; 151, i.

### 152. In the Second Conjugation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>morde-ō</em>, <em>morde-re</em></td>
<td><em>to bite.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>pende-ō</em>, <em>pende-re</em></td>
<td><em>to hang (intr.)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>sponde-ō</em>, <em>sponde-re</em></td>
<td><em>to pledge oneself.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Compounds.** Omit the reduplication, but *Plaut.* shows also *dé-spo-pondisse* and *dé-spo-ponderās.*

- *tonde-ō,* *tonde-re,* *to-tond-ī,* *tōn-sum,* *to shear.*

### 153. In the Third Conjugation:

(a) Stem class.

Reduplication lost in the compounds:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>cad-ō,</em> <em>cade-re</em></td>
<td><em>caē-sum,</em> <em>to fall.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>oc-cid-ō,</em> <em>oc-cide-re</em></td>
<td><em>oc-cā-sum,</em> <em>to perish.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Recidere** sometimes forms *recidī,* as well as *recidī,* in the Perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>caed-ō,</em> <em>caede-re</em></td>
<td><em>cae-sum,</em> <em>to fall.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>oc-cid-ō,</em> <em>oc-cide-re</em></td>
<td><em>oc-ci-sum,</em> <em>to kill.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>can-ō,</em> * cane-re*</td>
<td><em>can-tum,</em> <em>to sing.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compounds form the Pf. in *-ui.* For *can-tum,* *cantātum* was used.

- *parc-ō,* *parce-re,* *pe-perc-ī (par-śī), (par-sūrus), to spare.*

**Comparsī** is common in early Latin, and is the only form used by *Plautus.* Early Latin shows rarely *parcūi.* **Ter.** uses *compersit.*

### 154. (b) Reduplicated class:

1. *sistō* ( = *si-stō*), as a simple verb, has the transitive meaning, *I (cause to) stand,* but in its compounds, the intransitive meaning, *I stand.* Compare *stō,* *I stand,* and its compounds (151):

- *sist-ō,* *siste-re,* *(stit-i), stātum,* *to (cause to) stand.*

So the compounds:

- *cōn-sistō,* *cōn-siste-re,* *cōn-stīt-i,* *cōn-stītum,* *to come to a stand.*
- *dē-sistō,* *dē-siste-re,* *dē-stīt-i,* *dē-stītum,* *to stand off.*
ex-sist-ō, ex-sistē-re, ex-stīt-ī, ex-stī-tum, to stand up.
ob-sist-ō, ob-sistē-re, ob-stīt-ī, ob-stī-tum, to take a stand against.
re-sist-ō, re-sistē-re, re-stīt-ī, re-stī-tum, to withstand.
ad-sist-ō, ad-sistē-re, ad-stīt-ī, — to withstand.
in-sist-ō, in-sistē-re, in-stīt-ī, — to stand upon.
circum-sist-ō, circum-sistē-re, circum-stēt-ī, — to take a stand round.

2. bi-bō, bi-be-re, bi-bl, (bi-bītus), to drink.
No Supine. The Pf. Part. is late.

155. (c) Nasal class:
fall-ō, falle-re, fe-fell-ī, fal-sum, to cheat.
The compound refellō has the Perfect refelli, and lacks Supine.
pell-ō, pelle-re, pe-pul-ī, pul-sum, to push, drive back.
    repellō looses the reduplicating vowel in Pf. reppullī.
toll-ō, tolle-re, — — to lift up.
Pf. and Sup. are formed sus-tullī (from reduplicated Pf. tetullī, 171, N. 1) and sub-
lātum (for t'īā-tum); a recent view makes su-stullī from (s)tolū.
(pang-ō), (pange-re), pe-pig-ī, pāc-tum, to drive a bargain.
The Pr. forms are supplied by paciscor, 165. The Pf. pēgī, rare in the simple
form, is regular in the compounds com-, im-, op-.
    See 149, b.
tang-ō (tag), tange-re, te-tig-ī, tāc-tum, to touch.
at-ting-ō, at-tinge-re, at-tig-ī, at-tāc-tum, to border upon.
So with other compounds.
pend-ō, pende-re, pe-pend-ī, pēn-sum, to hang (trans.).
tend-ō, tende-re, te-tend-ī, tēn-sum and -tum, to stretch.
ex-tend-ō, ex-tende-re ex-tend-ī, ex-tēn-sum and -tum, to stretch out.
    ex-tend-as, ex-tendē-re, ex-tend-ī, ex-tēn-sum and -tum, to stretch out.
    os-tend-ō, os-tende-re, os-tend-ī, os-tēn-sum (-tus), to stretch as, show.
The compounds prefer the Sup. in -tum; so always attentus, contentus, usually
distentus and intentus.
pung-ō, punge-re, pu-pug-ī, punctum, to prick.
    inter-pungē, inter-punge-re, inter-punxī, inter-punctum, to place points
    between.
tund-ō, tunde-re, tu-tud-ī, tūn-sum, tū-sum, to thump.
Simple form has usually tūnsus in the Participle; in the compounds more often
tōsus. The reduplicating vowel is lost in rettūdī.
curr-ō, curre-re, cu-curr-ī, cur-sum, to run.
The compounds vary in their use of the reduplication; praecurrere always has
the reduplication, succurrere always omits it; other compounds vary. See 134, 111.

156. (d) Inchoative class:
discō (= di-dē)e-scō), discē-re, di-dic-ī, — to learn.
A late form is Fut. Part. discitūrus. Compounds retain reduplication. See 134, 111.
pōsc-ō (= porc-scō), pōsē-re, po-pōsc-ī, — to claim.
    Compounds retain the reduplication. See 134, 111.

157. (e) The I-class:
pari-ō, pare-re, pe-per-ī, par-tum (parītūrus), to bring forth.
The compounds drop the reduplication and form the Inf. in -ire. But reperīre,
to find, forms its Pf., repperī, with omission of the vowel of reduplication.
PERFECT: -i; SUPINE: -tum, -sum.

158. In the **first** conjugation:

- iuv-ō,  iuvā-re,  iūv-ī,  iū-tum (iuvātūrus), to help.
- ad-iuv-ō,  -iuvā-re,  -iūv-ī,  -iū-tum (-iū-tūrus), to stand by as aid.
- (lav-ō),  (lav-ere),  lāv-ī,  lau-tum (lō-tum), to wash.
- lav-ō, lavā-re, (lavā-ī),  lavā-tum, to wash.

The Present forms of lavēre belong principally to early Latin, with occasional forms in Augustan poets and late writers; lautum and lōtum are both used in classical times; but lautum belongs rather to early, lōtum to post-classical Latin. The form lavātum is early and poetical.

159. In the **second** conjugation:

- cave-ō,  cavē-re,  cāv-ī,  cau-tum, to take heed.
- fave-ō,  favē-re,  fāv-ī,  fau-tum, to be well-disposed.
- ferve-ō (o),  fervē-re (ere),  ferv-ī (ferv-ul), to seethe.

The Pr. forms of the third conjugation belong to early Latin and the poets. The Pf. in -ui is post-Ciceronian.

- fove-ō,  fovē-re,  fōv-ī,  fō-tum, to keep warm.
- move-ō,  movē-re,  mōv-ī,  mō-tum, to move.
- pave-ō,  pavē-re,  pāv-ī,  — to quake (with fear).
- prande-ō,  prandē-re,  prand-ī,  prān-sum, to breakfast.
- sede-ō,  sedē-re,  sēd-ī,  ses-sum, to sit.
- strīde-ō (-dō),  strīdē-re(-e-re),  strīd-ī,  — to whistle, screech.
- vove-ō,  vovē-re,  vōv-ī,  vō-tum, to row.

The Present forms of the third conjugation belong almost entirely to Augustan poets and later writers.

- vide-ō,  vidē-re,  vid-ī,  vi-sum, to see.

160. In the **third** conjugation:

With long vowel in the Perfect.

1. **The Stem class**:

- ag-ō,  age-re,  āg-ī,  āc-tum, to do, drive.
- cō-g-ō,  cō-ge-re,  co-ēg-ī,  co-āc-tum, to compel.
- dē-g-ō,  dē-ge-re,  — to pass (time).
- red-ig-ō,  red-ige-re,  red-ēg-ī,  red-āc-tum, to bring back.
- em-ō,  eme-re,  ēm-ī,  ēm-p-tum, to take, to buy.
- inter-im-ō,  -ime-re,  -ēm-ī,  -ēm-p-tum, to make away with.
- co-em-ō, I **buy up**, is conjugated like em-ō. But the compounds with ad-, ex-, inter-, red-, take -im-ō. So, too, dir-im-ō, I **sever**.
- ed-ō,  ede-re,  ēd-ī,  ē-sum, to eat.

**Note.**—In agere, edere, emere, the reduplication has coalesced with the root; as, ēgī = eāgī.

- cud-ō,  cūde-re, (cūd-ī), (cū-sum), to hammer.

The Pf. and Sup. occur in compounds only.
LIST OF VERBS

leg-o, lege-re, lég-i, léc-tum, to pick up, read.
So the other compounds, except di-lig-o, intel-leg-o, neg-leg-o, see 147, 2.

fic-o (defective), fic-re, fic-i, fic-tum, to strike.
Present stem rare: fic-it, fic-itur, fic-imur.

sid-o, side-re, sid-i, to sit down.
The Pf. was originally reduplicated as the Present; see 133, II. In composition the
Pf. is -sēdī, -sēssum, from sede-o, thus:
con-sid-o, con-side-re, con-sēd-i, con-sēssum, to settle down.
scab-o, scabe-re, scāb-i, —
solv-o, solve-re, solv-i, solū-tum, to loose, pay.
vert-o, verte-re, vert-i, ver-sum, to turn.
re-vert-or, re-vert-i, revert-i (active), re-ver-sum, to turn back.
verr-o, verre-re, verr-i (rare), ver-sum, to sweep.
vis-o, vise-re, vis-i, — to visit.
volv-o, volve-re, volv-i, volū-tum, to roll.

On percellō, perculi, see 144. On tollō, sustuli, see 155.

2. The Nasal class:

psall-o, psalle-re, psall-i, — to play on the cithern.
sall-o, salle-re, (sall-i), sal-sum, to salt.
Very rare except in the past participle falsus.

vell-o, velle-re, vell-i (vul-si), vul-sum, to pluck.
The Pf. vulsi is post-Augustin.
lamb-o, lambe-re, lamb-i, — to lick.
rump-o, rumpe-re, rūp-i, rup-tum, to break.
ac-cend-o, ac-cende-re, ac-cend-i, ac-cēn-sum, to kindle.
dē-fend-o, dē-fende-re, dē-fend-i, dē-fēn-sum, to strike away, defend.
fund-o (FUD), funde-re, fūd-i, fū-sum, to pour.
mand-o, mande-re, mand-i, mān-sum, to chew.
pand-o, pande-re, pand-i, pas-sum, to spread out.
pān-sum in Supine is late.
prehend-o, prehende-re, prehend-i, prehēn-sum, to seize.
Often shortened to prēndō, prēndere, prēndī, prēnsum.

scand-o, scande-re, scand-i, scān-sum, to climb.
ā(d)-, dē-scend-o, dē-scende-re, dē-scend-i, dē-scēn-sum, to climb up, down.
frang-o, frange-re, frēg-i, frāc-tum, to break.
per-fring-o, per-fringe-re, per-frēg-i, per-frāc-tum, to shiver.
linqu-o, linque-re, liqu-i, to leave.
re-linqu-o, re-linque-re, re-liqu-i, re-lictum, to leave behind.
(paren-o), (pange-re), (pēg-i), (pāc-tum), to drive in.
(com-ping-o), (com-pinge-re), (com-pēg-i), (com-pāc-tum),
See 149, b, 155.
vinc-o (vic), vince-re, vic-i, vic-tum, to conquer.
3. The I-class.

(a) With long vowel in the Perfect.

capi-ō (cap-), cape-re, cēp-, cap-tum, to take.
ac-cipi-ō, ac-cipe-re, ac-cēp-, ac-cep-tum, to receive.
faci-ō, face-re, fēc-, fac-tum, to make.
cale-faci-ō (calf.), cale-face-re, cale-fēc-, cale-fac-tum, to make warm.
per-fici-ō, per-fice-re, per-fēc-, per-fec-tum, to achieve.

The Pf. was originally reduplicated; on Impv. fac, see 130, 5.

fodi-ō, fode-re, fōd-, fos-sum, to dig.
fugi-ō, fuge-re, fūg-, (fug-i-tūrus), to flee.
iaci-ō, iace-re, iēc-, iac-tum, to cast.
con-ici-ō, con-ice-re, con-īec-, con-iec-tum, to gather.

(b) With short vowel in the Pf. due to the loss of the reduplication:

find-ō, finde-re, fid-, fis-sum, to cleave.
scind-ō, scinde-re, scid-, scis-sum, to split.

The reduplicated form sci-cidē is found in early Latin.

161. In the fourth conjugation:

amici-ō forms rarely in late Latin amici; see 142, 4.
com-peri-ō, com-perl-re, com-per-ī, com-per-tum, to find out.
re-peri-ō, re-perl-re, rep-per-ī, re-per-tum, to find.

See the simple verb parere, 157.

veni-ō, venl-re, vēn-, ven-tum, to come.
In early Latin sporadic tenses from a form venere occur, as advenat, ēvenat.

162. A number of verbs of the third conjugation have a characteristic -u-; these form the perfect in -ī.

ab-lu-ō, ab-lue-re, ab-lu-ī, ab-lū-tum, to wash off.
ab-nu-ō, ab-nue-re, ab-nu-ī, (ab-nu-itūr-us), to dissent.
acu-ō, acue-re, acu-ī, acū-tum, to sharpen.
ad-nu-ō (an-nu-ō), ad-nue-re, ad-nu-ī, to nod assent.
argu-ō, argue-re, argu-ī, argū-tum, to accuse.
batu-ō, batue-re, batu-ī, to beat.
con-gru-ō, con-grue-re, con-gru-ī, to agree.
dē-libu-ō, dē-libue-re, dē-libu-ī, dē-libū-tum, to nod.
ex-u-ō, ex-ue-re, ex-u-ī, exū-tum, to put off, doff.
lu-ō, lue-re, lu-ī, lu-ītūr-us, to atone for.
metu-ō, metue-re, metu-ī, to fear.
minu-ō, minute-re, minu-ī, minū-tum, to lessen.
plu-ō, plue-re, plu-it, plūv-it, to rain.
rū-ō, rue-re, ru-ī, ru-tum (ruitūrus), to rush down.
spu-ō, spue-re, spu-ī, spū-tum, to spew.
statu-ō, statute-re, statute-ī, statū-tum, to settle.
sternu-ō, sternue-re, sternu-ī, stēnū-tum, to sneeze.
su-ō, sue-re, su-ī, sū-tum, to see.
tribu-ō, tribue-re, tribu-ī, to allot.
DEPONENTS.

163. The majority of the deponent verbs belong to the first conjugation. In many instances they have parallel active forms in early or in late Latin. The principal verbs are as follows:

In the first conjugation:

adul-or, adulā-ri, adulā-tus sum, to fawn upon.
Occasionally active in ante-classical Latin (Lucret. v., 1070) and more often in later Latin.

alterc-or, altercā-ri, altercā-tus sum, to wrangle.
In early Latin altercāstī (Ter., And. 653), altercās. Active forms more common in late Latin.

arbitr-or, arbitrā-ri, arbitrā-tus sum, to think.
Plaut. uses this verb also as an active, but later this usage is rare.

aucup-or, aucupā-ri, aucupā-tus sum, to try to catch.
Active forms are common in early Latin.

augur-or, augurā-ri, augurā-tus sum, to take the auguries.
Active forms are early, legal, and late. Use as a passive is occasional in the classical period.

auspic-or, auspica-ri, auspica-tus sum, to take the auspices.
Active forms are early and late. Cic. and Livy use the verb as a passive in a few instances.

comit-or, comitā-ri, comitā-tus sum, to accompany.
Poets (Ov., Prop., etc.) use the active forms frequently. The Perfect Part. comitā-tus is common as a passive, also in classical Latin.

comment-or, commentā-ri, commentā-tus sum, to discuss.
Cic. uses commentātus as a passive in Br. 88, 301, Fam. xvi., 26, 1.

conflict-or, conflictā-ri, conflictā-tus sum, to struggle.
Occasionally found for conflictāre. See Ter., And., 93.

consipic-or, consipica-ri, consipica-tus sum, to descr. by Cic. (Sest. 16, 36, Verr. iii., 41, 98). Plaut., Cas. 394, suspicēs.

contempl-or, contemplā-ri, contemplā-tus sum, to survey.
The active forms are used frequently in early Latin (regularly by Plaut.).

cōpul-or, cōpulā-ri, cōpulā-tus sum, to join.
So Plaut., Aud. 116. Otherwise everywhere cōpulāre.

crimin-or, criminā-ri, criminā-tus sum, to charge.
Plaut. uses crimināret, Ennius crimināt.

cunct-or, cunctā-ri, cunctā-tus sum, to delay.
Active forms are occasional in early and late Latin.

dign-or, dignā-ri, dignā-tus sum, to deem worthy.
This verb is predominantly post-classical and poetical. The active forms are early and rare; perhaps once in Cicero.
fabric-or, fabricā-ri, fabricā-tus sum, to forge.
The active forms belong to poetry and to post-Augustan prose.

faener-or, faenerā-ri, faenerā-tus sum, to lend on interest.
Active forms occasional in early Latin and more frequent in late Latin.

fluctu-or, fluctuā-ri, fluctuā-tus sum, to undulate.
Active forms are rare in PLAUT. and in Cic., but not uncommon later. The deponent forms are post-Ciceronian.

(for), fā-ri, fā-tus sum, to speak.
See 175, 3.

frustr-or, frustrā-ri, frustrā-tus sum, to deceive.
Active forms rare, but at all periods.

illacrim-or, illacrimā-ri, illacrimā-tus sum, to weep over.
In Cic. and Hor.; otherwise active.

interpret-or, interpretā-ri, interpretā-tus sum, to interpret.
Cic. uses interpretātus occasionally as a passive; likewise Livy and others.

luct-or, luctā-ri, luctā-tus sum, to wrestle.
PLAUT., Ter., Ennius, Varro show sporadic forms of the active.

lūdic-or, lūdicā-ri, lūdicā-tus sum, to make sport.
Active frequent in PLAUT., and occasionally later.

medic-or, medicā-ri, medicā-tus sum, to heal.
The active is once in PLAUT., and frequent in poets and post-Augustan prose.

medit-or, medītā-ri, medītā-tus sum, to think over.
The form medītātus is very commonly found as a passive.

mūner-or, mūnerā-ri, mūnerā-tus sum, to bestow.
Active forms in early Latin and occasionally in Cic. and later.

nātric-or, nātricā-ri, nātricā-tus sum, to suckle.
Active forms in early Latin.

odōr-or, odōrā-ri, odōrā-tus sum, to smell.
Active forms occasional at all periods.

opīn-or, opīnā-ri, opīnā-tus sum, to think.
opīnē is frequent in early Latin, and opīnātus as passive is common in Cicero.

palp-or, palpā-ri, palpā-tus sum, to stroke.
Is occasional (principally in early Latin) for palpāre.

popul-or, populā-ri, populā-tus sum, to ravage.
Active forms in simple verb and compounds are early, poetical, and post-classic

seiσcit-or, seiσcitā-ri, seiσcitā-tus sum, to inquire.
PLAUT., Merc. 389, seiσcitāro (active).

scrūt-or, scrūtā-ri, scrūtā-tus sum, to search.
PLAUT., Aul. 657, perscrūtāvi. The use as a passive occurs first in Seneca

sect-or, sectā-ri, sectā-tus sum, to pursue.
Active forms and passive usages are early.

stabul-or, stabulā-ri, stabulā-tus sum, to stable.
Active forms begin with Vergil.

tūt-or, tūtā-ri, tūtā-tus sum, to protect.
Active forms and passive usages are early and rare.
tumultu-or, tumultu-a-ri, tumultu-a-tus sum, to raise a riot.
But PLAUTUS uses active forms; and passive uses are occasional later.
vag-or, vag-a-ri, vag-a-tus sum, to wander.
Active forms belong to early Latin.
vener-or, vener-a-ri, vener-a-tus sum, to reverence.
But PLAUT. uses venero, venerem; Verg., Hor., and later writers show passive uses.
164. In the second conjugation:

fate-or, fate-a-ri, fas-sus sum, to confess.
cön-fite-or, cön-fites-ri, cön-fes-sus sum, to confess.
Both fateor and cönfiteor are used occasionally as passives by CIC. and later.

lice-or, lice-a-ri, lici-tus sum, to bid (at a sale).
mere-or, mere-a-ri, meri-tus sum, to deserve.
Especially in the phrases mererì bene de aliquò, to deserve well of any one. Otherwise the active is usual.

misere-or, miser-o-ri, miseri-tus sum, to pity.
In early Latin the active forms are found occasionally, e.g., Lucr. III., 381.
pollie-or, pollie-a-ri, pollici-tus sum, to promise.
Occasionally used as a passive in post-classical Latin.

re-or, re-a-ri, ra-tus sum, to think.
Pr. Part. Active is wanting.
tue-or, tue-a-ri, tui-tus (tütus) sum, to protect.
In early Latin and occasionally later, a parallel form, tuor, tul, tuitus sum, occurs. For tuitus usually tütätus.

vere-or, ver-e-a-ri, veri-tus sum, to fear.

165. In the third conjugation:
apisc-or, apisc-i, ap-tus sum, to get.
Simple verb is frequent in early and late Latin. Of the compounds, adipiscor,
adipisci, adeptus sum, is usually deponent in classical times, but occurs occasionally as a passive in Sall. and later writers. The compounds ind-, red-, are rare.
am-pect-or, am-pect-i, am-plex-us sum, to twine round, embrace.
So the compounds complector, circumplector. In early Latin active forms are occasionally found; e.g., amplectitóte, circumplecte (PLAUT.).
com-minisc-or, com-minisc-i, com-men-tus sum, to think up, devise.
OVID and later writers use commentus as a passive.
experg isc-or, (-reg-) experg-isc-i, ex-per-rec-tus sum, to (right one's self up) awake.
fung-or, fung-i, func-tus sum, to discharge.
This verb is used passively very rarely: Ter., Ad. 508. Lucr. III., 968. CIC., Sest. 4, 10.
fru-or (frugv-), fru-i, fruc-tus (fru-i-tus) sum, to enjoy.
The form fruitus is rare and late.
gradi-or,      grad-i,      gres-sus sum,      to step,
ag-gredi-or,  ag-gred-i,  ag-gres-sus sum,  to attack.

Occasionally active forms of the fourth conjugation are found in early Latin.

lāb-or,       lāb-i,       lāp-sus sum,      to glide.
loqu-or,      loqu-i,      locū-tus sum,      to speak.
mori-or,      mor-i,       mortu-us sum,      to die.

Early Latin shows parallel forms of the fourth conjugation, as morīrī, ëmorīrī.

Fut. Part. morītūrus; see 135, n., 3.

nanc-īsc-or,  nanc-īsc-i,  nac-tus (nanc-tus) sum, to get.
nāsc-or (gnā-), nāsc-i, nā-tus sum, to be born.

nit-or (gnīct-), nit-i, ni-sus (niux-us) sum, to stay one's self on.

nī-sus,       ni-sūrus,

ob-līv-īsc-or, ob-līv-īsc-i, ob-li-tus sum, to forget.

pac-īsc-or,   pac-īsc-i,   pac-tus sum (pēpigī), to drive (a bargain).

Occasionally active forms are found in early Latin; in Cic. pactus is frequently used as a passive. See pango.

pati-or,      pat-i,       pas-sus sum,      to suffer.
per-peti-or,  per-pet-i,  per-pes-sus sum,  to endure to the end.
pro-fic-īsc-or, pro-fic-īsc-i, pro-fec-tus sum, to (get forward) set out.

But PLAUT., M. G. 1329, proficīscō.

quer-or,      quer-i,      ques-tus sum,      to complain.
sequ-or,      sequ-i,      secū-tus sum,      to follow.

ulc-īsc-or,   ulc-īsc-i,   ul-tus sum,      to avenge.

Active forms are rare; so once in ENNIUS. But SALL., LIVY, and later writers use the verb as a passive sometimes.

ūt-or,        ūt-i,        ā-sus sum,      to use.

PLAUT. shows the compound abūsā as a passive (Asin. 196).

veh-or,       veh-i,       vec-tus sum,      to (wagon) ride.
vesc-or,      vesc-i,       ————,      to feed.

166. In the fourth conjugation:

assenti-or,   assenti-rī,  assēn-sus sum,  to assent.

Active forms are not uncommon in early Latin. Cic. uses the Pf. active forms frequently; likewise later writers.

com-peri-or,  comperi-rī, ————,      to find out.

Occasionally found (but rarely in classical Latin; as, SALL., J., 45, 1; 108, 3) for comperiō, comperiēre. But experior, experīrī, expertus sum, to try, is regularly deponent; though Cic. and others use often the Pf. active forms.

largi-or,     largi-rī,     largī-tus sum,  to bestow.
menti-or,     menti-rī,     mentī-tus sum,  to lie.

The poets and later prose writers use this as a passive also.

mēti-or,      mēti-rī,     mēn-sus sum,      to measure.

Passive usage is common, especially in the compounds: dēmēnsus, dimēnsus, èmēnsus, permēnsus, remēnsus.
SEMI-DEPONENTS.

167. 1. A few verbs form the Perfect forms only as deponents:

- aude-ô, aude-re, au-sus sum, to dare.
- fid-ô, fid-ere, fi-sus sum, to trust.
- gaude-ô, gaude-re, gûv-Isus sum, to rejoice.
- sole-ô, solê-re, sol-itus sum, to be wont.

The Pf. active is found in early Latin; but rarely.

2. The reverse usage is found in:

- re-vert-or, re-vert-I, re-vert-I, to turn back.
- re-sus sum for revert-I is post-classic.

See also assentior, etc., 166.

Notes.—1. Some active verbs have a Perfect Participle passive with active meaning, as: cênâtus, one who has dined, from cênâre, to dine; prânsus, having breakfasted, from prandéô, I breakfast; pôtus, drunken, from pôtô, I drink; iûrâtus, having taken the oath, sworn, from iûrô, I swear; coniûrâtus, a conspirator, from coniûrô, I conspire. Many such are used purely as Adjectives: cûnsiderâtus, circumspect, from cûnsiderô; cautus, wary, from caveô, I beware.

2. The Perfect Participle of many deponent Verbs has both active and passive meaning: adeptus (adipiscor), having acquired, or being acquired; comitâtus (comitor, I accompany); effâtus (effor, I speak out); exportus (exerior, I try); exsecrâtus (exsecror, I curse); imitâtus (imitor, I copy); meritus (mereor, I deserve); opinâtus, necopinâtus (opinor, I think); pactus (paciscor, I contract); partitus (partior, I distribute); sortitius (sortior, I cast lots); tueor, I protect; tûtus, safe.

For others, see the list of deponents.
IRREGULAR VERBS.

115. Irregular in the formation of the tense-stems:

1. Nine verbs of the third conjugation, which have, in spite of the short stem-syllable, the Pf. in -si, viz.:

*clepō*, I flit; *rego*, I keep right; *tego*, I cover in; *coquō*, I bake; and the compounds of *legō*, I pick up; *laciō*, I lure; *speciō*, I spy (-ligō, -liciō, -spiciō); *dvidō*, I part; *quatiō*, I shake. See 147, 2.

From *legō*, however, only *diligō*, I love; *intellegō*, I understand; and *neglegō*, neglect, are irregular. The other compounds are regular. See 147, 2.

2. Five verbs of the third conjugation, which, in spite of long stem-syllable, have the Pf. in -I, viz.:

*lambō*, I lick; *cūdō*, I hammer; *sidō*, I sit (160, 1); *strīdeō*, I whistle (159); *vertō*, I turn (160, 1).

3. Assimilation between *bs* and *ms* occurs in the Pf. and Sup. of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>iube-ō</em></td>
<td>I order</td>
<td>See 147, 1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>prem-ō</em> (-<em>prim-ō</em>),</td>
<td>I press</td>
<td>See 147, 2.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Special irregularities occur in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>bib-ō</em>,</td>
<td>I drink</td>
<td>154, 2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>mane-ō</em>,</td>
<td>I remain</td>
<td>147, 1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>mēti-or</em>,</td>
<td>I measure</td>
<td>166.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>met-ō</em>,</td>
<td>I move</td>
<td>142, 3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>mori-or</em>,</td>
<td>I die</td>
<td>165.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>rauci-ō</em>,</td>
<td>I am hoarse</td>
<td>150, 2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>re-or</em>,</td>
<td>I think</td>
<td>164.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Formed from different tense-stems, are the tenses of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>fer-ō</em>,</td>
<td>I bear</td>
<td>171.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>toll-ō</em>,</td>
<td>I lift</td>
<td>155.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

169. Irregular in the conjugation of the Present-stem:

1. *ori-or*, *ori-ri*, *or-tus sum*, to arise.

See 166.

2. *i-re*, to go.

The stem is *i*, which, before *a*, *o*, *u*, becomes *e*.

**Prin. Parts:** *eō*, *ire*, *ivi* (ii), *itum*.

**Indicative.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>I</em> go.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pres. Sg.**—1. *e-ō*, 2. *I-s*, 3. *i-t*,

**Pl.**—*i-mus*, *i-tis*, *eu-nt*.

**Subjunctive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>I</em> be going.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sg.**—*ea-m*, 2. *ea-s*, 3. *ea-t*,

**Pl.**—*ea-mus*, *ea-tis*, *ea-nt*. 
IRREGULAR VERBS.

IMPF. I-ba-m, I went.
Fut. I-b-o, I shall go.
Perf. I-v-i (i-1), I have gone.
Plupf. I-v-era-m (i-era-m), I had gone.
Fut. Pf. I-v-er-o (i-er-o), I shall have gone.

IMPERATIVE.
Sg.—2. I, go thou.
3. ——
Pl.—2. I-te, go ye.
3. ——

INFINITIVE.
Pres. i-re.
Fut. i-tur-um esse.
Perf. i-v-isse (i-sse).

GERUND.
eu-nd-l, etc.

PARTICIPLES.
Pres. i-ne (G. eu-nt-is).
Fut. i-tur-us.

SUPINE.
i-tum, to go.

REMARKS.—1. Like the simple verb are inflected most of the compounds, except in the Perfect system, where syncope regularly takes place (see 131, 2). Vén-o, I am for sale, and per-o, I perish, serve as passives to vén-dó, I sell, and per-dó, I destroy, whose regular passives occur only in the forms vén-ditus, vén-dendus, and per-ditus (but see Hor., Sat., ii. 6, 59). Amb-ió, I solicit, follows the fourth conjugation throughout, but in post-Ciceronian writers (LivY, Tac., Plin. Min.) shows occasional forms like those of o. Some compounds show occasionally Fut. in -eum after the time of Seneca.

2. The passive of the simple verb is found only in the impersonal forms itur, ibátur, itum est, iri (in combination with the Supine). But compounds with transitive force are conjugated regularly; so, praeter-o forms praeter-eor, -iris, itur, -inur, -imini, -euntur, iber, etc.; -euntus sum, eram, eró, -euntor, -itor, -iri, -eundus.

3. quire, to be able; nequire, to be unable.

170. (a) que-o, I am able, is found in the following forms, of which those in parenthesis are unclassical, occurring in early and late Latin and the poets; Cæsar uses no form of queo.


(b) neque-o, I am unable, has the same forms, all of which seem to be classic excepting the Future Indicative, which is not cited.
4. **fer-re, to bear.**

171. The endings beginning with t, s, and r are added directly to the root (132). Some parts are supplied by **tul-** (tol-, tla-).

**Prin. Parts:** ferō, ferre, tulī, lātum.

### ACTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>I bear</td>
<td>I be bearing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG.</td>
<td>1. fer-ō,  Pl.—fer-i-mus,</td>
<td>1. fer-a-m,  Pl.—fer-a-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. fer-s,  fer-tis,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. fer-t,  fer-u-nt.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPF.</td>
<td>ferē-ba-m, I was bearing.</td>
<td>fer-re-m, I were bearing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>fera-m,  I shall bear.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>tul-ē,  I have borne.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluff.</td>
<td>tul-er-a-m.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Pf.</td>
<td>tul-er-ō.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IMPERATIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG.</td>
<td>2. fer,  bear thou.</td>
<td>fer-tō,  thou shalt bear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. —</td>
<td>fer-tō,  he shall bear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL.</td>
<td>2. fer-te,  bear ye.</td>
<td>fer-tōte,  ye shall bear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. —</td>
<td>feru-ntō,  they shall bear.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### INFINITIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>fer-re,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>lā-tūr-um esse.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>tul-issem.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GERUND.**

fere-nd-ī, etc.

**PARTICIPLES.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG.</td>
<td>1. fer-o-r, Pl.—fer-rē-mur,</td>
<td>fer-a-r,  Pl.—fer-a-mur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. fer-ris,  feri-mini,</td>
<td>fer-rā-ris,  fer-rā-mini,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. fer-tur,  feru-ntur.</td>
<td>fer-a-tur,  fer-a-ntur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPF.</td>
<td>ferē-ba-r.</td>
<td>fer-re-r.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>fera-r.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>lā-tūs sum.</td>
<td>lā-tūs sim.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluff.</td>
<td>lā-tūs eram.</td>
<td>lā-tūs essem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Pf.</td>
<td>lā-tūs erō.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. ed-ere, to eat.

172. In certain forms the endings beginning with s, t, and r are added directly to the root (132); d before s (r) is dropped or assimilated (as ss), and before t becomes s.

Prin. Parts: edō, edere (esse), edī, ēsum.

ACTIVE.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present. I eat. I be eating.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SG.</th>
<th>ed-ō</th>
<th>eda-m,</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
<th>edī-mus</th>
<th>edā-mus,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>edī-s, ē-s</td>
<td>edī-tis, ēs-tis</td>
<td></td>
<td>edā-s,</td>
<td>edā-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>edī-t, ē-st</td>
<td>edu-nt,</td>
<td></td>
<td>eda-t,</td>
<td>eda-nt,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Impf. edā-ba-m, I ate. ede-re-m, ēs-se-m, I were eating

Fut. eda-m.

Perf. ēd-ī.

Pl. ēd-era-m.

Fut. Pf. ēd-er-ō.
### IMPERATIVE.

| Sg. —2. ade, ēs, | eat thou. | ed-tō, ēs-tō, | thou shalt eat. |

**PARTICIPLE.**

| Pres. (ede-ns). | to eat. | FUT. ēs-ūr-us. |

**SUPINE.**

| ēs-um, ēs-ū. |

### PASSIVE.

In the passive voice the only peculiarities are as follows: Pr. Indic. Sing. Third, editur and ēstur. Impf. Subjv. Sing. Third, ederētur and ēssētur. The Pf. Part. is ēsus and the Gerundive edendus.

**NOTE.**—In the Pr. Subjv. Active, early Latin shows edim, edis, edit, edimus, editis, edint. Also ēssum and ēssū in the Sup., ēssūrus in the Fut. Part. Come- dere also shows comeēsus.

6. **fi-erī, to become.**

173. **Fī-ō** is conjugated in the Present, Imperfect, and Future, according to the fourth conjugation, but in the Subjunctive Imperfect and in the Infinitive the stem is increased by e; thus, fī-e-rem, *I were becoming*; fī-e-ri, *to become*. In these forms the i is short, but elsewhere it is long even before another vowel.

The Infinitive ends in -ri, and the whole Verb in the Present-stem is treated as the Passive to faciō, *I make*. The rest of the Passive is formed regularly from faciō.

**PRN. PARTS:** fīō, fierī, factus sum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVE.</th>
<th>PASSIVE.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td><strong>INDIC.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPF.</td>
<td>fīēbam, <em>I made.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faciēbam, <em>I made.</em></td>
<td>fīēbam, <em>I was made, I became.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUT.</td>
<td>fīcam, <em>I shall make.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faciam, <em>I shall make.</em></td>
<td>fīam, <em>I shall be made (become).</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERF.</td>
<td>fīcit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fēcit.</td>
<td>factus sum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLUPF.</td>
<td>factus eram.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fēceram.</td>
<td>factus erō.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Pr.</td>
<td>SUBJV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fēcerō.</td>
<td>fierem, fierēs, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE.**

| Pres. | fierī. |
| PERF. | factum esse, *to have become.* |
| FUT. | futūrum esse or fore. |
| FUT. Pf. | factum fore. |
Notes.—1. Occasionally in early Latin the form fiere is found for the Infinitive, which indicates that the verb was originally active. The forms fieri and fierem are very common in early Latin, along with the normal forms. Of the forms in parenthesis fimus and fitis do not certainly occur, and the Imperative forms are early. Passive forms of fiō are very rare; never in Plautus or Terence.

2. The compounds of faciō with Prepositions change the a of the stem into i, and form the Passive in classical Latin regularly from the same stem: perficiō, I achieve, Pass. perficior; interficiō, Pass. interficior, I am destroyed. But interfieri, confieri, and several other forms are found in early Latin, and occasionally in classical times. When compounded with words other than prepositions, faciō retains its a, and uses fiō as its Passive:

patefaciō, I lay open, Pass. patefiō; calefaciō, I warm, Pass. calefiō.

For the accent, see 15, 2, ii. 2.

174. 7. vel-le, to be willing.

nolle, to be unwilling; malle, to be willing rather.

Prin. Parts: volō, velle, volui; nōlō, nolle, nōlui; mālō, malle, mālui.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>indicative</th>
<th>subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>volō,</td>
<td>nōlō,</td>
<td>mālō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vis,</td>
<td>nōn vis,</td>
<td>māvis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vult,</td>
<td>nōn vult,</td>
<td>māvult,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volumus,</td>
<td>nōlumus,</td>
<td>mālumus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vultis,</td>
<td>nōn vultis,</td>
<td>māvultis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volunt.</td>
<td>nōlunt.</td>
<td>mālunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impp.</td>
<td>volēbam,</td>
<td>mālēbam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUT.</td>
<td>volam,</td>
<td>mālam,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volēs, etc.</td>
<td>nōlēs, etc.</td>
<td>māles, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERF.</td>
<td>volui,</td>
<td>nōlui,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLUFF.</td>
<td>volueram,</td>
<td>nōlueram,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fut. pf.</td>
<td>voluerō,</td>
<td>nōluerō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pres.</td>
<td>velim,</td>
<td>nōlim,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>velis,</td>
<td>nōlis,</td>
<td>mālis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>velit,</td>
<td>nōlit,</td>
<td>mālit,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>velimus,</td>
<td>nōlimus,</td>
<td>mālimus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>veltis,</td>
<td>nōltis,</td>
<td>mālitis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>velint.</td>
<td>nōlint.</td>
<td>mālint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPP.</td>
<td>vellem,</td>
<td>nōllem,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perf.</td>
<td>voluerim,</td>
<td>nōluerim,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLUFF.</td>
<td>voluissem,</td>
<td>nōluissem,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PHIN. PARTS: volō, velle, volui; nōlō, nolle, nōlui; mālō, malle, mālui.
DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. äiō, I say aye.

INDIC. Pres. Sg.—1. äiū, 2. ais, 3. ait, Pl.—3. āiunt. IMPF. äiebam, etc.

Perf. ait.

SUBJ. Pres. Sg.—2. aiūs, 3. aiat, 3. aiunt. PART. aiēns (as adj.), affirmative. IMPV. ai.

Note.—In early Latin ain (= aisne ?) was scanned often as a monosyllable; and in the Impf., aiēbam, aiēbs, aiēbat, aiēbant were frequently employed along with the normal forms. The Impv. is rare, and found only in early Latin. Pr. Subjv. aiām is emended into Pl., Ep., 28r.

2. inquam, I say, quoth I.

INDIC. Pres. Sg.—1. inquam, 2. inquis, 3. inquit. Pl.—1. inquimus, 2. inquitis, 3. inquīunt. IMPF. Sg.— 3. inquiēbat. FUT. Sg.—2. inquiēs, 3. inquiet. PERF. Sg.—1. inquit, 2. inquieti, 3. inquit.

IMPV. inque, inquitō.

3. fā-ri, to speak.

INDIC. Pres. fāitur. Fut. fābor, făbitur. PERF. fātus sum, etc. IMPV. fāre. PART. Pres. fāns, fantis, fānti, fāntem. GER. fāndī, fāndō. SUP. fātū.

Note.—In addition to these, compounds show also Pres. : -fāris, -fāmur, -fāmini, -fānītur; IMPF. : -fābar, -fāabantur; Fut. : -fābere, -fāmur; Part. : -fante and others. These forms, as well as the uncompounded forms, though occasionally found in prose, are peculiar to the poets until post-Augustan times. The Pf. Part. is sometimes used passively; so especially fātum, fāte; effātus, designated.
DEFECTIVE VERBS.

4. havē-re (avē-re), salvē-re.

**IMPV.** havē, salvē, salvēbis, *hail thou!*
   havētō, salvētō.
   havēte, salvēte, *hail ye!*

**INF.** havēre, salvēre.

Corresponding to these are the forms of *valēre*, viz.: valē, valēte, *valēre*, *farewell*.

5. coepī, meminī, ōdī, nōvī.

In use only in the Perfect-stem are *coepī*, *I have begun*, which serves as a Perfect to *incipiō*, and *meminī*, *I remember*, ōdī, *I hate*, nōvī (from *nōscō*, see 131, 3, 140), *I know*, am aware, cōnsuēvi (from *consuēscō*), *I am wont*, which have the force of Presents.

*a.* **INDIC.** coepī, *I have begun.*
   coeperam.
   coeperē.

**SUBJV.** coeperim.
   coepissem.

**INF.** coepisse, *to have begun.*

**NOTE.**—Early Latin shows *coepio*, *coepias*, *coepiat*, *coepiam*, *coepere*, *coeperet*. Future Participle *coepturus* is Post-Augustan. *Incēpi* is ante-classical.

Passive forms *coeptus sum*, etc., occur with the same meaning in combination with a Passive Infinitive. Sec 423, n. 3.

*b.* **INDIC.** meminī, *I remember.*
   memineram.
   meminerē.

**IMPV.** Sg.—mementō.

**c.** **INDIC.** ōdī, *I hate,*
   ōderam.
   ōderē.

**FUT. PART.** ōsūrus.

**NOTE.**—Occasionally in early Latin, the poets, and later prose, deponent forms of the Perfect are found, *ōsus sum*, etc. For the Passive the phrase *odiō esse* is used.

*d.* **INDIC.** nōvī.
   nōveram (nōram).
   nōverō (nōrō).

**SUBJV.** nōverim (nōrim).
   nōvissem (nōsse).

**INF.** nōvisse (nōsse) *to know.*

6. cedo, quaesō.

Other defective forms are:

Sg.—cedo, *give!* (old Impv.)

**INDIC.** Pres. quaesō, *please* (i.e., *I seek*, beg), quaesumus.

**NOTE.**—Other forms of *quaesō* are found occasionally in early Latin, and sporadically in Cic., Sall., and later; the Pf. forms have been attached to *quaerere*, 137, c.
FORMATION OF WORDS.

176. By the formation of words is meant the way in which stems are made of roots, new stems of old, and in which words are compounded.

177. All roots of the Latin language are probably monosyllabic.* They can be ascertained only by scientific analysis.

The difference between Root and Stem has been set forth in 25, NN. Sometimes the Stem is the same as the Root; so especially in the Root Verbs (132). But it is usually different.

178. Words are either simple or compound.
A simple word is one that is formed from a single root: sōl, sun; stā-re, stand, stay.
A compound word is one that is made up of two or more roots: sōl-stiti-um, sun-staying, solstice.

A.—Simple Words.

179. Simple words are partly primitive, partly derivative or secondary.

1. Primitive words come from the root, and as this usually appears in the simplest form of the verb-stem, primitive words are called *verbals*. Examples are the root-verbal forms (134, π., 132, 135, ἓ.), some substantives of the third declension, as dux (duc-s), leader, root duc (see 183, ἓ), many substantives of the first, second, and fourth declensions, as: scrib-a (scribō, I write), scribe.

2. Derivative words are formed from a noun-stem; hence called *denominatives*: vetus-tās, age, from vetes- (N. vetus), old.

Note.—Denominative verbs include many verbs which cannot definitely be referred to any substantive; such as many frequentatives and intensives. In its narrower significance the term refers to the special class of verbs made from substantives in use.

180. Substantives are generally formed by means of a *suffix*. A suffix is an addition to a stem, and serves to define its meaning or show its relations. So from the verbal stem scrib-(scribō, I write) comes scrip-tor, writ-er; scrip-tiō(n), writ-ing.

*The theory of monosyllabic roots is adopted here as being somewhat more convenient than the theory of polysyllabic roots, now held by some important scholars. Of course it will be understood that the actual existence of mere roots can be assumed only for a very early period in the development of language, long before the independent existence of Latin.*
Suffixes are either primary or secondary. A primary suffix is one added to a root (or verb stem) to form primitive words. A secondary suffix is one used in the formation of derivative words. Thus, -tor in *scriptor* is a primary suffix; -tās in *vetus-tās* is secondary.

Notes.—1. By the fading out of the difference between primary and secondary suffixes, primary suffixes come to be used sometimes to form secondary derivatives.

2. Consonant stems before consonant suffixes undergo the usual changes (9). So *scrib-tor* becomes *scriptor*; *rēg-s* becomes *rēx*. Stems are sometimes extended by a vowel, usually i, less often u, to facilitate pronunciation: *val-i-dus, strong; do-\_u-mentum, proof*; sometimes they change the stem vowel: *teg, cover; to-g-a, toga; tug-urium, hut.*

3. Vowel stems lengthen the final vowel: *acu-, sharpen; acu-men, sharp part, point.*

The final vowel often disappears before the suffix: *opta-, choose; opt-iō, choice.*

### 181. FORMATION OF SUBSTANTIVES.

The suffixes, as applied to various roots, have often special functions, and form words of definite meaning. The most important are as follows:

1. *Agency is indicated by*

   -tor, -trīc (N. *tor (m.), trīx (f.)) : amā-tor, lover; vic-trīx, conquerrress; occasionally -ter (N. ter, G. -tri) : ar-bi-ter (= ad + ba, step), umpire; -ōn (N. ō, G. ōnis) : com-bib-ō (fellow-drinker), boon companion; occasionally -o, -a (N. -us, -a) : serv-ös, slave; scrib-a, scribe; -ōno, -ōna (N. ōnu-s, -ōna) : colōnu-s, settler; -(i)t (N. es, G. itis) : mil-es, soldier, and a few others.

2. *Action, Activity, and Event are indicated by*

   a. -tu (N. tu-s, su-s, G. -ūs) : ad-ven-tus, arrival; -trī-na (N. trīna) : doc-trīna, instruction; -īn-a (N. -ina) : rap-īna, rapine; -men (N. men, G. min-is) : āg-men, train; -mento (N. mentum) : tor-mentu-m, torture; -ē-la (ella) : loquē-la, speech; querē-la, complaint; -cinio (N. -u-m) : latrō-cinīu-m, highway robbery; -mōnio, -mōnia (N. mōnia, mōniu-m) : quēri-mōnia, complaint; tēsti-mōniu-m, testimony.

   b. *Abstracts. Masculine: -ōs- (N. -or, G. -är-is): ang-or, anguish.* Feminine: -on (N. dō, gō, G. in-is) : imā-gō, image; cup-i-dō, desire; -ia : audāc-ia, boldness; -iōn (N. iō) : leg-iō, legion; -tīa : avāri-tīa, avarice; collateral are some with Nom. in -tiēs, as dūri-tīēs, hardness; -tīōn (N. tiō, siō) : amb-i-tīō, ambition; cōn-fū-siō, confusion; -tāt (N. tās) : aequali-tās, equality; -tūra : piō-tūra, painting; -tūt- (N. tūs, sus) : iuven-tūs, youth; -tu (-su) (N. tu-s, su-s), sēn-sus, perception; -tūdōn (N. tūd-ō, G. inis) : aegri-tūdō, sickness of heart. Neuter: -tīo (N. tiu-m) : servi-tiu-m, bondage.

3. *An Artisan or Tradesman is indicated by*

   -ārio (N. āriu-s) : argent-āriu-s, money changer.
4. The Trade is indicated by
   -ēria: argent-ēria, silver mine, bank.

5. The Locality of the work (or trade) is indicated by
   -ērio (N. āriu-m): sēmin-āriu-m, seed-plot; -ōnio (N. õniu-m): full-ōnium, fuller's shop; -īna: offic-īna, workshop; -cro, -culo (N. -crum, -culu-m): lavā-crum, bath; -trīno, -trīna (N. trīna, trīnu-m): sū-trīna, shoemaker's shop; pis-trīnu-m, mill.

6. Instrument and Means are indicated by
   -bro, -bra (N. bra, bru-m): H-bra, balance; cri-brum, sieve; -cro, -culo (N. -crum, -culu-m): ba-culu-m, walking stick; -lo, -la (N. -la, -lu-m): pi-la, pillar; tē-lu-m, weapon; -ulo, -ula (N. ulu-s, ula, ulu-m): cap-ulu-s, handle; rēg-ula, rule; cing-ulu-m, girdle; -mento (N. mentu-m): al-i-mentu-m, nourishment; -tro, -tra (N. tra, tru-m): tenes-tra, window; arā-tru-m, plough.

7. Relationship is indicated by
   -ter (N. ter, G. tr-is): pa-ter, father; mā-ter, mother.

8. Condition or Relation by
   -īna: discipl-īna, discipline; medic-īna, medicine.

9. Function is indicated by
   -tūra (sūra): cul-tūra, cultivation.

10. Office is indicated by

11. Dense Growths are indicated by
   -ēto (N. ētum, G. ētus): murt-ētum, myrtle grove; -to (N. tu-m): virgul-tum, brushwood.

12. Diminutives are indicated by
   -lo, -la (N. lu-s, etc.), before which a liquid is assimilated (9, 3): (ager), agel-lu-s, little field; (tabul-a), tabel-la, tablet; (corōn-a), corōl-la, chaplet; Catul-lu-s (= Catōn-lu-s); homul-lu-s (= homōn-lu-s), manikin; -olo, -ulo: olo after e, i, v, otherwise -ulo (N. olu-s, ola, ulu-s, ula): (alve-us), alve-olu-s, little hollow; (fili-a), fili-ola, little daughter; (valv-a), valv-olae, pod (little flaps); (circu-s), circ-ul-s, little ring. -culo, -cullu (N. culu-s, etc.), after e, i, u, and consonant stems: (spēs), spē-cullu, slight hope; (amni-s), amni-culu-s, streamlet; (versu-s), versi-culu-s, versicle; (homō, homin-), homun-culu-s, manikin; (flōs), flō-culu-s, floweret; (cor, cord-), cor-culu-m, dear heart.

   Note.—Diminutives have, as a rule, the gender of their primitives. Exceptions are sometimes due to difference in signification.
FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES.

The significance of the most important adjective suffixes, which are often identical with the substantive suffixes, are as follows:

1. **Action** is indicated by
   - *bundo, bunda*: cunctā-bundu-s, lingering. Repeated action by *ulo, ula*: crēd-ulu-s, quick to believe; quer-ulu-s, complaining. Passive action is indicated by *bili*: amā-bili-s, lovable; vēnd-i-bili-s, to be sold.

2. **Capacity and Inclination** are indicated by
   - *cundo, cunda*: fā-cundu-s, of ready speech; verē-cundu-s, modest. Passive Capacity by *ili*: ag-ilī-s, readily moved, quick; doc-ilī-s, teachable. The Capacity and Resulting Condition by *tili*: duc-tili-s, ductile; fic-tili-s, capable of being moulded, of clay.

3. **Tendency** is indicated by
   - *āci* (N. āx): aud-āx, bold; rap-āx, greedy.

4. **Likeness and Composition or Material** are indicated by
   - *āceo, ācea*: arundin-āceu-s, reedy; crēt-āceu-s, chalky; *icio*: later-iciu-s, made of brick; *no, na*: acer-nu-s, of maple; *neo, nea*: ae-neu-s, brazen.

5. **Belonging to** is indicated by
   - *io, ia*: imperātōr-inu-s, belonging to a general; *icio, icia*: aedil-iciu-s, belonging to an edile; *āno, āna*: hūm-ānu-s, human; urb-ānu-s, urbane, city.

6. **Appurtenance and Medium** are indicated by
   - *tico, tica*: aquā-ticu-s, aquatic; *tili-*: aquā-tili-s, aquatic; plūmā-tili-s, (embroidered) like feathers.

7. **Origin** is indicated by
   - *io, ia*: Cornēl-ia (lēx), Corinth-inu-s; *āno, āna, ino, ina*: Rōm-ānu-s, Lat-Inu-s.

8. **Time** is indicated by
   - *tino, tina*: crās-tinnu-s, of to-morrow; *terno, terna*: hes-ternu-s, of yesterday; *urno, urna*: noct-urnu-s, by night; *tino, tina*: mātū-tinnu-s, of early morning.

9. **Locality, where, whence**, is indicated by
   - *ia*: Gall-ia, Gaul; *tino*: intes-tinnu-s, inner, intestine; *ēnsi*: circ-ēnsi-s, from the circus; Sicili-ēnsi-s, Sicilian; *āti* (N. ās): cui-ās, of what country?
FORMATION OF WORDS.

10. Fulness is indicated by
-oso, -ósa: anim-ós-su-s, full of spirit; verb-ós-su-s, wordy; -lento,
lena: sanguin-o-lentu-s, bloody; op-u-lentu-s, with abundant means.

11. Descent and Relationship are indicated in Latin mainly by Greek adjectives, made by the addition of Greek suffixes to proper names. These suffixes are
M. -idēs (G. idae), F. -is (G. idis), from Nominatives in us, or, ēs, and s preceded by a consonant; M. -adēs (G. adae), F. -ēs (G. ēdis), from Nominatives in -eus; M. -adēs (G. adae), F. -ēs (G. ēdis), from Nominatives in ēs (G. ēs) and -ēs (G. -ēs); M. -iadēs (G. iadae), F. -iās (G. iādis), from Nominatives in ēs, or, o; F. -iēnē, from Nominatives in -us and -eus; F. -ēnē, from Nominatives in ius: (Tantalus) Tantal-īdēs, son of Tantalus; Tantal-īs, daughter of Tantalus; (Pelops) Pelopīdēs; (Thēs-eus) Thēs-īdēs, Thēs-ēs; (Aenēas) Aene-ādēs (Aeneadēs also); (Lārtēs) Lārt-īdēs; (Neptūnus) Neptūn-īnē; (Acrīsius) Acrīsionē, etc.

12. Diminutive adjectives are formed by the same suffixes as diminutive substantives (181, 12): albus, white, albu-lus, whitish; miser, wretched, mis-ellus, poor (little); ācer, sharp, ācri-culu-s, somewhat sharp.

183. SUBSTANTIVES WITHOUT SUFFIXES.
(Root Substantives.)

A few substantives are formed from roots without a suffix:
1. With weak root: duc-s (dux), leader, from root duc, lead; nec-s (nex), killing, from root nec, kill.
2. With strong root: lūc-s (lūx), light, from root lūc, light; rēg-s (rēx), king, from root rēg, rule.
3. With reduplication: car-cer, jail; mar-mor, marble; mur-mur, murmur.

THE SUFFIXES IN DETAIL.
184. Vowels.
-ō, -a (N. u-s, a, u-m). Primary and secondary adjectives, and primary substantives. The primary adjectives resemble somewhat active participles in meaning; fer-u-s, wild; vag-u-s, wandering. Secondary are especially adjectives in -ōrus, as dec-ōru-s, graceful, from decor, grace, and many others. Masculine substantives in -u-s are often nouns of agency, sometimes nōmina actionis and concretes therefrom: coqu-o-s, cook; rog-u-s, pyre. Those in -a (a) are regularly nōmina agentis, especially in composition; scrib-a, scribe; agri-cola, husbandman (land-tiller). Feminines are in -o (which are principally names of trees: pir-us, pear tree) and in -a: lup-a, she-wolf, as well as lup-u-s. Neuters are those in -u-m, especially names of fruits: pir-u-m, pear.
-i (N. i-s, e). Substantives: M. orb-i-s, circle; pisc-i-s, fish, etc.; F. av-i-s, bird; nāv-i-s, ship; N. mar-e, sea; conclāv-e, room. Adjectives: dulc-i-s, sweet; turp-i-s, ugly.

Note.—In adjectives especially, i is often weakened from -o, as inermis and inermus, etc. Sometimes in substantives the Nom. shows ēs instead of is, as caedes and caedis, etc.

-ia. (N. iu-s, ia, iu-m). -i. This is the principal secondary suffix, and is found in many combinations; but it is also found as primary in substantives: M. gen-iu-s, genius; glad-iu-s, sword; F. pluv-ia, rain; tib-ia, fife; N. fol-iu-m, leaf; od-iu-m, hate; and in adjectives ex-im-iu-s, pre-eminent (taken out); sauc-iu-s, wounded, pluv-iu-s, rainy.

2. The suffix occurs as secondary in the forms -ēio (-aeo), -io, eo, io, in a large number of Gentile names: Flāv-iu-s, Flāv-iu-s, Lūc-iu-s, Lūc-iu-s, Luc-iu-s; similar to these are those in ed-iu-s, id-iu-s, id-iu-s, -ēl-iu-s, id-iu-s, as Lūc-id-iu-s, Corn-ēl-iu-s, Lūc-id-iu-s. Also in some adjectives of material in eu-s, as aur-eu-s, golden; ferr-eu-s, iron. It occurs, moreover, in many compound adjective and substantive endings, to be discussed later, and in many abstract substantives in -antia, -entia, as abundantia, abundance, sci-entia, knowledge, etc.

Note.—Instead of -ia, we find -ea in a few words: cav-ea, cage; cochl-ea, small.

-ii (N. u-s, u). M. arc-n-s, bow; curr-n-s, chariot; F. ac-u-s, needle; man-u-s, hand; N. gel-n, frost; gen-n, knee. Secondary is socr-n-s, mother-in-law. This suffix is found occasionally in adjectives compounded with manus, as centi-manus, hundred-handed; also in the form -ni in a few adjectives, as ten-ni-s, thin.

Note.—The suffix -o often alternates with -u.

-uo, -ua (N. uo-s, ua, uo-m). Primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. eq-uo-s, horse; F. al-vo-s, belly; N. ar-vo-m, field; par-vo-s, small. Secondary: M. patr-uo-r, uncle; cer-vo-s, stag; F. iān-ua, gate; cern-uo-s, stooping; aesti-vo-s, of the summer.

Note.—Ivo-s is found in voc-Ivo-s (vacuous), rediv-Ivo-s, etc. -vo is weakened to -vi in pel-vi-s, basin.

185. Suffixes with Gutturals.

1. -co, -ca (N. cu-s, ca, cu-m). This forms both adjectives and substantives, but is usually secondary. As primary it is found in: io-cu-s, jest; lo-cu-s, place; as secondary in: medi-cu-s, physician; ped-i-ca, fetter. Adjectives are primary: cas-cu-s, very old; or secondary: civi-cu-s, civic.

2. -āco, -āca (N. ācu-s, āca, ācu-m). Primary in clo-āca, sewer; secondary in ver-bēn-āca, vervain, and in adjectives, as mer-ācu-s, pure.
FORMATION OF WORDS.

3. -ico, -ica (N. i cu-s, ica, i cu-m). In substantives, such as: M. umbil-icu-s, navel; F. lect-ica, litter; urt-ica, nettle. In adjectives, as: am-icu-s, friendly, etc.

4. -uco, -uca (N. u cu-s, uca, u cu-m). Primary in the adjectives: cad-ucu-s, tottering; mand-ucu-s, voracious; secondary in alb-ucu-s, asphodel; and in substantives 'n -uca, as ĕr-uca, caterpillar; verr-uca, wart.

Note.—Similar is the secondary suffix -inquo in long-inquo-s, distant; pro-pinquo-s, near.

5. -de (N. ax) forms substantives and adjectives; the latter expressing inclination. Primary: aud-ax, bold; fug-ax, fleeing. Secondary: F. forn-ax, furnace; lim-ax, snail; vēr-ax, truthful.

6. -ēc (N. ēx) is found in verv-ēx, wether.

7. -ic (N. ex) forms a number of substantives that are mainly masculine, except names of plants and trees. Primary: M. ap-ex, point; cort-ex, bark; F. il-ex, holm-oak. Secondary: F. imbr-ex, gutter-tile.


9. -ōc (N. ōx) is found in the substantive cel-ōx, yacht, and in a number of adjectives: atr-ōx, ferocious.

10. -aceo, -acea (N. āceu-s, ācea, āceu-m), forms adjectives of material or likeness: crēt-āceu-s, chalk-like.

Note.—Notice also the suffix -ac-io, especially in proper names: Vēr-ācia.

11. -iceo, -ice-io (N. icteu-s, etc., ēciu-s, etc.), form adjectives indicating material, the latter suffix also some indicating relation: palm-iceu-s, of palms; tribūn-iciu-s, proceeding from a tribune.

12. -ič-io (N. ēciu-s, etc.) is found in nov-īciu-s, new, and in words of participial meaning coming from forms in -to, as advent-īciu-s, stranger.

13. -ūceo, -ūce-io, occurs in pann-ūceu-s or pann-ūciu-s.

14. -ci-no and ci-n′-io occur (perhaps) in vāti-cinu-s, prophetic, and in some secondary neuter substantives, which denote action or event, as latrō-cinu-m, robbery.

15. -cro, -cri, -clo, -culo (N. cer, cris, clu-m, culu-m) are found in some adjectives with participial force, and in a few neuter substantives indicating instrument or locality; as ala-cer, quick; medio-cris, mediocre; peri-clum (-culu-m), danger; ba-culu-m, stick (also m.); sepulcrum, grave. Also the primary ridi-cula-s, laughable, and the secondary anni-cula-s, aged.
Suffixes with a Dental.

1. -d (N. (d)s). Substantives only: frau-s, cheatery; mercē-s, pay; custō-s, guard.

2. -do, -di (N. du-s, etc., di-s). A secondary suffix used especially for the formation of adjectives: frig-i-du-s, cold; vir-i-dis, blooming.

3. -to (-so) (N. tu-s, ta, tu-m). This forms substantives and adjectives, and is both primary and secondary. Primary: M. cub-i-tu-s, elbow; dig-i-tus, finger; also substantives in -ta after Greek analogy: poē-ta, poet; F. hast-ta, spear; am-i-ta, aunt; N. lu-tu-m, mud; tectum, roof; ap-tu-s, fit; beā-tu-s, blessed. Secondary: M. nau-ta, sailor; F. iuven-ta, youth; N. dense growths in a-tu-m: fruticē-tu-m, copse; fūs-tu-s, just; and passive adjectives like barbā-tus, bearded.

4. -ti (-si) [N. tis (sis)] forms primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. fūs-ti-s, club; cas-si-s, hunting-net; F. cu-ti-s, skin; si-ti-s, thirst; for-ti-s, brave; mi-ti-s, mild. Secondary: (1) in adjectives and substantives indicating home, origin, usually preceded by ā, i, more rarely ē: Camer-s (Camer-ti-s), from Camerinum; Arpīnā-s (Arpīnā-ti-s), of Arpinum; nostrā-s, from our country; (2) in the form -ēnsi (for ent-ti) in adjectives of origin and locality: Sicilī-ēnsi-s, from Sicily; castrēnsi-s, belonging to a camp.

5. -t (N. (ts)) forms primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. com-e-s, companion; dēn-s, tooth; F. quiē-s, rest; ar-s, art; locuplē-s, wealthy; with preceding e: div-e-s, rich. Note also the Particules in -ns. Secondary: M. āl-e-s, bird; eque-s, horseman.

6. -ento- (N. -entu-s, etc.) forms substantives and adjectives; the latter are participial in nature. M. v-entu-s, wind; F. pol-enta, cluster; N. ungu-entu-m, salve; cru-entu-s, bloody. Secondary adjectives: gracil-entu-s, slender; and by false analogy corporul-entu-s, corpulent, and the like.

7. -tāt, -tūt (M. tā-s, tū-s), forms secondary feminine abstracts and collectives: civ-i-tā-s, citizenship; liber-tā-s, freedom; iuven-tū-s, youth; vir-tū-s, manliness.

8. -tio, -tia, -tiē (N. tiu-m, tia, tiē-s), likewise form abstracts and collectives, some neuter, most masculine: servi-tiu-m, slavery; molli-tia and molli-tiē-s, gentleness, etc.

Notes.—1. In in-i-tiu-m, beginning, and spa-tiu-m, room, the suffix is primary. 2. Many roots form various derivatives of similar meaning, thus: dūr-i-tia, dūr-i-tiē-s, dūr-i-tū-s, hardness, etc.

9. -ti-co (N. ti-cu-s, etc.) forms secondary adjectives signifying pertaining to; domes-ticu-s, domestic; aquā-ticu-s, aquatic.
FORMATION OF WORDS.

NOTE.—In such substantives as canti-cu-m, triti-cum, the ending -co has been added to a participial form in -to (canto, trito).

10. -ter forms primary substantives of kinship; as, pa-ter, etc. Different in formation is soror, which, like ux-or, has no feminine ending.

11. -tor (-sor), F. -tric (N. tor, trix), form substantives of agency, those in trix being all secondary: aud-i-tor, hearer; vēnā-trix, huntress; -tor is secondary in gladiā-tor, etc.

12. -tī- or -tūr-a (N. tūru-s, etc.), forms participles in tūru-s, as amātūru-s, and feminine substantives denoting activity or office: cultūr-a, cultivation; cēn-sūr-a, censorship.

13. -tōr-io (-sor-io) (N. tōriu-s, etc.), form neuter substantives of place and instrument, and adjectives denoting that which pertains to the actor: audi-tōr-iu-m, lecture hall; āleā-tōr-iu-s, pertaining to a dice-player.

14. -tro, -tra (N. tra, tru-m), forms substantives, mostly neuter, of means: arā-tru-m, plough; fenēs-tra (f.), window. From words like mōn-s-tru-m, monster, come by false analogy those in -ster, as pīn-aster, wild pine.

15. -tero, -ter-a (N. ter, tra, tru-m) forms comparatives: al-ter, other; dex-ter, right; nos-ter, our; perhaps also adjectives of relation, appurtenance, or locality in -s-ter (G. strīs), such as: palūs-ter (= palūd-ter), swampy; eques-ter, equestrian; campe-s-ter, champaign; terres-ter, of the earth, terrestrial.

16. -trino, -trina (N. trīna, trīnu-m). forms substantives of activity (f.), or of locality (f., n.): doc-trina, instruction; pis-trīna, bakery; pis-trīnu-m, (pounding) mill.

17. -tīli- (-sili) (N. tili-s, tile) forms primary adjectives of capacity and adaptation, and with preceding s secondary adjectives of relation or belonging: duc-tīli-s, ductile; mis-sili-s, missile; aquā-tīli-s, belonging to the water.

18. -ter-no (N. ternu-s, etc.) forms adjectives indicating time: hes-ternu-s, of yesterday.

19. -tur-no (N. turnu-s, etc.) forms substantives and adjectives indicating continuance, from which come proper names: Sā-turnu-s, Vol-turnu-s, tac-i-turnu-s, silent.

20. -tīno, -tīno (N. tinu-s, tinu-s, etc.), forms adjectives of time, the latter also of place: crās-tinu-s, of to-morrow; intes-tinu-s, inner, intestine; matū-tinu-s, of early morning.

21. -tu (-su) (N. tu-s, su-s) forms substantives of action and its result: adven-tu-s, arrival; cur-su-s, course; or-tu-s, rising.

22. -ā-tu (N. ā-tu-s) forms secondary substantives of office: cōnsul-ā-tu-s, consulship; sen-ā-tu-s, senate.
187. **Suffixes with a Labial.**

1. *-bo, -ba* (N. bu-s, etc.), forms substantives and adjectives: M. mor-bu-s, disease; F. bar-ba, beard; N. ver-bu-m, word; pro-bu-s, upright.

2. *-bro, -bra* (N. bra, bru-m), forms substantives indicating means or instrument. Primary: F. dol-a-bra, cell; li-bra, balance; ter-e-bra, borer; N. cri-bru-m, sieve. Secondary: can-déla-bru-m, candlestick.

   Note.—Very rare are masculines; as, fa-ber, wright; Mulci-ber, Vulcan.

3. *-bulo, -bula* (N. bula, bulu-m), form substantives: F. fa-bula, tale; fl-bula (fig.), brooch; N. pâ-bulu-m, fodder; sta-bulu-m, stall.

4. *-bili* (N. bili-s) forms adjectives, mostly of passive meaning in classical prose: amá-bili-s, lovable; nö-bili-s, noble; flé-bili-s, weeping.

188. **Suffixes with an original S.**

1. *-is* (N. is, G. er-is) forms a few substantives: vům-is (also vům-er), ploughshare; cin-is, ashes; pulv-is, dust; cucum-is, cucumber.

2. *-us* (N. us, G. er-is, or-is) forms primary and secondary neuter substantives. Primary: foed-us, bond; gen-us, race; temp-us, time. Secondary: pect-us, breast; fûn-us, funeral.

   Note.—Some such words have become monosyllabic, as aes, íus, rús.

3. *-ös* (-*ôr*) (N. ös, or, G. ör-is) forms many primary and a few secondary masculine abstracts. Primary: fl-ös, flower; am-or, love. Secondary: ae-gr-or, sickness.

   Note.—Noteworthy are M. lep-us, hare; F. arb-ös, tree (45 N.); Ven-us (G. Ven-eris), and the adjective vet-us (G. veteris), old.

4. *-es* (N. es, ęs, G. is, ēi) forms a few substantives of the third and fifth declension: vāt-ęs, bard; fam-ęs, hunger; plēb-ęs, people.

5. *-ôr-o* (N. ōru-s, etc.) forms secondary adjectives, as: can-ōru-s, sounding; hon-ōru-s, honourable; and a few substantives, as: aur-ōra, morning; Flōra, etc.

189. **Suffixes with a Liquid.**

1. *-lo, -la* (N. lu-s, etc.), forms many feminine and neueter, and a few masculine substantives: M. mā-lu-s, mast; F. pi-la, pillar; N. cae-lu-m (= caed-lu-m), chisel; fi-lu-m, thread.

2. *-i-lo, -i-la* (N. ili-s, etc.), forms primary and secondary sub-
stantives and adjectives. M. sib-i-lu-s, hissing; N. cae-lu-m (= cav-i-lu-m, hollow), heaven; nūb-i-lu-s, cloudy.

3. (-o-lo), -u-lo, -u-lā (N. ulu-s, etc.), form primary and secondary substantives, most of which indicate instrument, and primary adjectives indicating repeated action or tendency: M. ang-u-lu-s, corner; oo-u-lu-s, eye; F. rēg-u-la, rule; tēg-u-la, tile; N. iac-u-lu-m, javelin; spec-u-lu-m, mirror; bib-u-lu-s, bibulous; crēd-u-lu-s, quick to believe; quer-u-lu-s, complaining; caer-u-lu-s, blue (secondary), and caer-u-leu-s. Also fam-u-lu-s, servant, and the extension fam-i-lu-s, family.

4. -li (N. li-s, le) occurs in the substantive: M. caul-li-s, stalk; and in adjectives: subtil-li-s, fine; inci-li-s, cut in. Secondary in fidē-li-s, faithful.

5. -i-li (N. ili-s, ile) forms a few substantives and many adjectives indicating passive capacity: F. strig-i-li-s, scraper; N. teg-i-le, roof. Also vig-il, watchman; ag-i-li-s, readily moved; doc-i-li-s, teachable. Secondary in hum-i-li-s, low, and in the terminations -tili-s, -silli-s.

6. -olo, -ola (after e, i, v), -ulo, -ula (N. olu-s, ulu-s, etc.), form diminutives: alve-olu-s, little belly; fili-olu-s, little son; riv-ulu-s, booklet; rēg-ululu-s, chief; vōc-ula, voice; grān-ulum, grain; alb-ulu-s, whitish; parv-olu-s, small.

7. -ello, -ella (N. illu-s, etc.), forms diminutives after l and by assimilation after n, r: pop-ellu-s, tribelet; tab-el-la, tablet; pu-el-la, girl; bel-lu-s (bonus), good; misel-lu-s (miser), wretched. Doubly diminutive are catel-lu-s, puppy; cistel-la, basket; capitel-lu-m, head.

8. -illo, -illa (N. illu-s, etc.), forms diminutives, and is formed like ello, but usually after a preceding i: pulv-illu-s, small cushion; pistrilla, small mill; sig-illu-m, small image; bov-illu-s, bovine. Also cōdicillu-s, billets; paux-illu-s, slight; pus-illu-s, tiny.

9. -olla is found in cor-ōl-la, wreath; ēl-la, jar (aula).

10. -ullo, -ulla, occurs in ēl-lu-s, any. Sul-la (= Sūr-u-la), Catullu-s (Cātōn-lu-s), homullus (= homōn-lu-s).

11. (-co-lo), -cu-lo (N. culu-s, etc.), forms diminutives, especially after consonantal and e, i, u stems: M. fōs-culu-s, floweret; homun-culu-s, manikin (irregular); avu-n-culu-s, uncle (mother's brother, irregular); F. spē-cula, little hope; auri-cula, ear; arbus-cula, little tree (irregular); domu-n-cula, little house (irregular); N. cor-culu-m, (dear) heart; mūnusculu-m, little gift. Adjectives are dulci-culu-s, sweetish, and especially diminutives from comparative stems, melius-culu-s.

12. -cello (-cillo) (N. cellu-s, etc.) stands to culo as ello to ulo: M. pēn-cillu-s, -m, painter's brush; òc-cillu-m, little mouth; molli-cellu-s, softish.
13. -uleo (N. üleu-s) forms substantives that were originally adjectival: acüleu-s, sting.

14. -ăli, -ări (N. ăli-s, ări-s, etc.), form secondary adjectives, some of which are substantivised in the neuter, and a few substantives: vēnălis, venal; mort-ăli-s, mortal; singul-ări-s, unique; vulg-ări-s, common; can-ăli-s, canal; animal, living being; calc-ar, spur.

15. -ēla (-ella) forms primary and secondary substantives, most of which indicate action: loqu-ēla (loqu-ella), talking; cand-ēla, candle; cūstōd-ēla, watching.

16. -eli (N. gli-s, etc.) forms secondary substantives and adjectives: cardu-ēli-s, linnet; crud-Sli-s, cruel.

REMARK. - A further development of -ēli is -ēlio, -elia: Aur-ēli-us, contum-gli-a, contumely.

17. -Hi (N. fli-s, lie) forms secondary substantives and adjectives: M. aed-ili-s, cedile; N. cub-lie, couch; sed-lle, seat; clv-ili-s, civic; erl-li-s, master's.

18. -мо, -ma (N. mu-s, etc.), forms primary substantives and primary and secondary adjectives. The feminine substantives express usually the result of an action: M. an-i-mu-s, spirit; cal-mu-s, cal-a-mu-s, stalk; F. fā-ma, fame; flam-ma, flame; N. ar-ma, arms; pō-mum, fruit. Adjectives, primary: al-mu-s, fostering; fir-mu-s, strong. Secondary: op-I-mu-s, fat; patr-I-mu-s, mātr-I-mu-s, with father, mother, living.

19. -men (N. men, G. min-is) forms primary, neuter substantives, mostly indicating activity or results of activity: āg-men, train; flū-men, river; but M. flā-men, priest.

20. -mento (N. mentu-m) forms substantives (mostly primary) indicating instrument: al-i-mentu-m, nourishment; tor-mentu-m, torture.

NOTES. - 1. -men and -mentum are often formed from the same radical. In that case mentu-m is the more common: teg-u-men, teg-u-mentu-m, covering.
2. Rare and archaic are feminines in -menta: armenta = armentu-m.
3. -menti occurs in sēmenti-s (f.), seed = sēmen (n.).


22. -mino, -mina, -mno, -mna (N. minu-s, etc.), form substantives: M. ter-minu-s, boundary; F. al-u-mna, foster-daughter; fē-mina, woman; N. da-mnu-m, loss.

23. -mōn (N. mō, G. mōn-is) forms primary and secondary masculine substantives: pul-mō, lung; ser-mō, discourse; tē-mō, pole (of a chariot).

24. -mōn-io, -mōn-ia (N. mōnia, mōniu-m), forms primary and
secondary substantives. Primary: F. al-i-mònia, nourishment; quer-i-mònia, complaint; N. al-i-mòniu-m, nourishment. Secondary: F. acr-i-mònia, tartness; N. màtr-i-mòniu-m, marriage.

25. -mòr forms primary masculine substantives: cre-mòr, broth; rà-mòr, rumour.

26. -mic (N. mex, G. mic-is) forms a few substantives: cf-mex, bug; pù-mex, pumice.

27. a. -no, -na (N. nu-s, etc.), forms primary and secondary adjectives; the primary are participial in meaning; the secondary indicate material or relation, and occasionally locality; when added to local comparatives and adverbs, distributive numerals are also formed with this suffix. Primary: dig-nu-s, worthy; plè-nu-s, full. Secondary: diur-nu-s, daily; frater-nu-s, brotherly; acer-nu-s, maple; ex-ter-nu-s, outer; bi-nì, two each.

Note.—Adjectives denoting material have also -neo (= n'-eo), as ae-neu-s, brazen; flìg-neu-s, quer-neu-s.

b. -no, -na (N. nu-s, etc.), forms primary and a few secondary substantives. Primary: M. fur-nu-s, oven; pùg-nu-s, fist; F. cè-na, meal; là-na, wool. N. dò-nu-m, gift; règ-nu-m, kingdom. Secondary: M. tribù-nu-s, tribune; F. fortù-na, fortune; albur-nu-m, sap-wood.

Note.—This suffix is extended in pecù-nìa, money.

28. -bundo-, -cundo (N. bundu-s, etc., cundu-s, etc.), form adjectives of activity: cunct-à-bundu-s, delaying; fà-cundu-s, eloquent.

29. -ni (N. ni-s) forms primary substantives and adjectives: am-ni-s, stream; pè-ni-s, tail; pà-ni-s, bread; im-mà-ni-s, wild; sèg-ni-s, lazy.

30. -ino, -ina (N. inu-s, etc.), forms primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. dom-inu-s, lord; F. pàg-inà, page; lic-inu-s, curled upwards. Secondary: M. ped-ic-inu-s, foot; F. fisc-inà, basket; N. sàc-inu-m, amber; faec-inu-s, making dregs.

Note.—The suffix is extended in the proper name Lic-iniu-s.

31. -åno, -åna (N. ånu-s, etc.), forms secondary adjectives, some of which are substantivised. They indicate origin or appurtenance; decum-ånu-s, belonging to the tenth; hùm-ånu-s, human; alt-ånu-s, sea-wind. Primary in Volc-ånu-s, Di-åna.

32. -ån-uo (N. åneu-s, etc.) forms primary and secondary adjectives. Primary: cònsent-åneu-s, harmonious. Secondary: subit-åneu-s, sudden. This suffix becomes ånio (= ån'io) in proper names: Afr-åniu-s, Fund-åniu-s.

33. -ëno, -ëna (N. ěnu-s, etc.), forms secondary substantives and
adjectives: M. Vibi-di-ên-sus; F. cat-ên-na, chain; hab-ên-na, rein; N. ven-ên-mus, poison; eg-ên-us, needy; all-ên-us, strange.

Note.—This is extended to ôn-on in toll-ênô, (well) sweep.

34. -iño, -iña (N. iṅu-s, etc.), forms primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. cat-iṅu-s, -m, dish; F. rap-iña, rapine; ru-iña, ruin; nec-op-iṅu-s, unexpected. Secondary: M. pulvi-ṅu-s, cushion; sal-iṅu-m, salt-cellar, and many feminines, especially those denoting shops and factories; rēg-iña, queen; cul-iṅa, kitchen; offic-iṅa, workshop; āgn-iṅ-u-s, belonging to a lamb; div-iṅ-u-s, divine.

Note.—An extension of this suffix is found in tic- téc-iṅu-m, veil.

35. -en (N. -en, G. -inis) forms a few substantives: M. pect-en, comb; N. glut-en, glue.

36. -ōn (N. ō, G. in-is) forms a few substantives: M. card-ō, hinge; marg-ō, rim; órd-ō, row; F. a-spērg-ō, sprinkling; virg-ō, maid; ear-ō, flesh.

Notes.—1. Noteworthy is hom-ō, hom-in-is, man.
2. This suffix occurs very commonly in compounds forming feminine abstracts:

-ēdōn (N. ēdō), dulc-ēdō, sweetness; -īdōn (N. kīdō), cup-īdō, desire; form-īdō, fear; -ūdōn (N. ādō), tēst-ūdō, tortoise; -ūdōn (N. tūdō), aegri-ūdō, sickness; -ūgōn (N. āgō), im-āgō, image; -ūgōn (N. āgō), aer-ūgō, rust; -īgōn (N. āgō), cāl-īgō, thick darkness; or-īgō, origin, etc.

37. -ōn (N. ō, G. ōnis) forms primary and secondary substantives. The primary are nouns of agency: combī-ō, fellow-drinker; prae-ō, herald; ti-rō, recruit. The secondary indicate often the possession of some bodily or mental peculiarities; āle-ō, dice-player; centurī-ō, centurion.

38. -iōn (N. iō) forms a few masculine and many feminine primary and secondary substantives. Primary: M. pūg-iō, dagger; F. opin-iō, opinion; reg-iō, region. Secondary: M. pell-iō, furrier; vespertil-iō, bat; F. com-mūn-iō, communion.

Note.—Especially frequent are feminine abstracts in t-iō (s-iō): amb-i-tiō, ambition; op-pūgnā-tiō, siege. Noteworthy are the secondary diminutives, homunc-iō, senec-iō.

39. -ōno, -ōna (N. onu-s, ėna), forms few primary and many secondary substantives; the masculines indicate agents, especially person employed: M. col-ōnu-s, settler; F. matr-ēna, matron; Bell-ēna.

40. -ōnio, -ōnia (N. onu-s, etc.), forms substantives and adjectives: M. Fav-ōniu-s, zephyr; Pomp-ōniu-s, etc.; caup-ōniu-s, belonging to a host. Neuters indicate the trade or shop: full-ōniu-m, fuller's-shop.

41. -ro, -ra (N. er, -ra, ru-m), forms primary substantives and adjectives: M. ag-e-r, field; cap-e-r, goat; mūru-s, wall; F. lau-ru-s, laurel;
ser-ra, saw; N. flag-ru-m, whip; lab-ru-m, lip; clā-ru-s, bright; pū-ru-s, clean.

Often a short vowel precedes: M. num-er-ru-s, number; F. cam-era, vault; N. tūg-eru-m, measure of land. So hil-er-ru-s, joyous; lib-er, free; cam-eru-s, vaulted; sat-er, full.

Notes.—1. Extensions are Mer-curiu-s, tug-eriu-m, hut.
2. In a number of primary substantives and adjectives simple r is preceded by a short vowel: M. late-r, tile; ans-er, goose; F. mul-i-er, woman; N. ac-er, maple; vēr (= ves-er), spring; clē-ur, tame.

42. -ri (N. -(e)-r, -ris, G. ris) forms substantives and adjectives: M. imb-e-r, rain-storm; ac-e-r, sharp; funeb-ri-s, funeral; perhaps celeb-er, thronged.
43. -aro forms adjectives, as: av-aro-s, greedy; am-aro-s, bitter.
44. -ari, -āli (N. āri-s, āli-s, etc.), forms secondary substantives and adjectives; -āri when the stem has l, -āli when it has an r: pugill-ārē-s, tablets; primipil-āri-s, one who has been primipilus; some neutrals in ar (from āre): calc-er, spur; ex-em-p-l-ar, pattern; pulvin-ar, (sacred) couch; auxili-āri-s, auxiliary; milit-āri-s, military; consul-āri-s, consular.
45. -ario, -aria (N. āriu-s, etc.), forms substantives and adjectives. There are sometimes collateral forms in -āri-s. The substantives, when masculine, indicate artisans; when feminine, business or profession; when neuter, the place where the work is carried on. M. argent-āriu-s, money-changer; ferr-āriu-s, iron-worker; F. argent-āria, silver mine, bank or banking; N. api-āriu-m, beehive; pōm-āriu-m, apple orchard.
46. -ēvo (N. ēru-s, etc.) forms sev-ērus, earnest, and the substantive gal-ēru-s, m, bonnet.
47. -ūri forms the substantive secūri-s, axe, and by extension pēnūria, want.
48. The letter r appears often in combination with other suffixes, as: -er-co in lup-erco-s, Pan; nov-erco, step-mother; -er-to in lac-ertu-s, arm; lac-erta-s, a lizard; -er-bo in ac-erbu-s, sour; sup-erbu-s, proud; -er-vo in ac-ervo-s, heap; cat-erva, crowd; -er-na in cav-erna, hollow; lu-cerna, lamp; -ter-na in lan-ter-na, lantern; -ur-no in alb-urnu-s, white fish; lab-urnu-m, laburnum.

190. FORMATION OF VERBS.
1. Primitives are confined to the Third Conjugation, to some forms of the Irregular verbs, and to some Inchoatives. The various stem-formations are shown in 133.
2. Derivatives comprise the verbs of the First, Second, and Fourth
Conjugations, and some verbs of the Third Conjugation. They are all (except the Inchoatives and the Meditatives) formed with the suffix -io, -ie (yo, ye), which is added either to simple verbal stems, or to noun (16) stems already existing or presupposed. The i in -io, -ie, contracts with the preceding vowels å, ø, i, u, leaving the ordinary forms of the regular conjugations. Certain categories of these verbs have obtained special names according to their various meanings:

The *Causatives*, formed by a change in the stem-vowel.

The *Desideratives*, formed by the addition of -io to nōmina agentis in -tor; afterwards a desiderative force was associated with the combination -tor-io (-tar-io), and it was applied indiscriminately.

The *Frequentatives* come originally probably from participial stems in -to; Latin developed also the suffix -ito; further, this being added again to -to gave rise to -tito (-sito).

The *Inchoatives*, formed by a special suffix, -sco (sko), are treated in conjugation as primitives belonging to the Third Conjugation.

The *Meditatives* have not been explained.

**Note.**—Theoretically the Verbālia are all Dēnominātīva, but owing to the wide working of Analogy, it has been impossible in many cases, as in amā-re, monē-re, to discover an original noun; while in other cases, as the verbal is formed from a part of a denominative verb, it is convenient to retain the division.

191. A. *Verbālia* (derived from verb-stems, 190, n.):

1. *Frequentatives or Intensives*, denoting repeated or intense *Action*. These verbs end in -tāre (-sāre), -itāre, -titāre (-sitāre), and follow the supine stem (perfect passive form).

   (a) cantāre, sing; compare canō (cantum): cursāre, run to and fro; compare currō (cursum): dictāre, dictate; compare dīō (dictum): dormītāre, be sleepy; compare dormīō (dormītum): habitāre, keep, dwell; compare habēō (habitum): pollicitāri, promise freely; compare polliceor (pollicitus): pulsāre, beat; compare pellō (pulsum).

   (b) agitāre (ago), nōscitāre (nōscō), sciscitāre (sciscō), visitāre (visō), vocitāre (vocō), volitāre (volō).

   (c) cantitāre (cantāre), dictitāre (dictāre), cursitāre (cursāre).

**Notes.**—1. The simple verb presupposed by the frequentative or intensive is often out of use, as in the case of: gus-tāre, taste; hor-tāri, exhort. The frequentative or intensive in -tāre is often out of use: actitāre, repeatedly or zealously agitate (no actāre), from ago, actum: lēctitāre, read carefully (no lēctāre), from legō, lēctum.

2. The verbs of the Fourth Conjugation form no frequentatives except dormīō, sleep, dormītō; mūniō, fortify, mūnitō (rare); salīō, leap, saltō; apertō, lay bare, and opertō, cover, and compounds of ventō (veniō, come).

3. *Desideratives* indicate entrance upon an action. For their formation see 133, V.
by means of the suffix -turīō (-surīō): ēsurīre (for ed-t), to be sharp-set for eating, hungry; ēm-p-turīre, to be all agog for buying.

4. Causatives signify the Effecting of the Condition indicated by their original verb. They are found mainly in the Second Conjugation, and show usually a change in the stem-vowel.

Change: cadere, fall, and caedere, fell; liquēre, melt (trans.), and liquere, melt (intr.); from root men- (as in me-men-tō) comes monēre, remind; necēre, kill, and nocēre, be death to; placēre, please, and placēre, cause to be pleased, appease; sedēre, sit, and sēdēre, settle.

No change: fugere, flees, and fugāre, put to flight; iacere, throw, and iacēre, (lie) thrown; pendere (hang) weigh, and pendēre, hang (intr.).

5. Meditatives: (verbs that look forward to an action). These end in -essere: arcessere, to summon; capessere, to catch at; facessere, to do eagerly; incessere, to enter; lacessere, to irritate (136, 3, b).

192. B. Denominatives (derived from noun-stems):

1. These are most commonly found in the First Conjugation, even though the stem-vowel of the noun is i or u.

   (a) acervā-re, heap up (from acervo-s); aestuā-re, seethe (aestu-s); corōnā-re, wreathe (corōna); levā-re, lighten (lev-i-s); maculā-re, besmīrch (macula); nōminā-re, name (nōmen, nōmin-is); onerā-re, load (onus, oner-is).

   The Deponents signify Condition, Employment: ancillā-ri, be maid (ancilla); aquā-ri, be a drawer of water (aqua); fūrā-ri, thieve (fūr); laetā-ri, be glad (laetu-s).

   (b) albē-re, be white (albu-s); flōrē-re, be in bloom (fōs, fōris); frondē-re, be in leaf (frōns, frondi-s); lācé-re, be light (lāx, lāc-is).

   (c) arge-re (be bright, sharp), prove; laede-re, hurt; metu-re, be in fear (metu-s).

   (d) custōdi-re, guard (custōs, custōd-is); fini-re, end (fini-s); lēnī-re soften (lēni-s); vestī-re, clothe (vesti-s).

3. Noteworthy are the Diminutives formed by the suffix -illare: st-illāre, drop (st-illa); scint-illāre, sparkle (scintilla); osc-illāre, to swing (osc-illum). Similar in function but of different formation are pullulāre, sprout (pul-lus); fodiōre, punch (fodere, dig); albicāre, whiten (albu-s).

Notes.—1. The Denominatives of the First, Third, and Fourth Conjugations are regularly transitive, those of the Second Conjugation are regularly intransitive.

2. These verbs are often found only in combination with prepositions: ab-undāre, run over, abound (from unda, wave); ac-cūsāre, accuse (from causa, case); ex-ag-gerāre, pile up (from agger); ex-stirpāre, root out (stirp-s); il-lūmināre, illumine (from lūmen, lūmin-is).
B.—Compound Words.

I. FORMATION OF COMPOUND WORDS.

193. 1. By composition words are so put together that a new word is made with a signification of its own. The second word is regularly the fundamental word, the first the modifier.

Note.—Properly speaking, composition occurs only in the case of substantives, i.e., where two or more simple stems come together. In verbs, there is either juxtaposition, where the parts still retain their original force, or the combination of a verb with a preposition. Broadly speaking, however, composition applies to all combinations of words.

2. Composition is either proper or improper.

194. Substantive.

In Composition Improper there are either traces of construction or the first part is still inflected: s-normis = ex normā, out of all rule; légis-lātor, lawgiver; Senātūs-consultūm, decree of the Senate.

Many of these compounds have gradually become inflectional: délllus (dé-lūra), crazy from fear; ōgregius (ē-gege), distinguished (from the crowd); prōcōnsul (for prō cōnsul); trium-vir (from trium virum), etc.

Note.—From composition we must distinguish juxtaposition. So an article is brought into juxtaposition with a substantive, or a substantive with a substantive: ad-modum, to a degree, very; ob-viam, in the way, meeting; ûsusfructus, usu-fruct; Iūppiter, Father Jove. Noteworthy are the Copulative compounds; such are compound numerals like ūn-decim, duo-decim, etc., and occasional others: su-ove-taur-ilia, offerings of swine, sheep, and bulls.

195. Composition Proper.

1. The first part of the compound may be a particle, as ne-fār-iu-s, nefarious; vē-sānu-s, mad, out of one’s sound senses: or a substantive.

If it is a substantive—

(a) The stems in -a, -o, -u regularly weaken these vowels into -i before the consonants of the second part, which i may vanish: causidicus, pleader, lawyer (causa); signi-fer, standard-bearer (signu-m); corni-ger, horn-wearer (cornī); man-ceps (manu- and cap-), one who takes in hand, contractor. The i-stems retain i or drop it: igni-vomu-s, fire-vomiting (igni-s); nau-fragu-s, shipwrecked (nāvi-s).

(b) Vowel-stems drop their vowel before the vowel of the second part: māgn-animu-s, great-souled; ūn-animu-s, of one mind.

(c) Consonant-stems either drop their consonants or add i: homi-cid-a, manslayer (homin-); lapi-cid-a, stone-cutter (lapid-); mātr-i-cid-a, mother-murderer, matricide.

Note.—The first part is rarely, if ever, a verb. Apuleius uses the form pōsci-nummius.
FORMATION OF WORDS.

2. The second part of the composition is a noun: tri-enn-iu-m, space of three years (annus); miseri-cor-s, tender-hearted (cor).

When the second part ends in a vowel, it adapts itself, if an adjective, to changes of gender, as flāvi-comus, yellow-haired (coma, hair), but more often this final vowel becomes i and the adjective follows the third declension: tri-rēmi-s, trireme (rēmu-s, oar); ab-nōrmī-s, abnormal (nōrma, norm).

When the second part ends in a consonant, the last term usually undergoes no change: bi-dēn-s, two-pronged; simplex (sim-plec-s), simple.

Note.—From genus (G. generis), is formed dē-gener.

II. SIGNIFICATION OF COMPOUNDS.

196. Compound substantives and adjectives are divided according to their signification into two main classes: Determinative and Possessive.

In Determinative compounds one of the terms is subordinate to the other. They fall into two classes: Attributive or Appositional, and Dependent.

197. 1. Attributive compounds. The first part is the attribute of the second.

The first word is, (1) a substantive: ali-pēs, wing-foot(ed); (2) an adjective: māgn-animus, great-hearted; lāti-fundium, large estate; (3) a numeral: bi-enni-um (i.e., spatium), space of two years.

2. Dependent compounds. In these the second word is simply limited by the other, its signification not being altered.

(a) The first word is: (1) an adjective: merl-diēs (from medi-diē = mediō diē), mid-day; (2) an adverb: bene-ficus (well-doing), beneficent; male-ficus, evil-doing; (3) a numeral: ter-geminus, triple; (4) a particle: dis-sonus, harsh-sounding; per-māgnus, very large; in-dīgnus, unworthy; (5) a verb-stem: horr-i-ficus, horrible (horror-stirring).

(b) The first word gives a case relation, such as (1) the Accusative: armi-ger = arma gerēns, armour-bearer; agri-cola = agrum colēns (land-tiller), husbandman; (2) the Genitive: sōl-stitium = sōlis stātiō (sun-staying), solstice; (3) the Locative: aliēni-gena (born elsewhere), alien; (4) the Instrumental: tībi-cen = tībiā canēns, flute-player.

198. Possessive Compounds are adjectival only, and are so called because they imply the existence of a Subject possessing the quality indicated.

The first term is, (1) a substantive: angui-manus, (having a) snake-hand (elephant); (2) an adjective: flāvi-comus, (having) yellow hair; (3) a numeral: bi-frōns, (having) two front(s); (4) a particle: dis-cors, discordant; in-ers, inactive.
142
FORMATION OF WORDS.

Note.—Notice that these divisions run into each other; thus māgn-animus is possessive, attributive, and dependent.

199. Verb.

In Composition Improper the verb is joined to a verb, substantive, or adverb. In Composition Proper the verb is combined with a preposition.

200. 1. Composition Improper.

(a) Verb with verb: This only takes place when the second part of the compound is faciō or fīō (173, n. 2). The first part of the compound is regularly an intransitive of the second conjugation: cale-faciō, cale-

(b) Verb with substantive: anim-advertō = animum advertō, take notice; manū-mittō, set free; fūsū-capio, acquire by use.

(c) Verb with adverb: bene-dicō, bless; male-dicō, curse; mālo, nōlo (for mage (magis) volō, ne- volō), satis-faciō, satisfy.

2. Composition Proper.

The verb combines with separable or inseparable prepositions. Compare 413, r. 3.

(a) With inseparable prepositions: amb-eō, go about; am-plector, en-

(b) With separable prepositions: ab-eō, go away; ad-eō, come up; ante-currō, run in advance; com-pōnō, put together; de-currō, run down, finish a course; ex-eōdō, overstep; in-clūdō, shut in; ob-ducō, draw over; per-agrō, wander through; post-habeō, keep in the background; prae-dicō, foretell; praeter-eō, pass by; prōd-eō, go forth; prae-vidēō, foresee; sub-iciō, put under; subter-fugīō, flee from under; super-sum, remain over; trans-gredior, pass beyond.
201. *Syntax* treats of the formation and combination of sentences.

A sentence is the expression of a thought (*sententia*) in words.

Sentences are divided into *simple* and *compound*.

A simple sentence is one in which the necessary parts occur but once; for the compound sentence see 472.

The necessary parts of the sentence are *the subject* and *the predicate*.

The predicate is that which is said of the subject.

The subject is that of which the predicate is said.

*Lūna* *fulget*, *The moon shines*.

*Lūna* is the *subject*; *fulget*, the *predicate*.

**Remarks.**—1. The Interjection (16, r. 2) and the Vocative case (23, 5) stand outside the structure of the sentence, and therefore do not enter as elements into Syntax, except that the Vocative is subject to the laws of Concord. See r. 3.

2. The Vocative differs from the Nominative in form in the second declension only, and even there the Nominative is sometimes used instead, especially in poetry and solemn prose.

*Almae filius Māiae,* *H., O.,* i. 2, 43; *son of mild Maia!* *Audi tū,* *populus Albānus,* *L.,* i. 24, 7; *hear thou, people of Alba!*

*Ō* is prefixed to give emphasis to the address:

*Ō fôrmosē puer,* *nimium nē crēde colōrī,* *V., Ec.,* 2, 17; *O shapely boy! trust not complexion all too much.*

The Vocative is commonly interjected in prose, except in highly emotional passages.

3. On the use of the Vocative of an adjective or participle in apposition, attribution, or predication, see 289, 325, r. 1.

**Syntax of the Simple Sentence.**

202. The most simple form of the sentence is the finite verb: *su-m, I am*; *docē-s, thou teachest*; *scribi-t, he writes.*
REMARK.—Here the form contains in itself all the necessary elements (compare 114), the persons being indicated by the endings. From the expansion and modification of the finite verb arise all the complicated forms of the compound sentence.

203. SUBJECT.—The subject of the finite verb is always in the Nominative Case, or so considered.

REMARKS.—1. The subj. of the Inf. is in the Accusative (343, 2).
2. The use of the Nom. in Latin is the same as in English.

204. The subject may be a substantive or a pronoun, or some other word, phrase, or clause used as a substantive:

Deus mundum gubernat, God steers the universe. Ego régés Ætérnæ, [C.] ad Her., iv. 53, 66; I drove out kings. Sapiens rés adversás non timet, the sage does not fear adversity. Victi in servitūtem reducuntur, the vanquished are reduced to slavery. Contendisse decróm est, Ov., M., ix. 6; to have struggled is honourable. Māgnum beneficium [est] nātūræ quod necesse est morti, Sen., E.M., 101, 14; it is a great boon of nature, that we must needs die. Vides habet duas syllabas, (the word) "vides" has two syllables.

Notes.—1. Masculine and feminine adjectives, and to a less degree participles, are used as substantives, but with the following limitations:

(a) Many adjectives in -arius and -icus (the latter mostly Greek), designating office or occupation, and words expressing friendship, kinship, or other relationship, are used often as substantives both in the Sing. and the Pl. of the masculine and feminine: aquarius, waterman; librarior, bookman (seller, writer, etc.); grammaticus, grammarian; amicus, friend; cognatus, kinsman; socius, partner. Many of these have become almost wholly fixed as substantives, as amicus, friend. See 16, n. 1.

(b) Adjectives are very often used as substantives in the masc. Pl. when they designate a class: pauperēs, the poor; divites, the rich. In the oblique cases of the Sing., this use is also not uncommon; but in the Nom. the substantive is generally expressed: vir bonus, a good man; mulier peregrina, a foreign woman. So regularly, if used with a proper name: Plató, doctissimus homi, the learned Plato. Exceptions are rare and scattering in prose: ego et suavissimus Cicerò valēmus, C., Fam., xiv. 5, 1.

(c) On the use of participles as substantives see 437, n.

(d) When persons are not meant, a substantive is understood: cānī (capilli), gray hairs; calida (aqua), warm water; dextra (manus), right hand.

2. Neuter adjectives and participles are freely employed as substantives in both numbers; in the Pl. usually in Nom. and Acc., In the Sing. in all cases, but especially in connection with prepositions: medium, the midst; extrémum, the end; reliquom, the residue; futūrum, the future; bonum, good; bona, blessings, possessions; malum, evil; mala, misfortunes. The Plural is frequently employed when the English idiom prefers the Singular: vēru, the truth; omnia, everything.

3. Adjectives of the Second Declension are sometimes used as neuter substantives in the Gen., after words of quantity or pronouns: aliquid boni, something good; nihil mali, nothing bad. Adjectives of the Third Declension are thus employed only in combination with those of the Second, and even then very rarely (369, r. 1).

Usually the adjective of the Third Declension draws the adjective of the Second
into its own construction: Quid habet ista rēs aut laetā bile aut gloriōsum?
C., Tusc., 1. 21, 49; what is there to be glad of or to brag about in that?

4. Instead of the neuter adjective, the word rēs, thing, is frequently used, especially in forms which are identical for different genders, and consequently ambiguous; so bonārum rērum, of blessings, rather than bonōrum (masc. and neut.).

5. In Latin the Pl. of abstract substantives occurs more frequently than in English; adventūs imperātōrum, the arrival(s) of the generals (because there were several generals, or because they arrived at different times). Pluralising abstract substantives often makes them concrete: fortitūdīnēs, gallant actions; formīdinēs, bugbears; frāe, quarrels.

6. Other Pl. expressions to be noted are: nīvēs, snow-flakes; grandīnēs, hailstones; pluviae, (streams of) rain; ligna, (logs of) wood; carnēs, pieces of meat; aera, articles of bronze; also symmetrical parts of the human body: cervīcēs, neck; pectora, breast.

The Pl. is freely used in poetry and in later prose: Ótia si tollās, perierē Cupīdinīs arcūs, Ov., Rem. Am., 139; if you do away with holidays, Cupid’s bow (and arrows) are ruined.

7. The rhetorical Roman often uses the First Person Pl. for the First Person Singular. The usage originates in modesty, but mock modesty is the worst form of pomposity. It is never very common, and is not found before Cicero: Librum ad tē dē senectūte misimūs, C., Cat. M., 3; we (I) have sent you a treatise on old age.

In poetry there is often an element of shyness: Sītque memor nostri necne, refērte mihi, Ov., Tr., iv. 3, 10; bring me back (word) whether she thinks of us (me among others) or no.

8. (a) The Sing., in a collective sense, is also used for the Pl., but more rarely: faba, beans; porcus, pig (meat); gallina, fowl (as articles of food); vestis, clothing.
(b) The use of the Sing. in designations of nationalities and divisions of troops is introduced by Livy: Rōmānus, the Roman forces; Pōenus, the Carthaginians; hostis, the enemy; miles, the soldier; pedes, the infantry; eques, the cavalry.

205. Predicate and Copula.—When the predicate is not in the form of a verb, but in the form of an adjective or substantive, or equivalent, the so-called copula is generally employed, in order to couple the adjective or substantive with the subject.

The chief copula is the verb sum, I am.

Fortūna caeca est, C., Lael., 15, 54; fortune is blind. Ùsus magister est optimus, C., Rab. Post., 4, 9; practice is the best teacher.

Note.—Strictly speaking, the copula is itself a predicate, as is shown by the translation when it stands alone or with an adverb: est Deus, there is a God, God exists; rectē semper erunt rēs, things will always be (go on) well; sic vita humō ninum est, C., Rusc. Am., 30, 84; such is human life; “So runs the world away.”

206. Other copulative verbs are: vidēri, to seem; nāscī, to be born; fieri, to become; evādere, to turn out; creāri, to be created; deligī, to be chosen; putāri, to be thought; habēri, to be held; dici, to be said; appellāri, to be called; nomināri, to be named. Hence the rule:

Verbs of seeming, becoming, with the passive of verbs of
making, choosing, showing, thinking, and calling, take two Nominatives, one of the subject, one of the predicate:

Nēmō nāscitur dīves, Sen., E.M., 20, 13; no one is born rich. Aris-
tidēs iūstus adpellātur, Aristides is called just. [Servius] rēx est dēclā-
itus, L., i. 46, 1; Servius was declared king. [Thucydides] numquam est
numerusō rōrōr, C., O. 9, 31; Thucydides has never been accounted an
orator.

Remarks.—1. With esse, serve as; vidēri, seem; habēri, be held; dāci,
be deemed, and rarely with other verbs, instead of the Predicate Nom.,
a phrase may be employed, as: prō with Abl., (in) locō, in numerō, with
Gen., etc.

Audācia prō mūrō habētur, S., C., 58, 17; boldness is counted as a bul-
wark. In fillī locō, C., Red. in Sen., 14, 35; as a son.
2. The previous condition is given by ex or dē and the Abl. (396, n. 2).
Ex rōrōrē arātor factus, C., Ph., iii. 9, 22; a pleader turned plowman.
3. All copulative verbs retain the Nom. with the Inf. after auxiliary
verbs (423).

Beātus esse sine virtūte nēmō potest, C., N.D., 1. 18, 48; no one can be
happy without virtue.
4. On the Double Acc. after Active Verbs, see 340.

Notes.—1. The verbs mentioned, with some others, are found in good prose. Others
are either poetical or unclassical, thus: perhibēri, to be held, is early; appārēre, to
appear, is poetic and post-classical for vidēri; reddi is not used for fīeri; sisti, to be
set down, is Plautine: manēre, to remain, is late (permanēre once in Cicero).
2. Noteworthy is the use of audire, like the Greek ākouēi, to be called, which is
confined to Horace; rēxque paterque audīsti, Ep., 1. 7, 38; S., ii. 6, 20, just as
"hear" in this sense is said to be confined to Milton.

207. Subject Omitted.—The personal pronoun is not
expressed in classical prose, unless it is emphatic, as, for
example, in contrasts:

Amāmus parentēs, We love (our) parents. Ego rēgēs ēicēi, vōs tyrann-
nōs intrōdūcitis, [C.] ad Her., iv. 53, 66; I drove out kings, ye are bring-
ing in tyrants.

Note.—The insertion of the pronoun without emphasis is very common in the
comic poets, and seems to have been a colloquialism. Also common in Catullus, Sal-
lust (as an archaism), and Petronius.

208. Impersonal Verbs.—Impersonal Verbs are verbs in
which the agent is regularly implied in the action, the sub-
ject in the predicate, so that the person is not expressed.
Chief of these are:

1. Verbs pertaining to the state of the weather: tonat, it thunders,
the thunder thunders, or rather, the Thunderer thunders; fulget, fulgu-
rat (less common), fulminat (poet.), it lightens; pluit (poet.), it rains; ningit, it snows, etc.

Nocte pluit tota, V. (Poet. Lat. Min., iv. 155, B.) ; all night it (he, Jupiter) rains.

Nota.—The divine agent is sometimes expressed; so, naturally, in religious or popular language: Iove tonante, fulgurante, C., Div., ii. 18, 43; Iove ful gente, C., N. D., ii. 25, 65.

2. The passive of intransitive verbs is often used impersonally; so regularly of verbs which in the active are construed with the Dat. (217): vivitur, people live; currir, there is a running; pugnatur, there is a battle; mihi invidet, I am envied. The subject is contained in the verb itself: sic vivitur = sic vita vivitur, such is life; pugnatur = pugna pugnatur, a battle is (being) fought. In the same way explain taedet, it wears; miseret, it moves to pity; piget, it disgusts; pudet, it puts to shame.

Notes.—1. With all other so-called Impersonal Verbs an Inf. (422, 533) or an equivalent (553) is conceived as a subject: Non labet mihi deplorare vitam, C., Cat. M., 23, 84. Sed accidit perincommode quod eum nusquam vidisti, C., Att., i. 17, 2.

2. Other uses coincide with the English. So the Third Person Pl. of verbs of Saying, Thinking, and Calling. Also the ideal Second Person Singular (253). To be noticed is the occasional use of inquit, quoth he, of an imaginary person, but not by Caesar, Sallust, or Tacitus: Non concedo, inquit, Epicurus, C., Ac., ii. 32, 101; I do not yield the point, quoth he (one), to Epicurus.

209. Copula Omitted.—Est or sunt is often omitted in saws and proverbs, in short statements and questions, in rapid changes, in conditional clauses, and in tenses compounded with participles:

Summum fūs summa iniuria, C., Off., i. 10, 33; the height of right (is) the height of wrong. Nemo malus felix, Juv., iv. 8; no bad man (is) happy. Quid dulcius quam habère quàcum omnia audeás loqui? C., Lael., 7, 22; what sweeter than to have some one with whom you can venture to talk about everything? Sed hæc vetera; illud vérō recens, C., Ph., ii. 11, 25. Aliquandì certátum, S., Ig., 74, 3. Cær hostis Spartacus, si tū civis? C., Parad., 4, 30.

So also esse, with participles and the like:

Caesar statuit exspectandam clásem, Caes., B. G., iii. 14, 1; Caesar resolved that the fleet must be waited for.

Notes.—1. The omission of esse is not common with the Nom. and Infinitive.

2. Popular speech omits freely; so, mirum ni, mirum quin, factum, in Latin comedy; likewise potis and pote for forms of posse. To a like origin are due mirum quantum, nimium quantum, etc., found at all periods.

3. The ellipsis of other forms of the copula is unusual. Thus Cicero occasionally omits sit in the Indirect Question, and Tacitus other forms of the Subjv. besides. Fuisse is omitted by Livy, and not unfrequently by Tacitus.

4. The Ellipsis of esse was sometimes due to the desire of avoiding the heaping up
of Infinitives. Thus sentences like non dubitō te esse sapientem dicere (to declare you to be wise) were regularly cut down to non dubitō te sapientem dicere (to declare you wise).

5. The ellipsis of other verbs, such as facere, ire, venire, dicere, etc., is characteristic of popular speech; it is therefore not uncommon in Cicero's letters (ad Att.), in Pliny's letters, and in works involving dialogue, such as Cicero's philosophical writings. The historians avoid it, and it never occurs in Caesar and Velleius.

CONCORD.

210. The Three Concord.—There are three great concords in Latin:

1. The agreement of the predicate with the subject (211).
2. The agreement of attributive or appositive with the substantive (285, 321).
3. The agreement of the relative with antecedent (614).

211. Agreement of the Predicate with the Subject.

The verbal predicate agrees with its subject in number and person.

The adjective predicate agrees with its subject in number, gender, and case.

The substantive predicate agrees with its subject in case.

Substantīva mōbilia (21, 2) are treated as adjectives, and follow the number and gender of the subject.

Ego rēgēs séci, vēs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, [C.] ad Her., iv. 53, 66 (207). Vērāe amicitiae sempiternae sunt, C., Lael., 9, 32; true friendships are abiding. Dōs est decem talenta, Ter., And., 950; the dowry is ten talents. Úsus magister est optimus, C., Rab. Post., 4, 9 (205). Arx est monosyllabum, "Arx" is a monosyllable. Compare Ignis cōnsectōr est et cōnsūmptor omnium, C., N.D., ii. 15, 41; fire is the doer-up (destroyer) and eater-up (consumer) of everything, with cōnsectrix rērum omnium vetustās, C., Frag.

Remarks.—1. The violation of the rules of agreement is due chiefly to one of two causes; either the natural relation is preferred to the artificial (cōnstrūctīō ad sēnum, per synēsin, according to the sense), or the nearer is preferred to the more remote. Hence the following

Exceptions.—(a) Substantives of multitude often take the predicate in the Plural: pars, part; vis (power), quantity; multītūdō, crowd; organized bodies more rarely. Also, but not often, such words as quisque, uterque, nēmō, etc.

Pars māior recēperant sēsē, L., xxxiv. 47, 6; the greater part had retired. Omnis multītūdō abeunt, L., xxiv. 3, 15; all the crowd depart.
Magna vis eminus missa telorum multa nostris vulnera inferabant, Caes., B.C., ii. 6, 5. Uterque eorum ex castris exercitum educunt, Caes., B.C., iii. 30, 3.

Note.—This usage is very common in comedy, but extremely rare in model prose. Livy shows a greater variety and a larger number of substantives than any other author, and poets and late prose writers are free. Yet Horace uses regularly the Sing. with a collective, while Vergil varies, often employing first a Sing. and then a Pl. verb with the same substantive (as A., ii. 64). Tacitus often uses quisque with a Plural.

(b) The adjective predicate often follows the natural gender of the subject; so especially with milia. This usage belongs pre-eminenty to the historians.

Capita confuratiis virgis caesi (sunt), L., x. i, 3; the heads of the conspiracy were flogged. Samnitiium caesi tria milia, Cf. L., x. 34, 3; of the Samnites (there) were slain three thousand.

The passive verb often agrees in gender with the predicate: Non omnis erro stultitia dicenda est, C., Div., ii. 43, 90; not every false step is to be called folly.

(c) The copula often agrees with the number of the predicate ("the wages of sin is death"): Amantium iuae (204, n. 5) amoris integrati est, Ter., And., 555; lovers' quarrels are love's renewal.

2. A superlative adjective defined by a Partitive Gen. follows the gender of the subj. when it precedes:

Indus, qui est omnium fluminun maximus, C., N.D., ii. 52, 130; the Indus, which is the greatest of all rivers.

Otherwise it follows the Genitive; but this usage is post-classic: VelCALLISSimum omnium animalium est delphinus, Plin., N.H., ix. 8, 20; the dolphin is the swiftest of all animals.

3. The Voc. is sometimes used by the poets in the predicate, either by anticipation or by assimilation. (See 325, r. i.)

4. The neuter adjective is often used as the substantive predicate of a masculine or feminine subject:

Triste lupus stabulis, V., Ec., 3, 80; the wolf is a baleful thing to the folds. Varium et mutabile semper femina, V., A., iv. 569; "a thing of moods and fancies" is woman ever.

This construction is poetical; in Cicero it is used with a few words only; such as extrimum, commune:

Omnium rerum (204, n. 4) mors [est] extrimum, Cf. C., Fam., vi. 21, 1; death is the end of all things.

5. The demonstrative pronoun is commonly attracted into the gender of the predicate:

Negat Epicurus; hoc enim vostrum lumum est, C., Fin., ii. 22, 70; Epicurus says No; for he is your great light. Ea non media sed nulla via est, L., xxxii., 21, 33; that is not a middle course, but no course at all.
But in negative sentences, and when the pronoun is the predicate, there is no change. So in definitions:


Exceptions are but apparent. C., O., ii. 38, 157.

6. The adjective predicate sometimes agrees with a substantive in apposition to the subject. So especially when the appositive is oppidum, civitas, and the like:

Corioli oppidum captum [est], L., ii. 33, 9; Corioli-town was taken. Corinth, totius Graeciae lumen, exstinctum esse voluérunt, C., Imp., 5, 11; they would have Corinth, the eye of all Greece, put out.

Notes.—1. Peculiar is the occasional use of the Fut. participle in -ūrum for feminines in early Latin: Alterō (gladiō) té occisūrum ait (Casina), alterō vulicium. Pl., Cas., 633. So Truc., 400.

2. Age is often used in early Latin as if it were an adverb, with the Plural; occasionally also cavē: Age modo fabricāmini. Pl., Cas., 428.

Akin is the use of a Voc. Sing. with a Pl. verb, which is occasionally found in classical prose also: Tum Scævola; quid est, Cotta? inquit, quid tacētis? C., O., i. 35, 160.

The use of alīquis, some one of you, in this way is early: Aperīte alīquis actūtum ēstium, Ter., Ad., 634.

3. Other less usual constructions ad sēnsum are: the use of a neuter demonstrative where a substantive of a different gender is expected, and the construction of rēs as if it were neuter (both found also in Cicero); the neuter Singular summing up a preceding Plural:

In Graecīā múscī florūrunt, discēbantque id (that [accomplishment]) omnēs, C., Tusc., 1. 2. 4. Servitīa repudiābat, cūius (of which [class]) inītiō ad eum mágnæ cōpiae concurrebant, S., C., 56, 5. See also C., Div., ii. 57, 117.

Forms of the Verbal Predicate.

VOICES OF THE VERB.

212. There are two Voices in Latin—Active and Passive.

Remark.—The Latin Passive corresponds to the Greek Middle, and, like the Greek Middle, may be explained in many of its uses as a Reflexive.

213. Active.—The Active Voice denotes that the action proceeds from the subject. Verbs used in the Active Voice fall into two classes, as follows:

Verbs are called Transitive when their action goes over to an object (transseō, I go over); Intransitive when their action does not go beyond the subject: occidere, to fell = to kill (Transitive); occidere, to fall (Intransitive).
Remark. —Properly speaking, a Transitive Verb in Latin is one that forms a personal passive, but the traditional division given above has its convenience, though it does not rest upon a difference of nature, and a verb may be trans. or intrans. according to its use. So

(a) Transitive verbs are often used intransitively, in which case they serve simply to characterize the agent. This is true especially of verbs of movement; as déclínare, inclinare, movère, mutare, vertere, and the like, and is found at all periods.

(b) On the other hand, many intrans. verbs are often used transitively. This occurs also at all periods, but the Acc. is usually the inner object (332).

(c) On the use of the Inf. active, where English uses the passive, see 532, n. 2.

214. Passive.—The Passive Voice denotes that the subject receives the action of the verb.

The instrument is put in the Ablative.

Virgís caedētur, C., Verr., iii. 28, 69; he shall be beaten with rods.

[Ignis] lúmine prōditur suō, Ov., Her., 15, 8; the fire is betrayed by its own light.

The agent is put in the Ablative with ab (ā).

Ab amicís prōdimur, C., Cluent., 52, 143; we are betrayed by friends.

Virgís caesi tribūnī ab légātō sunt, L., xxix. 18, 18; the tribunes were beaten with rods by the lieutenant.

Remarks.—1. Intrans. verbs of passive signification are construed as passives: famē perire, C., Inv., ii. 57, 172, to perish of hunger. So vēnire, to be sold; vāpulāre (chiefly vulgar), to be beaten, ab aliquō, by some one.

Ab reō fūstitibus [vāpulāvit], Cf. Quint., ix. 2, 12; he was whacked with cudgels by the defendant. Salvēbis & meō Cicerōne, C., Att., vi. 2, 10; fare you to me from Cicero.

2. When the instrument is considered as an agent, or the agent as an instrument, the constructions are reversed:

Vincī ad Voluptāte, C., Off., i. 20, 68; to be overcome by Dame Pleasure.

Patriciis iuvenibus saesperant latera, L., iii. 37, 6; they had flanked him with a guard of patrician youths.

The latter construction is very rare in Cicero, and seems to belong pre-eminently to the historians.

Animals, as independent agents, are treated like persons.

Å cane nōn māgnō saepe tenētur aper, Ov., Rem. Am., 422; a boar is often held fast by a little dog.

Animals, as instruments, are treated like things.

Compare equō vehi, to ride a horse (to be borne by a horse), with in equō, on horseback.
215. The person in whose interest an action is done is put in the Dative. Hence the frequent inference that the person interested is the agent. See 354.

1. With the Perfect passive it is the natural inference, and common in prose.

Mihī res tônā prōvīsa est, C., Verr., iv. 42, 91; I have had the whole thing provided for. Carmina nūlla mihi sunt scripta, Ov., Tr., v. 12, 35; poems—I have none written (I have written no poems).

2. With the Gerundive it is the necessary inference, and the Dative is the reigning combination.

Nihil [est] hominī tam timendum quam invidia, C., Cluent., 3, 7; there is nothing that one has to fear to the same extent as envy.

216. The Direct Object of the Active Verb (the Accusative Case) becomes the Subject of the Passive.

Alexander Dārēum vīcit, Alexander conquered Darius.

Dārēus ab Alexandrō vīctus est, Darius was conquered by Alexander.

217. The Indirect Object of the Active Verb (Dative Case) cannot be properly used as the Subject of the Passive. The Dative remains unchanged, and the verb becomes a Passive in the Third Person Singular (Impersonal Verb). This Passive form may have a neuter subject corresponding to the Inner object (333, 1).

Active: Misērī invident bonīs, The wretched envy the well-to-do.
Passive: mihi invidētur, I am envied,
        tībi invidētur, thou art envied,
        eī invidētur, he is envied,
        nōbīs invidētur, we are envied,
        vōbīs invidētur, you are envied,
        īsīs invidētur, they are envied,  
        ab alīquō, by some one.

Nihil facile persuādētur invītīs, QUINT., iv. 3, 10; people are not easily persuaded of anything against their will. Anūlis nostrīs plīs quam animīs crēditur, Sen., Ben., iii. 15, 3; our seals are more trusted than our souls

REMARKS.—1. In like manner a Gen. or Abl. in dependence upon an active verb cannot be made the subj. of the passive.

2. On the exceptional usage of personal Gerundives from intrans. verbs see 427, n. 5.

NOTES.—1. The poets and later prose writers sometimes violate the rule, under Greek influence or in imitation of early usage: Cūr invideor? (for cūr invidētur mihi?). H., A. P., 56; vix equidem crēdar, Ov., Tr., iii. 10, 35; persuāsus vidētur
218. Reflexive.—Reflexive relations, when emphatic, are expressed as in English:

Omne animal sē ipsum diligit, C., Fin., v. 9, 24, Every living creature loves itself.

But when the reflexive relation is more general, the passive (middle) is employed: labor, I bathe, I bathe myself.

Pūrgāri [nequīvērunt], Cf. L., xxiv. 18, 4; they could not clear themselves. Cum in mentem vēnit, pōnor ad scribendum, C., Fam., ix. 15, 4; when the notion strikes me I set myself to writing.

Note.—Some of these verbs approach the deponents, in that the reflexive meaning of the passive extends also to some active forms; thus, from vehor, I ride, we get the form vehēns, riding (rare): Adulēscētiam per mediās laudēs quasi quadrīgīts vehentem, C., Br., 97, 331.

219. As the active is often used to express what the subject suffers or causes to be done, so the passive in its reflexive (middle) sense is often used to express an action which the subject suffers or causes to be done to itself: trahor, I let myself be dragged; tondeor, I have myself shaved.

Duōs Mysōs [Insuisti] in cūlēum, Cf. C., Q.F., i. 2, 2, 5; you sewed two Mysians into a sack (had them sewn). Sīne gemītūd adūruntur, C., Tusc., v. 27, 77; they let themselves be burned without a moan. Diruit, aedificat, H., Ep., i. 1, 100; he is pulling down, he is building. Ipse docet quid agam; fās est et ab hoste docēri, Ov., M., iv. 428; he himself teaches (me) what to do; it is (but) right to let oneself be taught even by an enemy (to take a lesson from a foe).

220. Deponent.—The Deponent is a passive form which has lost, in most instances, its passive (or reflexive) significance. It is commonly translated as a transitive or intransitive active: hortor, I am exhorting (trans.); morior, I am dying (intrans.).

Notes.—1. A number of intrans. verbs show also a Perfect Part. passive used actively; not, however, in classical prose combined with esse to take the place of the regular Perfect. On the use of such participles as substantives, see 167, n. r.

Quīd causae exōgitāri potest, cur tē launtum voluerit, cēnātum nōlerit occidere? C., Det., 7, 30.

2. Many verbs show both active and deponent forms side by side. In this case the active forms belong more often to early authors. See 163-167.
221. Reciprocal.—Reciprocal relations ("one another") are expressed by **inter**, **among**, and the personal pronouns, **nōs**, **us**; **vōs**, **you**; **sē**, **themselves**. **Inter sē amant**, *They love one another*.

Remarks.—1. Combinations of **alter alterum**, **alīus alīum**, **utereque alterum**, and the like, also often give the reciprocal relation: sometimes there is a redundancy of expression.

Placet Stōicis hominēs hominum causā esse generātōs, ut ipsis inter sē alīs alīs prōdesse possent, C., Off., i. 7, 22; it is a tenet of the Stoics that men are brought into the world for the sake of men, to be a blessing to one another.

2. Later writers use **invicem** or **mutuo**, **inter sē**, **vicissim**; and early Latin shows occasionally **uterque utrumque**. Quae omnia hunc spectant, ut invicem ārdentius dīligāmus, Plin., Ep., vii. 20, 7; all these things look to our loving one another more fervently.

Uterque utrīquest cordī, Ter., Ph., 800; either is dear to other.

**TENSES.**

222. The Tenses express the relations of time, embracing:

1. The stage of the action (duration in time).
2. The period of the action (position in time).

The first tells whether the action is **going on**, or **finished**.

The second tells whether the action is **past**, **present**, or **future**.

Both these sets of relations are expressed by the tenses of the Indicative or Declarative mood—less clearly by the Subjunctive.

223. There are six tenses in Latin:

1. The **Present**, denoting **continuance** in the present.
2. The **Future**, denoting **continuance** in the future.
3. The **Imperfect**, denoting **continuance** in the past.
4. The **Perfect**, denoting **completion** in the present.
5. The **Future Perfect**, denoting **completion** in the future.
6. The **Pluperfect**, denoting **completion** in the past.

224. An action may further be regarded simply as **attained**, without reference to its **continuance** or **completion**. **Continuance** and **completion** require a point of reference for definition; **attainment** does not. This gives rise to the aoristic or **indefinite** stage of the action, which has no especial tense-
form. It is expressed by the Present tense for the present; by the Future and Future Perfect tenses for the future; and by the Perfect tense for the past.

Of especial importance are the Indefinite or Historical Present and the Indefinite or Historical Perfect (Aorist), which differ materially in syntax from the Definite or Pure Present and Perfect.

225. The Tenses are divided into Principal and Historical. The Principal Tenses have to do with the Present and Future. The Historical Tenses have to do with the Past.

The Present, Pure Perfect, Future, and Future Perfect are Principal Tenses.

The Historical Present, Imperfect, Pluperfect, and Historical Perfect are Historical Tenses.

The Historical Tenses are well embodied in the following distich:
Tālia tentābat, sic et tentāverat ante,
Vixque dēdit vīctās uītilitāte manūs. Ov., Tr., i. 3, 87.

226. Table of Temporal Relations.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

ACTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Active Continuance</th>
<th>Active Completion</th>
<th>Active Attainment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>scribō</td>
<td>scripsī</td>
<td>scribō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am writing</td>
<td>I have written</td>
<td>I write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>scribām</td>
<td>scripsērō</td>
<td>scribām (scripserō)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I shall be writing</td>
<td>I shall have written</td>
<td>I shall write.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past.</td>
<td>scribēbam</td>
<td>scripsēram</td>
<td>scripsī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I was writing</td>
<td>I had written</td>
<td>I wrote</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PASSIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Passive Continuance</th>
<th>Passive Completion</th>
<th>Passive Attainment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>scribitur (epistula)</td>
<td>scripta est</td>
<td>scribitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The letter is written</td>
<td>has been written,</td>
<td>is written.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(writing)</td>
<td>is written.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>scribētur</td>
<td>scripta erit</td>
<td>scribētur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The letter will be written</td>
<td>will have been,</td>
<td>will be written.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(writing)</td>
<td>written (writing).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past.</td>
<td>scribēbētur</td>
<td>scripta erat</td>
<td>scripta est</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The letter was written (writing)</td>
<td>had been written,</td>
<td>was written.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>was written.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PRESENT TENSE.

Remark.—The English passive is ambiguous. The same form is currently used for continuance, attainment, and completion. The context alone can decide. A convenient test is the substitution of the active.

Continuance, Some one was writing a letter.
A letter was written :
Completion, Some one had written a letter.
Attainment, Some one wrote a letter.

Present Tense.

227. The Present Tense is used as in English of that which is going on now (Specific Present), and of statements that apply to all time (Universal Present).
Specific Present :

Auribus teneō lupum, Ter., Ph., 506 ; I am holding a wolf by the ears.

Universal Present :

Probitās laudātur et alget, Juv., i. 74 ; honesty is bepraised and freezes.
Dulce et decorum est prō patriā morī, H., O., iii. 2, 13 ; sweet and seemly 'tis to die for fatherland.

So regularly of the quoted views of authors, the inscriptions of books, etc.:

Dē iuvenum amore scribit Alcaeus, C., Tusc., iv. 33, 71 ; Alcaeus writes concerning the love of youths.

Notes.—1. The Specific Pr. is often to be translated by the English Progressive Present. The Universal Pr. is Aoristic, true at any point of time.
2. As continuance involves the notion of incompleteness the Pr. (see 223) is used of attempted and intended action (Present of Endeavor). But on account of the double use of the Pr. this signification is less prominent and less important than in the Impf. Do not mistake the Endeavor which lies in the verb for the Endeavor which lies in the tense.

Periculum vitant, C., Rosc. Am., i. 1 ; they are trying to avoid danger. In the example sometimes cited : Quintus frāter Tūsculānum vēnditāt, C., Att., i. 14, 7; Brother Quintus is “trying to sell” his Tuscanian villa; vēnditātēr itself means to offer for sale. Translate : intends to offer for sale, if the notion lies in the Tense.
3. The Pr. when used with a negative often denotes Resistance to Pressure (223) ; this is, however, colloquial : Tacē: nōn taceō, Pl., Cos., 826 ; keep quiet! I won’t.
4. The ambiguity of our English passive often suggests other translations. Use and Wont make Law; hence the frequent inference that what is done is what ought to be done; what is not done is not to be done: (Deus) nec bene prōmeritis capitur, nec tangitur ira, Lucr., ii. 651 ; God is not to be inveigled by good service, nor touched by anger.

228. The Present Tense is used more rarely than in English in anticipation of the future, chiefly in compound sentences :

Si vincimus, omnia tāta erunt, S., C., 58, 9 ; if we conquer (= shall conquer) everything will be safe. Antequam ad sententiam redeō dē mē paucā dicam, C., Cat., iv. 10, 30 ; before I return to the subject, I will
say a few things of myself. Exspectābō dum venit, Ter., Eun., 206; I will wait all the time that he is coming, or, until he comes.

Notes.—1. This construction is archaic and familiar. It is very common in the Comic Poets, very rare in Cicero and Caesar, but more common later. Some usages have become phraseological, as sī vivō, if I live, as I live.
2. On the Pr. Indic. for the Deliberative Subjv., see 254, n. 2.

229. The Present Tense is used far more frequently than in English, as a lively representation of the past (Historical Present):

Cohortis incēdere iubet, S., C., 60, 1; he orders the cohorts to advance. Mātūrat proficīscī, Caes., B. G., i. 7, 1; he hastens to depart.

Remark.—Dum, while (yet), commonly takes a Pr., which is usually referred to this head. Dum, so long as, follows the ordinary law, 571, ff.

Dum haec in colloquī geruntur, Caesarī nūntiātum est, Caes., B. G., i. 46, 1; while these things were transacting in the conference, word was brought to Caesar.

230. The Present is used in Latin of actions that are continued into the present, especially with iam, now; iam diū, now for a long time; iam pridem, now long since. In English we often translate by a Progressive Perfect.

(Mithridātēs) annum iam tertium et vīcesimum rēgnat, C., Imp., 3, 7; Mithridates has been reigning now going on twenty-three years. Libērāre vōs ā Philippō iam diū magis vultis quam audētis, L., XXXII. 21, 36; you have this long time had the wish rather than (= though not) the courage to deliver yourselves from Philip.

"How does your honor for this many a day?" Shak., Ham., iii. i, 91.

Notes.—1. The Pr. sometimes gives the resulting condition:

Qui mortem nōn timet, māgnum is sībī præsidium ad beātam vitam comparat, C., Tuscul., ii. i, 2; he who fears not death gets for himself great warrant for a happy life. (Dicunt) vincere (= victōrem esse) bellō Rōmānum, L., ii. 7, 2.

2. More free is this usage in the poets, sometimes under Greek influence:

Auctōre Phoebō gignor (γίγνομαι = γίνομαι; hand generis pudet. Sen., Ag., 295.

Vergil is especially prone to use a Pr. after a Past, denoting by the Past the cause, by the Pr. the effect: Postquam altum tenuère ratēs nec iam amplius ūllae adpārent terrae, A., iii. 192.

Imperfect Tense.

231. The Imperfect Tense denotes continuance in the past: pūgnābam, I was fighting.

The Imperfect is employed to represent manners, customs, situations; to describe and to particularise. A good example is Ter., And., 74 ff.
The Imperfect and the Historical Perfect serve to illustrate one another. The Imperfect dwells on the process; the Historical Perfect states the result. The Imperfect counts out the items; the Historical Perfect gives the sum. A good example is Nep., II. 1, 3.

232. The two tenses are often so combined that the general statement is given by the Historical Perfect, the particulars of the action by the Imperfect:

(Verres) in forum vénit; ardēbant oculi; tōtō ex ore crudelitās ēminebat, C., Verr., v. 62, 161; Verres came into the forum, his eyes were blazing, cruelty was standing out from his whole countenance.

233. The Imperfect is used of attempted and interrupted, intended and expected actions (Imperfect of Endeavor). It is the Tense of Disappointment and (with the negative) of Resistance to Pressure. (Mere negation is regularly Perfect.)

Cūriām relinquēbat, Tac., Ann., II. 34, 1; he was for leaving the senate-house. [Lex] abrogābātur, Cf. L., XXXIV. 1, 7; the law was to be abrogated. Simul ostendēbātur (an attempt was made to show) quōmodo cōnstitūtiōnem reperīrī oportēret, [C.] ad Her., II. 1, 2. Dicebat (positive) melius quam scripsit (negative) Hortēnius, C., Or., 38, 132; Hortensius spoke better than he wrote. Aditum nōn dabat, Nep., IV. 3, 3; he would not grant access (dedit, did not). See also Mart., XI. 105.

Notes.—1. The Impf. as the Tense of Evolution is a Tense of Vision. But in English, Impf. and Hist. Pf. coincide; hence the various translations to put the reader in the place of the spectator.

2. The continuance is in the mind of the narrator; it has nothing to do with the absolute duration of the action. The mind may dwell on a rapid action or hurry over a slow one. With definite numbers, however large, the Hist. Pf. must be used, unless there is a notion of continuance into another stage (overlapping).

(Gorgiās) centum et novem vixit annōs, Quint., III. 1, 9; Gorgias lived one hundred and nine years. Biennium ibi perpetuōm misera illum tui, Ter., Hec., 87; I bore him there—poor me!—for two long years together.

3. As the Tense of Disappointment, the Impf. is occasionally used, as in Greek, to express a startling appreciation of the real state of things (Imperfect of Awakening). Greek influence is not unlikely.

Tū aderās, Ter., Ph., 838; (so it turns out that) you were here (all the time). Peream male si nōn optimum erat, H., S., II. 1, 6; perdition catch me if that was not the best course (after all).

Hence the modal use of débēbam and poteram (254, r. 2).

234. The Imperfect is used as the English Pluperfect, which often takes a progressive translation; especially with iam, iam dīn, iam dūdum.
PERFECT TENSE.

IAM dūdum tibi adversābar, Pl., Men., 420; I had long been opposing you. (Archias) domicilium Rōmæ multōs iam annōs [habēbat], Cf. C., Arch., 4, 7; Archias had been domiciled at Rome now these many years.

Remark.—As the Hist. Pr. is used in lively narrative, so the Hist. Inf. is used in lively description, parallel with the Imperfect (647).

Perfect Tense.

The Perfect Tense has two distinct uses:


1. PURE PERFECT.

235. The Pure Perfect Tense expresses completion in the Present, and hence is sometimes called the Present Perfect.

1. The Pure Perfect differs from the Historical Perfect, in that the Pure Perfect gives from the point of view of the Present an instantaneous view of the development of an action from its origin in the Past to its completion in the Present, that is, it looks at both ends of an action, and the time between is regarded as a Present. The Historical Perfect obliterates the intervening time and contracts beginning and end into one point in the Past.

2. An intermediate usage is that in which the Perfect denotes an action in the Past (Historical), whose effect is still in force (Pure).

236. Accordingly, the Perfect is used:

1. Of an action that is now over and gone.

Viximus, C., Fam., xiv. 4, 5; we have lived (life for us has been). Filium unicum habeō, Immo habuī, Ter., Heaut., 94; I have an only son—nay, have had an only son. Tempora quid faciunt: hanc volo, tē voluī, Mart., vi. 40, 4; what difference times make! (Time is) I want her, (Time has been) I wanted you.

2. Far more frequently of the present result of a more remote action (resulting condition):

Equum et mūlum Brundisī tibi reliquī, C., Fam., xvi. 9, 3; I have left a horse and mule for you at Brundusium—(they are still there). Perdidi spem quā mē oblectābam, Pl., Rud., 222; I've lost the hope with which I entertained myself. Actumst, peristi, Ter., Eun., 54; it is all over; you're undone.

Remark.—The Pure Pf. is often translated by the English Present: nōvi, I have become acquainted with, I know; memini, I have recalled, I remember; ōdi, I have conceived a hatred of, I hate; consuevi, I have made it a rule, I am accustomed, etc.
HISTORICAL PERFECT.

237. As the Present stands for the Future, so the Perfect stands for the Future Perfect.

(Brūtus) si cōnservātus erit, vicimus, C., Fam., xii. 6, 2; Brutus!—if he is saved, we are victorious, we (shall) have gained the victory.

238. Habeō or teneō, I hold, I have, with the Accusative of the Perfect Participle Passive, is not a mere circumlocution for the Perfect, but lays peculiar stress on the maintenance of the result.

Habeō statūtum, Cf. C., Verr., iii. 41, 95; I have resolved, and hold to my resolution. Perspectum habeō, Cf. C., Fam., iii. 10, 7; I have perceived, and I have full insight. Excūsātum habeās me rogo, ēno domi, Mart., ii. 79, 2; I pray you have me excused, I dine at home.

2. HISTORICAL PERFECT.

239. The Historical or Indefinite Perfect (Aorist) states a past action, without reference to its duration, simply as a thing attained.

Milō domum vēnit, calcēs et vestimenta mūtāvit, paulīisper commorātus est, C., Mil., io, 28; Milo came home, changed shoes and garments, tarried a little while. (Gorgiās) centum et novem vīxit annōs, Quint., iii. i, 9 (233, n. 2). Vēni, vīdi, vīcī, Suet., Iul., 37; I came, saw, overcame.

Note.—The Pf., as the “short hand” for the Pluperfect, is mainly post-Ciceronian, but begins with Caesar. It is never common: superiōribus diēbus nōna Caesaris legiō castra eō locō posuit, Caes., B. C., iii. 66, 2.

240. The Historical Perfect is the great narrative tense of the Latin language, and is best studied in long connected passages, and by careful comparison with the Imperfect. See C., Off., iii. 27, 100; Tusc., i. 2, 4.
Pluperfect Tense.

241. The Pluperfect denotes *Completion in the Past*, and is used of an action that was completed before another was begun. It is, so to speak, the Perfect of the Imperfect. Hence it is used:

1. Of an action *just concluded* in the past.

&Modo Caesarem re\'gnantem videramus, C., Ph., ii. 42, 108; we had just seen Caesar on the throne.

2. Of an action that was *over and gone*.

&Fuerat inimicus, C., Red. in Sen., i0, 26; he had been my enemy.

3. Of a *resulting condition* in the past.

&Masse\'illenses port\'\'as Caesar\'s cluserant, CAES., B.C., i. 34, 4; the Marseilles had shut their gates against Caesar. (Their gates were shut.)

REMARK. — When the Pf. of Resulting Condition is translated by an English Pr. (236, 2, R.), the Plupf. is translated by an English Imperfect: n\'overam, I had become acquainted with, I knew; memineram, I remembered; \'oderam, I hated; consue\'veram, I was accustomed, etc.

NOTES. — 1. Not unfrequently in early Latin, rarely in classical prose, but more often in the poets, the Plupf. seems to be used as an Aorist; so very often dixerat: Nil equidem tibi abstuli. EV. At illud quod tibi abstuleras cedo, PL., Aut., 635. Non sum ego qui fueram, Prop., i. 12, 11. See Ov., Tr., iii. 11, 25.

2. The Periphrastic Plupf. with habe\'o corresponds to the Perfect (239). It is rare, and shows two forms, one with the Imperfect and one with the Plupf., the latter being post-classical.

Equitatum, quem ex om\'ni provinci\'a co\'aetum hab\'ebat, praemittit, CAES., B.G., i. 15, 1. Mult\'orum aur\'es illa lingua attonitas habuerat, Val. M., iii. 3.

Future Tense.

242. The Future Tense denotes *Continuance in the Future*: scribam, I shall be writing.

The Future Tense is also used to express indefinite action in the Future: scribam, I shall write.

REMARKS. — 1. In subordinate clauses the Latin language is more exact than the English in the expression of future relations.

&Donec eris felix, mult\'os numer\'ab\'is am\'ico\'s, Ov., Tr., i. 9, 5; so long as you shall be (are) happy, you will count many friends.

2. Observe especially the verbs vol\'o, I will, and possum, I can.

\'Odero si poter\'o; si non, invitus am\'abo, Ov., Am., iii. 11, 35; I will hate if I shall be able (can); if not, I shall love against my will. Qui
adipisci veram gloriam volet, iustitiae fungatūr officis, C., Off., ii. 15, 43; whoso shall wish to obtain true glory, let him discharge the calls of justice.

3. The Fut. is often used in conclusions, especially in Cicero:
Sunt illa sapientis; aberit igitur a sapiente aegritudō, C., Tusc., iii. 8, 18.

Notes.—1. The Fut. is used sometimes as a gnomic (236, n.) tense:
Haut facul fēmina in veniētur bona, Afr., 7; unweth (= hardly) a woman shall be found that's good. Et tremet sapiens et dolēbit, et expallēscet, Sen., E.M., 71, 29.
2. Observe the (principally comic) use of the Future to indicate likelihood:
Verbum hercle hoc vērum erit, Ter., Eun., 732; this will be God's own truth.

243. The Future is used in an imperative sense, as in English, chiefly in familiar language.

Tā nihil dīces, ii., A.P., 385; you will (are to) say nothing (do you say nothing). Cum volet accēdēs, cum tē vitābit abībis, Ov., A.A., ii. 529; when she wants you, approach; and when she avoids you, begone, sir. Nōn mē appellābis, sī sapis, Pl., Most., 515; see C., Fam., v. 12, 10. Compare utētur and utātur, Corn., ii. 3, 5.

Similar is the Future in Asseverations (comic).

Ita mē amābit Iūppiter, Pl., Trin., 447; so help me God!

Future Perfect Tense.

244. The Future Perfect is the Perfect, both Pure and Historical, transferred to the future, and embraces both completion and attainment: fēcerō, Ter., Ph., 882; I shall have done it, or I shall do it (once for all); viderō, Ter., Ad., 538; I will see to it; prōfēcerit, C., Fin., iii. 4, 14; it will prove profitable.

Remarks.—1. Hence, when the Pf. is used as a Pr., the Fut. Pf. is used as a Future: nōverō, I shall know; consuēverō, I shall be accustomed; Òdero, sī poterō, Ov., Am., iii. 11, 35 (242, r. 2).
2. In subordinate sentences, the Latin language is more exact than the English in the use of the Fut. Perfect; hence, when one action precedes another in the future, the action that precedes is expressed by the Fut. Perfect.

Qui prior strinxerit fērrum, eius victōria erit, L., xxiv. 38, 5; who first draws the sword, his shall be the victory.

3. The Fut. Pf. is frequently used in volō, I will; nōlō, I will not; possum, I can; licet, it is left free; libet, it is agreeable; placet, it is the pleasure; whereas the English idiom familiarly employs the Present.

Sī potuerō, faciam vōbis satis, C., Br., 5, 21; if I can, I shall satisfy you.
4. The Fut. Pf. in both clauses denotes simultaneous accomplishment or attainment; one action involves the other.

Qui Antónium oppresserit, is bellum cónfecerit, C., Fam., x. 19, 2; he who shall have crushed (crushes) Antony, will have finished (will finish) the war. [Ea] vitia qui fúgerit, is omnia fér vor vitáverit; C., Or., 69, 231; he who shall have escaped these faults, will have avoided almost all faults.

Sometimes, however, the first seems to denote antecedence, the second finality. An Impv. is often used in the first clause.

Immutā (verbórum collocatiōnem), perierit tōta rēs, C., Or., 70, 232; change the arrangement of the words, the whole thing falls dead.

Notes.—1. The independent use of the Fut. Pf. is characteristic of Comedy, but occurs occasionally later in familiar style. Sometimes it gives an air of positiveness:

Bene merenti bene prōferit, male merenti pār erit, Pl., Capt., 315; good desert shall have good issue; ill desert shall have its due. Ego crēs hīc erō: crēs habuerō, uxor, ego tamen convivium, Pl., Cas., 786. Nūsquam facilius hanc miserrimam vitam vel sustentābō vel abīscecorō, C., Att., iii. 19, 1. See also C., Ac, ii. 44, 135; L., i. 58, 10.

2. The Periphrastic Fut. Pf. with habēō is rare. It corresponds to the Pf. and Pluperfect.

Quod si iscecorēs, mē māximō beneficiō dēvinctum habēbis, C., Att., xvi. 16 b. 9.

245. As the Future is used as an Imperative, so the Future Perfect approaches the Imperative.

Dē tē tū viderēs; ego dē mē ipse profitēbor, C., Ph., ii. 46, 118; do you see to yourself; I myself will define my position.

Note.—This is confined in Cicero almost entirely to viderēs, which is suspiciously like the familiar Greek future ὑπο, and is used in the same way.

Periphrastic Tenses.

246. The Periphrastic Tenses are formed by combining the various tenses of esse, to be, with participles and verbal adjectives. See 129.

I. PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION—ACTIVE VOICE.

247. The Periphrastic Tenses of the Active are chiefly combinations of esse and its forms with the so-called Future Participle Active. The Future Participle is a verbal adjective denoting capability and tendency. Compare amātor and amātūrus. The translation is very various:

1. Scriptūrūs sum, I am about to write, I am to write, I purpose to write, I am likely to write.

2. Scriptūrūs eram, I was about to write, etc.
3. Scriptūrus fuī, I have been or was about to write (often = I should have written).
4. Scriptūrus fueram, I had been about to write, etc.
5. Scriptūrus erō, I shall be about to write, etc.
6. Scriptūrus fuerō, I shall have made up my mind to write, etc. (of course very rare).

1. Eīt illud quod futūrum est, C., Div., ii. 8, 21; what is to be, will be.
2. [Rēx] nōn interfutūrus nāvālī certāmini erat, L., xxxvi. 43, 9; the king did not intend to be present at the naval combat.
3. Fascēs ipsī ad mō dēlātūrī fuérunt, C., Ph., xiv. 6, 15; they themselves were ready to tender the fasces to me. Dēditōs āltimīs cruciātībus adfectūrī fuērunt, L., xxii. 44, 4; they would have put the surrendered to extreme tortures.

4. Māior Rōmānōrum grātia fuit quam quanta futūra Carthāginiēsium fuerat, L., xxii. 22, 19; the Romans' credit for this was greater than the Carthaginians' would have been.
5. Eōrum apud quōs aget aut erit āctūrus, mentēs sēnsūsque dēgustet, C., Or., i. 52, 223; he must taste-and-test the state of mind of those before whom he will plead or will have to plead.
6. (Sapiēns) nōn vīvit, si fuerit sīne homīne vīctūrus, Sen., E.M., 9, 17; The wise man will not continue to live, if he finds that he is to live without human society. (The only example cited, and that doubtful.)

REMARKS.—1. The forms with sum, eram, and the corresponding Subjv. forms with sim, essem, are much more common than those with fuī, etc., probably for euphonic reasons.
2. The Subjv. and Inf. scriptūrus sim, essem, fuerim, fuissem, scriptūrum esse, fuisse, are of great importance in subordinate clauses. (656.)

NOTES.—1. The use of forem for essem appears first in Sallust, but is not uncommon in Livy, and occurs sporadically later. Fore for esse is post-classical.

Dicit sē vēnisse quaeśītum pācem an bellum agitātūrus foret, S., Jug., 109, 2.
2. The periphrastic use of the Pr. Part. with forms of esse is rare, and in most cases doubtful, as the question always arises whether the Part. is not rather a virtual substantive or adjective. So with the not uncommon ut sīs scīēns of the Comic Poets. The effect of this periphrasis is to emphasise the continuance.

Nēmō umquam tam sui déspectūs (adverter of self, self-depreciator) fuit quīn sperāret melius sē posse dicere, C., Or., ii. 89, 364.

II. PERIPHRASTIC TENSES OF THE PASSIVE.

A.—Of Future Relations.

248. The periphrases futūrum esse (more often fore) ut, (that) it is to be that, and futūrum fuisse ut, (that) it was to be that, with the Subjunctive, are very commonly used to take the place of the Future Infinitive active; necessarily so
when the verb forms no Future Participle. In the passive they are more common than the Supine with iri.

Spērō fore ut contingat id nōbis, C., Tusc., i. 34, 82; I hope that we shall have that good fortune. In fātis scriptum Vēientēs [habēbant] fore ut brevi a Gallis Rōma caperētur, C., Div., i. 44, 100; the Veientes had it written down in their prophetic books that Rome would shortly be taken by the Gauls.

Remark.—Posse, to be able, and velle, to will, on account of their future sense, do not require a periphrasis. In the absence of periphrastic forms, the forms of posse are often used instead. (656, r.)

Notes.—1. These periphrases do not occur in early Latin.
2. Fore ut is used chiefly with Pr. and Impf. Subjv.; Pf. and Plupf. are very rare. (C., Att., xvi. 16 E. 16.)
3. The form futūrum fuīsse ut is used with passive and Supineless verbs, to express the dependent apodosis of an unreal conditional sentence.

Nisi eō ipsō tempore nūntīt dē Caesaris victōriā essent allātī, existimābant plēriūque futūrum fuīsse utī (oppidum) āmitterētur, Caes., B.C., iii. 101, 3. (656, 2.)
4. The Subjv. forms futūrum sit, esset, fuerit ut, are used in the grammars to supply the periphrastic Subjv. of passive and Supineless verbs (see 515, n. 2). Warrant in real usage is scarce.

An utique futūrum sit ut Carthaginem superent Rōmānī? Quint. iii. 8, 17 (not merely periphrastic).

249. In eō est, it is on the point, erat, was (Impersonal), fuit, the subjunctive.

In eō [erat] ut (Pausaniās) comprehenderētur, Nep., iv. 5, 1; it was on the point that Pausanias should be (P. was on the point of being) arrested.

Note.—This phrase occurs in Nepos and Livy, seldom in earlier writers.

B.—Of Past Relations.

250. The Perfect Participle passive is used in combination with sum, I am, and fui, I have been, I was, to express the Pure Perfect and Historical Perfect of the Passive Voice. Erām, I was, and fueram, I had been, stand for the Pluperfect; and erō, I shall be, and fuerō, I shall have been, for the Future Perfect.

Remarks.—1. Fui is the favorite form when the participle is frequently used as an adjective: convīvium exōrnātum fuit, the banquet was furnished forth; fui is the necessary form when the Pf. denotes that the action is over and gone; amātus fui, I have been loved (but I
am loved no longer). The same principle applies to fueram and fuerō, though not so regularly.

Simulācrum ē marmore in sepulcrō positum fuit; hōc quidam homō nōbilsis dēportāvit, C., Dom., 43, 111; a marble effigy was deposited in the tomb; a certain man of rank has carried it off. Arma quae fixa in parietibus fuerant, ea sunt humī inventa, C., Div., i, 34, 74; the arms which had been fastened to the walls were found on the ground. Quod tibi fuerit persuaśum, huic erit persuaśum, C., Rosc. Com., i, 3; what is (shall have proved) acceptable to you will be acceptable to him.

2. To be distinguished is that use of the Pf. where each element has its full force, the Participle being treated as an adjective. In this case the tense is not past.

Gallia est omnis divisa in partēs trēs, Caes., B.G., i, 1.

Notes.—1. The ful, etc., forms are rarely found in Cicero, never in Caesar, but are characteristic of Livy and Sallust.

2. Forem for essem is common in the Comic Poets, occurs twice in Cicero’s letters (Att., vii, 21, 2; x, 14, 3), never in Caesar, but in Livy and Nepos is very common, and practically synonymous with essem.

C.—Periphrastic Conjugation—Passive Voice.

251. 1. The combination of the Tenses of esse, to be, with the Gerundive (verbal in -ndus), is called the Periphrastic Conjugation of the Passive, and follows the laws of the simple conjugation (129). The idea expressed is usually one of necessity.

Praepōnenda [est] divitiā glōria, C., Top., 22, 84; glory is to be preferred to riches.

2. According to the rule (217) the Gerundive of intransitive verbs can be used only in the Impersonal form:

Parendum est victis, The vanquished must be spared.

Notes.—1. The Gerundive is a verbal adjective, which produces the effect of a Progressive Participle. Whenever a participle is used as a predicate it becomes characteristic, and good for all time. As amāns not only = qui amat, but also = qui amet, so amandus = qui amatūr. Compare 458, n.

2. Forem for essem is post-classical and comparatively uncommon.

TENSES IN LETTERS.

252. The Roman letter-writer not unfrequently puts himself in the position of the receiver, more especially at the beginning and at the end of the letter, often in the phrase Nihil erat (habēbam) quod scriberem, I have nothing to write. This permutation of tenses is never kept up long, and applies only to temporary situations, never to general statements.
### Table of Permutations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>scribō,</em></td>
<td><em>I am writing,</em> becomes <em>scribēbam.</em></td>
<td><em>I write,</em></td>
<td><em>scripsī.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>scripsi,</em></td>
<td><em>I have written,</em></td>
<td><em>I wrote,</em></td>
<td><em>scripseram.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>or remains unchanged.</td>
<td></td>
<td><em>scripseram.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>scribam,</em></td>
<td><em>I shall write,</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>scriptūrus eram.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The adverbial designations of time remain unchanged—or

*heri,* yesterday, becomes *pridē.*

*hodiē,* to-day, “quia diē hās litterās dedī, dabam.

*crās,* to-morrow, “posterō diē, postridēi.*

*nunc,* “now, “tum.

**Formiās mē continuō recipere cōgitābam, C., Att., vii. 15, 3;** I am thinking of retiring forthwith to Formiae. **Cum mihi dixisset Caecilius puerum sē Rōnām mittere, haec scripsi raptim, C., Att., ii. 9, 1; as Caecilius has told me that he is sending a servant to Rome, I write in a hurry.** (Litterās) eram datūrus postridēi ei quī mihi prīmus obviam vēnisset, C., Att., ii. 12, 4; I will give the letter to-morrow to the first man that comes my way.

**NOTE.—CICERO is much more consistent in this tense-shifting than PLINY; and exceptions are not numerous proportionally:** Ego etsi nihil habeō quod ad tē scribam, scribē tamen quia tēcum loquī videor, C., Att., xii. 53.

### MOODS.

**253. Mood signifies manner.** The mood of a verb signifies the manner in which the predicate is said of the subject.

There are three moods in Latin:

1. The Indicative.
2. The Subjunctive.
3. The Imperative.

**NOTE.—The Infinitive form of the verb is generally, but improperly, called a mood.**

**The Indicative Mood.**

**254. The Indicative Mood represents the predicate as a reality.** It is sometimes called the Declarative Mood, as the mood of direct assertion.

The use of the Latin Indicative differs little from the English.

**REMARKS.—1. The Latin language expresses possibility and power, obligation and necessity, and abstract relations generally, as facts; whereas, our translation often implies the failure to realise.** Such ex-
pressions are: 

- débeo, I ought, it is my duty; oportet, it behooves;
- necesse est, it is absolutely necessary; possum, I can, I have it in my power; convenit, it is fitting; pár, aequom est, it is fair; infinitum, endless; difficile, hard to do; longum, tedious; and many others; also the Indic. form of the passive Periphrastic Conjugation. Observe the difference between the use of the Inf. in Eng. and in Latin after past tenses of débeo, possum, oportet, etc.

Possum perséquì permulta oblectánta rérum rústicárum, C., Cat.M., 16, 55; I might rehearse very many delights of country life. Longum est perséquì utílitátes asínórurn, C., N.D., II. 64, 159; it would be tedious to rehearse the useful qualities of asses (I will not do it). Ad mortem té dúcì oportébat, C., Cat., I. 1, 2; it behooved you to be (you ought to have been) led to execution (you were not). Volumnia débuit in té officiósior esse, et id ipsum, quod fécit, potuit diligentius facere, C., Fam., xiv. 16; it was Volumnia's duty to be (V. ought to have been) more attentive to you; and the little she did do, she had it in her power to do (she might have done) more carefully. Quae condíció nón accipienda fuit potius quam relinquenda patria? C., Att., viii. 3, 3; what terms ought not to have been accepted in preference to leaving thy country? [Eum] vivum illino exire non oportuerat, C., Mur., 25, 51; he ought never to have gone out thence alive.

The Pf. and Plupf. always refer to a special case.

2. The Impf. as the Tense of Disappointment is sometimes used in these verbs to denote opposition to a present state of things: débem, I ought (but do not); poterás, you could (but do not). These may be considered as conditionals in disguise. (See R. 3.)

Poteram morbós appelláre, sed nón conveníret ad omnia, C., Fin., III. 10, 35; I might translate (that Greek word) "diseases," but that would not suit all the cases (poteram sí conveníret). At poterás, inquis, melius mala ferre silendó, Ov., Tr., v. 1, 40; "But," you say, "you could (you do not) bear your misfortunes better by keeping silent" (poterás sí silérès).

3. The Indic. is sometimes used in the leading clause of conditional sentences (the Apodosis), thereby implying the certainty of the result, had it not been for the interruption. The Indic. clause generally precedes, which is sufficient to show the rhetorical character of the construction.

With the Impf. the action is often really begun:

Labébar longius, nisi mē retinuissem, C., Leg., i. 19, 52; I was letting myself go on (should have let myself go on) too far, had I not checked myself. Omninó supervacua erat doctrina, sí nátūra sufficeret, Quint., ii. 8, 8; training were wholly superfluous, did nature suffice. Prae-cláre vicerámus, nisi Lepidus recepisset Antònium, C., Fam., XII. 10, 3; we had (should have) gained a brilliant victory, had not Lepidus received Antony.
In all these sentences the English idiom requires the Subjv., which is disguised by coinciding with the Indic. in form, except in "were."

4. In general relative expressions, such as the double formations, quisquis, no matter who, quotquot, no matter how many, and all forms in -cumque, -ever, the Indic. is employed in classical Latin where we may use in English a Subjv. or its equivalent: quisquis est, no matter who he is, be, may be; quaecumque est, whatever sort of thing it is, be, may be.

Quidquid id est, timeō Danaós et dōna ferentēs, V., A., II. 49; whatever it (may) be, I fear the Danai even when they bring presents.

Cicero has occasional exceptions (Ideal Second Person or by attraction) to this rule, and later writers, partly under Greek influence, frequently violate it. Exceptions in early Latin are not common.

Notes.—1. Cicero introduces (nōn) putāram, "I should (not) have thought so," and māleram, I could have preferred. Lucan and Tacitus alone imitate the latter; the former was never followed.

Māleram, quod erat susceptum ab ills, silentio trānsīrī, C., Alt., II. 19, 3. Feriam tua viscera, Māgnē; māleram socēri, Lucan, VIII. 521.

2. In early Latin, occasionally in the more familiar writings of Cicero, and here and there later we find the Pr. Indic. (In early Latin occasionally the Fut.) used in place of the Subjv. in the Deliberative Question.


Subjunctive Mood.

255. The Subjunctive Mood represents the predicate as an idea, as something merely conceived in the mind (abstracts from reality).

Remark.—The Latin Subjv. is often translated into English by the auxiliary verbs may, can, must, might, could, would, should. When these verbs have their full signification of possibility and power, obligation and necessity, they are represented in Latin by the corresponding verbs, thus: may, can, might, could by the forms of posse, to be able, licet, it is left free; will and would by velle, to will, to be willing; must, by debeō or oportet (of moral obligation), by necessē est (of absolute obligation).

Nostrās iniūriās nec potest nec possit alius uelisci quam vōs, L., XXIX. 18, 18; our wrongs no other than you has the power or can well have the power to avenge.*

Note.—In the Latin Subjv. are combined two moods, the Subjv. proper, and the Optative, sometimes distinguished as the moods of the will and the wish. This fusion has rendered it difficult to define the fundamental conceptions of certain constructions.

* In this unique passage nec potest denies with the head, nec possit refuses to believe with the heart.
256. 1. The realisation of the idea may be in suspense, or it may be beyond control. The first, or purely Ideal Subjunctive, is represented by the Present and Perfect Tenses; the second, or Unreal, is represented by the Imperfect and Pluperfect.

Notes.—1. The Subjv., as the name implies (subiungō, I subjoin), is largely used in dependent sentences, and will be treated at length in that connection.

2. The following modifications of the above principles must be carefully observed:
   (a) The Romans, in lively discourse, often represent the unreal as ideal, that which is beyond control as still in suspense. (596, n. i.)
   (b) In transfers to the past, the Inpf. represents the Pr., and the Plupf. the Pf. Subjunctive. (510.)

2. The idea may be a view, or a wish. In the first case the Subjunctive is said to be Potential, in the second case Optative. The Potential Subjunctive is nearer the Indicative, from which it differs in tone; the Optative Subjunctive is nearer the Imperative, for which it is often used.

Potential Subjunctive.

257. 1. The Potential Subjunctive represents the opinion of the speaker as an opinion. The tone varies from vague surmise to moral certainty, from "may" and "might" to "must." The negative is the negative of the Indicative, nōn.

2. The Potential of the Present or Future is the Present or Perfect Subjunctive. The verification is in suspense, and so future; the action may be present or future: with Perfect sometimes past.

Velīm, I should wish; nōlim, I should be unwilling; mālim, I should prefer; dicās, you would say; crēdās, you would believe, you must believe; dicat, dixerit aliquis, some one may undertake to say, go so far as to say.

Caedē discipulōs minimē velīm, Quint., l. 3, 13; I should by no means like pupils to be flogged. Tū Platonem nec nimis valdē nec nimis saepe laudāverīs, C., Leg., iii. 1, 1; you can't praise Plato too much nor too often.

Notes.—1. The Pf. Subjv. as a Potential seems to have been very rare in early Latin. Cicero extended the usage slightly and employed more persons; thus First Person Pl. and Second Sing. occur first in Cicero. From Cicero's time the usage spreads, perhaps under the influence of the Greek Aorist. It was always rare with Deponents and Passives. Another view regards this dixerit as a Fut. Pf. Indicative.

2. The Potential Subjv. is sometimes explained by the ellipsis of an Idea or, of an
Unreal Conditional Protasis. But the free Potential Subjv. differs from an elliptical conditional sentence in the absence of definite ellipsis, and hence of definite translation. Compare the two sentences above:

\[
\text{Eum qui palam est adversarius facile cavendō (si caveās) vitāre possis, C., Verr., I. 15, 39; an open adversary you can readily avoid by caution (if you are cautious). Nil ego contulerim iūcundō sānus (= dum sānus erō) amīcō, II., S., I. 5, 44; there is naught I should compare to an agreeable friend, while I am in my sound senses.}
\]

3. The Potential Subjv., as a modified form of the Indic., is often found where the Indic. would be the regular construction. So after quanquam (607, r. 1).

258. The Potential of the Past is the Imperfect Subjunctive, chiefly in the Ideal Second Person, an imaginary “you.”

Crēderēs victōs, L., II. 43, 9; you would, might, have thought them beaten. Haud facile discernērēs utrum Hannibal imperātōrī an exercitūm cārior esset, L., XXI. 4, 3; not readily could you have decided whether Hannibal was dearer to general or to army. Mīrārētur quī tum cerneret, L., XXXIV. 9, 4; any one who saw it then must have been astonished.

Vellem, I should have wished; nōllem, I should have been unwilling; mallem, I should have preferred (it is too late).

Notes.—1. With vellem, nōllem, mallem, the inference points to non-fulfilment of the wish in the Present (261, r.); with other words there is no such inference.

2. The Unreal of the Present and the Ideal of the Past coincide. What is unreal of a real person is simply ideal of an imaginary person. The Impf. is used as the tense of Description.

The Aoristic Pf. Subjv. and the Plupf. Subjv. are rarely used as the Ideal of the Past:

Hi ambō saltūs ad Libuōs Gallōs dēdūxerint (var. dēduxissent), L., XXI. 38, 7. Eā quā minimum crēdīdisset (cōnsul) resistēbant hostēs, L., XXXII. 17, 4.

259. The Mood of the Question is the Mood of the expected or anticipated answer (462). Hence the Potential Subjunctive is used in questions which serve to convey a negative opinion on the part of the speaker.

Quis dubitet (= nēmō dubitet) quin in virtūte divitiae sint? C., Parad., VI. 2, 48; who can doubt that true wealth consists in virtue? (No one.)

Quis tulerit Gracchōs dē sēdiōne querenēs? Juv., II. 24; who could bear the Gracchi complaining of rebellion? (No one.)

Apud exercitum fueris? C., Mur., 9, 21; can you have been with the army? Hoc tantum bellum quis umquam arbitrārētur ab ēnō imperātōrē consoci posse? C., Imp., II, 31; who would, could, should have thought that this great war could be brought to a close by one general?

Optative Subjunctive.

260. The Subjunctive is used as an Optative or wishing mood.
The regular negative is né. Nōn is used chiefly to negative a single word; but very rarely in the classical period. A second wish may be added by neque or nec (regularly if a positive wish precedes), but this is also rare in the classical period, and is denied for Caesar.

The Pr. and Pf. Subj. are used when the decision is in suspense, no matter how extravagant the wish; the Impf. and Plupf. are used when the decision is adverse. The Pf. is rare and old.

Stet hæce urbs, C., Mil., 34, 93; may this city continue to stand! Quod dī șōmen āvertant, C., Ph., iii. 14, 35; which omen may the gods avert. Ita dī faxint (= fecerint), Pl., Poen., 911; the gods grant it! Nē istūc Iūppiter optimus māximus sīrit (= sīverit)! L., xxxiv. 24, 2; may Jupiter, supremely great and good, suffer it not!

261. The Optative Subjunctive frequently takes ut (archaic and rare), utinam, utinam né, utinam nōn; also ō sī, oh if (poetical and very rare); qui (chiefly in early Latin and in curses).

Valeās beneque ut tibi sit, Pl., Poen., 912; farewell! God bless you! Utinam modo cōnāta officere possim, C., Att., iv. 16; may I but have it in my power to accomplish my endeavours. Utinam reviviscat frāter! Gell., x. 6, 2; would that my brother would come to life again! Utinam insērēre fōcēs mōris esset, Quint., ii. 10, 9; would that it were usual to introduce jokes! Illud utinam nē vērē scriberem, C., Fam., v. 17, 3; would that what I am writing were not true! Utinam suspexit nōn esset, C., Att., iii. 11, 8; would I had not been born! (Cicero’s only example of nōn.) Ō mihi præteritōs referat sī Iūppiter annōs, V., A., viii. 560; O if Jove were to bring me back the years that are gone by!

Remark.—For the wish with adverse decision, vellem and māllem (theoretically also nōllem) may be used with the Impf. and sometimes (especially vellem) with the Plupf. Subjunctive.

Vellem adesse posset Panaetius! C., Tusc., i. 33, 81; would that Panaetius could be present! Vellem mē ad cēnam invitāssēs, C., Fam., xii. 4, 1; would that you had invited me to your dinner-party.

So velim, nōlim, etc., for the simple wish (546, r. 2).

Tuam mīhī dāfi velim eloquentiam, C., N. D., ii. 59, 147; I could wish your eloquence given to me.

Notes.—1. Utinam was perhaps originally an interrogative, How, pray? If so, it belongs partly to the potential; hence the frequent occurrence of nōn. Ō sī (occasionally sī, V., A., vi. 187) introduces an elliptical conditional sentence, which is not intended to have an Apodosis. When the Apodosis comes, it may come in a different form; as in the example: V., A., vii. 556, 568.

2. The Impf. Subjv. is occasionally used in early Latin to give an unreal wish in the Past. This is almost never found in the later period.

Utinam tē dī prius perderent, quam periisti sē patriā tuā, Pl., Capt., 537. Tunc mīhī vita foret, Tib., i. 10, 11.
262. The Optative Subjunctive is used in *asseverations*:

Ita vivam ut maximōs sumptūs faciō, C., *Att.*, v. 15, 2; *as I live, I am spending very largely* (literally, *so may I live as I am making very great outlay*). Moriar, si magis gaudērem si id mihī accidisset, C., *Att.*, viii. 6, 3; *may I die if I could be more glad if that had happened to me*.

*Note.*—The *Fut.* Indic. in this sense is rare: *Sic mē di amābunt ut mē tuārum miseritumust fortūnārum*, *Ter.*, *Heaut.*, 463.

263. The Subjunctive is used as an *Imperative*:

1. In the First Person Plural Present, which has no Imperative form:

Amēmus patriam, C., *Sest.*, 68, 143; *let us love our country*. Nē difficilia optēmus, C., *Verr.*, iv. 7, 15; *let us not desire what is hard to do*.

*Note.*—In the First Person Singular, the command fades into the wish.

2. In the Second Person.

(a) In the Present chiefly in the Singular, and chiefly of an imaginary "you":

Istō bonō utāre, dum adsit, cum absit, nē requīras, C., *Cat.M.*, 10, 33; *you must enjoy that blessing so long as 'tis here, when it is gone you must not pine for it*.

*Note.*—The Comic Poets use the *Pr.* negatively very often of a definite person, sometimes combining it with an *Impv.*: *Ignōsce, tūtā ne sīs*, Pl., *Am.*, 924; *but in the classical period such usage is rare, and usually open to other explanations; a definite person may be used as a type, or the sentence may be elliptical*.

(b) In the Perfect negatively:

Nē trānsieris Hibērum, L., xxi. 44, 6; *do not cross the Ebro*. Nē vōs mortem timuerītis, C., *Tusc.*, i. 41, 98; *have no fear of death*!

3. In the Third Person Present (regularly):

Suum quisque nōscat ingenium, C., *Off.*, i. 31, 114; *let each one know his own mind*. Dōnīs impīti nē plācāre audeant deōs, C., *Leg.*, ii. 16, 41; *let the wicked not dare to try to appease the gods with gifts*.

*Note.*—The *Pf.* in this usage is very rare. S., *Iug.*, 85, 47; *Tact.*, *Ann.*, iv. 32, 1.

264. The Subjunctive is used as a *Concessive*:

Sit fūr, C., *Verr.*, v. 1, 4; *(granted that) he be a thief*. Fuerit (malus civis), C., *Verr.*, i. 14, 37; *(suppose) that he was a bad citizen*.

For other examples with *ut* and *nē*, see 608.

*Note.*—The past tenses are very rarely used concessively; see C., *Tusc.*, iii. 19, 75 (*Impf.*); *Sest.*, 19, 43 (*Plupf.*).
265. The Subjunctive is used in Questions which expect an Imperative answer (coniunctivus deliberativus).

Genuine questions are commonly put in the First Person, or the representative of the First Person:

Utrum superbiam prius commemorem an crudelitatem, C., Verr., i. 47, 122; shall I mention the insolence first or the cruelty? Māgna fuit contentio utrum moenibus sē dēfenderent an obviam irent hostibus, Nep., i. 4, 4; there was a great dispute whether they should defend themselves behind the walls or go to meet the enemy. (Utrum nōs dēfendāmus an obviam eāmus?) [Example of Third Person, 428, n. l.]

Rhetorical questions (questions which anticipate the answer), under this head, are hardly to be distinguished from Potential.

Quō mē nunc vertam? Undique custōdior, C., Att., x. 12, 1; whither shall I now turn? Sentinels on every side. Quid agerem? C., Sest., 19, 42; what was I to do?

Remark.—The answer to the Deliberative Question is the Impv. or the Imperative Subjv. of the Present (263, 2) or Past (272, 3).

Imperative Mood.

266. The Imperative is the mood of the will: It wills that the predicate be made a reality. The tone of the Imperative varies from stern command to piteous entreaty. It may appear as a demand, an order, an exhortation, a permission, a concession, a prayer.

Abi in malam rem, Pl., Capt., 877; go (to the mischief), and be hanged. Compēscēmentem, II., O., i. 16, 22; curb your temper. Dā mīhi hōc, mel meum! Pl., Trin., 244; give me this, honey dear!

267. The Imperative has two forms, known as the First and the Second Imperative (also, but less accurately, as the Present and Future Imperative). The First Imperative has only the Second Person; the Second Imperative has both Second and Third Persons. The First Person is represented by the Subjunctive (263, 1).

Remark.—Some verbs have only the second form. This may be due to the signification: so scītō, know thou; mēmentō, remember thou; and habētō, in the sense of know, remember.
On violation of Concord with the Imperative. see 211, n. 2.

Note.—The use of the Pronouns tū, vōs, etc., with the Impv., is colloquial, hence common in Comedy; or solemn: see V., A., vi. 95, 365, 675, 834, etc.

268. i. The First Imperative looks forward to immediate fulfilment (Absolute Imperative):

Special: Patent portae; proficiscere, C., Cat., i. 5, 10, Open stand the gates; depart.

General: Íustitiam cole et pietātem, C., Rep., vi. 16, 16, Cultivate justice and piety.

2. The Second Imperative looks forward to contingent fulfilment (Relative Imperative), and is chiefly used in laws, legal documents, maxims, recipes, and the like; likewise in familiar language.

Rēgi Imperiō duo suntō; iisque cōnsulēs appellāminō (130, 5, c); nēminī pārentō; olliś (104, iii. n. 1) salūs populi suprēma lēx estō, C., Leg., iii. 3, 8; there shall be two (officers) with royal power; they shall be called consuls; they are to obey no one; to them the welfare of the people must be the paramount law. Rem vōbis prōpōnam: vōs eam penditōte, C., Verr., iv. 1, 1; I will propound the matter to you; do you thereupon perpend it. Percontātorem fugitō, nam garrulus idem est, H., Ep., i. 18, 69; avoid your questioner, for he is a tell-tale too.

269. Strengthening Words.—The Imperative is often strengthened and emphasised by the addition of Adverbs, fossilised Imperatives, Phrases, etc. : age, agite, agedum, agitedum, come; enclitic dum, then: modo, only: iamdūdum, at once: proinde, well, then: quīn, why not? sānē, certainly; amābō, obsecrō, quaeō, please: sīs (= sī vis), sultis (= sī voltis), sodēs (= sī audēs), if you please. Most of these belong to familiar language, and are therefore found in great numbers in Comedy and in Cicero’s letters. In the classical prose, and even later, they are not common. Dum in classical times is confined to agedum; quīn is cited twice in Cicero (Mil., 29, 79; Rose. Com., 9, 25), and rarely later. Iamdūdum begins with Ver- cil, and belongs to poetry and late prose. Sānē is not cited for the classical period. Sultis is confined to early Latin; and sodēs occurs but once in Cicero (Att., vii. 3, 11). Mittite, agedum, légātōs, L., xxxviii. 47, 11. Quīn tū i modō, Pl., Cas., 755.

Note.—On the violation of Concord with age, see 211, n. 2.

270. Negative of the Imperative.—i. The regular negative of the Imperative is nē (néeve, neu), which is found with the Second Imperative; with the First Imperative, it is poetical or colloquial.

Hominem mortuum in urbe nē sepelītō nēve ēritō, C., Leg., ii. 23, 58; thou shalt not bury nor burn a dead man in the city. Impius nē audētō plācāre dōnīs frām deōrum, C., Leg., ii. 9, 22; the impious man must not
dare attempt to appease by gifts the anger of the gods. Tū nē cēde malis, sed contrā andentior ītō, V., A., vi. 95; yield not thou to misfortunes, but go more boldly (than ever) to meet them.

Remarks.—1. Nōn may be used to negative a single word:
Ā légibus nōn recēdāmus, C., Cluent., 57, 155; let us not recede from (let us stick to) the laws. Opus poliat līma, nōn exterat, Cf. Quint., x. 4, 4; let the file rub the work up, not rub it out.

2. Instead of nē with the First Imperative was employed either nōlī with the Infinitive (271, 2); or nē with the Pf. Subjv., but the latter is very rare in elevated prose (263, 2, b). On nē with Pr. Subjv. see 263, 2, a.

Note.—The use of nōn with the actual Impv. is found only in Ovid; but the addition of a second Impv. by neque, nec, instead of nēve, nev, begins in classical times (C., Att., xii. 22, 3), and becomes common later. The use of neque (nec), nihil, nēmō, nūllus with the Subjv. in an Impv. sense has recently been claimed for the Potential Subjv. (must, 257, 1) on account of the negative.

271. Periphrases.—1. Ĉūrā (cūrātō) ut, take care that; fac (facitō) ut, cause that; fac (facitō), do, with the Subjunctive, are common circumlocutions for the Positive Imperative.

Ĉūrā ut quam primum (303, r. 1) veniās, C., Fam., iv. 10, 1; manage to come as soon as possible. Fac cōgitēs, C., Fam., xi. 3, 4, Do reflect!

Notes.—1. Facitō is almost wholly confined to early Latin, especially Plautus; so also cūrātō.

2. Early Latin also shows vidē and vidētō with Subjv. Terence introduces volō, velim, with Subjv., which is found also in later times; as, C., Fam., ix. 12, 2.

2. Cavē and cavē (cavētō) nē, beware lest, with the Subjunctive, and nōlī, be unwilling, with the Infinitive, are circumlocutions for the Negative Imperative (Prohibitive). Fac nē is also familiarly used.

Ĉavē festinēs, C., Fam., xvi. 12, 6; do not be in a hurry. Tantum cum fingēs nē sis manifesta cavētō, Ov., A.A., iii. 801; only when you pretend, beware that you be not detected. Nōlī, amābō, verberāre lapidem, nē perdās manum, Pl., Curc., 197; don’t beat a stone, I pray you, lest you spoil your hand. Fac nē quid aliud cūrēs hoc tempore, C., Fam., xvi. 11, 1; see that you pay no attention to anything else, at this time.

Notes.—1. Rare and confined to early Latin is the use of cavē with any but the second person. Cf. Pl., Aul., 669; Ter., And., 403.

2. Other phrases are those with vidē nē and cūrātō nē, with Subjv.; comperce, compēscē with Inf. (all ante-classical); parce, mitte, omitte with Inf. (poetical and post-classical); nōlim with Subjv. (Cic.); fuge with Inf. (Hor.); absiste with Inf. (Verg.).
272. **Representatives of the Imperative.**—1. Instead of the Positive Imperative, may be employed:

(a) The Second Person of the Present Subjunctive (263, 2).
(b) The Second Person of the Future Indicative (243).
(c) The Third Person of the Present Subjunctive (263, 3).

2. Instead of the Negative Imperative (Prohibitive), may be employed:

(a) The Second Person of the Present Subjunctive, with ne (263, 2, n.).
(b) The Second Person of the Perfect Subjunctive, with ne (263, 2).
(c) The Second Person of the Future, with non (243).
(d) The Third Person of the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, with ne (263, 3).

**Remark.**—The Pr. Subjv. is employed when stress is laid on the continuance of the action; the Pf., when stress is laid on the completion. Hence the use of the Pf. Subjv. in total prohibitions and passionate protests.

3. The Imperative of the Past is expressed by the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive (unfulfilled duties). Compare 265, r.

*Dótem dareis; quaereret alium virum, Tēr., Ph., 297; you should have given her a portion; she should have sought another match. Crās tērī potius, hodie hic cēnāres. Valē, P.l., Pers., 710; you ought rather to have put off going till to-morrow, you ought to (have) dine(d) with us to-day. Good-bye. (Anything decided is regarded as past.) Potius doceret (causam) non esse aequam, C., Off., III. 22, 88; he should rather have shown that the plea was not fair. Nē popōscissēs (librōs), C., Atl., II. 1, 3; you ought not to have asked for the books.**

Observe the difference between the Unfulfilled Duty and the Unreal of the Past (597).

*Morerētur; fēcisset certē si sine māximō dēdecōre potuisset, C., Rab. Post., 10, 29; he ought to have died; he would certainly have done so, could he have (done so) without the greatest disgrace.**

**Note.**—The Plupf. tense in this usage is not ante-classical.

273. **Passionate questions are equivalent to a command:**

*Nōn tacēs? P.l., Am., 700; won't you hold your tongue? Quīn tacēs? Why don't you hold your tongue? Quīn datis, si quid datis? P.l., Cas., 765; why don't you give, if you are going to do it? (Compare Fac, si quid facis, Mart., I. 46, 1.) Cūr nōn ut plēnus vitae convīva recēdis? Lūcr., III. 988; why do you not withdraw as a guest sated with life?
274. Puta, ut puta, for example, begins with [C.] ad Her., II. xi, 16 (reading doubtful); then H., S., II. 5, 32, Quinte, puta, aut Publī. Later it becomes more common, especially with the Jurists. See C., Ph., II. 6, 15.

275. Summary of Imperative Constructions.

Positive.

2d P. Audi, hear thou; audītō (legal or contingent); audiēs (familiar); audiās (ideal Second Person chiefly).

3d P. Audītō (legal), let him hear; audiat.

Negative.

2d P. Nē audi, hear not (poetic); nē audītō (legal); nōn audiēs (familiar); nē audiās (chiefly ideal); nōlī audīre (common); nē audīveris (rare).

3d P. Nē audītō (legal), let him not hear; nē audiat; nē audīverit.

Tenses of the Moods and Verbal Substantives.

276. The Indicative alone expresses with uniform directness the period of time.

277. 1. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive have to do with continued action, the Perfect and Pluperfect with completed action. The Perfect Subjunctive is also used to express the attainment.

2. In simple sentences Present and Perfect Subjunctive postpone the ascertainment of the Predicate to the Future. The action itself may be Present or Future for the Present Subjunctive; Present, Past, or Future for the Perfect Subjunctive.

Crēdat. He may believe (now or hereafter).
Crēdiderit. Let him have had the belief (heretofore), he may have come to the belief (now), he may come to the belief (hereafter).

3. In simple sentences the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are Past Tenses, and regularly serve to indicate unreality. (See 597.)

Note.—A Subjv. of the Past, being a future of the past, gives a prospective (or future) action the time of which is over (or past), so that the analysis of the past tenses of the Subjv. shows the same elements as the Periphrastic Conjugation with eram and fuli. Hence the frequent parallel use. See 251, n. 2, and 597, n. 3.

4. In dependent sentences the Subjunctive is future if the leading verb has a future signification (515, n. 3); otherwise
TENSES OF THE MOODS.

the Subjunctive represents the Indicative. The tense is regulated by the law of sequence. (See 509.)

278. The Imperative is necessarily Future.

279. The Infinitive has two uses:
1. Its use as a Substantive.
2. Its use as a representative of the Indicative.

280. THE INFINITIVE AS A SUBSTANTIVE.—As a Substantive the Infinitive has two tenses, Present and Perfect. (See 419.)

1. The Present Infinitive is the common form of the Infinitive, used as a Substantive. It has to do with continued action.
   (a) The Present Infinitive is used as a subject or predicate. (See 423, 424.)

   | Quibusdam tōrum hōc displicet philosophāri, C., Fin., i. i, 1; to some this whole business of metaphysics is a nuisance.
   
   (b) The Present Infinitive is used as the object of Verbs of Creation (Auxiliary Verbs, Verbs that help the Infinitive into being; see 423.)

   | Catō servire quam pūgnāre māvult, C., Att., vii. 15, 2; Cato prefers to be a slave rather than to fight (being a slave to fighting).

2. The Perfect Infinitive is comparatively little used as a Substantive. It has to do with completed action, and is also used to express attainment.
   (a) As a subject, it is used chiefly in fixed expressions or in marked opposition to the Present.

   | Plus prōderit dēmōnstrāsse rēctam prōtīnus vīam quam revocāre ab errōre iam lāpsōs, Quint., ii. 6, 2; it will be more profitable to have pointed out the right path immediately than to recall from wandering those that have already gone astray. [Nōn] tam turpe fuit vincī quam contendisse decōrum est, Ov., M., ix. 5; 'twas not so much dishonour to be beaten as 'tis an honour to have struggled.

   Remarks.—1. By a kind of attraction dēcuit, became, takes occasionally a Pf. Inf. (emotional).

   | Tunc fīlēsse dēcuit, L., xxx. 44, 7; that was the time when it would have been becoming to weep (to have wept). Et ērubuisse decēbat, Ov., M., iv, 330; the very flush of shame was becoming.
2. So oportuit, behooved, is frequently followed by the Pf. Part. passive, with or without esse. This seems to have belonged to familiar style; it is accordingly very common in early Latin.

[Hoc] iam pridem factum esse oportuit, C., Cat., 1. 2, 5; this ought to have been done long ago.

(b) As an object, the Perfect Infinitive is seldom found in the active, except after velle, to wish, which seems to have been a legal usage.

Nēminem notā strēnul aut Ignāvi militis notāsse volūi, L., xxiv. 16, 11; I wished to have marked (to mark finally, to brand) no soldier with the mark of bravery or of cowardice. Annālēs, quibus crēdidisse mālis, L., xiii. 11, 1. Nequīs fōrum bacānal habuīse velet, S. C. de Bac.

Otherwise it is found mainly in the poets (after the fashion of the Greek Aorist Inf.), and usually with the Pf. and Plupf. tenses, volūi, etc., potūi, dēbueram (dēbui).

Frātēs tendentēs opācō Pēliōn imposuisse Olymīpō, H., O., iii. 4, 52; The brothers striving to pile Pélion on shady Olympus.

Notes.—1. This usage with velle seems to have approached often the Fut. Pf. in force. A Pf. Inf. after the Pr. of posse occurs very rarely: Nōn potes probāsse nūgās, Pl., Aul., 328; see V., A., vi. 73, and several cases in Ovid and Martial.

2. The Pf. Inf. act. (subj. or obj.) is often found in the poets, especially in elegiac poetry, as the first word in the second half of a pentameter, where it can hardly be distinguished from a Present. This usage may be due partly to analogy with verbs of wishing, partly to the exigencies of the metre, partly to the influence of the Greek Aorist. It must be distinguished from the normal use of the Perfect: Quam invat immittēs ventōs audire cubantem Et dominam tenerō dētinuīsse sinī! Tib., i. 1, 45.

3. Noteworthy is the occasional use of dēbeō with the Pf. Inf. act. in the sense "must have": statim vicisse dēbeō, C., Rosc. Am., 23, 73; dēbēs adnotāsse, Plin., Ep., vii. 20, 6.

(c) In the Passive, the Perfect Infinitive is used after verbs of Will and Desire, to denote impatience of anything except entire fulfilment. See 537.

[Patriam] extinstam cupit, C., Fin., iv. 24, 66; he desires his country blotted out.

Here the Infinitive esse is seldom expressed.

Corinthum patrēs vestri tōtīus Graeciae lūmen extinstum esse volnērunt, C., Imp., 5, 11 (211, r. 6).

Note.—This usage is common in Comedy and in Cicero, rare, if at all, in Caesar and Sallust; and later also it is rare, surviving chiefly in phrases. The principal verb is volō, less often cupiō, very rarely expectō and nōlō.

281. The Infinitive as the Representative of the Indicative.—As the representative of the Indicative, the
Infinitive has all its Tenses: Present, Past, Future, and Future Periphrastics.

1. The Present Infinitive represents *contemporaneous action*—hence the Present Indicative after a Principal Tense, and the Imperfect after a Historical Tense:

_Cōcum venire, I say that he is coming; cōbam eum venire, I said that he was coming._

2. The Perfect Infinitive represents *Prior Action*—hence the Perfect and Imperfect Indicative after a Principal Tense, and the Pluperfect, Imperfect, and Historical Perfect Indicative after a Historical Tense:

_Cōcum vēnissee, I say that he came, has come, used to come._

_Cōf eum vēnissee, I said that he had come, used to come, did come._

**NOTE.**—Memini, _I remember_, when used of personal experience, commonly takes the Present: _Tum mē régem appelláre a vōbis memini, nunc tyrannum vocári videò_, L., XXXV. 31, 13; _I remember being styled by you a king then, I see that I am called a tyrant now._

So also rarely _memoriā teneō, recordor, I remember, I recall_, and _fugit mē, I do not remember_. When the experience is not personal, the ordinary construction is followed: _Memineram Marium ad infimōrum homínium misericordiam con-fugisse_, C., Sest., 22, 50; _I remembered that Marius had thrown himself on the mercy of a set of low creatures._

The peculiar construction with the Pr. arises from the liveliness of the recollection. When the action is to be regarded as a bygone, the Pf. may be used even of personal experience: _Mē memini frātum dominae turbāsse capillōs_, Ov., A. A., 11. 169; _I remember in my anger having tossed my sweetheart’s hair._

282. The Present Participle active denotes _continuance_; the Perfect passive, _completion or attainment._

**NOTE.**—The Latin is more exact than the English in the use of the tenses. So the Pf. Part. is frequently employed when we use the Present; especially in classical prose, with verbs that indicate a condition, mental or physical, where the action of the participle is conceived as continuing up to, and sometimes into, that of the leading verb, as _ratus, thinking_; _veritus, fearing_; _gavisus, rejoicing_, etc. This usage spreads later: _complexus, embracing_; _hortātus, exhorting._

283. The Future Participle (active) is a verbal adjective, denoting capability and tendency, chiefly employed in the older language with _sum, I am_, as a periphrastic tense. In later Latin it is used freely, just as the Present and Perfect Participles, to express subordinate relations.

**NOTES.**—1. The so-called Fut. Part. passive is more properly called the Gerundive, and has already been discussed (251).

2. The Supine, being without tense relations, does not belong here.
SIMPLE SENTENCE EXPANDED.

284. The sentence may be expanded by the multiplication or by the qualification, A, of the subject, B, of the predicate.

A.

1. Multiplication of the Subject.

Concord.

285. NUMBER.—The common predicate of two or more subjects is put in the Plural number:

Lucius Tarquinius et Tullia minor iunguntur nuptiis, L., i. 46, 9; Lucius Tarquinius and Tullia the younger are united in marriage. Pater et mater mortui [sunt], Ter., Eun., 518; father and mother are dead.

Exceptions.—1. The common predicate may agree with a Sing. subject when that subject is the nearest or the most important: “My flesh and my heart faileth,” Ps., lxxiii. 26.

Actus et forma et super omnia Rōmānum nōmen tē ferōciōrem facit, L., xxxi. 18, 3; your youth and beauty, and, above all, the name of Roman, makes you too mettlesome. Latagum saxō occupat ōs faciemque adversam V., A., x. 698 (323, n. 2).

The agreement depends largely also upon the position of the verb. If it precedes or follows the first subj., the Sing. is more apt to stand.

2. Two abstracts in combination, when conceived as a unit, take a Sing. verb: “When distress and anguish cometh upon you,” Prov., i. 27.

Religiō et fidēs antepōnātur amicitiae, C., Off., iii. 10, 46; let the religious obligation of a promise be preferred to friendship.

So any close union: “Your gold and silver is cankered,” Jās., v. 3.

Senātus populusque Rōmānus intellegit, C., Fam., v. 8, 2; the senate and people of Rome perceives (= Rome perceives). Tua fāma et gnātāe vita in dubium veniet, Ter., Ad., 340; your good name will be jeopardized and your daughter’s life.

3. When the same predicate is found with two or more subjects, who are conceived as acting independently, classical usage requires that the predicate be in the Singular. Līvy introduces the Pl., which grows, and becomes the rule in Tacitus: Palātium Rōmulus, Remus Aventīnum ad inaugurandum templā capiunt, L., i. 6, 4.

Notes.—1. Neque—neque, neither—nor, allows the Pl. chiefly when the Persons are different: Hāec neque ego neque tā fēcimus, Ter., Ad., 103; neither you nor I did this.
The same is true, but not so common, of et—et (as well as), aut—aut, either—or.

2. A Sing. subj. combined with another word by cum, with, is treated properly as a Singular. It is treated as a Pl. once each by Cato, Terence (Heaut., 473), Cicero (by anacoluthon), Caesar (B.C., iii. 88), more often by Sallust and his imitators, Livy, and later writers. Velleius, Valerius M., and Tacitus follow the classical usage.

Sulla cum Scipio . . . lēgēs inter sē contulērunt, C., Ph., xii. 11, 27. Ipse dux cum aliquot principibus capiuntur, L., xxi. 60, 7; the general himself with some of the leading men are captured.


286. Gender.—When the Genders of combined subjects are the same, the adjective predicate agrees in gender; when the genders are different, the adjective predicate takes either the strongest gender or the nearest.

1. In things with life, the masculine gender is the strongest; in things without life, the neuter.

(a) The strongest:

Pater et māter mortui [sunt], Ter., Eun., 518 (285). Mūrus et porta de caelō tāctā erant, L., xxxii. 29, 1; wall and gate had been struck by lightning. Hōc anima atque animus vincī sunt foedere semper, Lucr., iii. 416.

(b) The nearest:

Convicta est Messālīna et Silius, Cf. Tac., Ann., xii. 65; Messalina was convicted and (so was) Silius. Hippolochus Lārissaeōrumque dēditum est praesidium, L., xxxvi. 9, 14; Hippolochus and the Larissaean garrison (were) surrendered.

2. When things with life and things without life are combined, the gender varies.

(a) Both as persons:

Rēx rēgiae clāssis profectī (sunt), L., xxi. 50, 11; the king and the king's fleet set out.

(b) Both as things:

Nātūrā inimīca [sunt] libera cīvitās et rēx, Cf. L., xliv. 24, 2; a free state and a king are natural enemies.

3. When the subjects are feminine abstracts the predicate may be a neuter Plural (211, R. 4).

Stultitiam et intemperantiam dīcimus esse fugienda, C., Fin., iii. 11, 39; folly and want of self-control (we say) are (things) to be avoided.

Note.—This usage does not appear in early Latin, nor in Caesar or Sallust.
287. Persons.—When the persons of combined subjects are different, the First Person is preferred to the Second, the Second to the Third:

Si tú et Tullia, lúx hostra, valétis, ego et suávissimús Cicero valémus, C., Fam., xiv. 5, 1; if Tullia, light of my life, and you are well, dearest Cicero and I are well.

Remark.—(a) In contrasts, and when each person is considered separately, the predicate agrees with the person of the nearest subject.

Et ego et Cicero meus flagitábit, C., Att., iv. 18, 5; my Cicero will demand it and (so will) I. Beáte vivere álíi in álii, vós in voluptáte pónitis, C., Fin., ii. 27, 86; some make a blessed life to rest on one thing, some on another, you on pleasure.

So regularly with disjunctives, see 285, n. 1.

(b) The order is commonly the order of the persons, not of modern politeness: Ego et uxór mea, Wife and I.

2. Qualification of the Subject.

288. The subject may be qualified by giving it an attribute. An attribute is that which serves to give a specific character.

The chief forms of the attribute are:

I. The adjective and its equivalents: amicus certus, a sure friend.

Remark.—The equivalents of the adjective are: 1. The pronouns hic, this, ille, that, etc. 2. Substantives denoting rank, age, trade: servus homō, a slave person; homō senex, an old fellow; homō gladiátor, a gladiator-fellow; mulier ancilla, a servant-wench. 3. The Genitive (360, 1). 4. The Ablative (400). 5. Preposition and case: excésus á vitá, departure from life. 6. Adverbs, chiefly with substantival participles: rēctē facta, good actions. 7. Relative clauses (505).

II. The substantive in apposition: Cicero orátor, Cicero the Orator.

I. ADJECTIVE ATTRIBUTE.

Concord.

289. The Adjective Attribute agrees with its substantive in gender, number, and case:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vir sapiēns, a wise man</td>
<td>viri sapientēs, wise men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mulier pulchra, a beautiful woman</td>
<td>mulierēs pulchræ, beautiful women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rēgium dōnum, royal gift</td>
<td>rēgia dōna, royal gifts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Case.

Viri sapientis, of a wise man. bone fili! good son!
Mulierē pulchrae, for a beautiful woman. rēgīō dēnō, by royal gift.
Vīrum sapientem, wise man. mulierēs pulchrās, beautiful women.

290. The common attribute of two or more substantives agrees with the nearest; rarely with the most important.

Volusēnus, vir et cōnsiliī māgni et virtūtis, Caes., B.G., iii. 5, 2; Volusenus, a man of great wisdom and valour. Ćuncta marīa terraeque pātébant, S., C., 10, 1; all seas and lands lay open. Multa alīa castella vicīque aut dēlēta hostiliter aut integra in potestātem vēnēre, L., ix. 38, 1.

Remarks.—i. For emphasis, or to avoid ambiguity, the adj. is repeated with every substantive. Sometimes also for rhetorical reasons simply.

(Semprōniae) multae facētiae, multusque lepōs inerat, S., C., 25, 5; Sempronia had a treasure of witticisms, a treasure of charming talk.

2. When a substantive is construed with several similar adjectives in the Sing., it may be in agreement with one in the Sing. or may stand in the Pl., according to its position:

Quārta et Mārtia legiōnēs, C., Fam., xi. 19, 1, but Legiō Mārtia quārtaque, C., Ph., v. 17, 46, The fourth and Martian legions.

Notes.—1. A common surname is put in the Plural: M. (et) Q. Cicerōnēs, Marcus and Quintus Cicero; C., Cn., M. Carbōnēs, Gaius, Gnaeus (and) Marcus Carbo; otherwise, M. Cicerō et Q. Cicerō, Marcus and Quintus Cicero.

2. Poets are free in regard to the position of the adjective: Semper honōs nōmenque tuum laudēsque manēbunt, V., A., 1, 609.

291. Position of the Attribute.—i. When the attribute is emphatic, it is commonly put before the substantive, otherwise in classical Latin ordinarily after it. But see 676.

1. Fugitivus servus, a runaway slave (one complex).

2. Servus fugitivus, a slave (that is) a runaway (two notions).

Many expressions, however, have become fixed formulae, such as civis Rōmānus, Roman citizen; populus Rōmānus, people of Rome.

Compare body politic, heir apparent in English.

Remarks.—i. Variation in the position of the adj. often causes variation in the meaning of the word. Thus rēs bonae, good things; bonae rēs, articles of value, or good circumstances; rēs urbānae, city matters; urbānae rēs, witticisms; mensa secunda, a second table; secunda mensa, dessert.
2. Superlatives which denote order and sequence in time and space are often used partitively, and then generally precede their substantive: summa aqua, the surface of the water; summus montis, the top of the mountain; vere primo, primo vere, in the beginning of spring. Similarly in medias urbes, in the midst of the city; reliqua, cetera Graecia, the rest of Greece, and the like.

2. When the attribute belongs to two or more words, it is placed sometimes after them all, sometimes after the first, sometimes before them all.

Divitiae, nomen, opes vacuae consiliō dedicori plena sunt, C., Rep., i. 34, 51; riches, name, resources (when) void of wisdom are full of dishonour.

For examples of the other positions see 290.

Numerals.

292. Duo means simply two, ambo, both (two considered together), uterque, either (two considered apart, as, "They crucified two other with him, on either side one," John, xix. 18):

Sulpilcatō ambōrum nōmine et triumphus utrique décrētus est, L., xxviii. 9, 9; a thanksgiving in the name of both and a triumph to either (each of the two) was decreed. Quī utrumque probat, ambōbus dēbuit utī, C., Fin., ii. 7, 20; he who approves of either ought to have availed himself of both.

Remarq.—Uterque is seldom Pl., except of sets; so with plūralia tantum.

Utrique (i.e., plēbis autōrēs et senātus) victōriam crūdēlīter exercēbant, S., C., 38, 4; either party (democrats and senate) made a cruel use of victory. Duæ fūrunt Ariovistī uxōrēs: utraque in ea fugā perǐrunt, Caes., B.G., i. 53, 4; Ariovistus's wives were two in number; both perished in that flight. Proximō diē Caesar e castrīs utrisque cópiās suās êdūxīt, Caes., B.G., i. 50, 1.

On uterque with the Pl., see 211, r. 1; with Gen., see 371, r.

293. Mille, a thousand, is in the Sing. an indeclinable adj. and is less frequently used with the Genitive: mille militēs, rather than mille militum, a thousand soldiers; in the Pl. it is a declinable substantive, and must have the Genitive: duo milia militum, two thousand(s of) soldiers = two regiments of soldiers. If a smaller number comes between, the substantive usually follows the smaller number:
NUMERALS.

3500 cavalry, \[ \text{tria milia quingenti equites,} \]
\[ \text{tria milia equitum et quingenti, but} \]
\[ \text{equites tria milia quingenti, or} \]
\[ \text{equitum tria milia quingenti.} \]

But duo milia quingenti hostium in acie perire, L., xxii. 7, 3.

Note.—The use of *mille* as a substantive with the Part. Gen. is found mostly in ante-classical and post-classical Latin. Cicero and Caesar use it but rarely, and in phrases such as *mille nummum, mille passuum*. Livy is fonder of it.

294. Ordinals.—The Ordinals are used more often in Latin than in English; thus always in dates: *anno ducentésimó quarto*, *in the year 204*; sometimes they are used for the cardinals with a carelessness that gives rise to ambiguity:

Quattuor annī sunt, *ex quō tē nōn vidi*.
*It is four years, that I have not seen you (since I saw you).*

Quartus annus est, *ex quō tē nōn vidi*.
*It is the fourth year (four years, going on four years).*

Note.—To avoid this ambiguity forms of *incipere, to begin, and exigere, to finish, seem to have been used. Cf., Pl., Capt., 980; Cist., 161.*

On *quisque* with the ordinal, see 318, 2.

295. Distributives.—The distributives are used with an exactness which is foreign to our idiom wherever repetition is involved, as in the multiplication table.

*Bis bina quot [sunt] ?* C., N.D., ii. 18, 49; *how many are twice two?* Scriptum eoulem cum quīnque pedibus, pullōs gallīnāceōs trīs cum ternīs pedibus nātos esse, L., xxxii. 1, 11; *a letter was written to say that a colt had been foaled with five feet (and) three chickens hatched with three feet (apiece).*

With *singulī* the distributive is preferred, but the cardinal may be used.

Antōnius (pollicitus est) dēnāriōs quīngēnōs singulīs militibus datūrum, C., Fam., x. 32, 4; *Antonius promised to give five hundred denarii to each soldier.* Singulīs cēnsōribus dēnāriī trecentī (so all MSS.) imperātī sunt, C., Verr., ii. 55, 137; *the censors were required to pay three hundred denarii apiece.*

Note.—Poets and later prose writers often use the distributive when the cardinal would be the rule; thus *bīni* is not unfrequently used of a pair even in Cicero: *bīnōs (scyphōs) habēbam, Verr., iv. 14, 32.* When there is an idea of grouping, the distributive is often broken up into a multiplicative and a distributive; as,

*Carmen ab ter novēnis virginibus canī fūssērunt, L., xxxi. 12, 9; they ordered a chant to be sung by thrice nine virgins.*
Comparatives and Superlatives.

296. COMPARATIVE.—The comparative degree generally takes a term of comparison either with quam, than, or in the Ablative:

Ignoratio futurorum malorum utilior est quam scientia, C., Div., ii. 9, 23; ignorance of future evils is better than knowledge (of them). Nihil est virtute amabilius, C., Lael., 3, 28; nothing is more lovable than virtue.

Remarks.—1. (a) The Abl. is used only when the word with quam would stand in the Nom. or Acc. (644).

Caesar minor est quam Pompéius, Caesar is younger than Pompey.

Caesarem plús amámus quam Pompéium, we love Caesar more than Pompey.

In the second example the use of the Abl. may give rise to ambiguity, as the sentence may also mean "we love Caesar more than Pompey loves him." This ambiguity is always present when adverbs are used, and hence good prose avoids using a comparative adv. with an Ablative. Sec II., S., i. 1, 97.

(b) With cases other than Nom. or Acc., quam is regularly used to avoid ambiguity.

Anulis nostris plús quam animis créditur, Sen., Ben., iii. 15, 3 (217).

2. The Abl. is very common in negative sentences, and is used exclusively in negative relative sentences.

Polybium sequámur, quó némô fuit diligentior, C., Rep., ii. 14, 27; let us follow Polybius, than whom no one was more careful.

3. Measure of difference is put in the Ablative (403).

4. Quam is often omitted after plús, amplius, more, and minus, less, and the like, without affecting the construction:

Hominí miseró plús quíngentós colaphós interfígít mihi, Ter., Ad., 199; he has dealt me, luckless creature, more than five hundred crushing boxes on the ear. Spatium est nón amplius pedum séscentórum, Caes., B.C., i. 38, 5; the space is not more than (of) six hundred feet.

But the normal construction is not excluded:

Palús nón látior pedíbus quínguágentá, Caes., B.G., vii. 19, 1; a swamp not broader than fifty feet (or pedés quínguágentá). Nostri milités amplius hórís quattuor púgnáverunt, Caes., B.G., iv. 37, 3.
5. In statements of age we may have a variety of expressions; thus, more than thirty years old may be:


6. On the combination of the comparative with opinione, opinion, spē, hope, and the like, see 398, n. 1.

Notes.—1. Verbs and other words involving comparison sometimes have the Abl. where another construction would be more natural. Thus, mālle, to prefer (poet. and post-classical), aequē, adaequē, equally (early and late), alius, other (mainly poetical and rare): Nūllōs his mālem lūdēs spectāsse, H., S., ii. 8, 79. Qui me in terrā aequē fortūnātus erit? Pl., Curc, 141. Nē putēs alium sapiente bonōque beatum, Ep., i. 16, 20.

2. Instead of the Abl., the Gen. is found occasionally in late Latin.

3. Instead of quām or the Abl., prepositional uses with the positive are often found; as praē, in comparison with, praeter, ante, beyond; also suprā quām. Poetical is the circumlocution with quālis, as Hon., Epod., 5, 59. Inferior is sometimes constructed with the Dat., according to the sense; inferior to instead of lower than.

4. Atque for quām is mainly poetical; see 644, n. 2.

297. Standard of Comparison omitted.—When the standard of comparison is omitted, it is supplied: 1. By the context; 2. By the usual or proper standard; 3. By the opposite.

1. By the context:

Solent rēgēs Persārum plārēs uxōrēs habēre, Cf. C., Verr., iii. 33, 76; the kings of Persia usually have more wives [than one].

2. By the proper standard:

Senectūs est nātūrā loquācior, C., Cat. M., 16, 55, Old age is naturally rather (or too) talkative.

3. By the opposite:

Quīssē erit melius, L., iii. 48, 3; it will be better to be-perfectly-quiet (than to make a disturbance).

298. Disproportion.—Disproportion is expressed by the comparative with quām prō, than for, and the Ablative, or with quām ut, that, or quām qui, who, and the Subjunctive:

Minor caedes quām prō tantā victoriā fuit, L., x, 14, 21; the loss was (too) small for so great a victory. Quis nōn intellegit Canachi signa rigidōra esse quām ut imitentur vérītātem? C., Br., 18, 70; who does not perceive that Canachus’ figures are too stiff to imitate the truth of nature? Maiōr sum quām cui possit Fortūna nocēre, Ov., M., vi. 195; I am too great for Fortune possibly to hurt me.
Remarks.—Disproportion may also be expressed by the positive in combination with prepositional phrases, etc.: pró multitūdine angustī finēs, Caes., B.G., 1, 2, 5; boundaries too small for their multitude.

Notes.—1. The constructions quem pró and quem qui are both post-Ciceronian.
2. The ut is frequently omitted after quam, as: Dolabella celerius Asia [excessit], quam eō præsidium adduē potuisset, C., Fam., xii. 15, 1. This is especially common after potius quam.

299. Two Qualities compared.—When two qualities of the same substantive are compared, we find either magis and quam with the positive, or a double comparative:

Celer tuus disertus magis est quam sapiēns, C., Att., x, 1, 4; your (friend) Celer is eloquent rather than wise—more eloquent than wise. Acútiōrem sē quam ornātiōrem [vult], C., Opt. Gen., 2, 6; he wishes to be acute rather than ornate.

Notes.—1. There is no distinction to be made between the two expressions. In the latter turn, which is found first, but rarely, in Cicero, the second comparative is merely attracted into the same form as the first. The same rule applies to the adverb: fortius quam fēlicius, with more bravery than good luck.
2. Post-Augustan Latin shows occasionally the comparative followed by quam, and the positive: Nimia piētās vestās ācrius quam cōnsiderātē excītāvit, Tac., ii., i, 83.

300. Restriction to the Comparative.—When but two objects are compared, the comparative exhausts the degrees of comparison, whereas, in English, the superlative is employed, unless the idea of duality is emphatic.

Nātū māior, the eldest (of two), the elder; nātū minor, the youngest, the younger. Prior, the first; posterior, the last.
Posteriōrēs cōgitātiōnēs, ut ānum, sapientiōrēs solent esse, C., Ph., xii. 2, 5; afterthoughts, as the saying is, are usually the wisest.

Remark.—The same rule applies to the interrogative uter, which of two? (whether?): Ex duōbus uter dīgnior? ex pluribus, quis dīgnissimus? Quint., vii, 4, 21; of two, which is the worthier? of more (than two), which is the worthiest?

Note.—Quis is rarely used instead of uter, as C., Fam., vi, 3, 1; V., A., xii. 725.

301. Comparative Strengthened. The comparative is often strengthened during the classical period by the insertion of etiam, even; later also by adhīc, still. Multō is properly the Ablative of difference, and is the normal form until the time of Vergil, when its place is taken largely by longē, except in Horace, who retains multō. Ante-classical and post-classical Latin occasionally doubles the comparative: magis dulcius, Pl., Stich., 699. Nihil inveniēs magis hōc certō certius, Pl.,
Capt., 643. Even in Cicero a word involving Preference is sometimes strengthened by *potius*:

[Themistocles] fuit optabilius oblivisci posse potius quam meminisse, C., Or., n. 74, 300; Themistocles thought it (more) preferable to be able to forget (rather) than to be able to remember.

**302. Superlative.**—The Latin superlative is often to be rendered by the English positive, especially of persons:

Quintus Fabius Maximus, *Quintus Fabius the Great*. 

Maximo impetu, maiore fortuna, L., xivii. 36, 2; with great vigour, with greater luck. 

Tam felix esses quam formosissima vellem, Ov., Am., i. 8, 27; would thou were fortunate as (thou art) fair.

**303. Superlative Strengthened.**—The superlative is strengthened by *multō, much* (especially in early Latin); *longē, by far* (the normal usage in the classical period); *vel, even*; *únus, one* omnium, *one above all others*; *quam* (with adverbs and adjectives), *quantus* (with *máximus*), *ut* (with adverbs)—*potest, potuit, as—as possible.

Ex Britannis omnibus longē sunt húmanissimi qui Cantium incolunt, Caes., B. G., v. 14, 1; of all the Britons by far the most cultivated are those that inhabit Kent. Protagoras sophistēs illis temporibus vel máximus, C., N. D., i. 23, 63; Protagoras, the very greatest sophist (= professor of wisdom) in those times. Urbem ūnam mihi ámbissimam déclínávi, C., Planc., 41, 97; I turned aside from a city above all others friendly to me. (Caesar) quam aequissimō locō potest castra commūnit, Caes., B. G., v. 49, 7; Caesar fortifies a camp in as favourable a position as possible.

**Remarks.**—1. The omission of *potest* leaves *quam* with the superlative, which becomes a regular combination: *as (great) as possible*.

2. For *tam, tantum*, with positive followed by *quam, quantum quī*, and the superlative, see 642, r. 5.

**PRONOUNS.**

**1. Personal Pronouns.**

**304. i.** The personal Pronoun is usually omitted when it is the subject of a verb; see 207.

2. The Genitive forms, *mei, tui, sui, nostrī, vestī*, are used mainly as Objective Genitives; see 364, n. 2.

(Marcellinus) sō acerrimum tuī défensōrem fore ostendit, C., Fam., i. 1, 2; Marcellinus showed that he would be your keenest defender.

**Notes.**—1. *Nostrum* and *vestrum* for *nostrī, vestī*, are very rare: [Iūpīter, custōs] hūlīs urbīs āe vestrum, Cf. C., Cat., iii. 12, 29.

2. The Possessive pronouns sometimes are found in place of this Genitive: *Neque neclegentiā tua neque odiō id fēcit tuō*, Ter., Ph., 1016; he did this neither from
neglect of thee nor from hatred of thee. Vester conspectus reficit et recreat mente meam, C., Planc., 1, 2; the sight of you refreshes and renews my spirits.

"If I be a master, where is my fear?"

MAL., I. 6.

3. The Genitive forms, nostrum and vestrum, are used partitively; see 364, r.

Tē ad mē venire uterque nostrum cupid, C., Att., XIII. 33, 2; each of us two desires that you should come to me.

Notes.—1. So regularly also in certain phraseological uses which may be partitive at basis. Frequentia vestrum, consensus vestrum, regularly in combination with omnium (364, r.), and occasionally when the Possessive is more natural; is enim splendor est vestrum, C., Att., VII. 13A, 3.

2. For a Part. Gen. of the third person (reflexive) a circumlocution must be used, such as ex sé or the Possessive suōrum.

2. Demonstrative Pronouns.

305. Hic, this (the Demonstrative of the First Person), refers to that which is nearer the speaker, and may mean:

1. The speaker himself: hic homō = ego, Pl., Trin., 1115.

2. The persons with whom the speaker identifies himself, e.g., the judges in a suit at law: si ego hōs nōvi, if I know these men (= the jury).

3. The most important subject immediately in hand: hic sapiēns de quō loquor, C., Ac., II. 33, 105; this (imaginary) wise man of whom I am speaking.

4. That in which the speaker is peculiarly interested: hoc studium, this pursuit of mine, of ours.

5. That which has just been mentioned: haec hāctenus, these things thus far = so much for that.

6. Very frequently, that which is about to be mentioned: his condicionibus, on the following terms.

7. The current period of time: hic diēs, to-day; haec nox, the night just past or just coming; hic mēnsis, the current month.

306. Iste, that (of thine, of yours), refers to that which belongs more peculiarly to the Second Person (Demonstrative of the Second Person):

Perfer istam militiam, C., Fam., VII. 11, 2; endure that military service of yours. Adventū tuō ista subsellia vacuafacta sunt, C., Cat., 1. 7, 16; at your approach the benches in your neighbourhood were vacated.

Note.—The supposed contemptuous character of iste arises from the refusal to take any direct notice of the person under discussion, "the person at whom one speaks or points," and precisely the same thing is true of hic and ille, but less common.

307. Ille, that (the Demonstrative of the Third Person), denotes that which is more remote from the speaker, and is often used in contrast to hic, this.
Sól mē ille admonuit, C., Or., iii., 55, 209; that (yon) sun reminded me. Q. Catulus nōn antiquō illō mōre sed hōc nostrō eruditus, C., Br., 35, 132; Q. Catulus, a cultivated man, not after the old-fashioned standard of a by-gone time (illō) but by the standard of to-day (hōc).

Ille may mean:

1. That which has been previously mentioned (often ille quidem):

illud quod initiō vôbis prōposuí, C., Font., 7, 17; that which I propounded to you at first.

2. That which is well known, notorious (often put after the substantive): tēstula illa, that (notorious) potsherd = institution of ostracism; illud Solōnis, that (famous saying) of Solon's.

3. That which is to be recalled: illud imprimis mīrabile, that (which I am going to remind you of) is especially wonderful.

4. That which is expected:

illa dīes veniet mea quā lūgubria pōnam, Ov., Tr., iv. 2, 73; the day will come when I shall lay aside (cease) my mournful strains.

Remarks.—I. Hic and ille are used together in contrasts: as, the latter—the former, the former—the latter.

(a) When both are matters of indifference the natural signification is observed: hic, the latter; ille, the former.

Ignāvia corpus hebetat, labor firmāt; illa mātūram senectātem, hic longam adolescēntiam reddit, Cels., i. 1; laziness weakens the body, toil strengthens it; the one (the former) hastens old age, the other (the latter) prolongs youth.

(b) When the former is the more important, hic is the former, ille, the latter:

Melior tūtiorque est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria; haec in nostrā, illa in dērūm manū est, L., xxx. 30, 19; better and safer is certain peace than hoped-for victory; the former is in our hand(s), the latter in the hand(s) of the gods.

2. Hic et ille; ille et ille; ille aut ille, this man and (or) that man = one or two.

Nōn dīcam hōc signum ablātum esse et illud; hōc dēō, nūllum tē signum reliquisse, C., Verr., i. 20, 53; I will not say that this statue was taken off and that; (what) I say (is) this, that you left no statue at all.

3. The derived adverbs retain the personal relations of hic, iste, ille: hic, here (where I am); hinc, hence (from where I am); hōc, hither (where I am); istic, there (where you are); illīc, there (where he is), etc.

4. The Demonstratives hic, iste, ille, and the Determinative is, are often strengthened by quidem, indeed. The second member is then introduced by sed, sed tamen (more rarely tamen, vérūm, autem, vérē), vérūm-tamen, and sometimes is added asyndetically. The sentence often requires that either the demonstrative or the particle be left untranslated.
Optäre hoc quidem est, nö̇n docère, C., Tusc., 11. 13, 30; that is a (pious) wish, not a (logical) proof. Nihil perfertur ad nö̇s praeter rümö̈res satis istö̈s quidem constantës sed adhuc sine auctö̈re, C., Fam. xii. 9, 1; nothing is brought to us except reports, consistent enough, it is true, but thus far not authoritative.

Ille is most often used thus; is, iste, hic, more rarely.

Notes.—1. Hic and ille are sometimes employed to add a qualification to a substantive by means of a contrast: Örätor nö̈n ille vulgä̈ris sed hic excellëns, C., Or., 14, 45; an orator, not of the (you) common type, but of the ideal excellence (we seek).

2. Not unfrequently in poetry, very rarely in prose, in a long sentence a substantive is repeated by means of ille: V., A., 1, 3. ille et terris iactatus; II., O., iv. 9, 51.

3. Sometimes two forms of hic, ille, or is are found in the same clause referring to different substantives: Evolve diligenter eius [i. e., Platönis] eum librum, qui est dë animö̈, C., Tusc., 11, 24.

4. Ille may refer to an oblique form of is: Nö̈n est amisë tälem esse in eum, quä̈lis ille in së est, C., Lael., 16, 59.

5. Ille is found chiefly in poetry with the personal pronouns ego, tū, and occasionally with hic, and when so used takes its fullest force. Hunc illum fätis externë ab sëde protestum portendi generum, V., A., vii. 255.

3. Determinative and Reflexive Pronouns.

308. Is, that, is the determinative pronoun, and serves as the lacking pronoun of the Third Person. It furnishes the regular antecedent of the relative:

Mihö̈ vënö̈t obviam tuës puer; is mihö̈ letterä̈s abs të redö̈dit, C., Att., ii. 1, 1; I was met by your servant; he delivered to me a letter from you.

Is minimö̈ eget mortä̈lis qui minimum cupit, Syrös, 286 (Fr.); that mortal is in want of least, who wanteth least.

Remarks.—1. Is, as the antecedent of the relative, is often omitted, chiefly in the Nom., more rarely in an oblique case (619).

Bis dat quì dat celeriter, Syrus, 235 (Fr.); he gives twice who gives in a trice.

Often it has the force of tälis (631, 1) in this connection:

Ego is sum quì nihil umquam meë̈ potius quam meë̈ rum civium causä̈ fècerim, C., Fam., v. 21, 2; I am a man never to have done anything for my own sake, rather than for the sake of my fellow-citizens.

2. Is, with a copulative or adversative particle, is used as he or that in English, for the purpose of emphasis. Such expressions are: et is, atque is, isque, and he too, and that too; neque is, et is nö̈n, and he not, and that not; sed is, but he, further strengthened by quidem, indeed. To refer to the whole action id is employed.

Exempla quæerimus et ea nö̈n antiqua, C., Verr., iii. 90, 210; we are looking for examples, and those, too, not of ancient date. Epicuræ ûnä in domö̈ et ea quidem angustä̈ quam mägnö̈s tenuit amicö̈rum gregës, C., Fin., i. 20, 65; what shoals of friends Epicurus had in one house, and
Negotium magnum est navigare atque id mensae Quinctili, C., Att. v. 12, 1; it is a big job to take a voyage and that in the month of July.

3. Is does not represent a substantive before a Gen., as in the English that of. In Latin the substantive is omitted, or repeated, or a word of like meaning substituted.

Non indicio discipulorum dicere debet magister sed discipuli magistri, Quint., i. 2, 13; the master is not to speak according to the judgment of the pupils; but the pupils according to that of the master. Nulla est celeritas quae possit cum animi celeritate contendere, C., Tusc. i. 19, 43; there is no speed that can possibly vie with that of the mind. M. Coelius tribunali suum iuxta C. Trebonii sellam collocavit, Caes., B.C., iii. 20, 1; Marcus Coelius placed his chair of office next to that of Gaius Trebonius.

Of course hic, ille, and iste can be used with the Gen. in their proper sense.

309. Reflexive. Instead of forms of is, the Reflexive Pronoun sui, sibi, se, together with the Possessive of the Reflexive suos (-us), sua, suum (-um) is used. (See 521.)

1. Regularly when reference is made to the grammatical subject of the sentence:

    Ipse se quisque diligit quod sibi quisque carus est, C., Lael., 21, 80; every one loves himself, because every one is dear to himself. (Fadius) me diliguit propter summam suam humanitatem, C., Fam. xv. 14, 1; Fadius is a favourite of mine by reason of his exceeding kindliness.

    The subject may be indefinite or (occasionally) impersonal.

    Contentum suis rebus esse maxima sunt divitiae, C., Par., vi. 3, 51; to be content with one's own things (with what one hath) is the greatest riches. Perventum ad suos erat, L., xxxiii. 8, 6.

    "Pure religion and undefiled is this . . . to keep himself unspotted from the world." James, i. 27.

2. Frequently when reference is made to the actual subject (521, R. 2):

    Suos rex reginae placet, Pl., St., 133; every queen favours her own king (every Gill loves her own Jack). Osculatur tigrim suus custos, Sen., E.M., 85, 41; her own keeper kisses the tigress (the tigress is kissed by her own keeper). Cui proposita sit conservatio sui necessae est huic partis quoque sui caras esse, C., Fin., v. 13, 37; he who has in view the preservation of himself (self-preservation) must necessarily hold dear the parts of (that) self also.

    This is especially common with suos, which when thus employed has usually its emphatic sense: own, peculiar, proper,
3. Sui, sibi, se are the regular complements of the infinitive and its equivalents when a reflexive idea is involved; they are also used with prepositions erga, inter, propter, per, for especial emphasis.

(Römānī) sui colligendi hostibus facultātem (nōn) relinquunt, Caes., B.G., III. 6, 1; the Romans do not leave the enemy a chance to rally. Ipsum Furnium per sē vidī libertissimē, C., Fam., x. 3, 1.

4. Suos (-us) is also used in prepositional phrases that are joined closely with the substantives; so after cum, inter, and more rarely after in, intrā, and ad.

Māgōnem cum clāsse suā in Hispāniam mittunt, L., xxiii. 32, 11; they sent Mago with his fleet to Spain. Helvētiōs in fines suōs reverti iūsīt, Caes., B.G., i. 28, 3; he ordered the Helvetians to return to their own country.

So the phrases suō tempore, at the right time; suō locō, at the right place.

Cōmoediae quem īsum in puēris putem suō locō dīcam, Quint., i. 8, 7; what I consider to be the good of comedy in the case of boys I will mention in the proper place.

Notes.—1. The writer may retain forms of īs, if he desires to emphasise his own point of view. So too in prepositional combinations.

(Cæsar) Cicerōnem prō ēius meritō laudat, Caes., B.G., v. 52, 4; Cæsar praises Cicero according to his desert. [Pompeīus] cum dēcrētum dē mē Capuae fēcit, ipse cūntae Itāliacē ēius idēm implōrantī sīgnum dedit, C., Mil., 15, 39.

2. In early comedy and then again in late Latin, suos is sometimes strengthened by sibī: Suō sibi gladiō hunc iugulō, Ter., Ad., 958; very rarely in classical Latin (C., Pl., ii. 37, 96). Similarly meā mīhi, Pl., Truc., 698.

3. On suum quisque, see 318, 3.

4. In dependent clauses the reflexive is used with reference either to the principal or to the subordinate subject. See for fuller treatment 521.

310. Idem, the same, serves to unite two or more attributes or predicates on a person or thing; it is often to be translated by at the same time; likewise, also; yet, notwithstanding.

(Cimōn) incidunt in eandem invidiam quam pater suus, Nep., v. 3, 1; Cimon fell into the same odium as his father. Quidquid honestum [est] idem [est] ītile, C., Off., ii. 3, 10; whatever is honourable is also (at the same time) useful. Nīl prōdest quod nōn laedere possit idem, Ov., Tr., ii. 266; nothing helps that may not likewise hurt. (Epicūrus), cum optimam et praestantissimam nātūram del dicat esse, negat idem esse in dei grātiam, C., N.D., i. 43, 121; although Epicurus says that the nature of God is
transcendently good and great, yet (at the same time) he says that there is no sense of favour in God. **Difficilis facilis, iucundus acerbus, es idem, Mart., xii. 47, 1**; crabbed (and) kindly, sweet (and) sour, are you at once.

**Remarks.**—i. When a second attribute is to be added to a substantive it is often connected by idemque, et idem, atque idem: **Vir doctissimus Platô atque idem gravissimus philosophorum omnium, C., Leg., ii. 6, 14; Plato, a most learned man, and at the same time weightiest of all the philosophers.**

2. The same as is expressed by idem with qui, with atque or ac, with ut, with cum, and poetically with the Dative. See 359, n. 6, 642, 643.

Tibi mæcum in eodem est pistrino vivendum, C., Or., ii. 33, 144; you have to live in the same treadmill with me.

3. Idem cannot be used with is, of which it is only a stronger form (is + idem).

**311. i. Ipse, self, is the distinctive pronoun, and separates a subject or an object from all others:**

Ipse feci, *I myself did it and none other, I alone did it, I did it of my own accord, I am the very man that did it.* Nunc ipsum, at this very instant, at this precise moment.

**Valvae subito se ipsae aperuérunt, C., Div., i. 34, 74; the folding-doors suddenly opened of their own accord.** (Catô) mortuus est annis octoginta sex ipsis ante [Cicerô nem] consulem, C., Br., i5, 61; Cato died just eighty-six years before Cicero's consulship. Huic ref quod satis esse visum est militum reliquit (Caesar); ipse cum legionibus in finès Trêverorum proficiscitur, Caes., B. G., v. 2, 4.

**Remarks.**—i. Owing to this distinctive character, ipse is often used of persons in opposition to things; riders in opposition to horses; inhabitants in opposition to the towns which they inhabit; the master of the house in opposition to his household, etc.

Eò quò mé ipsa misit, Pút., Cas., 790; *I am going where mistress sent me.* Ipse dixit, C., N.D., i. 5, 10; the master said *aúròs eëpa.*

2. Et ipse, likewise, as well, is used when a new subject takes an old predicate:

[Locri urbs] désiderar et ipsa ad Poenôs, L., xxix. 6, 1; Locri-city had likewise (as well as the other cities) revolted to the Carthaginians. [Camillus] ex Volscis in Aequôs tránsit et ipsós bellum mólientès, L., vi. 2, 14; Camillus went across from the Volscians to the Aequians, who were likewise (as well as the Volscians) getting up war.

Ciceró prefers in this meaning *ipse* alone, but *et ipse* occurs occasionally (not in Caesar or Sallust), and becomes the prevailing form in Livy and later.

2. Ipse is used to lay stress on the reflexive relation; in
the Nominative when the subject is emphatic, in the Oblique Cases when the object is emphatic.

Sē ipse laudat, he (and not another) praises himself. Sē ipsum laudat, he praises himself (and not another).

Piger ipse sibi obstat, Prov. (Sen., E.M., 94, 28); the lazy man stands in his own way, is his own obstacle. Nōn egeō medicīnā; mē ipse cōnsūlor, C., Lael., 3, 10; I do not need medicine; I comfort myself (I am my only comforter).

Eōdem modo sapiēns erit affectus ergā amicum quō in sē ipsum, C., Fin., i. 20, 68; the wise man will feel towards his friend as he feels towards himself.

Exceptions are common:

Quique alīs cāvit, nōn cavet ipse sibi, Ov., A.A., 1. 54; and he who cared for others, cares not for himself.

Note.—Livy seems to use sometimes ipse in connection with a reflexive as if it were indeclinable or absolute: cum diēs vēnit, causā ipse prō sē dīctā, damnātur, L., iv. 44, 10; when the appointed day came he pleaded his own cause and was condemned.

4. Possessive Pronouns.

312. The Possessive Pronouns are more rarely used in Latin than in English, and chiefly for the purpose of contrast or clearness.

Manūs lavā et cēnā, C., Or., ii. 60, 246; wash (your) hands and dine. Praedia mea tū possidēs, ego aliēnā misericordiā vīvō, C., Rosc. Am., 50, 145; you are in possession of my estates, (while) I live on the charity of others.

Remarks.—1. Observe the intense use of the Possessive in the sense of property, peculiarity, fitness: suum esse, to belong to one's self, to be one's own man.

Tempōre tuō pūgnāstī, L., xxxviii. 45, 10; you have fought at your own time (= when you wished). Hōc honōre mē adfēcistī annō meō, C., Leg. Agr., ii. 2, 4; you visited me with this honour in my own year (= the first year in which I could be made consul). Pūn̄a suum finēm, cum iacent hostis, habet, Ov., Tr., iii. 5, 34; a fight has reached its fit end when the foe is down.

2. On the use of the Possessive Pronouns for the Gen., see 364.

5. Indefinite Pronouns.

313. Quidam means one, a, a certain one, definite or indefinite to the speaker, but not definitely designated to the hearer. In the Plural, it is equivalent to some, sundry, without emphasis.
Interē mulier quaedam commigrāvit hūc, Ter., And., 69; meanwhile a certain woman took up her quarters here. Intellegendum est quibusdam quaestōniibus aliōs, quibusdam aliōs esse aptōrēs locōs, C., Top., 21, 79; it is to be observed that some grounds are more suitable for some questions, for some, others. Tam nescire quaedam militēs quam scire oportet, Tac., II., i. 83.

REMARKS.—1. With an adjective quīdam often serves to heighten the attribute by adding a vagueness to it. (Gr. τις).

Est quīdam incrediēbilis rōbore animī, C., Mil., 37, 101; really he is endowed with a strange strength of mind (one that is past belief).

2. Quīdam is often used with or without quasi, as if, to modify an expression:

Nōm sunt istī audiēndī qui virtūtem dūram et quasi ferream esse quandam volunt, C., Lael., 13, 48; those friends of yours are not to be listened to who will have it (maintain) that virtue is hard, and, as it were, made of iron. Est quaedam virtūtem vitiōrumque vicinīa, Quint., II. 12, 4 (cf. III. 7, 25); there is a certain neighborly relation between virtues and vices.

3. Quīdam may be strengthened by the addition of certus or ānus:

Vita agenda est certō genere quīdam, nōn quōlibet, C., Fin., III. 7, 24. Est eloquentiā ānā quaedam dē summīs virtūtibus, C., Or., III. 14, 55.

314. Aliquis (aliquī) means, some one, some one or other, wholly indefinite to the speaker as well as to the hearer:

[Declamābam] cum aliquō cottīdīē, C., Br., 90, 310; I used to declaim with somebody or other daily.

In the predicate it is often emphatic (by Litōtēs, 700): sum aliquis, aliiquid, I am somebody = a person of importance, something = of some weight; opposed to: nūllus sum, nihil sum, I am a nobody, nothing.

This force is often heightened by a following contrast:

Est hōc aliiquid, tametsī nōn est satis, C., Div. in Caec., 15, 47; this is something, although it is not enough. Fac, ut mē velīs esse aliquem, quoniam, quī fui et quī esse potui, iam esse nōn possum, C., Alt., III. 15, 8; do make out that I am somebody, since I can no longer be the man I was and the man I might have been.

REMARKS.—1. Aliquis and aliqūi are distinguished as substantive and adjective: accordingly, when aliquis is used with a substantive the relation is appositional. This always occurs with Proper names; and even with other substantives the Romans seem to have preferred aliquis to aliqūi. (See 107, n. 1.)

2. With numerals, aliquis is used like English some. Occasionally also it has the force of many a. So in Caes., B.C., 1. 2, 2, dixerat aliquis lēniōrem sententiam, where aliquis refers to three persons, named later.
315. Quis (qui), fainter than aliiquis, is used chiefly after si, if; nisi, unless; nē, lest; num, whether, and in relative sentences. See 107, r.

Nē quid nimis! Ter., And., 61; nothing in excess! Fit plērumque ut si qui boni quid volunt adferre, adfingant aliquid, quod faciant id, quod nūntiant, laetius, C., Ph., 1, 3, 8; it often happens that those who wish to bring (some) good tidings, invent something more, to make the news more cheering.

Notes.—1. Aliquis is used after si, etc., when there is stress: si quis, if any; si aliquid, if some; si quid, if anything; si quidquam, if anything at all.

Si aliquid dandum est volūtātī, senectūs modōcēs convīvis dēlectārī pōtest, C., Cat. M., 14, 44; if something is to be given to pleasure (as something or other must), old age can take delight in mild festivities.

Aliquis is regular if the sentence contains two negatives: [Verrés] nihil umquam fēcit sine aliquo quaestū, C., Verr., v. 5, 11. (446.)

2. Quis and qui are distinguished as aliiquis and aliiqui, but the distinction is often neglected, even in classical Latin. See 107, n. 1.

316. Quispiam is rarer than aliiquis, but not to be distinguished from it, except that quispiam never intimates importance. Dixerit quispiam, C., Cat. M., 3, 8; some one may say.

317. r. Quisquam and ullus (adjective) mean any one (at all), and are used chiefly in negative sentences, in sentences that imply total negation, and in sweeping conditions:

[Istititia] numquam nocet culquam, C., Fin., 1, 16, 50; justice never hurts anybody. Quis umquam Graecōrum rhētorum Thūcydide quidquam dūxit? C., Or., 9, 317; what Greek rhetorician ever drew anything from Thucydides? [None]. Si quisquam, ille sapiēns fuit, C., Lael., 2, 9; if any one at all (was) wise, he was. Quamdiū quisquam erit qui tē dēfendere audētur, vīvēs, C., Cat., 1, 2, 6; so long as there shall be any one to dare defend you, live on. Hostem esse in Syria negatūllum, C., Fam., iii, 8, 10; they say that there is not any enemy in Syria. Omnīnō nēmō ullus refuit ëmpōrt cul défuerit hic vēnditor, C., Ph., 11, 38, 97; generally there was never a buyer of anything who lacked a seller in him (no one ever wanted to buy anything that he was not ready to sell).

So after comparatives:

Sōlis candor inlūstrior est quam ullus Ignis, C., N.D., 11, 15, 40; the brilliancy of the sun is more radiant than that of any fire.

Notes.—1. Quisquam is occasionally (principally in Livy) strengthened by unus, especially after a negative: Cum multi magis fremerent, quam quisquam unus recisēre audēret, L., iii, 45, 4.

2. After sine, without, omni is often used instead of ulla in early Latin: Sine omni eura dormiās, Pl., Trin., 621.

3. On the use of quisquam as an adj., see 107, 3, 2.
2. The negative of quisquam is nēmō, nobody; nihil, nothing (108). The negative of ulla is nullus, no, none, which is also used regularly as a substantive in the Genitive and Ablative instead of nēminis and nēmine.

Nēmō is also sometimes used apparently as an adjective, though the conception is usually appositional.

Nēmō vir māgnus, C., N.D., ii. 66, 167; no great man, no one (who is) a great man.

**Notes.**—1. On neque quisquam and et nēmō, see 480.

2. Nullus is used in familiar language instead of nōn (so sometimes in English): Philippus nullus ësquam, L., xxxii. 35, 2; no Philip anywhere. Quis is also used familiarly: Prospectum petit, Anthea si quem videat, V., A., i. 161; an Antheus, i.e., Antheus or somebody who would answer for him.

3. Nēmō and nullus are occasionally strengthened by unus.

318. 1. Quisque means each one, as opposed to omnis, every, and is usually post-positive.

Mēns cūiusque, is est quisque, C., Rep., vi. 24, 26; each man’s mind is each man’s self. Landāti omnēs sunt dōnātique prō meritō quisque, L., xxxviii. 23; all were praised and rewarded, each one according to his desert. Quam quisque nōrit artem in hāc sé exercet, [C.], Tusc., i. 18, 41. (616.)

2. With superlatives and ordinals quisque is loosely translated every:

Optimum quidque rāri ssimum est, C., Fin., ii. 25, 81; every good thing is rare; more accurately, the better a thing, the rarer it is. (645, R. 2.) Quintō quōque annō Sicilia tōta cēnsētur, C., Verr., ii. 56, 139; every fifth year all Sicily is assessed.

3. Quisque combines readily with the reflexives, sui, sibī, se, suus, in their emphatic sense (309, 2). Here, except for special reasons, the reflexive precedes. Suum cuique has become a standing phrase.

Sua quemque fraus et suus terror vexat, C., Rosc. Am., 24, 67; it is his own sin and his own alarm that harasses a man.

**Notes.**—1. After Cicero’s time, owing to the phraseological character of the combination, sui etc. quisque, we find it used without agreement.

Exercitus āmissō duce ac passim multis sibī quisque imperium petentibus brevī dīlibitūr, S., Ig., 18, 3. Instigandō suōs quisque populōs effecere ut omne Volscum nōmen dēficeret, L., ii. 38, 6.

2. Classical but not common is the attraction of quisque into the case of the reflexive. Haec prōclivitās ad suum quodque genus ā similitūdine corporis aegrotātiō dīcātur, C., Tusc., iv. 12, 28.
3. *Quisque* combined with *primo* has two meanings: (a) as early as possible, (b) one after the other in order (deinceps).


4. The various uses of *quisque* are well summed up in Nägelsbach’s formulæ:
   a. *Non omnia omnibus tribuenda sunt, sed suum culque*;
   b. Omnes idem faciunt, sed optimus quisque optimē;
   c. *Non omnibus annis hoc fit, sed tertio quidque annō*;
   d. *Non omnēs idem faciunt, sed quod quisque vult.*

319. *Alter* and *alis* are both translated *other*, *another*, but *alter* refers to one of two, *alis* to diversity. They are used in various phraseological ways, which can be best shown by examples:

Sólus aut cum alterō, alone or with (only) one other; alter Neron, a second Nero.

*Alter* alterum quaerit, one (definite person) seeks the other (definite person); *alis* alium quaerit, one seeks one, another another; *alteri*—*alteri*, one party—another party (already defined); *ali*—*alis*, some—others. *Alter* often means neighbor, brother, fellow-man; *alis*, third person.

*Alter*:

(Ägesiläü’s) fuit claudus alterō pede, *Nep., xvii.* 8, 1; Agesilæus was lame of one foot. *Alterā* manū fert lapidem, pānem ostentat alterā, *Pl., Aul.,* 195; in one hand a stone he carries, in the other holds out bread. *Mors* nec ad vivōs pertinet nec ad mortuos: *alteri* nūlli (317, 2; N. 2) sunt, alterōs nōn attinget, C., *Tusc., i.* 38, 91; death concerns neither the living nor the dead: the latter are not, the former it will not reach.

*Alis*:

Fallacies alia aliam trūdit, *Ter., And.,* 779; one lie treads on the heels of another (indefinite series). *Alii* voluptās causā omnia sapientēs facere dixérunt; *alis* cum voluptāte dignitātem cōniungendam putāvērunt, C., *Cael.,* 15, 41; some have said that wise men do everything for the sake of pleasure, others have thought that pleasure is to be combined with dignity. *Divitiās* alii praeponunt, alii honores, C., *Lael.,* 6, 20; some prefer riches, others honors. *Alii* vestrum äsnerēs sunt, *alis* canēs, C., *Rosc. Am.,* 20, 57; some of you are geese, others dogs. *Alii* alii nātūra iter ostendit, S., *C.,* 2, 9; nature shows one path to one man, another path to another man.

*Alter* and *alis*:

Ab aliiō expectēs alterī quod fēcerīs, *Syrus, 2* (*Fr.); you may look for from another what you’ve done unto your brother (from No. 3, what No. 1 has done to No. 2).
Notes.—1. *Alius* is found occasionally, especially in late Latin, for *alter*: *alis Nerō*, Suet., *Tit.* 7; but in *Caes.*, *B.C.*, i, 1, *alis* follows *unus*. *Alii* for *reliqui* or *ceteri* is occasional, in the earlier times, but more common in *Livy* and later.

2. The Greek usage of *alis* in the meaning *besides*, is post-Ciceronian and rare.

Eō missa planastra iūmentaque alia, L., iv. 41, 8.

**APPPOSITION.**

320. By apposition one substantive is placed by the side of another, which contains it:


**CONCORD.**

321. The word in apposition agrees with the principal word (or words) in case, and as far as it can in gender and number:

Nom. *Herōdotus* pater *historiae*, Herōdotus the father of history; Gen. *Herōdoti* patris *historiae*; Dat. *Herōdotō* patri *historiae*.

*Cnidus et Colophon*, nobilissimae urbis, captae sunt, *Cf.* C., *Imp.*, 12, 33; *Cnidus and Colophon, most noble cities, were taken*. Omnium doctrinārum inventrice*ēs* Αθηναe, *Cf.* C., *Or.*, i, 4, 13; Athens, the inventor of all branches of learning.

Remarks.—1. Exceptions in *number* are due to special uses, as, for example, when *dēliae* or *amōrēs*, etc., are used of a *Singular*:

*Pompeius, nostri amōrēs, ipse sē affīlixit*, C., *Att.*, ii, 19, 2; Pompey, our special passion, has wreaked himself.

2. The Possessive Pronoun takes the Gen. in apposition:

*Tuum, hominis simplicis, pectus vīdimus*, C., *Ph.*, ii, 43, 111; we have seen your bosom bared, you open-hearted creature! *Urbs meā unius operā fuit salva*, *Cf.* C., *Pis.*, 3, 6; the city was saved by *my* exertions alone.

3. On the agreement of the predicate with the word in apposition, see 211, r. 6.

Notes.—1. In poetry, instead of the Voc. in apposition, the Nom. is often found. *Semper celebrābere dōnis, Corniger Hesperidum, fluvius rēgnātor aquārum*, *V.*, A., viii, 77. In prose not before *Pliny*.

2. Very rarely persons are looked upon as things, and the Appositives used in the *neuter*: *Dum patrēs et plēbem, invalida et inermia, lūdifcētur*, *Tact.*, *Ann.*, i, 46.

322. *Partitive Apposition.*—Partitive Apposition is that form of Apposition in which a part is taken out of the whole. It is sometimes called Restrictive Apposition.

*Māxuma pars ferē mōrem hunc hominēs habent*, *Pl.*, *Capt.*, 232; *mankind*—pretty much the greatest part of them—*have* this way. *Cētera multitūdō sorte decumus quisque ad supplicium lēctī* (sunt), *L.*, ii, 59, 11; (of) the rest of the crowd every tenth man was chosen by lot for punishment.
323. Distributive Apposition.—Distributive Apposition is that form of Apposition in which the whole is subdivided into its parts, chiefly with alter—alter, the one—the other; quisque, uterque, each one; alii—alii, pars—pars, some—others. (It is often called Partitive Apposition.)

Duae filiae altera occisa altera capta est, CAES., B. G., i. 53, 4; (of) two daughters, the one was killed, the other captured.

Remark.—The Part. Gen. is more commonly employed than either of these forms of apposition.

Notes.—1. Partitive Apposition is not found in Cicero or Caesar, and Distributive Apposition rarely. They are more frequent in Sallust, and not uncommon in Livy.

2. The Greek figure of the whole and the part (σχήμα καθ' ὅλον καὶ μέρος) is rare and poetical in Latin. Latagum saxō occupat és faciemque adversam, V., A., x. 683; smiles Latagus with a boulder, full (in) mouth and face (Cf. Eng. "hand and foot").

324. Apposition to a Sentence.—Sometimes an Accusative stands in apposition to a whole preceding sentence; either explaining the contents of the sentence or giving the end or the aim of the action involved in the sentence. The latter usage, however, is not found in Cicero or Caesar.

Admoneor ut aliquid etiam dé sepultūrā dicendum existimem, rem non difficilem, C., Tus., i. 43, 102; I am reminded to take into consideration that something is to be said about burial also—an easy matter. Dēserunt tribunal, ut quis praetōriānōrum militum occurreret manūs inten tantēs, causam discordiae et initium armōrum, TAC., Ann., i. 27.

If the main verb is passive the Appositive may be in the Nominative:

TAC., Ann., iii. 27.

Notes.—1. Neuter adjectives and participles are occasionally used in the same way, and some regard such neuters as Nominatives.

2. This Acc. is to be regarded as the object effected (330) by the general action of the sentence.

Predicative Attribution and Predicative Apposition.

325. Any case may be attended by the same case in Predicative Attribution or Apposition, which differ from the ordinary Attribution or Apposition in translation only.

NOMINATIVE: Filius aegrōtus rediit.

Ordinary Attribution: The sick son returned.

Predicative Attribution: The son returned sick = he was sick when he returned.

Hercules iuvenis leōnem interfecit.

Ordinary Apposition: The young man Hercules slew a lion.
Predicative Apposition: Hercules, when a young man, slew a lion = he was a young man when he slew a lion.

Genitive: Potestās eius adhibendae uxūris, the permission to take her to wife.

Dative: Amicō vivō nōn subvēnīstī, you did not help your friend (while he was) alive.

Accusative: Hercules servam vivam cēpit.

Ordinary Attribution: Hercules caught a living doe.

Predicative Attribution: Hercules caught a doe alive.

Ablative: Aere ātuntur importātō, they use imported copper = the copper which they use is imported.

Remarks.—i. The Voc., not being a case proper, is not used predicatively. Exceptions are apparent or poetical.

Quō, moritūre, ruis? V., A., x. 810; "whither dost thou rush to die" (thou doomed to die)? Sic veniās, hodiernae, Tit., i. 7, 53.

Notice here the old phrase: Macte virtūte estō, H., S., i. 2, 31; increase in virtue = heaven speed thee in thy high career.

Macte is regarded by some as an old Voc., from the same stem as māgnus; by others as an adverb. A third view is that macte with estō is an adverb, and only when used absolutely a Vocative.

2. Victorēs rediērunt may mean, the conquerors returned, or, they returned conquerors; and a similar predicative use is to be noticed in idem, the same: Idem abeunt qui vēnerant, C., Fin., iv. 3, 7; they go away just as they had come (literally, the same persons as they had come).

3. Predicative Attribution and Apposition are often to be turned into an abstract substantive:

Défendē rem pūblicam adulēscēns, nōn dēseram senex, C., Ph., ii. 46, 118; I defended the state in my youth, I will not desert her in my old age.

So with prepositions:

Ante Cicerōnem cōnsulem, before the consulship of Cicero; ante urbem conditam, before the building of the city.

4. Do not confound the "as" of apposition with the "as" of comparison—ut, quasi, tamquam, sicēt, velut (602, x. 1, 642): Hanc (virtūtem) vōbis tamquam hērēditātem māiōres vestrī reliquērunt, C., Ph., iv. 5, 13; your ancestors left you this virtue as (if it were) a legacy.

5. When especial stress is laid on the adjective or substantive predicate, in combination with the verbal predicate, the English language is prone to resolve the sentence into its elements:

Fragilem truçū commīsit pelagō ratem prīmus, H., O., i. 3, 10; his frail bark to the wild waves he trusted first = to trust his frail bark to the wild waves he was first. Úna salūs victīs nūllam spērāre salūtēm, V., A., ii. 353; sole safety for the vanquished 'tis, to hope for none—the only safety that the vanquished have is to hope for none.
6. The English idiom often uses the adverb and adverbal expressions instead of the Latin adjective: so in adjectives of *inclination* and *disinclination*, *knowledge* and *ignorance*, of *order* and *position*, of *time* and *season*, and of *temporary* condition generally: *libens*, with *pleasure*; *volēns*, *willing*(ly); *nōlēns*, *unwilling*(ly); *invītus*, against one's will; *prōdēns*, *aware*; *imprōdēns*, *unawares*; *sciēns*, *knowing*(ly); *prīmus*, *prior*, first; *ultīmus*, last; *medius*, in, *about* the middle; *hodiernus*, *to-day*; *mātūtīnus*, *in* the *morning*; *frequēns*, *frequent*(ly); *subīlīmis*, aloft; *tōtus*, *wholly*; *sōlus*, *ānis*, alone, and many others.

Ego eum ā mō *invītīssimus dīmīsi*, C., *Fam.*, xiii. 63, 1; I dismissed him most unwillingly. *Plūs hōdiē bonī fēcī imprimūdēns quam sciēns ante hunc diem umquam*, Ter., *Hec.*, 880; I have done more good to-day *unawares* than I have ever done knowingly before. *Adcurrit, medium mulierem complectitur*, Ter., *And.*, 133; he runs up, puts his arms about the woman's waist. *Quī prior strīnexit ferrum ēōn victōria eīrit*, L., xxiv. 38, 5 (244, r. 2). *Vespertīnus pete tēctum*, H., Ep., i. 6, 20; seek thy dwelling at eventide. *Rārus venit in cēnācula miles*, Juv., x. 18; the soldiery rarely comes into the garret. *Si tōtōs trādīderunt voluptātibus*, C., *Lael.*, 23, 86; they have given themselves wholly to pleasure. *Solī hōc contīngit sapienti*, C., *Par.*, v. 1, 34; this good luck happens to the wise man alone = it is only the wise man who has this good luck.

7. Carefully to be distinguished are the uses of *prīmus*, and the adverbs *prīnum*, first, for the first time, and *prīmō*, at first. *Prīnum* means first in a series; *prīmō*, first in a contrast. But these distinctions are not always observed.

*Prīnum* docent esse deōs, deinde quālēs sint, tum mundum ab ēīs admi-

nistrāri, postēremō cōnsulere ēōs rēbus hūmānis, C., *N.D.*, ii. 1, 3; first, they teach us that there are gods, next of what nature they are, then that the world is ruled by them, finally, that they take thought for human affairs. *Prīmō* *Stōlicōrum mōre agāmus*, deinde nostrō *Institūtō vagāmur*, C., *Tusc.*, iii. 6, 13; let us treat the subject at first after the manner of the Stoics, afterwards we will ramble after our own fashion.

**B.**

1. Multiplication of the Predicate.

326. The Multiplication of the Predicate requires no further rules than those that have been given in the general doctrine of Concord.

2. Qualification of the Predicate.

327. The Qualification of the Predicate may be regarded as an External or an Internal change:
I. External change: combination with an object.
  1. Direct Object, Accusative.  2. Indirect Object, Dative.

II. Internal change: combination with an attribute which may be in the form of
  1. The Genitive case.  3. Preposition with a case.
  2. The Ablative.  4. An Adverb.

Note.—The Infinitive forms (Infinitive, Gerund, Gerundive, and Supine) appear now as objects, now as attributes, and require a separate treatment.

1. External Change.

Accusative.

The great function of the Accusative is to form temporary compounds with the verb, as the great function of the Genitive is to form temporary compounds with the noun. Beyond this statement everything is more or less extra-grammatical, and sharp subdivisions are often unsatisfactory. Still it may be said that

328. The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object.

The Direct Object is the object which defines directly the action of the verb.

Remark.—The Dative defines indirectly because it involves an Accusative; and the Genitive with the verb depends upon the nominal idea contained in the verb.

1. (a) The Object may be contained in the verb (Inner Object, Object Effected):

Deus mundum creavit, God made a creation—the universe.

(b) Akin to this is the Accusative of Extent:

Ā rēctā cōnscientiā trāversum unguem nōn oportet discēdere, C., Att., XIII. 20, 4; one ought not to swerve a nailbreath from a right conscience. Decem annōs (Trōia) oppūgnāta est, L., v. 4, 11; ten years was Troy besieged. Māximam partem lacte vivunt, Caes., B.G., iv. 1, 8; for the most part they live on milk.

2. The object may be distinct from the verb (Outer Object, Object Affected):

Deus mundum gubernat, God steers the universe.
General View of the Accusative.

329. I. Inner Object : Object Effected:
Cognate Accusative.
Accusative of Extent.
1. In Space.
2. In Time.
3. In Degree.
Terminal Accusative (Point Reached).

II. Outer Object : Object Affected:
1. Whole.
2. Part (so-called Greek Accusative).

III. Inner and Outer Objects combined:
1. Asking and Teaching.

IV. Accusative as the most general form of the object (object created or called up by the mind):
1. In Exclamations.
2. Accusative and Infinitive.

DIRECT OBJECT (Inner and Outer).

Note.—The Accusative is the object reached by the verb. This object is either in apposition to the result of the action of the verb, and then it is called the Inner Object or Object Effected; or it is in attribution to the result of the action, and then it is said to be the Outer Object or Object Affected. The Inner Object is sometimes called the Voluntary Accusative, because it is already contained in the verb; the Outer Object is sometimes called the Necessary Accusative, because it is needed to define the character of the action; both verb and substantive contribute to the result; compare hominem caedere (occidere), to slay a man (Object Affected), with homicidium facere (Cf. Quint., v. 9, 9), to commit manslaughter (Object Effected).

330. Active Transitive Verbs take the Accusative case:
Rōmulus Urbem Rōmam condidit, Cf. C., Div., i. 17, 30; Romulus founded the City of Rome. (Object Effected.)
[Mēns] regit corpus, C., Rep., vi. 24, 26; mind governs body. (Object Affected.)

Remark.—Many verbs of Emotion which are intrans. in English are trans. in Latin, as: dolère, to grieve (for); déspērāre, to despair (of); horrīre, to shudder (at); mirāri, to wonder (at); ridere, to laugh (at).

Honōrēs déspērant, C., Cat., ii. 9, 19; they despair of honours (give them up in despair). Necāta est Vitia quod filii necem flēvisset (541), Tac., Ann., vi. 10, 1; Vitia was executed for having wept (for) her son's execution. Conscia mēns rectī Fāmae mendācia risit, Ov., F., iv. 311: conscious of right, her soul (but) laughed (at) the falsehoods of Rumour.
Notes.—1. From the definition of transitive given above (213, n.) it will be seen that this traditional rule reverses the poles; it is retained merely for practical purposes.

2. This Acc. with verbs of Emotion is very rare in early Latin, and is not widely extended even in the classical period. With most verbs an Abl. of Cause or a prepositional phrase is much more common, as: Cúr de sua virtùte desperarent? Caes., B.C., I. 40, 4.

3. The Acc. with verbal substantives is confined to Plautus: quid tibi nos tæctiós, mendicé homō? Aul., 423.

4. The Acc. with verbal adjectives in -undus is rare and mainly post-classical: Haec prope cöntiônabundus circumibat hominès, L., III. 47, 2.

331. Verbs compounded with the prepositions ad, ante, circum, con, in, inter, ob, per, praeter, sub, subter, super, and tráns, which become transitive, take the Accusative.

All with circum, per, praeter, tráns, and subter.

Many with ad, in, and super.

Some with ante, con, inter, ob, and sub. See 347.

Pythagoras Persarum magös adiit, C., Fin., v. 29, 87; Pythagoras applied to (consulted) the Persian magi. Stella Veneris antegreditur sólem, C., N.D., ii. 20, 53; the star Venus goes in advance of the sun. Omnes Domitium circumstistunt, Caes., B.C., I. 20, 5; all surround Do-mitius. Eam, si opus esse vidèbitur, ipse conveniam, C., Fam., v. II, 2; I will go to see her, myself, if it shall seem expedient. Convivía cum patre nón iníbat, C., Rosc. Am., 18, 52; he would not go to banquets with his father. Fretum, quod Naupactum et Patrás interfluit, L., xxvii. 29, 9; the frith that flows between Naupactus and Patrae. Alexander tertió et tríciosimó annó mortem obiit, C., Ph., v. 17, 48; Alexander died in his thirty-third year. Caesar omnem agrum Picénum percurrit, Caes., B.C., I. 15, 1; Caesar traversed rapidly all the Picienian district. [Populus] solet dignós praeterire, C., Planc., 3, 8; the people is wont to pass by the worthy. Epaminondás poémam subiit, Cf. Nep., xv. 8, 2; Epaminondas submitted to the punishment. Criminum vim subterfugere nullō modō poterat, C., Verr., I. 3, 8; he could in no way evade the force of the charges. Römání ruinás múrī supervádēbant, L., xxxii. 24, 5; the Romans marched over the ruins of the wall. Crassus Euphratem nullō bellī causā tránsiit, Cf. C., Fin., iii. 22, 75; Crassus crossed the Euphrates without any cause for war.

Remarks.—1. If the simple verb is trans., it can take two Accusatives: Equitum mágnum partem flúmen tráícit, Caes., B.C., I. 55, 1; he threw a great part of the cavalry across the river.

2. With many of these verbs the preposition may be repeated; but never circum: Cópiás tráícit Rhodanum, or tráns Rhodanum, he threw his troops across the Rhone.

3. Sometimes a difference of signification is caused by the addition of the preposition:

Notes.
Adire ad aliquem, to go to a man; adire aliquem, to apply to (to consult) a man.

INNER OBJECT.

332. Any verb can take an Accusative of the Inner Object, when that object serves to define more narrowly or to explain more fully the contents of the verb.

The most common form of this object is a neuter pronoun or adjective.

The most striking form is the so-called Cognate Accusative.

333. 1. Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives are often used to define or modify the substantive notion that lies in the verb.

Xenophōn eadem fērē peccat, C., N.D., i. 12, 31; Xenophon makes very much the same mistakes. Vellem equidem idem possem gloriāri quod Cyrus, C., Cat. M., i0, 32; for my part I could wish that it were in my power to make the same boast as Cyrus.

With trans. verbs an Acc. of the person can be employed besides:

Discipulōs id ūnum moneō ut praeceptōrēs suōs nōn minus quam ipsa studia ament, QUINT., ii. 9, 1; I give pupils this one piece of advice, that they love their teachers no less than their studies themselves.

Remarks.—1. The usage is best felt by comparing the familiar English it after intrans. verbs, "to walk it, to foot it," etc., where "it" represents the substantive that lies in "walk, foot," etc.

2. In many cases the feeling of the case is lost to the consciousness, so especially with the interrogative quid, which has almost the force of cūr. Quid rīdēs? what (laughter) are you laughing = what means your laughter?

Id nōs ad tē, si quid vellas, vēnimus, PL., M.G., 1158; that's why we have come to you, to see if you wanted anything.

Notes.—1. With verbs of Emotion this Acc. gives the ground of the emotion:

Utrumque laetor (I have a double gladness, I am doubly glad), et sine dolōre tē fuisse et animō valuisse, C., Fam., vii. i, 1. Laetae exclāmant: vēnit! id quod (in this that, for this that) mē repente aspererant, TERN., HEC., 368.

From this arises the causal force of quod, in that = because.

2. Occasionally, but at all periods, the relative is used thus, to facilitate connection with a demonstrative clause:

Quae hominēs arant (what men do in the way of plowing, etc.), nāvigant, aedificant, omnīa virtūtī pārent, S., C., 2, 7. Id ipsum quod maneam in vitā (in the very fact of my remaining in life) peccāre mē [exstitimō], C., Fam., iv. 13, 2.

2. Cognate Accusative.—When the dependent word is of the same origin or of kindred meaning with the verb, it is called the Cognate Accusative, and usually has an attribute.
Faciam ut mei memineris dum vitam vivas, Pl., Pers., 494; I'll make you think of me the longest day you live. Mírum atque inscripsit sensibi somnium, Pl., Rud., 597; a marvellous and uncanny dream I've dreamed. Ítúr vírissimum íus iurandum, C., Fam., v. 2, 7; I swore the truest of oaths.

Remark.—After the analogy of the Cognate Acc. are many phraseological usages, such as rem certáre, to fight a case; foedus feríre, to make a treaty (compare, to strike a bargain); íus respondére, to render an opinion; causam vincere, to win a case, etc. Also the phrases with íre: exsequiás íre, to attend a funeral; infinitiás íre, to deny, etc.

Notes.—1. The omission of the attribute is found most often in legal phraseology, proverbs, and the like:

Máiorum némó servitútem severivit, C., Top., 6, 29; of our ancestors no one ever slaved (what you would call) a slavery. Sí servos fúrtem faxit noxiamve noxit, XII. Tab.

2. When the Cognate Acc. is replaced by a word of similar meaning, but of a different root, the effect is much the same as when an adjective is employed with the normal Accusative. This usage, however, is rare, and mainly poetical.


3. Interesting extensions are found in the poets, and rarely in prose.


4. Instead of the Inner Acc. the Abl. is occasionally found: lapidibus pluere, to rain stones; sanguine südēre, to sweat blood.

Herculis simulátorum multō südōre mánāvit, C., Div., I. 34, 74; the statue of Hercules ran freely with sweat.

5. Verbs of Smell and Taste have the Inner Object, which is an extension of the Cognate variety.

Piscis sapit ipsum mare, Cf. Sen., N. Q., III. 18, 2; the fish tastes of the very sea. Nón omnēs possunt oleře unguenta exōtica, Pl., Most., 42; it is not every one can smell of foreign perfumes.

6. A poetical and post-classical construction is that which makes a substantival neuter adjective the object of a verb. This occurs chiefly with verbs of sound: nec mortále sonáns, V., A., VI. 50; mágna sonatórum, H., S., I. 4, 44. Yet bolder is nec vox hominem sonat, V., A., I. 328. A verb of sight is found in tam cernis acútum, H., S., I. 3, 26. Cf. dulce ridentem, H., O., I. 22, 23.

Accusative of Extent.

The Accusative of Extent has to do with Degree, Space, or Time.

334. The Accusative of Extent in Degree is confined to neuter adjectives and pronouns used substantively, multum, plus, tantum, quantum, etc.

Si mé amás tantum quantum profectó amás, C., Att., II. 20, 5; if you love me as much as in fact you do love me.
Remarks.—1. The number of adjectives and pronouns so used is large, and in many cases the form is felt more as an adverb than as a substantive.

2. Here belong the adverbial Accusatives *tuam, etc.*, *partem, vicem*, which occur occasionally at all periods.

335. The Accusative of Extent in Space is used properly only with words that involve a notion of space. When space is not involved in the governing word the idea of extent is given by the use of *per, through*.

Trabēs, distantēs inter sē binōs pedēs, in solō collocantur, Caes., B.G., vii. 23, 1; beams two feet apart are planted in the ground. A recta conscientiā trāversum unguen nōn oportet discēdere, C. Att., xiii. 20, 4 (328, b). Equitēs per ōram maritimam dispositi sunt, Cf. Caes., B.C., iii. 24, 4; cavalry were posted along the sea shore. Phoebidas iter per Thēbās [fēcit], Nep., xvi. 1, 2; Phoebidas marched through Thebes. Mīlitēs aggerem lātum pedēs trecentōs triginta altum pedēs octōginta exstruxērunt, Caes., B.G., vii. 24, 1; the soldiers raised an embankment three hundred and thirty feet wide (and) eighty feet high.

Remarks.—1. The adjectives in most common use with this Accusative are *longus, long, lātus, wide, altus, deep, high*. Thickness, which was indicated in early times by *crassus*, is expressed by phrases with *crassitūdō*. Similarly occur phrases with *magnitūdō, longitūdō, lātitūdō, altitūdō*. Profundus, *deep*, never occurs with the Accusative.

2. With *abesse* and *distāre*, an Abl. of Measure may also be used:

*Milibus passuum quattuor et vigintī abesse*, Caes., B.G., i. 41, 5; *to be twenty-four miles from*.

Note.—When the point of reference is taken for granted, *ab* ($) with the Abl. is occasionally used; but only by Caesār and Livy. Here it has been suggested that *ab* is used adverbially, and the Abl. is one of Measure.

*(Hostēs) ab milibus passuum minus duōbus castra posuérunt*, Caes., B.G., ii. 7, 3; *the enemy pitched their camp less than two miles off*.

336. The Accusative of Extent in Time accompanies the verb, either with or without *per*, in answer to the question, *How long?*

Duodēquadrāgintā annōs tyrannus Syrācūsānōrum fuit Dionysius, C., Tusc., v. 20, 57; thirty-eight years was Dionysius tyrant of Syracuse. (Gorgias) centum et novem vīxit annōs, Quint., iii. i, 9 (233, N. 2). Lūdi per decem diēs factī sunt, C., Cat., iii. 8, 20; games were performed for ten days. Est mōcum per diem tōtum, Plin., Ep., i. 16, 7; *he is with me the livelong day*. Sedet aeternumque sedēbit Infelix Thēseus, V., A., vi. 617; *there sits and shall forever sit unhappy Theseus*. 
Remarks.—1. In giving definite numbers with *iam*, *iam diū*, *iam dūdum*, *etc.*, the Latin often employs the ordinal where the English prefers the cardinal. Compare the Ablative of Measure (403).


2. *Per* with the Acc. is frequently used like the Abl. of Time Within Which. *Per illa tempora = illis temporibus, in those times.*

So especially with the negative:

*Nūlla rés per triennium nisi ad nūtum istius iūdicāta est*, C., *Verr.*, i. 5, 13; *no matter was decided during (in) the three years except at his beck.*

3. With an Aoristic tense the dating point is given by *abhinc*, which usually precedes the temporal designation.

*Abhinc annōs factumst sēdecim*, Pl., *Cas.*, 39; *'twas done sixteen years ago.* *Dēmosthenēs abhinc annōs prope trecentōs fuit*, C., *Div.*, ii. 57, 118; *Demosthenes lived nearly three hundred years ago.*

The use of an Acc. with an Aoristic tense without a dating word, like *abhinc*, is very rare and doubtful. *Caes., B.C.*, ii. 35, 4, has been emended.

4. *Nātus*, *old* (*born*), seems to be an exception to r. 3, but it is only an apparent one, as the dating point is involved in the verb with which it is construed. *For various constructions with nātus*, see 206, r. 5.

*Puer decem annōs nātus est*, *the boy is ten years old.* *Quadragintā annōs nātus régnāre [coepit]*, C., *Div.*, i. 23, 46; *(he was) forty years old* *(when) he began to reign.*

Notes.—1. The use of the indefinite substantival adjective is rare. *Plautus* uses *sempiternum*, *Vergil* introduces *aeternum* (see example above), while *perpetuum* does not appear until *Apuleius*.

2. Here belong the phraseological uses *id temporis, id aetātis*, which belonged to the popular speech, and never became firmly rooted in literature. Thus *Cicero* rarely uses them, except in his earliest works and his letters. *Id genus* is used after the same general analogy, but is not temporal. This occurs in *Cicero* but once, *Att.*, xiii. 12, 3. *Caesar* never uses any of these forms.

3. Poetical and rare is the extension which makes the Accusative of Extent the subject of a passive verb.

*Nunc tertia vivitur aetās*, *Ov.*, *M.*, xii. 138 = *nunc tertiam vivitur aetātem.*

*Tōta mihi dormītur hiemis*, *Mart.*, xiii. 59, 1 = *tōtam dormiō  hiemem.*

Normally the verb becomes impersonal or is regularly used with a proper subject, and the Accusative of Extent is unchanged: *[Bellum] quō duodecimum annum Italia ūrēbātur*, L., xxvii. 39, 9.

**Accusative of the Local Object.**

**Terminal Accusative.**

337. The activity of a verb may be defined by the Point Reached. Hence the rule: Names of Towns and small Islands, when used as limits of Motion Whither, are put in the Accusative.
So also *rús, into the country, domum, domós, home.*

Missi légati Athenés sunt, *L., iii. 31; 8*; envoys were sent to Athens. Latona conígit Déllum, *Cf. C., Verr., i. 18, 48;* Latona took refuge in Delos. Ego *rús ibō atque ibi manébo,* *Ter., Eun., 216;* I shall go to the country and stay there. Innumerabilès (philosophi) numquam domum revertérent, *C., Tusc., v. 37, 107;* innumerable philosophers never returned home.

**Remarks.**—1. Countries and large islands being looked upon as areas, and not as points, require prepositions, such as: *in, into*; *ad, to*; *versus, -ward*; *in Graeciam proficisci,* to set out for Greece.

2. When *urbem, city, or oppidum, town,* precedes the name of the city or town, the idea of area is emphasised, and the preposition in or ad is prefixed; if *urbem or oppidum* follows, *in or ad* may be omitted:

*In (ad) oppidum Cirtam,* to, *in (at) the town (of) Cirta.*

When *urbem* or *oppidum* is qualified by an adjective, it regularly follows the name of the town, and has the preposition:

*In Jugurtha Thalam pervénit in oppidum mágnum et opulentum,* *S., Jug., 75, 1;* Jugurtha arrived at Thala, a great and wealthy town.

3. *Domum,* with a possessive pronoun, or *Gen., may mean* house as well as *home,* and accordingly may or may not have *in* before it: *domum meam,* or, *in domum meam,* to *my house; domum Pompéii,* or, *in domum Pompei,* to *Pompey’s house;* also *domum ad Pompeiun.* Otherwise: *in mágnificam domum venire,* to come into a grand house.

4. *Ad means to the neighbourhood* of, often before, of military operations. *Ad Mutinam,* to *the neighbourhood (síege of) Mutina* (Modena).

5. The simple Acc. will suffice even for *extent:*

*Omnia illa múnicipia, quae sunt úrbem Brundisium,* *C., Planc., 41, 97;* all the free towns from Vibo to Brundisium.

6. Motion to a *place* embraces all the local designations:

*Phalara in sinum Máliaecum prcéesserat,* *L., xxxv. 43, 8;* he had advanced to Phalara on the Maliac Gulf. *Tarentum in Italiam inferiorem proficisci,* to set out for Tarentum in Lower Italy.

**Notes.**—1. The omission of the preposition before countries and large islands is poetical and post-classical. *Caesar* shows such omission with *Aegyptus* only, *Cicero* not at all.

2. Poets and later prose writers extend the Acc. also to names of peoples and streams. Beginnings of this are seen in *Cicero: cum Bosphorun conígitisset,* *Mar., 16, 34.*

3. The insertion of the preposition with names of towns and small islands is rare in good prose, but is always legitimate when the preposition is to be emphasised.

4. *The use of fasque with this Acc. to emphasise the continuity of the motion is found first in Terence, occasionally in Cicero. From Livy on it spreads and is used also with other local designations.*

5. Verbal substantives are also occasionally followed by this Accusative: *Reditus Róman,* *C., Ph., ii. 42, 108; return to Rome.*
OUTER OBJECT.

Accusative of Respect.

338. The Accusative of the object affected sometimes specifies that in respect to which the statement of a passive or intransitive verb, or an adjective, applies. There are two varieties:

1. **Definite**: The Accusative of the part affected.

   Percussa novē mentem formidōne, V., G., iv. 357; her mind stricken with a new dread. *Iam vulgātum āctis quoque saecius pectus*, QUINt., ix. 3. 17; by this time "breast-wounded" is actually become a common newspaper phrase.

2. **Indefinite**: cētera, alia, reliqua, omnia, plēraque, cūncta; in other respects, in all respects, in most respects.

   Cētera adsentior Crassō, C., Or., i. 9. 35; in all other points I agree with Crassus. *Omnia Mercuriō similis*, V., A., iv. 558; in all respects like unto Mercury.

   **Notes.**—1. This is commonly called the Greek Accusative, because it is so much more common in Greek, and because its extension in Latin is due to Greek influence. The first variety is very rare in early Latin; introduced into prose by SALLUST, it is extended in LIVY, but in both is applied usually to wounds. It is much more common in the poets. Of the second variety cētera is found here and there at all periods; the others are very rare. Good prose uses the Ablative for the first variety, and for the second, ad cētera, in cēteris, per cētera, etc.

2. Different is the Accusative with indor, I don; exuor, I doff; cingor, I gird on myself, and other verbs of clothing and unclothing, as well as passives, where the Subject is also the Agent; in which verbs the reflexive or middle signification is retained. These uses are poetical or post-classical.

   Inūtile ferrum cingitur, V., A., ii. 510; he girds on (himself) a useless blade. *Lōricam induitur fidōque accingitur ēnse*, V., A., vii. 640; he dons a corselet and girds himself with his trusty glaive. (Arminius) *impetū equī pervāsit oblitus faciem suō cruore nē noscerētur*, TAC., Ann. ii. 17, 7; Hermann pushed his way through, thanks to the onset of his charger, having smeared his face with his own gore, to keep from being recognised.

DOUBLE ACCUSATIVE (Inner and Outer).

When two Accusatives depend on the same verb, one is the Inner and the other the Outer object. Theoretically any combination of Inner and Outer objects is allowable; practically the language has restricted its usage to varieties a and b.

339. (a) Active verbs signifying to Inquire, to Require, to Teach, and cēlāre, to conceal, take two Accusatives, one of the Person, and the other of the Thing.

   Pūsiōnem quendam Sōcratēs interroget quaedam geōmetrica, C., Tusc., i. 24, 57; Socrates asks an urchin sundry questions in geometry. Caesar Aeduōs frumentum flāgitābat, CAES., B.G., i. 16, 1; Caesar kept demanding the corn of the Aedui. *Quid nunc tē, asine, litterās doceam?* (265), C., Piso., 30, 73; why should I now give you a lesson in literature,
you donkey? Non té célávi sermonem Ampiī, C., Fam., ii. 16, 3, I did not keep you in the dark about my talk with Ampiī.

Remarks.—1. The expressions vary a good deal. Observe:

This then is not the only way, Poscó, I claim, and flagító,
For it is also right to say, And always potó, postuló,
Docère and célāre dē,
Interrogäre dē quā rē.

Adherbal Rōmam légátōs miserat, quí senatūm dōcērent dē caede frā-
tris, S., Iug., 13, 3; Adherbal had sent envoys to Rome to inform the
senate of the murder of his brother. Bassus noster mē dē hōc librō célā-
vit, C., Fam., vii. 20, 3; our friend Bassus has kept me in the dark
about this book. Aquam & pūmice nunc pōstulās, Pl., Pers., 41; you are
now asking water of a pumice-stone (blood of a turnip).

2. With docēō the Abl. of the Instrument is also used: dōcēre fidibus,
equō, to teach the lyre, to teach riding; with erudīre, the Abl., in with
the Abl. or (rarely) dē. Doctus and eruditus generally take the Abl.:
Doctus Graecis litteris, a good Grecian.

3. With célāri the Acc. of the Thing becomes the subject, and the
Acc. of the Person is retained; or the Acc. of the Person is made the
subject, and instead of the Acc. of the Thing, dē with the Abl. is used.

Notes.—1. There is a great deal of difference in the relative frequency of these
verbs. So docēō and its compounds, rogō, poscō, repóscō, célō, are common; inter-
rogō, őrō, expósco, postulō, flagítō, consulō, are rare, exigō (in passive), per-
contor, are ante-classical and post-classical. So, too, the classical Latin in general
avoids two Accasatives, unless one is a neuter pronoun.

2. The construction with ab, with verbs of Requiring, is much more common than
the double Acc., and in some cases is necessary; so, too, the construction with dē after
verbs of Inquiring.

3. Other verbs of teaching than docēō and its compounds, and erudīre, always have
dē until late Latin, as instruēre, etc. So docēre, when it means to inform.

4. The Passive form, with the Nom. of the Person and the Acc. of the Thing, is
sparsely used. Discere is the prose word for dōcēri, except that the past participle
doctus is classical but rare.

Mōtus docēri gaudent Iōnicōs mātura virgō, II., O., xi. 6, 21; the rare ripe
maid delights to learn Ionic dances. Vir omnēs bellī artēs edoctus, L., xxv. 40, 5;
one who had learned (been taught) thoroughly all the arts of war.

340. (b) Verbs of Naming, Making, Taking, Choosing,Showing, may have two Accusatives of the same Person or
Thing:

[Íram] bene Ennius initium dixit Ínsānīae, C., Tusc., iv. 23, 52; well did
Ennius call anger the beginning of madness. Ancum Mārcium rēgem
populus creāvit, L., i. 32, 1; the people made Ancus Marcus king. Catō
Valerium Flaccum habuit collēgām, Cf. Nep., xxiv. 1, 2; Cato had Valerius
Flaccus (as) colleague. Ëum simulāmum dēō iūdiceō, C., Marc., 3, 8; I
judge him (to be) very like unto a god. Athēniēnsibus Pýthia praecepit ut
Miltiadem sibi imperatorem sumerent, Nep., i. 1, 3; the Pythia instructed the Athenians to take Miltiades (as) their commander. Praestā té eum quī mihi es cognitus, C., Fam., i. 6, 2; show yourself the man that I know you to be. Quem intellegimus divitem? C., Par., vi. i, 42; whom do we understand by the rich man?

Remarks.—1. The Double Acc. is turned into the Double Nom. with the Passive (206). Reddō, I render, is not used in the Passive, but, instead thereof, fīō, I become.

Habeō, with two Accusatives, commonly means to have; in the sense of hold, regard, other turns are used; usually prō.

Utrum prō ancillā mē habēs an prō filiā? Pl., Pers., 341; do you look upon me as a maid-servant or as a daughter?

Similarly habēre servōrum locō, (in) numerō deōrum, to regard as slaves, as gods.

2. With verbs of Taking and Choosing the end is indicated by the Dat. or ad with Accusative.

(Rōmulus) trecentōs armātōs ad custōdiam corporis habuit, L., i. 15, 8; Romulus had three hundred armed men as a body-guard.

341. (c) Double Accusatives, where one is the cognate, are very uncommon:

Tē bonās precēs precor, Cato, R.R., i. 3, 4. Tam tē básia multa básiāre vēsānō satis et super Catullōst, Cat., vii. 9.

Notes.—1. Curious extensions occasionally occur:

Idem iūs iūrandum adigit Afrānium, Caes., R. C., i. 76.

2. In early Latin frequently, and in later times occasionally, the Inner object is given by a neuter pronoun, in the simplest form. Quid mē vis? what do you want of me? what do you want me for? So with prohibēre; also with inbēre (once in Cicero and Caesar), admonēre, etc.


342. (d) In early Latin we find cases of two Accusatives with a single verb, where the verb forms a single phrase with one of the Accusatives, and the second Accusative is the object of the phrase: animum advertere, to perceive; lūdōs facere, to make game of; manum inicere, to lay hands on, etc. In classical Latin these phrases have been usually, where possible, formed into a single word: animadvertere, lūdificāri.

Animum advertit Gracchus in contiōne Pisōnem stantem, C., Tusc., iii. 20, 48; Gracchus perceived Piso standing in the assembly.

Note.—On the Double Accusative with compound verbs, see 331, n. 1.

ACCUSATIVE AS A GENERAL OBJECTIVE CASE.

343. The Accusative as the Objective Case generally is used as an object of Thought, Perception, Emotion; an ob-
ject created by the mind, evoked or deprecated by the will. Hence the use of the Accusative:

(a) In Exclamations. (b) With the Infinitive.

1. The Accusative is used in Exclamations as the general object of Thought, Perception, or Emotion:

Mē miserum, C., Fam., xiv. 1. 1; poor me! Mē caecum qui haec ante nōn víderim, C., Att., x. 10, 1; blind me! not to have seen all this before.

So in Exclamatory Questions:

Quō mihi fortūnam, si nōn concéditur útili? H., Ep., i. 5, 12; what (is the object of) fortune to me if I'm not allowed to enjoy it?

Interjections are used:

Heu mē miserum! Alas! poor me! Ō miserās hominum mentēs, Ō pectora caeca, Lucr., ii. 14; oh, the wretched minds of men, oh, the blind hearts!

So, in apposition to a sentence, see 324.

Notes.—1. Ō with the Voc. is an address; with the Nom. a characteristic; with the Acc. an object of emotion.

2. Em, Lo! and Ecce, Lo hère! have the Acc. in the earlier language:

Em tibi hominem! Pl., Asin., 880; here's your man! Ecce mē! Pl., Ep., 680; here am I!

So eccum, ellum, eccam, eccillam, in comic poetry.

Ecce takes only the Nom. in classical Latin. Distinguish between em and ūn, the latter of which, in the sense lo! does not appear until Cicero's time, and takes the Nominative.

Prō takes the Vocative: Prō di immortālēs! Ye immortal gods! The Accusative occurs in: Prō deum atque hominum fidem! C., Tusc., v. 16, 48; for heaven's sake! and similar phrases.

Ei (hei)! and Vae! take the Dative.

Ei mihi! Ah me! Vae víctis! Woe to the conquered!

2. The Accusative and the Infinitive are combined so as to present the notion of Subject and Predicate as an object of thought or perception (527). Hence the Accusative with the Infinitive is used:

(a) In Exclamations. (See 534.)

(b) As an Object. (See 527.)

(c) As a Subject. (See 535.)

DATIVE.

344. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object, and always involves a Direct Object, which may be contained in the verb or expressed by the complex of verb and object.
Némō errat ūni sibī, Sen., E.M., 94, 54; no one errs (makes mistakes) to (for) himself alone. Nón omnibus dormiō, C., Fam., vii. 24, 1; it is not for everybody that I am asleep. Tibī exercitum patria prō sē dedit, C., Ph., xiii. 6, 14; your country gave you an army for its own defence. Mulier sibī felicior quam viris, C., Ph., v. 4, 11.

NOTE.—In English the form of the Indirect Object is the same as that of the Direct: “He showed me (Dat.) a pure river;” “he showed me (Acc.) to the priest.” Originally a case of Personal Interest, it is used freely of Personified Things, sparingly of Local Relations, and this despite the fact that Locative and Dative are blended in the First and Third Declensions. If a Locative, the Dative is a sentient Locative.

Dative with Transitive Verbs.

345. The Indirect Object is put in the Dative with Transitive verbs, which already have a Direct Object in the Accusative. Translation, to, for, from. This Accusative becomes the Nominative of the Passive. The Dative depends on the complex.

Active Form:

To: Facile omnēs, quam valēmus, rēcta cōnsilia aegrotīs damus, Ter., And., 309; readily all of us, when well, give good counsel to the sick.

For: Frangam tōnsōri crūra manūsque simul, Mart., xi. 58, 10; I’d break the barber’s legs for him and hands at once.

From: Somnum mihi [adēmit], C., Att., ii. 16, 1; it took my sleep away from me.

Passive Form:

Mercēs mihi glōria dētur, Ov., F., iii. 389; let glory be given to me as a reward. Immeritis franguntur crūra caballīs, Juv., x, 60; the innocent hacks get their legs broken for them. Arma [adimuntur] militibus, l., xxii. 44, 6; the soldiers have their arms taken from them. Domus pulchra dominis aedificātur nōn mūribus, Cf. C., N.D., iii. 10, 26; a handsome house is built for its owners, not for the mice.

REMARKS.—1. These constructions are found with more or less frequency at all periods. But the Dat. with verbs of Taking Away, Prohibiting, and the like, is mostly confined to poetry and later prose. The translation from is merely approximate, instead of for. When the idea of Personal Interest is not involved, the Abl. is necessary.

Is frāter, qui ēripit frātrem carcere, nōn potuit ēripere fātō, Sen., Dial., xi. 14, 4.

A good example of a play on construction is Pl., Aul., 635: St. Nihil equidem tībī abstulī. Eu. At illud quod tibī abstulerās cedo.

2. The translation For is nearer the Dat. than To. It is the regular
form when the Acc. is that of the object *effect*; when it is that of the object *affected* the translation is more often to; but for (in defence of) is *prō*: *prō patriā mori*, to die for one’s country. *To (with a view to)* is *ad* or *in*, and when the idea of motion is involved, the preposition must be used, even with *dare*, which gives its name to the Dative:

Litterās alicui *dare*, to give one a letter (to carry or to have).

Litterās ad aliquem *dare*, to indite a letter to one.

Rogās ut mea tībī *scripta mittam*, C., *Fam.*, i. 9, 23; you ask me to send you my writings (you wish to have them). Librōs iam prīdem *ad tē missem si essē edendōs putāsem*, C., *Fam.*, i. 9, 23; I should have sent the books to you long since if I had thought they ought to be published.

**Dative with Intransitive Verbs.**

**346.** The Indirect Object is put in the Dative with many Intransitive Verbs of Advantage or Disadvantage, Yielding and Resisting, Pleasure and Displeasure, Bidding and Forbidding.

Fuit mirificus in Crassō pudor, quī tamen non obsetāt ēius orātiōnī, C., *Or.*, i. 26, 122; Crassus had a marvellous modesty, not, however, such as to be a bar to the effectiveness of his oratory. *Ipsa sibiā imbecillātās indulget*, C., *Tusc.*, iv. 18, 42; weakness gives free course to itself. *Probus invidet nēmini*, C., *Tim.*, 3. 9; your upright man cherishes envy to no one. Catilīna litterās mittit sē fortūnae cedere, S., C., 34, 2; Catiline writes that he gives way to fortune. *Dīēs stultīs quoque medēri solet*, C., *Fam.*, vii. 28, 3; time is wont to prove a medicine even to fools. *Moderāri et animē et orātiōnī, est non mediocrīs ingenīōri*, C., *Q.F.*, i. ii. 13, 38; to put bounds both to temper and to language is the work of no mean ability. *Sic agam, ut ipsī auctōri hūius disciplīnāe placēt*, C., *Fin.*, i. 9, 29; I will act as it seems good to the head of this school (of thought) himself. [Mundus] deō pāret et huc oboediunt maria terraeque, C., *Leg.*, iii. i. 3; the universe is obedient to God, and seas and lands hearken unto him. *Virtūtī suōrum satis crédit*, Cf. *S.*, *Iug.*, 106, 3; he puts full confidence in the valour of his men. *Illi poena, nōbis libertās [ap- propriquat]*, C., *Ph.*, iv. 4, 10; to him punishment, to us freedom, is drawing nigh.

**Remarks.—**i. Of course the passives of these verbs are used impersonally (208):

*Quī invidēnt egent, illīs quibus invidētur, i rem habent*, *Pl.*, *Truc.*, 745; those who envy are the needy, those who are envied have the stuff.

2. The verbs found with this Dat. in classical Latin are: *prōdessē, obesse, nocēre, conducit, expedit*; *assentīri, blandīri, cupere, favēre, grātiificāri, grātulāri, ignōscere, indulgēre, mōrigerāri, studēre, suffrāgāri*; *adversāri, insidiāri, invidēre, frāsci, maledicere, mināri, mīnītāri, obtrectāre,*
officere, refrāgāri, suscēnsēre; cadere, concēdere; resistere; auxiliāri, consulere, medēri, opitūlāri, parcere, prōspicere; moderāri, temperāre (sibī); placēre, displicēre; auscultāre, imperāre, oboedīre, obsequi, obtemperāre, pārēre, persuādēre, servēre, suādēre; crēdere, fidēre, confidere, diffidere, despērāre; accidit, contingit, ǣvenit; libet, licet; appropiinquāre, repūgnāre. Also nūbere, to marry (of a woman); supplicāre, to implore.

Notes.—1. Some other verbs are used occasionally in the same way, as incommodo- dāre, which Cicero uses once. Also, dolēre, with Dat. of suffering person, is found sometimes in Cicero, though it belongs rather to the Comic Poets.

2. Some of these words have also other constructions. These occur usually in anticlassical and post-classical Latin; if in classical Latin a different meaning is usually found in the new construction. Thus indulgere aliquid, to grant a thing, invidere alicui aliquid, obtrectāre, with Acc., suādēre, persuādēre, with Acc. of the Person, are post-classical and late; moderāri, with Acc., is found in Lucretius and in Silver Latin; temperāre, meaning mix, takes Acc. at all periods. Fidēre, confidere, diffidere are found also with Ablative.

Sometimes the personal interest is emphasised when the Dat. is employed, as over against the Accusative. So regularly with verbs of Fearing, as: metuere aliquem, to dread some one, but metuere alicui, to fear for some one; cavēre alicui, to take precautions for some one, but cavēre aliquem (also dē, ab aliquo), to take precautions against some one; cavēre aliquā ré (early), to beware of a thing. Consulere aliquem, to consult a person; consulere alicui, to consult for a person. On convenire, see 347, n. 2.

Noteworthy are the constructions of invidere and vacāre:

Invidere alicui (in) aliquā ré (Cic. uses prep.) {to begrudge a man a thing.
alicui aliquid (Verg., Hor., Livy, etc.) {to begrudge a thing.
alicuius rei (once in Horace, S., II, 6, 84), to begrudge a thing.
(alicuius) alicui rei (common), to envy something belonging to a man.
Vacāre rei, to be at leisure for, to attend to {a matter.
ré, a ré, to be at leisure from

Sometimes there is hardly any difference in meaning:
Comitio aliquem, I accompany a man; comitio alicui, I act as companion to a man; præstolōr alicui (better) or aliquem, I went for.

3. Some words with similar meanings take the Accusative; the most notable are:
aequāre, to be equal; decēre (to distinguish), to be becoming; difficere, to be wanting; deletāre, to please; iuvāre, to be a help; iubēre, to order; laedere, to injure; and vetāre, to forbid.

Eam pictūram imitātī sunt multī, aequāvit nēmō, Plin., N.H., XXXV. 11, 126; that style of painting many have imitated, none equalled. Firma virōs neglecta decet, Ov., A.A., I. 509; a careless beauty is becoming to men. Mē diēs dēficiat, Cf. C., Verr., II, 21, 52; the day would fail me. Fortis fortūna adivuvat, Ter., Ph., 203; fortune favours the brave.

Tactitus is the first to use iubēre with Dative; Ann., iv. 72, etc.

4. The Dat. use is often obscured by the absence of etymological translation. So nūbere alicui, to marry a man (to veil for him); medēri alicui, to heal (to take one's measures for) a man; supplicāre, to beg (to bow the knee to); persuādēre, to persuade (to make it sweet).

5. After the analogy of verbs the phrases audientem esse, to hear, i.e., to obey, supplicem esse, to entreat, auctōrem esse, to advise, fidem habēre, to have faith in, are also found with the Dative:

Si potest tibi dictō audīēns esse quisquam, C., Verr., I. 44, 114.

6. The poets are very free in their use of the Dat. with verbs of the same general
meaning as those given. So se miscere, to mingle with; cofere, concurrere, to meet; verbs of contending, as contendere, bellare, pugnare, certare; verbs of disagreement, as differre, discrepare, distare, dissentire. Here belongs haerere with the Dat., as V., A., iv. 73, which may, however, be a Locative construction.

Dative and Verbs Compounded with Prepositions.

347. Many verbs compounded with the prepositions ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, (post), prae, sub, and super, take the Dative, especially in moral relations.

Transitive Verbs have an Accusative case besides.

Plēbēs cūncta comitia adfuit, C., Planc., 8, 21; the entire commonalty was present at the election. Omnis sēnsus hominum multō antecellit sēnsibus bēstiarum, C., N.D., 11, 57, 145; every sense of man is far superior to the senses of beasts. (Ennius) equi fortis et victōris senectūtī comparat suam, C., Cat.M., 5, 14; Ennius compares his (old age) to the old age of a gallant and winning steed. Imminent duo rēgēs tōtī Asiae, C., Imp., 5, 12; two kings are menaces to all Asia. Interes cōnsiliis, C., Att., xiv. 22, 2; you are in their councils, are privy to their plans. Piger ipse sibyl obstat, Prov. (311, 2). Omnibus Druidibus praeest ūnus, Caes., B.G., VI. 13, 8; at the head of all the Druids is one man. Anatum ōva gallinis saepe suppōnimus, C., N.D., 11, 48, 124; we often put ducks' eggs under hens (for them to hatch). Neque dēesse neque suprēses rei publicae volō, C. (Pollio), Fam., x. 33, 5; no life that is not true to the state, no life that outlives the state's—that is my motto.

Remarks.—1. The Dat. is found, as a rule, only when these verbs are used in a transferred sense. In a local sense the preposition should be employed, although even classical Latin is not wholly consistent in this matter. In poetry and later prose the Dat. is extended even to the local signification. In early Latin the repetition of the preposition is the rule.

So incumbere in gladium, C., Inv., II. 51, 154, to fall upon one's sword.

2. The principal intrans. verbs with the Dat. in classical Latin are:

Accēdere (to join, or, to be added; otherwise usually preposition ad);
accumbere (once in Cic.); adesse (also with ad, in, and, in Plaut., apud);
adhærēscere (ad of local uses); arridēre (once in Cic.); annuere (occasionally with Acc.);
assentīri; assidēre; antecēdere (also with Acc.);
antēre (also with Acc.); antecellere (with Acc. from Livy on);
congruere (also with cum); cōnsentīre (also with cum); cōntāre; convenire (to suit; with cum, to agree with, especially in the phrase convent mihi cum aliquō, I agree with); illūdere (also with Acc. and occasionally in and Acc.);
impendere (with Acc. is archaic; occasionally in); incēdere (Sall., Livy, etc.);
incidere (twice in Cic.; regularly in);
incumbēre (but incumbere regularly with in or ad);
inessse (once in Cic.); inhaerēre (occa-
sionally ad or in with Abl.); inhiäre (Plaut. has Acc. only); innāscī (innātus); inservire; insinuāre (once in Cíc.; usually in); insistere (locally, in with Abl.; occasionally Acc.); instāre; invādere (once in Cíc.; occasionally Acc.; regularly in); intercēdēre; intercurrere; interes (also with in and Abl.); intervenire; obsesse; obrēpere (usually in, ad); obsistere; obstāre; obstrepear; obtingere; obversāra; occurrere; occurrēre; praestāre; praesidere; subesse; subvenire; subσcēdere; succumbere; succrēscere (once in Cíc.); succurrere; superesesse.

3. The same variety of construction is found with transitive verbs, in composition.

4. After the analogy of praestāre, excellere, to excel, is also found with the Dative.

5. Some trans. verbs, compounded with de and ex (rarely with ab), take the Dat., but it properly comes under 345.

Caesar Deiotarō tetrarchian ēripuit, eademque dētraxit Armenia. Cf. C., Div., ii. 37, 79; Caesar wrested from Deiotarus his tetrarchy, and stripped from him Armenia.

Dative with Verbs of Giving and Putting.

348. A few verbs, chiefly of Giving and Putting, take a Dative with an Accusative, or an Accusative with an Ablative, according to the conception.

Praedam milītibus dōnat, Caes., B. G., vii. ii. 9; he presents the booty to the soldiers. But Rubrium corōnā dōnāsti, C., Verr. iii. 80, 185; thou didst present Rubrius with a crown.

Nātūra corpus animō circumdēdit, Sen., E. M., 92, 13; Nature has put a body around the mind. But Deus animum circumdēdit corpore, Cf. C., Tim., 6, 20; God has surrounded the mind with a body.

Remarks.—1. These are: aspergere, to besprinkle and to sprinkle on; circumdare, circumfundere, to surround; dōnāre, to present; impertīre, to endow and to give; induere, to clothe and to put on; exsūere, to strip of and to strip off; interclūdere, to shut off; miscère, to mix and to mix in.

2. In general, classical Latin here prefers the Dat. of the person, but no fixed rule is followed.

Dative of Possessor.

349. Esse, to be, with the Dative, denotes an inner connection between its subject and the Dative, and is commonly translated by the verb to have:

[Contrōversia] miniā fuit cum avunculō tuo, C., Fin., iii. 2, 6; I had a debate with your uncle. An nescis longās régibus esse manús? Ov., Her.,
xvi. 166; or perhaps you do not know that kings have long arms? Compare nōn habet, ut putāmus, fortūna longās manūs, Sen., E.M., 82, 5.

Remarks.—1. The predicate of esse, with the Dat., is translated in the ordinary manner: Caesar amicus est mihi, Caesar is a friend to me (amicus meus, my friend, friend of mine).

2. The Dat. is never simply equivalent to the Genitive. The Dat. is the Person interested in the Possession, hence the Possession is emphatic; the Gen. characterises the Possession by the Possessor, hence the Possessor is emphatic. The Gen. is the permanent Possessor, or owner; the Dat. is the temporary Possessor. The one may include the other: Latīni concedunt Rōmam caput Latium esse, Cf. L., viii. 4, 5; the Latins concede that Latium has its capital in Rome. (Latii: that Latium's capital is Rome.)

3. Possession of qualities is expressed by esse with in and the Abl., by inesse with Dat. or with in, or by some other turn: Fuit mirificus in Crassō pudor, C., Or., i. 26, 122 (346). Cimon habēbat satis ēloquentiae, Nep., v. 2, 1; Cimon had eloquence enough.

Sallust introduces the Dat. also for these relations.

4. Abesse and dēesse, to be wanting, to fail, take also the Dat. of Possessor.

5. The Dat. of the person is regular with the phrases nōmen (cōgnōmen) est, indītum est, etc. Here the name is in the Nom. in apposition to nōmen, in the best usage. Rarely in Cicero, once in Sallust, never in Caesar, more often in early and post-Ciceronian Latin, the name is found in the Dat.; either by attraction with the Dat. of the person or on the analogy of the Double Dative. The Appositional Genitive (361) is first cited from Velleius. The undeclined Nom. after an active verb appears first in Ovid; then in Suétionius.

Fōns aquae dulcis, cui nōmen Arēthūsa est, C., Verr., iv. 53, 118; a fountain of sweet water named Arēthūsa. Apollodōrōs, cui Pyragrō cōgnōmen est, C., Verr., iii. 31, 74; Apollodorus, surnamed Pyragrus (fire-tongs). Nōmen Arctūrō est mihi, Pl., Rud., 5; my name is Arcturus. Tibi nōmen ēnsānō possuere, H., S., ii. 3, 47; they called you "cracked." [Samnītēs] Maleventum, cui nunc urbi Beneventō nōmen est, perfugērunt, L., ix. 27, 14; the Samnites fled to Maleventum (Ilcome), a city which now bears the name Beneventum (Welcome). Actūs, cui fēcimus 'aurea' nōmen, Ov., M., xv. 96; the age to which we have given the name 'Golden.'

Dative of Personal Interest.

In its widest sense this category includes the Dative with Transitive and Intransitive Verbs, already treated, and the Ethical Dative, Dative of Reference, and Dative of Agent, to follow. In its narrower sense it applies only to persons or their equivalents who are essential to, but not necessarily participant in or affected by, the result, and differs from 'the Dative with Transitive and Intransitive Verbs, in that the connection with the verb is much more remote.
350. 1. The person from whose point of view the action is observed, or towards whom it is directed, may be put in the Dative. A convenient but not exact translation is often the English Possessive (Dativus Energicus).

Et liberenter me ad pedes abiecti, Cf. C., Att., viii. 9, 1; I gladly cast myself at his feet. In conspectum venerat hostibus, Hirt., viii. 27; he had come into the sight of the enemy. Tuō virō oculī dolent, Cf. Ter., Ph., 1053; your husband’s eyes ache; nearer, your husband has a pain in his eyes (tuī virī oculī, your husband’s eyes).

Note.—This Dative is not common in Cicero and is not cited for early Latin. But it becomes common from Livy on. With Relative and Demonstrative pronouns it is often used by Ciceronian and Augustan poets. In the case of many of the examples we have parallel constructions with the Gen. of Possessor, which is the normal usage.

2. The Dative is used of the person in whose honour, or interest, or advantage, or for whose pleasure, an action takes place, or the reverse (Dativus Commodity and Incommodity):

Consuriēxisse omnēs [Lysandrei] dicuntur, C., Cat.M., 18, 63; all are said to have risen up together in honour of Lyssander. [Deō] nostra altāria fumant, V., Ec., i. 43; our altars smoke in honour of the god. Si quid peccat mihi peccat, Ter., Ad., 115; if he commits a fault, it is at my cost.

Ethical Dative.

351. The Ethical Dative indicates special interest in the action. It may be called the Dative of Feeling, and its use is confined to the personal pronouns (Dativus Ethicus.)

Tū mihi Antōniī exemplō istius audaciām dēfendis? C., Verr., III. 91, 213; do you defend me (to my face) by Antony’s example that fellow’s audacity? Ecce tibi Sébōsus! C., Att., ii. 15; here’s your Sebosus!

“She’s a civil modest wife, one (I tell you) that will not miss you morning nor evening prayer.”—Shakespeare.

Notes.—1. This is essentially a colloquialism, common in comedy, especially with ecce and em, frequent in Cicero’s letters, occasionally found elsewhere. In poetry, notably Augustan, it is almost wholly absent; but there are several cases in Horace. Cicero does not use em. Livy does not use ecce.

2. Especially to be noted is sibi velle, to want, to mean: Quid tibi vis, insāne, C., Or., ii. 69, 269; what do you want, madman? Quid volit sibi haec òrātiō? Ter., Hueaut., 615; what does all this holding forth mean?

Dative of Reference.

352. This indicates the person in whose eyes the statement of the predicate holds good (Dativus Iūdicantis).

Ut mihi dēformis, sic tibi magnificus, Tac., H., xii. 37; to me a monster, to yourself a prodigy of splendour. Quintia formōsa est multis, Cat., 86, 1; Quintia is a beauty in the eyes of many.
DATIVE.

Note.—This Dative is characteristic of the Augustan poets, but it is also common enough in Cicero and the prose authors.

353. Noteworthy is the use of this Dative in combination with participles, which shows two varieties, one giving the local point of view, the other the mental, both post-Ciceronian and rare. Caesar gives the first local usage, Livy the first mental.

[Hec] est oppidum primum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ephro, Caes., B.C., III. 80; this is the first town of Thessaly to those coming (as you come) from Epirus. Veræ aestimant, L., XXXVII. 58, 8; to one whose judgment was true.

Notes.—1. This construction is probably drawn from the Greek, although Vitruvius shows several examples.
2. Certainly Greek is the Dat. of the person with volenti, cupienti, invitio (est), etc., which is found first in Sallust, once in Livy, and sporadically in Tacitus, and later.

Dative of the Agent.

354. The Dative is used with Passive Verbs, in prose chiefly with the Perfect Passive, to show the interest which the agent takes in the result. That the person interested is the agent is only an inference. (See 215.)

Mibi res tōta prōvisa est, C., Verr., iv. 42, 91; I have had the whole matter provided for. Cui non sunt auditae Demosthenis vigiliae? C., Tusc., iv. 19, 44; to whom are not Demosthenes’ long watchings a familiar hearsay?

Notes.—1. Instances of this Dat. with the Tenses of Continuance are poetical, or admit of a different explanation:

Barbarus hic ego sum qui non intellegor sīllī, Ov., Tr., v. 10, 37; I am a barbarian here because I can’t make myself intelligible to any one.

Whenever an adj. or an equivalent is used, the Dat. Pl. may be an Ablative:

Sic dissimillīmus bestios commūniter cibus quaeritur, C., N. D., ii. 42, 123; so, though these little creatures are so very unlike, their food is sought in common. Carpina quae servībuntur aquae pōtōribus, H., Ep., i. 19, 3; poems which are written when people are waterdrinkers. Ĉena ministrātur pueris tribus, H., S., i. 6, 116; Dinner is served, (the waiters being) the waiters are (but) three.

2. This Dat. is rare in early Latin, rare, if ever, in Caesar, not uncommon in Cicero. But it is much liked by the poets and by some prose writers, notably by Tacitus.

355. The agent of the Gerund and Gerundive is put in the Dative, at all periods.

Diligentia praecipua colenda est nōbis, C., Or., ii. 35, 148; carefulness is to be cultivated by us first and foremost. Despērānda tibi salvā cordia sociī, Juv., vi. 231; you must despair of harmony while Mother-in-law’s alive.
Remark.—To avoid ambiguity, especially when the verb itself takes
the Dat., the Abl. with ab (a) is employed for the sake of clearness:
Civibus a vobis consulendum, C., Imp., 2, 6; the interest of the citi-
zens must be consulted by you. Supplicatiō ab eō décernenda nōn fuit,
C., Ph., xiv. 4, 11.
Where there is no ambiguity there is no need of ab:
Linguae moderandum est mihi, Pl., Curs., 486; I must put bounds to
my tongue.

Note.—Poets are free in their use of this Dative; so with verbs in bilis; as, multīs ille bonis flēbilis occidit, II., O., i. 24, 9; nānī exōrabilis, Sil. Ital., v. 131.

Dative of the Object For Which.

356. Certain verbs take the Dative of the Object For
Which (to what end), and often at the same time a Dative
of the Personal Object For Whom, or To Whom.

Nemini meus adventus labōri aut sūmptu fuit, C., Verr., i. 6, 16; to
no one was my arrival a burden or an expense. Virtūs sōla neque datur
dōnō neque accipitur, S., Jug., 85, 38; virtue alone is neither given nor
taken as a present. Habēre quaestūl rem pūblicam turpe est, C., Off., ii.,
22, 77; it is base to have the state for one's exchequer.

Remarks.—1. Noteworthy is the legal phrase cui bonō? to whom is
it for an advantage? = who is advantaged?
2. In the classical times the principal verbs in this construction are
esse, dare, dēcere, habēre, vertere, and a few others which occur less fre-
quently. Later Latin extends the usage to many other verbs, and
especially to Gerundive constructions. Dare is used principally in the
phrase dōnō dare.
3. The Double Dative is found principally with esse, but occasion-
ally with other verbs. Here there seems to have been a tendency,
mainly post-Ciceronian, to use the predicative Nom. instead of the
Dative. Interesting sometimes is the shift in usage; thus, Cicero says
est turpitudō, Nepos, fuit turpītūdīnī.

Notes.—1. In the same category, but with the idea of finality more clearly indi-
cated, are the agricultural usages, alimentō serere, condītūr legere; the medical,
remediō adhibēre; the military terms, praesidio, auxiliō, mittere, esse, etc.
2. With Livy we notice the great extent of this Dat. with verbs of seeking, choos-
ing, etc., where classical Latin would prefer some other construction. So locum insi-
dis (insidiārum is classical) circumspectāre Pōenus coepit, L., xxii. 53, 11. Tac-
itus goes furthest in such usages. Cæsar, however, shows a few instances (B. G., i.
30, 3).
3. The Final Dative with intrāns. verbs is military and rare. So receptūl canere,
to sound a retreat, is found first in Cæs., B. G., vii. 47. Sallust shows a few ex-
amples. The Dat., with similar substantives, is an extension, and is very rare. Cicero,
Ph., xiii. 7, 15, says receptūl signum.
4. The origin of this usage may have been mercantile (Key). In English we treat Profit and Loss as persons: *Quem fors diērum cumque dabit lucrō appōne*, H., O., 1. 9, 14; "Every day that Fate shall give, set down to Profit."

On the Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive in a similar sense, see 429.

**Dative with Derivative Substantives.**

357. A few derivative substantives take the Dative of their primitives:

_Justitia est obtemperātiō légibus_, C., Leg., i. 15, 42; _justice is obedience to the laws._

**Note.**—We find a few examples in Plautus, several in Cicero, and only sporadically elsewhere. Usually the verbal force is very prominent in the substantives; as, _insidiās cōnsulī mātūrāre_, S., _C._, 32, 2.

**Local Dative.**

358. The Dative is used in poetry to denote the _place whither._

_Karthāginī iam nōn ego nūntiās mittam superbōs_, H., _O._, iv. 4, 69; _to Carthage no more shall I send haughty tidings. Iam satis terris nivis atque dīrae grandinis mīsit pater_, H., _O._, i. 2, 1; _full, full enough of snow and dire hail the Sire hath sent the Land._

**Notes.**—1. This construction begins with Accius, and is not uncommon in the Augustan poets. No examples are cited from Plautus or Terence, hence the inference is fair that it was not a colloquialism. As a poetical construction it seems to have sprung from personification.

2. Occasionally the substantive is also thus construed; as in the _facilis descensus Averno_ of Vergil ( _A._, vi. 116).

_The extreme is reached when the Dative follows_ ire _and the like:_

_It caelō clāmorque virum clàngorque tubārum_, V., _A._, xi. 192; _mounts to High Heaven warriors' shout and trumpets' blare._

3. _Tendere manūs_ has a few times, even in Cicero and Caesar, the Dat. of the person, which is sometimes referred to this head. _But the usual construction is ad._


**Dative with Adjectives.**

359. Adjectives of Likeness, Fitness, Friendliness, Nearness, and with the like, with their opposites, take the Dative:

_Canis similis lupō est_, C., _N. D._, i. 35, 97; _the dog is like unto the wolf._

_Castrīs idōnēus locus_, _Caes._, B. _G._, vi. 10, 2; _a place suitable for a camp._

_Utilē est ref publicae nōbilēs hominēs esse dīgnōs mājōribus suīs_, C., _Sest._, 9, 21; _it is to the advantage of the state that men of rank should be worthy of their ancestors._

_Vir mīhi amīcissimus_, _Q. Fabricius_, C., _Sest._, 35, 75; _my very great friend._

_Proxumus sum egomet mīhi, Ter., And._, 636; _myself am nearest to me._

_Omnī aetātī mors est com-
mūnis, Cf. C., Cat. M., 19, 68; death is common to every time of life. (Testis) id dicit quod illi causae maxime est alienum, C., Caec., 9, 24; the witness says what is especially damaging to that case (side).

Remarks.—1. Many adjectives which belong to this class are used also as substantives, and as such are construed with the Genitive: amicus, friend; affinis, connection; aequalis, contemporary; alienus (rare), foreign, strange; cognatus, kinsman; communis, common; contrarius, opposite; pār, match; proprius, peculiāris, own, peculiar; similis, like (“we ne’er shall look upon his like again”), especially of gods and men, and regularly with personal pronouns, and in early Latin; saer, set apart, sacred; superstes (rare), survivor. Comparatives have regularly the Dative; Superlatives vary.

[Ille], cuīus paucōs parēs haec civitās tulit, C., Pis., 4, 8; (he was) a man few of whose peers the state hath borne. Utinam tē nōn sūlum vitæ, sed etiam dignitātis meae superstitem reliquissem, C., Q. F., i. 3, 1; would that I had left thee survivor not only of my life but also of my position.

2. The object toward which is expressed by the Acc. with in, erga, adversus:

Manlius (fuit) severus in filium, C., Off., iii. 31, 112; Manlius was severe toward his son. Mē esse scit sēū erga benivolum, Pl., Capt., 350; he knows that I am kindly disposed toward him. Vir adversus merita Caesaris ingrātissimus, Cf. Vell., ii. 69, 1; a man most ungrateful towards Caesar’s services (to him).

3. The object for which may be expressed by the Acc. with ad, to:

Homō ad nūllam rem utilīs, C., Off., iii. 6, 29; a good-for-nothing fellow.

This is the more common construction with adjectives of Fitness.

Notes.—1. Propior, nearer, proximus, next, are also construed (like prope, near) occasionally with the Acc. (principally by Caesar, Sallust, Livy), the adverbial forms also with the Abl. with ab, off:

Crassus proximus mare Oceanum hiemārat, Caes., B. G., iii. 7, 2; Crassus had wintered next the ocean. Id propius fidem est, L., ii. 41, 11; that is nearer belief, i.e., more likely.

2. Aliēnus, foreign, strange, is also construed with the Abl., with or without ab (ē); so commonly absonus.

Homō sum, hūmānī nīl ā mē aliēnum putō, Ter., Heaut., 77; I am a man, and nothing that pertains to man do I consider foreign to me.

3. Iūnctus, cōnīunctus, joined, are also construed frequently with cum and the Abl.; sometimes with the Abl. only: improbitās scelere iūncta, C., Or., ii. 58, 237.

4. Similis is said to be used with the Gen. when the likeness is general and comprehensive; with the Dat. when it is conditional or partial; hence, in classical prose, always vērō simile, Livy being the first to say vērō simile.

5. Adversus, opponent, seems to be construed with the Gen. once in Sallust (C., 52, 7) and once in Quintilian (xii, 1, 2). Invidus, envious, is cited with the Gen. once in Cicero (Flacc., i, 2), then not till late Latin; with the Dat. it is poetical; otherwise the possessive pronoun is used, as tui invidī (C., Fam., i, 4, 2). Prōnus, inclined, with the Dat., occurs in Sallust (Ing., 114, 2), then not till Tacitus; the usual construction is ad. Intentus, intent upon, has Abl. in Sallust (C., 2, 9, etc.).
otherwise Dat., or ad (in) with Acc. Notice the use of adversus with Dat. in Tac., Ann., i. 66, 2; some other examples are doubtful.

6. In poetry, idem, the same, is often construed after Greek analogy, with the Dative.

Invitum qui servat idem facit occidentl, II., A.P, 467; he who saves a man’s life against his will does the same thing as one who kills him (as if he had killed him).

7. Adverbs of similar meaning sometimes take the Dative: Congruenter natiurae convenienterque vivere, C., Fin., III. 7, 26.

II. Internal Change.

Genitive.

360. 1. The Genitive Case is the Case of the Complement, and is akin to the Adjective, with which it is often parallel. It is the substantive form of the Specific Characteristic.

The chief English representatives of the Genitive are:

(a) The Possessive case: Domus regis, the king’s palace.

(b) The Objective case with of: Domus regis, the palace of the king.

(c) Substantives used as adjectives or in composition: Arbor abietis, fir-tree.

Remarks.—1. Other prepositions than of are not unfrequently used, especially with the Objective Genitive: (363, r. 1.)

Patriae quis exsul sē quoque fugit? II., O., ii. 16, 19; what exile from his country ever fled himself as well? Bolorum triumpthi spem collegae reliquit, L., XXXIII. 37, 10; he left the hope of a triumph over the Boii to his colleague.

Via mortis may be considered the way (mode) of death or the death-path, instead of via ad mortem (L., XLIV. 4, 14).

2. An abstract substantive with the Gen. is often to be translated as an attribute:

Verni temporis suavitatis, C., Cat.M., 19, 70; the sweet spring-time.

Fontium gelidae perennitatem, C., N.D., ii. 39, 98; cool springs that never fail. Compare S., C., 8, 3.

And, on the other hand, the predicative attribute is often to be translated as an abstract substantive with of:

Ante Romam conditam, before the founding of Rome. (325, r. 3.)

Notice also hic metus, this fear = fear of this, and kindred expressions: Quam similitudinem = cuius rei similitudinem, C., N.D., ii. 10, 27.

2. The Genitive is employed:

I. and II. Chiefly as the complement of Substantives and Adjectives.

III. Occasionally as the complement of Verbs.

Note.—As the Accusative forms a complex with the verb, so the Genitive forms a complex with the Substantive or equivalent. No logical distribution can be wholly satisfactory, and the following arrangement has regard to convenience.
I. GENITIVE WITH SUBSTANTIVES.
Adnominal Genitive.

Appositive Genitive, or Genitive of Specification.

361. The Genitive is sometimes used to specify the contents of generic words instead of Apposition in the same case; there are two varieties:

1. Appositional Genitive.—Genitive after such words as, vox, expression; nomen, name, noun; verbum, word, verb; res, thing, etc.
Nomen amicitiae, C., Fin., ii. 24, 78; the name friendship.

2. Epexegetical Genitive.—Genitive after such words as genus, class; vitium, vice; culpa, fault, etc.

[Virtutes] continentiae, gravitatis, justitiae, fidell, C., Mur., 10, 23; the virtues of self-control, earnestness, justice, honour.

Notes.—1. The former variety is very rare in Cicero, the latter much more common. A special variety is the use of the Gen. after such words as urbs, oppidum, flumen, etc. This is not found in Plautus and Terence, occurs perhaps but once in Cicero, and seems to be confined to a few cases in poetry and later prose. Often personification is at work; thus, in fons Timavi (V., A., i. 244), Timavus is a river god, and fons is not equal to Timavus.

2. Examples like arbor abietis (L., xxiv. 3, 4), fir-tree; arbor fici (Cf. C., Flacc., 17, 41), fig-tree, etc., occur only here and there.

3. Colloquial, and probably belonging here, are: scelus viri (Pl., M.G., 1434), a scoundrel of a man; flagitium hominis (Pl., Asin., 473), a scamp of a fellow, and the like. Quaeram pester hominum, C., Fam., v. 8, 2; certain pestilent fellows.

Possessive Genitive, or Genitive of Property.

362. The Possessive Genitive is the substantive form of an adjective attribute with which it is often parallel; it is used only of the Third Person.

Domus regis = domus regia, the palace of the king, the king's palace = the royal palace.

Remarks.—1. The Possession in the First and Second Person (and in the Reflexive) is indicated by the Possessive Pronouns (until after Livy): amicus meus, a friend of mine; gladius tuss, a sword of thine. But when omnium is added, vestrum and nostrum are used; aris et focis omnium nostrum inimicus, C., Ph., xi. 4, 10. Sometimes the adjective form is preferred also in the Third Person: canis alienus, a strange dog, another man's dog; filius erilis, master's son.

2. The attention of the student is called to the variety of forms which possession may take. Statua Myrônis, Myron's statue, may mean: 1. A statue which Myron owns; 2. Which Myron has made; 3. Which represents Myron.

3. Sometimes the governing word is omitted, where it can be easily
supplied, so especially aedēs or templum, after ad, and less often after other prepositions: *Pecūnia utinam ad Opis manēret, C., Ph., i. 7, 17;* would that the money were still at Opis's (temple).

**Notes.**—1. The *Family* Genitive, as *Hasdrubal Gisgōnis* (L., xxviii., 12, 13), Gisgo's Hasdrubal, Hasdrubal, Gisgo's son (as it were, Hasdrubal O'Gisgo), *Hectoris Andromachē* (V., A., 111. 319), Hector's (wife) Andromache, is found twice only in Cicero, otherwise it is poetical and post-Ciceronian. *Servos*, however, is regularly omitted: *Flaccus Claudi, Flaccus, Claudius*'s slave.

2. The *Chorographic* (geographic) Genitive is rare and post-Ciceronian: *Réx Chalcidem Euboeae vēnit, L., xxvii. 30, 7;* the king came to Chalcis of (in) Euboea.

The *Chorographic* Genitive is not found with persons. Here an adjective or a prepositional phrase is necessary: *Thalēs Milēsius, or ex Milētō, Thales of Miletus.*

**Active and Passive Genitive.**

**363.** When the substantive on which the Genitive depends contains the idea of an action (*nōmen aōtiōnis*), the possession may be *active* or *passive*. Hence the division into

1. The *Active* or *Subjective* Genitive: *amor Dei, the love of God, the love which God feels* (God loves); *patriae beneficia, the benefits of (conferred by) one's country* (376, R. 2).

2. Passive or *Objective* Genitive: *amor Dei, love of God, love toward God* (God is loved).

**Remarks.**—1. The English form in *of* is used either *actively* or *passively*: *the love of women*. Hence, to avoid ambiguity, other prepositions than *of* are often substituted for the Passive Genitive, such as *for, toward, and the like*. So, also, sometimes in Latin, especially in *Livy*, and later Historians generally:

*Voluntās Servīlit ergā Caesarem, Cf. C., Q.F., iii. i. 6, 26;* the goodwill of Servilius toward Caesar. *Odium in bona inveterātum, C., Val., 3, 6;* deep-seated hate toward the conservatives.

2. Both Genitives may be connected with the same substantive:

*Veterēs Helvētīorum iniuriae populi Rōmānī, Cf. Caes., B.G., i. 30, 2;* the ancient injuries of the Roman people by the Helvétians.

**Note.**—The use of the Genitive with substantives whose corresponding verbs take other cases than the Accusative, gradually increases in Latin, beginning with the earliest times, but it is not very common in the classical language.

**364.** The *Subjective* Genitive, like the *Possessive*, is used only of the *Third Person*. In the *First and Second Persons* the possessive pronoun is used, thus showing the close relationship of Agent and Possessor.

*Amor meus, my love (the love which I feel).* *Desiderium tuum, your longing (the longing which you feel).*
Additional attributives are put in the Genitive (321, r. 2):

Iūrāvī hanc urbem meā ūnius operā salvam esse, C., Pis., 3, 6; I swore that this city owed its salvation to my exertions alone.

**Remark.**—**Nostrum** and **vestrum** are used as Partitive Genitives:

Māγna pars nostrum, a great part of us; uterque vestrum, either (both) of you.

**Nostrī melior pars** means the better part of our being, our better part.

With omnium, the forms nostrum and vestrum must be used (362, r. 1).

**Notes.**—1. Occasionally, however, in Latin, as in English, the Gen. is used instead of the possessive pronoun; so Cicero says splendor vestrum (Att., vii. 13 a, 3), and consensus vestrum (Ph., v. 1, 2), and one or two others; but other examples are very rare until after Tacitus, when the Singular forms, after the example of Ovid (M., i. 30), become not uncommon. See 304, 3, n. 1. “For the life of me” = “for my life.”

2. On the other hand the Genitives of the personal pronouns are used regularly as the Objective Genitive:

Amor mei, love to me. Dēsiderium tū, longing for thee. Memoria nostri, memory of us (our memory).

Occasionally the possessive pronoun is used even here; see 304, 2, n. 2, and compare “The deep damnation of his taking off.”

**Genitive of Quality.**

365. The Genitive of Quality must always have an adjective or its equivalent.

Vir māγnae auctoritātis, Caes., B.G., v. 35, 6; a man of great influence. Homō nihil (= nullius pretii), Pl., B., nīlīs; a fellow of no account. Trīduī via, Caes., B.G., i. 38, 1; a three days’ journey. Non multi cibi hospitem accipies, multi ioci, C., Fam., ix. 26, 4; you will receive a guest who is a small eater but a great joker.

**Remarks.**—1. The Genitive of Quality, like the adjective, is not used with a proper name. Exceptions are very rare in classical Latin (Caes., B.G., v. 35, 6, Quintus Lūcānius, sūndem ōrdinis). But later they are more common.

2. The Genitive of Quality is less common than the Ablative, being used chiefly of the essentials. The Genitive always of Number, Measure, Time, Space; the Ablative always of externals, so of parts of the body. Often the use seems indifferent. (400.)

**Note.**—The omission of the adjective is not found before Apuleius, in whom, as in English, a man of influence may be for a man of great influence.

**Genitive as a Predicate.**

366. The Genitives of Possession and Quality may be used as Predicates.

Hīc versus Plautī nōn est, hic est, C., Fam., ix. 16, 4; this verse is not
by Plautus, this is. Omnia quae mulieris fuerunt, viri sunt ditis nōmine, C., Top., iv. 23; everything that was the woman's becomes the husband's under the title of dowry. Virtūs tantārum virīum est ut sē ipsa tueātur, C., Tusc., v. 1, 2; virtue is of such strength as to be her own protector.

Remarks.—1. The Possession appears in a variety of forms, and takes a variety of translations:

Hūius erō vīvus, mortuus hūius erō, Prop., ii. 15, 35: hers I shall be, living; dead, hers I shall be. Nōlae senātus Rōmānōrum, plēs Hannibalis erat, L., xxiii. 39, 7; at Nola the senate was (on the side) of the Romans, the common folk (on) Hannibal's. Damnātiō est ītīdicum, poena légis, C., Sull., 22, 63; condemning is the judges' (business), punishment the law's. Est animī ingenuī cui multum dēbēās eīdem plurīmum velle dēbēre, C., Fam., ii. 6, 2; it shows the feeling of a gentleman to be willing to owe very much to him whom you already owe much. Pauleris est numerāre pecus, Ov., M., xiii. 823; 'tis only the poor man that counts his flock ('tis the mark of a poor man to count the flock).

Observe the special variety, Genitūvus Auctōris: Is [Hercūls] dicebātur esse Myrōnis, C., Verr., iv. 3, 5; that (statue of) Hercules was said to be Myron's (work), by Myron.

So also with facere, to make (cause to be), which is common in Livy especially:

Rōmānæ dicīonis facere, L., xxii. 60, 3; to bring under the Roman sway. Summum imperium in orbe terrārum Macedonum fecerant, L., xlv. 7, 3; the paramount authority of the world they had brought (into the hands) of the Macedonians.

2. For the personal representative of a quality, the quality itself may be used sometimes with but little difference, as: stultitiae est, it is the part of folly; stultī est, it is the part of a fool. So, too, stultum est, it is foolish. But when the adj. is of the Third Declension, the neuter should not be used, except in combination with an adj. of the Second.

Temporī cēdere semper sapientis est habitum, C., Fam., iv. 9, 2; to yield to the pressure of the times has always been held wise. Pigrum et iners vidētur sūdōre adquirere quod possīs sanguine parāre, Tac., G., 14, 17; it is thought slow and spiritless to acquire by sweat what you can get by blood.

Some combinations become phraseological, as: consuetūdinis, mōris est (the latter post-classical), it is the custom.

3. The same methods of translation apply to the Possessive Pronoun in the Predicate ("Vengeance is mine") : meum est, it is my property, business, way.

Nōn est mentīri meum, Ter., Heaut., 549; lying is not my way (I do not lie). His tantīs in rebus est tuum vidēre, quid agātur, C., Mur., 38, 83; in this important crisis it is your business to see what is to be done.
Partitive Genitive.

367. The Partitive Genitive stands for the Whole to which a Part belongs. It is therefore but an extension of the Possessive Genitive. It may be used with any word that involves partition, and has the following varieties (368-372):

368. The Partitive Genitive is used with substantives of Quantity, Number, Weight.

Māximus vīnī numerus fuit, permāgnīum pondum argentī, C., Ph., ii. 27, 66; there was a large amount of wine, an enormous mass of silver. In iūgerō Leontīnī agrī medīmnīs trīticī seritur, C. Verr., iii. 47, 112; on a jūger of the Leontine territory a medīmnus of wheat is sown. Campānōrum ālām, quīngentōs fērē equītēs excēdere aciē iubet, L., x. 29, 2; he orders a squadron of Campanians, about 500 horsemen, to leave the line.

Remark.—This is sometimes called the Genītīvus Generis, Whether the conception be partitive or not, depends on circumstances.

Medīmnus trīticī, a medīmnus of wheat, may be a medīmnus of WHEAT (Genītīvus Generis) or a MEDIMNUS of wheat (Partitive).

Note.—The reversed construction is occasionally found. Sex diēs ad eam rem cōnfiandi spatiī pōstulant, Cæs., B.C., i. 3, 6, instead of spatium sex diērum.

369. The Partitive Genitive is used with the Neuter Singular of the following and kindred words, but only in the Nominative or Accusative.

tantum, so much, quantum, as (how much), aliquantum, somewhat,
multum, much, plus, more, plūrimum, most,
paulum, little, minus, less, minimum, least,
satis, enough, parum, too little, nihil, nothing,
hoc, this, id, illud, istud, that, idem, the same,
quod and quid, which and what? with their compounds.

Quod in rēbus honestīs operae cūraeque pōnētur, id iūre laudābitur, C., Off., i. 6, 19; what (of) effort and pains shall be bestowed on reputable deeds, will receive a just recompense of praise. Is locus ab omni turbā id temporis (336, n. 2) vacuus [erat], C., Fin., v. i, 1; that place was at that (point of) time free from anything like a crowd. Satis eloquentiae, sapientiae parum, S., C., 5, 4; enough (of) eloquence, of wisdom too little.

Remarks.—1. Neuter adjectives of the Second Declension can be treated as substantives in the Gen.; not so adjectives of the Third, except in combination with adjectives of the Second, but here usually the Second Declension adjective is attracted: aliquid bonum, or bonī, something good; aliquid memorābile, something memorable; aliquid bonī
et memorabilis, something good and memorable (better aliquid bonum et memorabile).

Quid habet ista res aut laetabile aut gloriosum? C., Tusc., i. 21, 49 (204, n. 3).

2. A familiar phrase is: Nihil reliquum facere. 1. To leave nothing (not a thing). 2. (Occasionally), to leave nothing undone.

Notes.—1. The conception is often not so much partitive as characteristic. So Quodcumque hoc regnl, V., A., i. 78; this realm, what (little) there is of it (what little realm I have). Perhaps, too, such combinations as flagitium hominis may be classed under this head. See 361, n. 3.

2. The partitive construction, with a preposition, is not found in Cicero or Caesar, but begins with Sallust:
Ad id loci, S., C., 45, 3; ad id locorum, S., Iug., 63, 6.

370. The Partitive Genitive is used with numerals both general and special.

Special:
Centum militia, a hundred (of the) soldiers, a hundred (of) soldiers.
(Centum milites, a, the hundred soldiers.)
Quintus rex, the fifth (of the) king(s).
(Quintus rex, the fifth king.)

General:
Multi militia, many of the soldiers, many soldiers.
(Multi milites, many soldiers.)

Remarks.—1. The English language commonly omits the partition, unless it is especially emphatic:
Multi civium adsunt, many citizens are present. Multi civis adsunt, many are the citizens present.

2. When all are embraced, there is no partition in Latin:
(Nos) trecenti coniuravimus, L., ii. 12, 15; three hundred of us have bound ourselves by an oath. Volnera quae circum plurima muros accipit patrios, V., A., ii. 277; wounds which he received in great numbers before his country’s walls.

Qui omnes, all of whom. Quot estis? how many are (there of) you? So always quot, tot, totidem.
Here the English language familiarly employs the partition. Exceptions are very rare.

3. On mille and milia, see 293. On prepositions with numerals, see 372, r. 2.

371. The Partitive Genitive is used with Pronouns.
Il militia, those (of the) soldiers. Il milites, those soldiers.
Illi Graecorum, those (of the) Greeks.
Fidenatium qui supersunt, ad urbem Fidenae tendunt, L., iv. 33, 10; the surviving Fidenates take their way to the city of Fidenae.
REMmKS.—1. Uterque, either (both), is commonly used as an adjective with substantives: uterque cönsul, either consul = both consuls; as a substantive with pronouns, unless a substantive is also used: uterque hörum, both of these; but uterque ille dux. So, too, with relatives in the neuter, and with Plural forms of uterque, concord is the rule. Compare uterque nostrum, C., Sull., 4, 13, with utrique nös, C., Fam., xi. 20, 3. See 372.  
2. On the use of prepositions instead of the Genitive, see 372, r. 2.  
NOTE.—The use of the relative with the Genitive is characteristic of Livy.  

372. The Partitive Genitive is used with Comparatives and Superlatives:  

Prior hörum in proeliiö cecidit, Nep., xxi. 1, 2; the former of these fell in an engagement. Indus est omnium flöminum máximus, C., N.D., ii. 52, 130 (211, r. 2).  

REMmKS.—1. When there are only two, the comparative exhausts the degrees of comparison (300).  
2. Instead of the Partitive Genitive with Numerals, Pronouns, Comparatives, and Superlatives, the Abl. may be employed with ex, out of, de, from (especially with proper names and singulairs), in, among (rare), or the Aec. with inter, among, apud: Gallus provocat ūnum ex Römanis, the Gaul challenges one of the Romans; ūnus dé multis, one of the many (the masses); Croesus inter régës opulentissimus, Croesus, wealthiest of kings. With ūnus, ex or de is the more common construction, except that when ūnus is first in a series, the Gen. is common.  
3. On the concord of the Superlative see 211, r. 2.  

NOTES.—1. The Partitive Genitive with positives is occasional in poetry; in prose it begins with Livy and becomes more common later.  
Sequimur tē, sanctae deōrum, V., A., ii. 576; we follow thee, holy deity. Canum dégenerès (caudam) sub alvöm flectunt, PIn., N.H., xi. 50, 265; currish dogs curl the tail up under the belly.  
2. Substantival neuters, with no idea of quantity, were rarely followed by the Gen. in early Latin. Cicero shows a few cases of Plurals of superlatives, and one case of a Plural of a comparative in this construction: in interiöra aedium Sullae (Att. iv., 3, 3). Caesar shows one case of a positive: in occultis &c reconditís templí (B.C., iii. 105, 5). Sallust shows the first case of the Singular: in praeruptí montís ex-tërmo (lug., 37, 4). Then the usage extends and becomes common, especially in Tacitus. In the poets it begins with Lucretius.  
Ardua dum metuunt ãmìttunt vēra viās (39, n. 2), Lucr., 1. 660; the while they fear the steeper road, they miss the true.  
So amāra curárum, H., O., iv. 12, 19; bitter elements of cares, bitter cares; strātæ viārum, V., A., 1. 422 = strātæ viae, the paved streets.  
3. The Partitive Genitive is also used with Adverbs of Quantity, Place, Extent: aMörum adfatim, L., xxvii. 17, 7; abundance of arms; ubi terrārūm, gentium? where in the world? (Very late Latin, tum temporis, at that time.) The usage with húc, eō, as húc, eō arrogantiae processit, he got to this, that pitch of presumption, is a colloquialism, which begins with Sallust, but is not found in Cicero or Caesar.
Notice especially the phrase: *quod (or quoad) eius (facere) possum, as far as I can do so:* C., Fam., iii. 2, 2; Alt., xi. 12, 4; Inv., ii., 6, 20.

4. The Partitive Genitive with proper names is rare, and mostly confined to Livy: *Consulam Sulpicius in dextrō Poetelius in laevō cornū consistunt,* L., ix. 27, 8.

5. The Partitive Genitive as a Predicate is Greekish: *Fies nōbilium tū quoque fontium,* II., O., iii., 13, 13; *thou too shalt count among the famous fountains.*

**Genitive with Prepositional Substantives.**

373. Causā, grātiā, ergō, and instar are construed with the Genitive.

[Sophistae] quaeēstās causā philosophēbantur, C., Ac., ii. 23, 72; the professors of wisdom dealt in philosophy for the sake of gain. *Tū mē amōris magis quam honorīs servāvistī grātiā,* Enn., F., 287 (m.); *thou didst save me more for love's (sake) than (thou didst) for honour's sake.* Virtūtis ergō, C., Opt. Gen., 7, 19; *on account of valor.* Instar montis equus, V., A., ii., 15; *a horse the bigness of a mountain.* Platō mihī unus instar est omnium, C., Br., 51, 191; *Plato by himself is in my eyes worth them all.*

**Remarks.**—I. *Causā* and *grātiā,* for the sake, commonly follow the Gen. in classical Latin and also in the Jurists. In Livy and later they often precede. *Ergō,* on account, belongs especially to early Latin, except in formulæ and laws, and follows its Genitive. It is rare in the poets. *Instar* is probably a fossilised Infinitive (instāre), meaning "the equivalent," whether of size or value.

2. Except for special reasons *causā* takes the possessive pronoun in agreement, rather than the personal pronoun in the Genitive; more rarely *grātiā*:

*Vestrā relique publicae causā,* C., Verr., v. 68, 173; *for your sake and that of the commonwealth.* But in antithesis, *multa quae nostri causā numquam facerēmus, facimus causā amisōrum!* C., Læl., 16, 57 (disputed).

**II. GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.**

374. Adjectives of Fulness, of Participation, and of Power, of Knowledge and Ignorance, of Desire and Disgust, take the Genitive.

*Plēnus rimārum,* Ter., Enn., 105; *full of chinks ("a leaky vessel").* Particeps consiliī, C., Sull., 4, 12; *a sharer in the plan.* Mentis compos, C., Ph., ii. 38, 97; *in possession of (one's) mind.* Multārum rērum peritus, C., Font., ii., 25; *versed in many things.* Cupidus pecūniāe, Cf. C., Verr., i. 3, 8; *grasping after money.* Fāstīdiōsus Latinārum (litterārum), C., Br., 70, 247; *too dainty for Latin.* Omnium rērum inscīus, C., Br., 85, 292; *a universal ignoramus.* Cūr nōn ut plēnus vitae convīva recēdis? Lucr., iii. 938 (273). *Sitque memōr nostri necne, referte mīhi,* Ov., Tr., iv.
3, 10 (204, N. 7). Cōnsicia mēns rēctī Fāmae mendācia risit, Ov., F., iv. 311 (330, R.). Agricolam laudat iūris lēgumque perītus, H., S., i. 1, 9; the husbandman’s lot is praised by the counsel learned in the law. Omnēs im-
memorem beneficī ēdere, C., Off., ii. 18, 63; all hate a man who has no
memory for kindness. (Bēstae) sunt rātiones et rātiones expertēs, C., Off.,
i. 16, 50; beasts are devoid of reason and speech (lack discourse of reason).
Omnia plēna cōnsiliōrum, inānīa verbōrum vidēmus, C., Or., i. 9, 37; we
see a world that is full of wise measures, void of eloquence. Gallia frūgum
fertilis fuit, L., v. 34, 2; Gaul was productive of grain.

Notes.—1. Of adjectives of Fullness, with the Gen., only plēnus, replētus, inops,
and inānīs are classical and common; single instances are found of liberālis, prō-
fūsus, in Sallust (C., 7, 6; 5, 4), and iēfūnus occurs once in Cicero. Plautus also
uses onustus and prūdīgus. Poets and later prose writers are free. Plēnus occurs
very rarely with the Abl. in Cicero and Caeser, more often in Livy. Refertus
is used by Cicero usually with the Abl. of the Thing and with the Gen. of the
Person.

2. Participation: Classical are particeps, express, cōnsors, with some adjectives
expressing guilt, as manifēstus (archaic), affinis, reus. Of these particeps
takes also the Dat. in post-classical Latin, and express has also the Abl. (not classical) from
Plautus on. (See S., C., 33, 1.) Affinis has the Dat. in Livy, in local sense also in
Cicero; reus takes Abl. or dē.

3. Power: Compos alone is classical, and is occasionally found with Abl. in Sall-
lust, Vergil, Livy. Potēns is found in Plautus, the poets, and post-classical prose;
impos in Plautus, and then not until Seneca.

4. Knowledge and Ignorance: Classical are some eighteen. Of these perītus has
also Abl., and rarely ad; insuētus takes also Dat. as well as dē; prūdēns has also
ad; rudis has Abl. with in more often than the Gen. in Cicero, but also ad. Ante-
classical Latin shows a few more adjectives.

5. Desire and Disgust: Classical are avidus, cupidus, fāstīdiōsus, studīōsus.
Of these avidus has also in with Acc. and with Abl.; studīōsus has Dat. in Plautus
(M. C., 801); single examples are cited with ad and in. Fāstīdiōsus occurs but once
in Cicero (see above); see H., O., iii. 1, 37.

6. In later Latin and in the poets almost all adjectives that denote an affection of the
mind take a Gen. of the Thing to which the affection refers, where model prose requires
the Abl. or a preposition: cōnsiliō ambigūus, Tac., H., iv. 21; doubtfull of purpose.

Ingrātus salūtis, V., A., x. 665.

The analogy of these adjectives is followed by others, so that the Gen. becomes a
complement to the adjective, just as it is to the corresponding substantive.

Integer vitae, H., O., i. 22, 1; spartless of life; like integritās vitae. (Compare
fāmē et fortūnās integer, S., H., ii. 41, 5 D; in fame and fortunes intact.)

7. The seat of the feeling is also put in the Gen., chiefly with animi and ingenii
(which were probably Locatives originally). Aeger animi, L., i. 58, 9; sick at heart,
heart-sick. Audāx ingenii, Stat., S., iii. 2, 61; daring of disposition. The Pl. is
animis.

8. The Gen. with adjectives involving Separation instead of the Abl. (390, 3) begins
with the Augustan poets; though Sallust shows nūdus and vacuus (Iug., 79, 6; 99,
1); liber labōrum, H., A.P., 212.

9. Classical Latin uses certus with Gen. only in the phrase certōrem facere, to
inform, which has also dē (always in Caeser).

10. Dignus, worthy, and indignus, unworthy, with Gen. are poetical and rare.

11. On aliēnus, strange, see 359, n. 2. On aequālis, commūnīs, cōnscius, con-
trārius, pār, proprius, similīs, superstes, and the like, see 359, r. 7.
Genitive with Verbals.

375. Some Present Participles take the Genitive when they lose their verbal nature; and so occasionally do verbals in -āx in poetry and later prose.

(Epaminondas) erat adeō vēritātis dīligēns ut nē iocē quidem mentīrētur, Nep., xv. 3, 1; Epaminondas was so careful (such a lover) of the truth as not to tell lies even in jest. Omnia consēnsū capāx imperī nisi imperassest, Tac., H., i. 49; by general consent capable of empire, had he not become emperor.

Notes.—1. The participle is transient; the adjective permanent. The simple test is the substitution of the relative and the verb: amāns (participle), loving (who is loving); amāns (adjective), fond (substantive), lover; patiēns (participle), bearing (who is bearing); patiēns (adjective), enduring (substantive), a sufferer.

2. Ante-classical Latin shows only amāns, cupiēns, concupiēns, fugitāns, gerēns, persequeāns, sciēns, temperāns. Cicero carries the usage very far, and it is characteristic of his style. Caesar, on the other hand, has very few cases (B. C., i. 69, 3). Cicero also shows the first case of a Gen. after a compared participle. Sumus nātūrā appetentissimī honestātis, C., Tusc., ii. 24, 58. These participles can also revert to the verbal constructions.

3. Of verbals with the Gen., Plautus shows one example: mendāx (Asin., 855); Cicero perhaps one: rapāx (Lael., 14, 50). The usage in later Latin and the poets is confined at most to about one dozen verbals.

III. GENITIVE WITH VERBS.
Genitive with Verbs of Memory.

376. Verbs of Reminding, Remembering, and Forgetting, take the Genitive.

Tē veteris amicitiae commonefecit, [C.] ad Her., iv. 24, 33; he reminded you of your old friendship. Est proprium stultitiae aliōrum vitia cernere, obliviscē suōrum, C., Tusc., iii. 30, 73; the fact is, it shows a fool to have keen eyes for the faults of others, to forget one's own. Ipse iubet mortis tē meminisse deus, Mart., ii. 59; a god himself bids you remember death.

Remarks.—1. Verbs of Reminding take more often the Abl. with dē (so regularly in Cicero), and the Acc. neut. of a pronoun or Numerical adjective. Tacitus alone uses monēre with the Gen. (Ann., i. 67, 1).

Orē ut Terentiam moneātis dē testamentō, C., Att., xi. 16, 5; I beg you to put Terentia in mind of the will. Discipulōs id ūnum moneō, Quint., ii. 9, 1 (333, 1).

2. Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting also take the Acc., especially of Things;
Haec ēlim meminisse iuvābit, V., A., i. 203; to remember these things one day will give us pleasure. Quī sunt bonī civēs, nisi qui patriae beneficia meminērunt? C., Planc., 33, 80; who are good citizens except those who remember the benefits conferred by their country? Obliviscē nihil solēs nisi iniūriās, C., Lig., 12, 35; you are wont to forget nothing except injuries.

Recoreō (literally = I bring to heart, to mind) is construed with the Acc. of the Thing, except in three passages from Cicero; dē is found with Persons.

Et vocem Anchisae māgni voltumque recordor, V., A., viii. 156; and I recall (call to mind) the voice and countenance of Anchises the Great.

Meminī, I bear in mind, I (am old enough to) remember, takes the Accusative:

[Antipatrum] tū probē meministī, C., Or., iii. 50, 194; you remember Antipater very well.

3. Venit mihi in mentem, it comes into (up to) my mind, may be construed impersonally with the Gen., or personally with a subject; the latter by Cicero only when the subject is a neuter pronoun.

Venit mihi Platōnis in mentem, C., Fin., v, i, 2; Plato rises before my mind’s eye.

Genitive with Verbs of Emotion.

377. Misereor, I pity, takes the Genitive, and miseret, it moves to pity, paenitet, it repents, piget, it irks, pudet, it makes ashamed, taedet and pertaesus est, it tires, take the Accusative of the Person Who Feels, and the Genitive of the Exciting Cause.

Miseremini sociōrum, C., Verr., i. 28, 72; pity your allies! Suae quemque fortūnae paenitet, C., Fam., vi. 1, 1; each man is discontented with his lot. Mē nōn sōlum piget stultitiae meae, sed etiam pudet, C., Dom., 11, 29; I am not only fretted at my folly, but actually ashamed of it.

Remarks.—1. Pudet is also used with the Gen. of the Person whose Presence excites the shame:

Pudet deōrum hominumque, L., iii. 19, 7; it is a shame in the sight of gods and men.

2. These Impersonals can also have a subject, chiefly a Demonstrative or Relative pronoun: Nōn tē haec pudent? Ter., Ad., 754; do not these things put you to the blush?

3. Other constructions follow from general rules. So the Inf. (422) and quod (542).

Nōn mē vixisse paenitet, C., Cat.M., 23, 84 (530). Quīntum paenitet quod animum tuum offendit, Cf. C., Att., xi. 13, 2; Quintus is sorry that he has wounded your feelings.
Notes.—1. With the same construction are found misereō (early Latin), miserescō (poetical), distaedet (early Latin), vereor (mostly in early Latin), and a few others.

2. Miserāri and commiserāri, to pity, commiserate, take Acc. until very late Latin.

Genitive with Judicial Verbs.

The Genitive with Judicial Verbs belongs to the same category as the Genitive with Verbs of Rating, both being extensions of the Genitive of Quality.

378. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, and Acquitting take the Genitive of the Charge.

(Miltiades) accusātus est prōditōnis, Nep., i. 7, 5; Miltiades was accused of treason. [Fannius] C. Verrem insimulat avaritiae, C., Verr., i. 49, 128; Fannius charges Gaius Verres with avarice. Videō nōn tē absolutum esse improbitātīs sed illōs damnātōs esse caedis, C., Verr., i. 28, 73; I see not that you are acquitted of dishonour, but that they are convicted of murder.

Remarks.—1. Judicial Verbs include a number of expressions and usages. So capī, tenerī, deprehendi, sē adstringere, sē adligāre, sē obligāre (ante-classical), and others, mean to be found guilty; increpāre, increpītāre, urgēre, dēferre, arguiere, etc., mean charge.

So also kindred expressions: reum facere, (to make a party) to indict, to bring an action against; nōmen dēferre dā, to bring an action against; sacrilegī compertum esse, to be found (guilty) of sacrilege.

2. For the Gen. of the Charge may be substituted nōmine or criminē with the Gen., or the Abl. with dā: nōmine (criminē) coniurātiōnis damnāre, to find guilty of conspiracy; accusāre dē vi, of violence (Gen. vis rare); dā veneficiō, of poisoning; dā rēbus repetundās, of extortion. Fōstulāre always has dā in Cicero. We find sometimes in with Abl.; convictus in criminē, on the charge; or, inter: inter sīcāriōs damnātūs est, convicted of homicide (C., Cluent., 7, 21; Cf. Ph., ii. 4, 8).

3. Verbs of Condemning and Acquitting take the Abl. as well as the Gen. of the Charge and the Punishment, and always the Abl. of the definite Fine; the indefinite Fine, quantī, duplī, quadruplī, etc., is in the Genitive.

Accusāre capitis, or capite, to bring a capital charge. Damnāre capitis, or capite, to condemn to death. Damnāri decem milibus, to be fined ten thousand.

Multāre, to mulet, is always construed with the Ablative: Multāre pecūniā, to mulet in (of) money.

Manlius virtutem filii morte multāvit, Quint., v. ii, 7; Manlius punished the valour of his son with death.

4. Destination and Enforced Labor are expressed by ad or in, but all examples are post-classical: damnāri ad bēstiās, to be condemned (to be
thrown) to wild beasts; ad (in) metallæ, to the mines; ad (in) opus públicum, to hard labour. Vôti damnarî, to be bound to fulfil a vow, is Livian (except Nep., xx. 5, 3, where it has a different sense).

5. Verbs of Accusing may have also the Acc. of the Thing and the Gen. of the Person: inertiam accusât aduléscentium, C., Or., i. 58, 246.

Genitive with Verbs of Rating and Buying.

379. Verbs of Rating and Buying are construed with the Genitive of the general value or cost, and the Ablative of the particular value or cost. (404.)

Verbs of Rating are: aestimâre, existimâre (rare), to value; putâre, to reckon; dûcere (rare in Cicero), to take; habère, to hold; pendere (mostly in Comedy), to weigh; facere, to make, put; esse, to be (worth); fieri, to be considered.

Verbs of Buying are: emere, to buy; vêndere, to sell; vénire, to be for sale; stâre and cônstâre, to cost, to come to; prôstâre, licère, to be exposed, left (for sale); condûcere, to hire; locâre, to let.

380. 1. Verbs of Rating take:

Mâgni, much, plûris, more, plûrîmi, mâxîmi, most,
Parvî, little, minórîs, less, minimi, least,
Tantî, tantidem, so quantî (and compounds), nihili, naught.

much, how much,

Equivalents of nihili, nothing, are flocci, a lock of wool, naucî, a trifle, assis, a copper, pîli (both in Catullus, mainly), and the like, and so also hûnus, that (a snap of the finger), all usually with the negative.

Dum nê ob malefacta, peream; parvî existumô, Pl., Capt., 682, so long as it be not for misdeeds, let me die; little do I care. [Voluptâtem] virtús minimi facit, C., Fin., ii. 13, 42; virtue makes very little account of the pleasure of the senses. [Iûdícès] rem públicam flocci nôn faciunt, Cf. C., Att., iv. 15, 4; the judges do not care a fig for the State. Nôn habêô naucî Marsum angurem, C., Div., i. 58, 132; I do not value a Marsian augur a bowbee.

Remark.—Tantî is often used in the sense of operaé pretium est = it is worth while.

Est nihî tantî hûnus invidiae tempestâtem subire, C., Cat., ii. 7, 15; it is worth while (the cost), in my eyes, to bear this storm of odium.

Notes.—1. Aestimô is found with the Abl. as well as with the Genitive. So aestimâre mâgnô and mâgni, to value highly. Cicero prefers the Ablative.

2. Observe the phrases: boni (aequi bonique) faciô (a colloquialism), boni côn-sulô (an old formula), I put up with, take in good part. Nôn pênsî habère (dûcere), to consider not worth the while, is post-Augustan and rare.
2. Verbs of Buying take tantì, quantì, plurìs, and minòris, The rest are put in the Ablative.

Vendē meum (frumentum) non pluris quam cēterī, fortasse etiam minòris, C., Off., III. 12, 51; I sell my corn not dearer than everybody else, perhaps even cheaper. Magis illa iuvant quae pluris emuntur, Juv., XI. 16; things give more pleasure which are bought for more. Emit (Canius hortōs) tantì quanti Pythius voluit, C., Off., III. 14, 59; Canius bought the gardens at the price Pythius wanted. Quantī cēnās? What do you give for your dinner? Quantī habitās? What is the rent of your lodgings?

But:

Parvō famēs cōnstat, māgnō fāstidium, Sen., E. M., 17, 4; hunger costs little, daintiness much.

An instructive shift:

Emit? perīi hercē: quantī?—Vigintī mīnts, Tert., Eun., 984; he bought her? I'm undone. For how much?—Twenty minae.

Remark.—Bene emere, to buy cheap; bene vēndere, to sell dear; male emere, to buy dear; male vēndere, to sell cheap. So, too, other adverbs: melius, optimē, pēius, pessimē.

Genitive with Interest and Réfert.

381. Interest and Réfert take a Genitive of the Person, seldom of the Thing, concerned.

Interest omnium rēcēs facere, C., Fin., II. 22, 72; it is to the interest of all to do right. Réfert compositionis quae quibus antepōnās, Quint., IX. 4, 44; it is of importance for the arrangement of words, which you put before which.

Instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, the Ablative Singular feminine of the possessives is employed.

Meā interest, meā réfert, I am concerned.

Notes.—1. Réfert is commonly used absolutely, occasionally with meā, etc., seldom with the Gen., in the classical language.

2. Instead of Apposition use the Relative:

Vehementer interērat vestrā, qui pātrēs estis, līberōs vestrōs hīc potissimum discere, Plin., Ep., IV. 13, 4; it were vastly to the interest of you parents, that your children, if possible, were taught at home.

3. The Nom. as a subject is rare, except in Pliny's Natural History:

Ūsque adeō māgni réfert studiūm atque voluptās, Lurc., IV. 984.

Occasionally the Nom. of a neuter pronoun is found:

Quid (Acc.) tua id (Nom.) réfert? Tert., Ph., 723; what business is that of yours?

4. Réfert is the more ancient, and is employed by the poets (interest is excluded from Dactylic poetry by its form) to the end of the classical period. Interest is peculiar to prose, employed exclusively by Caesār, and preferred by Cicero when a complement is added.
5. No satisfactory explanation has been given of this construction. One view is that *meā rēfert* was originally [ex] *meā rē fērt* (like *ex meā rē est*), it is to my advantage, and that the *ex* was lost. Interest having much the same force, but being later in development, took the constructions of *rēfert* by false analogy. The Gen. would be but parallel to the possessive.

382. 1. The Degree of Concern is expressed by an Adverb, Adverbial Accusative, or a Genitive of Value.

Id *meā minumē rēfert*, Ter., Ad., 881; that makes no difference at all to me. *Theodōrī nihil interest*, C., Tus., i. 43, 102; *It is no concern of Theodorus*. *Māgnī interest meā ūnā nōs esse*, C., Att., xiii. 4; it is of great importance to me that we be together.

2. The Object of Concern is commonly put in the Infinitive, Accusative and Infinitive, ut or nē with the Subjunctive, or an Interrogative Sentence.

*Quid Milōnīs intererat interfic Clōdiūn?* C., Mil., 13, 34; what interest had Milo in Clodius’ being killed? [Caesar dicere solēbat] nōn tam suā quam rēf publicae interesse uti salvus esset, Suet., Iul., 86; Caesar used to say that it was not of so much importance to him(self) as to the State that his life should be spared. *Vestrā interest nē imperatōrem pessimi faciant*, Tac., H., i. 30; it is to your interest that the dregs of creation do not make the emperor. *Quid rēfert tālēs versūs quā vōce legantur?* Juv., xi. 182; what matters it what voice such verses are recited with?

3. The Thing Involved is put in the Accusative with *ad*:

*Māgnī ad honōrem nostrum interest quam prīmum meā ad urbem venire*, C., Fam., xvi. 1, 1; it makes a great difference touching our honour that I should come to the city as soon as possible.

Occasional Uses.

383. 1. The Genitive is found occasionally with certain Verbs of Fullness: in classical Latin principally *implēre*, *complēre*, *egēre*, *indigēre*.

*Pisō multōs cōdices implēvit eārum rērum*, C., Verr. i. 46, 119; Piso filled many books full of those things. *Virtūs plūrimae commentātīōnis et exercitātīōnis indiget*, Cf. C., Fin., iii. 15, 50; virtue stands in need of much (very much) study and practice.

Notes.—1. Classical Latin shows in all cases the Abl. much more frequently than the Gen., except in the case of *indigēre*, where CICERO prefers the Genitive. *Livy* likewise prefers the Gen. with *implēre*.

2. Ante-classical and poetic are *explēre* (Verg.), *abundāre* (Luc.), *scatēre* (Lucr.), *saturāre* (Plaut.), *obsaturāre* (Ter.), *carēre* (Ter.). Carēre and *egēre* have the Acc. occasionally in early Latin.

3. Other Grecisms are *labōrum dēcīpitur*, H., O., ii. 13, 38 (reading doubtful).
Rēgnāvit populōrum, H., O., iii. 30, 12. Also mīrāri with Gen. in Vergil (A., xi. 126). Noteworthy is the occasional use of crēdere with Gen. in Plautus; so once fallī.

2. A Genitive of Separation, after the analogy of the Greek, is found in a few cases in the poets.

Ut mē omnium iam labōrūm levās, Pl., Rud. 247; how you relieve me at last of all my toils and troubles. Desine mollīum tandem querellārum, H., O., ii. 9, 17; cease at last from womanish complaining.

3. The Genitive in Exclamations occurs in a very few instances in the poets. Cat., ix. 5; Prop., iv. (v.) 7, 21; compare Pl., Most., 912; Lucan, ii. 45.

On the Genitive after comparatives, see 296, n. 2.

ABLATIVE.

384. The Ablative is the Adverbial, as the Genitive is the Adjective case. It contains three elements:

A. Where? B. Whence? C. Wherewith?

In a literal sense, the Ablative is commonly used with prepositions; in a figurative sense, it is commonly used without prepositions.

A. The Ablative of the Place Where appears in a figurative sense as the Ablative of the Time When.

B. The Ablative of the Place Whence appears as:


C. The Ablative of the Thing Wherewith appears in a figurative sense, as:


Remark.—It is impossible to draw the line of demarcation with absolute exactness. So the Ablative of Cause may be derived from any of the three fundamental significations of the case, which is evidently a composite one.

To these we add:


I. The Literal Meanings of the Ablative.

A. ABLATIVE OF THE PLACE WHERE.

Ablātīvus Locālis.

385. The Ablative answers the question Where? and takes as a rule the preposition in.

In portū nāvīgō, Ter., And., 480; I am sailing in harbour. Pōns in Hibērō prope effectus (erat), Caes., B.C., i. 62, 3; the bridge over the
Ebro was nearly finished. Histriō in scena [est], Pl., Poen., 20; the actor is on the stage. Haeret in equō senex, Cf. C., Dei., 10, 28; the old man sticks to his horse.

Remarks.—1. Verbs of Placing and kindred significations take the Abl. with in, to designate the result of the motion: classical are pōnere, to place, and compounds; locāre, collocāre, to put; statuere, cōnstituere, to set; cōnsidere, to settle; dēfigere, to plant; dēmergere, to plunge; imprimere, to press upon; insculpere, to engrave (figurative); inscribere, to write upon; incidi, to carve upon; incūdēre, to shut into.

Platō rationēm in capite posuit, iram in pectore locāvit, C., Tusc., i, 10, 20; Plato has put reason in the head, has placed anger in the breast. (Lucretia) cultrum in corde dēfigit, L., i, 58, 11; Lucretia plants a knife in (thrusts a knife down into) her heart. Philosophi in iis libris ipsis quōs scribunt dē contemnedā gloriā sua nōmina inscribunt, C., Tusc., i, 15, 34; philosophers write their own names on (the titles of) the very books which they write about contempt of glory. (Foedus) in columnā aeneā incīsum, C., Balb., 23, 53; a treaty cut upon a brazen column.

The same observation applies to sub:

Pōne sub currū nimium propinqui sōlis in terrā domibus negāta, H., O., i, 22, 21; put (me) under the chariot of the all-too neighboring sun, in a land denied to dwellings.

2. Verbs of Hanging and Fastening take ex, ab, or dē.

Cul spēs omnis pendet ex fortūnā, hunc nihil potest esse certī, C., Par., ii, 17; to him who has all his hopes suspended on fortune, nothing can be certain.

3. Here and there in is often rendered by per; C., Fam., i, 7, 6, per provinciās, here and there in the provinces; v, A., iii, 236.

Notes.—1. In classical prose the use of the Abl. without in is confined to a few words, mostly phraseological. So terrā, on land; mari, by sea; usually in the phrase terrā marisque (rarely in the reversed order), on land and sea. In terrā is more common otherwise than terrā. Locūs and locūs, especially when used with adjectives, usually omit in. The same is true of parte and partibus; so regularly dextrā (parte), sinistrā, laevā, etc., on the right, on the left. Livy uses regiō like locus. The tendency, however, is observable as early as Cicero’s time to omit the in when an adjective is employed, even in words other than those given above; this tendency becomes more marked in Livy and is very strong in later Latin. The poets are free. Regard must always be had to 389.

2. The Acc. with in after verbs of Placing is very rare in classical prose. In early Latin it is more common; so with pōnere, impōnere, collocāre. The examples with Acc. in classical Latin are principally with compounds of pōnere, as impōnere (usually), repōnere, expōnere. Collocāre with in and Acc. in Caes., B. C., i, 18, 7, is not in a local sense. Sometimes the Dat. is found with impōnere.

3. With a verb of Rest the motion antecedent to the rest is often emphasised by construing the verb with in and the Acc. instead of with in and the Abl. This occurs most often with esse and habēre, and seems to have been colloquial, as it is very rare in classical prose.

Numerō nihil in mentem fuit dis adventientem gratiās agere, Pl., Am., 180.

386. Names of Towns in the Singular of the Third Declension, and in the Plural of all Declensions, take the Ablative of Place Where without in.

Ut Rōmae cōnsulēs sic Carthāgīne quotannis bīnī rēgēs creābantur, Nep., xxiii. 7, 4; as at Rome (two) consuls, so in Carthage two kings, were created yearly. Tālis (Rōmae Fabricius), quālis Aristidēs Athēnīs, fuit, C., Off., iii. 22, 87; Fabricius was just such a man at Rome as Aristides was at Athens.

Remarks.—I. Appositions are put in the Abl. commonly with in; when the appositive has an attribute, the proper name regularly precedes: Neāpolī, in celeberrimō oppidō, C., Rab.Post., 10, 26; at Naples, a populous town.

2. In the neighborhood of, at, is ad with Acc., especially of military operations: pūgna ad Cannās (better Cannēnis), the battle at Cannae; pōns ad Genāvam, Caes., B.G., i. 7; the bridge at Geneva.

Note.—The Abl. in names of Towns of the Second Declension is found once in Cæsar (B. C., iii. 35, but the reading is questioned); more often in Vitruvius and later Latin, but in Greek words only. Apparent exceptions in Cæsar and Cicero are to be referred to the Abl. of Separation. The poets, however, are free.

387. In citations from Books and in Enumerations, the Ablative of the Place Where is used without in.

Librō tertīō, third book; versū decimō, tenth verse; allō locō, elsewhere.

But in is necessary when a passage in a book and not the whole book is meant: Agricultūra laudātur in ēō librō qui est dē tuendā rē familiāri, C., Cat. M., 17, 59; agriculture is praised in the work on domestic economy.

388. In designations of Place, with tōtus, cūntus, whole; omnīs, all; medium, middle, the Ablative of the Place Where is generally used without in.

Menippus, meō judiciō, tōtā Asia disertissimus, C., Br., 91, 315; Menippus, in my judgment, the most eloquent man in all Asia (Minor). Battīadēs semper tōtō cantābitur orbe, Ov., Am., i. 15, 18; Battides (Callimachus) will always be sung throughout the world.

Remark.—In is not excluded when the idea is throughout, in which case per also may be used. Negō in Siciliā tōtā (throughout the whole of Sicily) ēllum argenteum vās fuisse, etc., C., Verr., iv. 1, 1.

389. In all such designations of Place as may be regarded in the light of Cause, Manner, or Instrument, the Ablative is used without a preposition.
Ut terrā Thermopylārum angustiae Graeciam, ita marī fretum Eurīπi claudīt, L., xxxi. 23, 12; as the pass of Thermopylae bars Greece by land, so the frith of Euripus by sea. Ariovistus exercitum castris continuēt, Caes., B.G., i. 48, 4; Ariovistus kept his army within the camp. Egressus est nōn viās sed trāmitibus, C., Ph., xiii. 9, 19; he went out not by high roads but by cross-cuts. Nēmō ire quemquam publicō prohibit viā, Pl., Curc., 35; no man forbiddeth (any one to) travel by the public road. Mātris cinerēs Rōmam Tiberī subvēcti sunt, Cf. Suet., Cal., 15; his mother’s ashes were brought up to Rome by the Tiber.

So recipere aliquem tectō, oppidō, portū, to receive a man into one’s house, town, harbour; where, however, the Acc. with in is not excluded: gentēs universae in civitātem sunt receptae, C., Balb., 13, 31.

B. ABLATIVE OF THE PLACE WHENCE.

Ablātīvus Separātīvus.

390. 1. The Ablative answers the question Whence? and takes as a rule the prepositions ex, out of, dē, from, ab, off.

(Eum) exturbāstī ex aedībus? Pl., Trin., 137; did you hustle him out of the house? Arāneās dēciām dē pariete, Pl., St., 355; I will get the cobwebs down from the wall. Alcibiadem Athēniēnās ē civitāte expulērunt, Cf. Nep., vii. 6, 2; the Athenians banished Alcibiades from the state. Dēcēdit ex Galliā Rōmam Naevius, C., Quinct., 4, 16; Naevius withdrew from Gaul to Rome. Unde dēiēcisti sive ex quō locō, sive ā quō locō (whether out of or from which place), ēō restituēs, C., Caec., 30, 88.

2. The prepositions are often omitted with Verbs of Abstaining, Removing, Relieving, and Excluding; so regularly with domō, from home, rūre, from the country.

With Persons a preposition (chiefly ab) must be used.

(Verrēs) omnīa domō ūius abstulit, C., Verr., ii. 34, 83; Verres took everything away from his house. Ego, cum Tullius rūre redierit, mittam eum ad tē, C., Fam., v. 20, 9; when Tullius returns from the country, I will send him to you.

Compare Alīēnō manum abstineant, Cato, Agr., 5, 1; let them keep their hand(s) from other people’s property, with [Alexander] vix ā sē manūs abstinuīt, C., Tusc., iv. 37, 70; Alexander hardly kept (could hardly keep) his hands from himself (from laying hands on himself).

Compare Lapidībus optimōs virōs forō pellīt, C., Har. Res., 18, 39; you drive men of the best classes from the forum with stones, with Iustum aemulum ab ēa pellītō, Ter., Eun., 215; drive that rival from her.

Compare Omnīum rērum nātūrā cōgnitā liberāmur mortis metū, C., Fin., i. 19, 63; by the knowledge of universal nature we get rid of the
fear of death, with Tē ab eō liberō, C., Q.F., iii. i. 3, 9; I bid you of him.

Compare Amicitia nūlō locō excluditur, C., Lael., 6, 22; friendship is shut out from no place, with Ab ills excludōr, hōc conclusōr, Cf. Ter., And., 386; I am shut out from her (and) shut up here (to live with her).

Notes.—1. In classical Latin the preposition is usually employed in local relations, and omitted in metaphorical relations; though there are some exceptions.

2. It is to be noted that in the vast majority of cases the separation is indicated by a verb; hence this Abl. is found commonly with verbs compounded with prepositions. Thus, classical Latin shows but few simple verbs with the Abl., as follows: movēre, chiefly in general or technical combinations: movēre locō, senātū, tribū (Caesar, however, has no case); pellere, in technical language with civitāte, domō, forō, patriā, possessioniibus, suis sēdibus; cēdere is found with patriā, vītā, memoriā, possessione, Ætātī; cadere, technical with causā; solvere with lēge (lēgibus), religiōne, etc., somnō; levāre and liberāre are found chiefly in metaphorical combinations, and especially in Cicero; arcēre has peculiarly ab with metaphorical, Abl. with local forces. In the case of most of these verbs, the preposition with the Abl. is also found.

3. Of compound verbs with the Abl., Cicero shows only se abdicāre (principally technical), abesse (rarely), abhorrēre (once); abīre (in technical uses = se abdicāre), abrumpere (once), absolvere, abstinēre (intrans. without, trans. more often with, preposition), dēcere (with aedilītāte, etc.), dēmovēre (once), dēpellere, dēsistere, dēturbāre; ēdūcere (rare); efferre (rare); ēgredī; ēcere; ēlabī (rare); emittere (Caes.); ēripere (rare; usually Dat.); ēvertere; excedere; excludere; extre (rare); expellere; exsolvere; exsistere (rare); exturbāre; interclūdere; intermediere (alicui alicui rē; also alicui alicuid); praecipitāre (Caes.); prohibēre; supersedēre.

Early Latin shows a few more verbs with this construction. The poets are free with the Abl., and also later prose writers, beginning with Livy.

4. Humō, from the ground, begins with Vergil.: The preposition ἕ is found occasionally with domō; necessarily with a word (adjective or adverb) involving measurement, as; longinquē, longē, procul.

5. Compounds with di (dis) also take the Dative (in poetry):

Paulum seultae dīstāt inertiae cēlāta virtūs, II., O., iv. 9, 29; little doth hidden worth differ from buried sloth.

6. The Place Whence gives the Point of View from which. In English a different translation is often given, though not always necessarily: ā tergo, in the rear; ex parte dextrā, on the right side; ab oriente, on the east; ā tantō spatiō, at such a distance; ex fugā, on the flight; ā rē frumentāriā labōrāre, to be embarrassed in the matter of provisions.

3. The prepositions are also omitted with kindred Adjectives.

Animus excelsus omnī est liber cūrā, C., Fin., i. 15, 49; a lofty mind is free from all care. (Catō) omnibus hūmanīs vitīs immūnis, semper fortūnam in suā potestāte habuit, Vell., ii. 35, 2; Cato, exempt from all human failings, always had fortune in his own power. Iugurtha (Adherbal) extorrem patriā effēcit, S., Jug., i. 11; Iugurtha rendered Adherbal an exile from his country. Utrumque (frans et vis) homine aliēnissīmum, C., Off., i. 13, 41.
Notes.—1. The preposition is more usual in most cases. Pūrus and immūnis, with simple Abl., are poetical and post-Augustan. Expers, with Abl. instead of with Gen., belongs to early Latin and Sallust. Recēns, fresh from, with Abl., belongs to Tacitus.

2. Procul, far from, regularly takes the preposition ab, except in the poets and later prose.

3. The Abl. of the Supine is early and late, as Cato, Agr., 5; Vīlicus prīmus cubītū surgat, postrēmus cubītum eat. See 436, n. 4.

391. Names of Towns and Small Islands are put in the Ablative of the Place Whence.

Démarātus fugit Tarquinīōs Corinthō, C., Tusc., v. 37, 109; Demaratus fled to Tarquinii from Corinth. Dolābella Delō proficiscitur, C., Verr., i. 18, 46; Dolabella sets out from Delos.

Remarks.—1. The prepositions ab (ā) and ex (ē) are sometimes used for the sake of greater exactness, but rarely in model prose. So regularly ab with the Place from which distance is measured:


When the substantives urbe, city, and oppidō, town, are employed, the use of the preposition is the rule, as also when not the town, but the neighbourhood is intended; also always with longē. When the Appositive has an attribute the proper name regularly precedes.

Aulide, ex oppidō Boeotiae, from Aulis, a town of Boeotia. Ex Apol-lōniā Pontī urbe, from Apollonia, a city of Pontus. Ex oppidō Gergoviā, Caes., B.G., vii. 4, 2; from the town of Gergovia.

Early Latin is free in the use of prepositions; and also from Livy on the usage seems to increase.

2. The Place Whence embraces all the local designations:

Agrīgentō ex Aesculūpiī fānō whereas we should say, from the temple of Aesculapius at Agrigentum. Unde domō? V., A., viii. 114; from what home?

3. Letters are dated from rather than at a place.

Note.—Names of countries are but rarely used in the Ablative. Cicero, Sallust, and Livy show no instance, Caesar only one (B.C., iii. 58, 4). Occasionally examples are found in early Latin and in old inscriptions; then in later historians, beginning with Velleius. The use of prepositions with towns seems in general to have been a colloquialism, Cf. Suet., Aug., 86. The poets are free in their usage.

C. ABLATIVE OF THE THING WHEREWITH.

Ablātīvus Sociātīvus.

392. The Ablative of Attendance takes the preposition cum, with.

Cum febrī domum redivit, C., Or., iii. 2, 6; he returned home with a
fever. Catilīna stetit in comitiō cum tēlō, Cf. C., Cat., i. 6, 15; Catilīna stood in the place of election with a weapon (on him). Cum baculō pērā-que [senex], Mart., iv. 53, 3; an old man with stick and wallet. Nec tē-cum possum vivēre nec sine tē, Mart., xii. 47, 2; I can’t live either with you or without you.

Remarks.—1. In military phrases, the troops with which a march is made are put in the Ablative, with or without cum; generally without cum when an adjective is used (Ablative of Manner), with cum when no adjective is used (Ablative of Attendance). With definite numbers, however, cum is regularly employed.

Albāni ingenti exercitū in agrum Rōmānum impetum fēcere, L., i. 23, 3; the Albans attacked the Roman territory with a huge army. Caesārum cum equitibus DCCC in castra pervēnit, Caes., B.C., i. 41, 1; Caesar arrived in camp with nine hundred cavalry.

2. Not to be confounded with the above is the Instrumental Ablative:

Navibus proiectus est, C., Fam., xv. 3, 2; he set out by ship.

So also with verbs which denote other military actions:

Hasdrubal medium aciem Hispānis firmat, L., xxiii. 29, 4; Hannibal strengthens the centre with Spanish troops. Actum nihil est nisi Poenō mālite portās frangimus, Juv., x. 155; naught is accomplished unless we break the gates with the Punic soldiers (as if with a battering-ram).

II. The Figurative Meanings of the Ablative.

A. The Place Where is transferred to the Time When.

Ablative of Time. Ablātīvus Temporis.

393. Time When or Within Which is put in the Ablative.

Quā nocte nātus Alexander est, eādem Dīānae Ephesiae templum dēsla-grāvit, Cf. C., N.D., ii. 27, 69; on the same night on which Alexander was born, the temple of Diana of Ephesus burned to the ground. Sāturnī stella trīgintā ferē annis cursum suum cōnācit, C., N.D., ii. 20, 52; the planet Saturn completes its period in about thirty years.

Many adverbial forms of time are really Locative Ablatives:

So hodiē, to-day; her(e), yesterday; māne, in the morning.

Remarks.—1. Time Within Which may be expressed by per and the Accusative:

Per eōs ipsōs dies quibus Philippus in Achāia fuit, Philocolēs saltum Cithaerōnis trānscondit, L., xxxi. 26, 1; during those very days, while Philip was in Achaea, Philocolēs crossed the range of Cithaeron.

2. Time Within Which may embrace both extremities; so usually with tōtus, all, whole:
Nocte pluit tota, redeunt at mane serena, V. (Poet. Lat. Min., iv. 155 B); all night (Jupiter) rains; clear skies come back in the morning. Cf. Caes., B.G., i. 26, 5.

So with definite numbers; but rarely, until the post-Augustan period:

Scriptum est triginta annis vixisse Panaetium, postequam illius libros edidisset, C., Off., iii. 2, 8; it is written that Panaetius lived for thirty years after he had published those books (not to be confused with the Abl. of Difference, 403). Apud Pythagoram discipulis quinque annis tacendum erat, Sen., E.M., 52, 10; in the school of Pythagoras the disciples had to keep silence five years.

3. When the Notion is Negative, the English Time For Which is the Latin Within Which.

[Roscius] Romam multis annis non venit, C., Rosc. Am., 27, 74; Roscius has not come to Rome in (for) many years. Not always, however; compare Sex mensis iam hic nemo habitat, Pl., Most., 954; no one has been living here these six months.

4. Especially to be noted is the Abl. of Time with hic, this; ille, that:

Cui viginti his annis supplicati® decer®ta est ? C., Ph., xiv. 4, 11; to whom during these last twenty years has a supplication been decreed? [Karthaginem] hic biennio evertis, C., Rep., vi. 11, 11; Carthage you will overturn in the next two years.

Transferred to Ôráti® Obliqua, hic becomes ille (660, 3):

Diodorus [respondit] illud argentum se paucis illis diebus misisse Lilybaeum, C., Verr., iv. 18, 30; Diodorus answered that he had sent that silver plate to Lilybaeum within a few days (a few days before).

5. The Abl. of Time is regularly accompanied by an attribute in classical Latin, except in the case of a number of common designations, as aestate, die, hieme, nocte, vespere (vesperti). Exceptions are rare, such as comitiis, luce, pace, militia, and some names of games.

394. The Ablative with the preposition in is used of points within a period of time, or of the character of the time.

Bis in die, twice a day; in pueriti®a, in boyhood; in adul®sc©ntia, in youth.

Nullo modo mihi placuit bis in die saturnum fieri, C., Tusc., v. 35, 100; it did not suit me in any way to eat my fill twice a day. Feci ego istae¢ itidem in adul®sc©ntia, Pl., B., 410; I did those things too in my youth.

Remark.—The use or omission of in sometimes changes the meaning. So bell® Persic®, at the time of the Persian war; but in bell®, in war times; in pace, in peace times. Phrasological is in tempor®e, more frequent than tempor®e, at the right time. But in ill® tempor®e means in those circumstances, at that crisis. At present, for the present, is always in praesentia or in praesent® (rare).
Notes.—1. Classical Latin confines the use of in to designations of Time of Life (though here, when an adjective is employed, in is usually omitted) and to the periods of time. Later in is used much more extensively. With numerals in is the rule. Cato and the poets have sometimes bis dieis, as dieis = unus dies. 

2. De, from, is also used in designations of time: principally in the phrase de dieis, de nocte. Ut ingulement hominem surgunt de nocte latrones, H., Ep., i. 2, 32; to kill a man, highwaymen rise by night, i.e., while it is yet night.

Inter, between: Quae prandia inter continuum perdidi triennium, Pl., St., 213; what luncheons I have lost during three years together.

Intra, within: Subeget solus intra viginti dies, Pl., Curc., 448; he quelled them all alone in less than twenty days.

On per, through, see 336, r. 2.

Cum, with, is found occasionally in phrases, as cum prima lucce, with daybreak.

B. The Place Whence is transferred:

1. To Origin. 2. To Respect or Specification.

I. Ablative of Origin.

395. Participles which signify Birth take the Ablative of Origin; sometimes with the prepositions ex and de.

Amplissima familiā nāti adulācentēs, Caes., B.G., vii. 37, 1; young men born of a great house. Numae Pompeii régis nepós, filiā ortus, Ancus Március erat, L., i. 32, 1; King Numa Pompeius’s grandson, a daughter’s issue, was Ancus Marcius. Maecenas atavis édite rēgibus, H., O., i. 1, 1; Maecenas, offshoot of great- grandsire kings. Diā genite et geniūre deōs, V., A., ix. 639; begotten of gods, and destined to beget gods! Sate sanguine dīvum! V., A., vi. 125; seed of blood divine! Ex mē atque ex hōc nātus es, Ter., Heaut., 1030; you are his son and mine. Odērunt nātōs dē paellite, Juv., vi. 627; they hate the offspring of the concubine.

Ab, and occasionally ex, are employed of remote progenitors:

Plérique Belgae sunt ortī ab Germanīs, Cf. Caes., B.G., ii. 4, 1; Belgians are mostly of German descent. Oriundī ex Etrūscis, Cf. L., ii. 9, 1; of Etruscan origin.

Notes.—1. The principal participles thus used are nātus, prōgnātus, oriundus; ortus, genitus, and satus begin in prose with Livy; ēditus and crētus are poetic; prōcrētus is late. Cicerō uses oriundus but once; it denotes remote origin.

2. With names of Places the preposition is the rule (362, n. 2); but there are a few exceptions in early Latin and in Cicerō, and a couple of examples in Caes. Later the simple Abl. disappears. The Abl. was the rule with names of Tribes.


3. With finite verbs denoting Origin, the preposition is regular, except occasionally with nāscil.

4. The Ablative of Agent properly belongs here. But for convenience of contrast it is treated under 401.

396. The Ablative of Material takes ex in classical Latin.
Ex animō cōnstandum et corpore, Cf. C., Fin., iv. 8, 19; we consist of mind and body.

Statua ex aurō, ex aere, facta, a statue made of gold, of bronze. Often an adjective is used: *aureus, golden; ligneus, wooden.

Notes.—1. After Cicero cōnstandum is used more often with the Abl.; cōnstāre (with the Abl.) is poetical. Continēri, to be contained in, i.e., almost “to consist of,” takes the Abl. only, but with a different conception.

Medicina tōta cōnstat experimentis, Quint., ii. 17, 9; all medicine is made up of experiments (is empirical).

2. With fieri the previous state is indicated by dē as well as by ex.

Dē templō carcerem fieri! C., Ph., v. 7, 18; from a temple to become a jail.

Fiēs dē rētore cōnsul, Juv., v. 197; from (having been) rhetorician you will become consul. Ex ōrātore ārātor factus, C., Ph., iii. 9, 22 (206, n. 2).

3. Otherwise the simple Ablative of Material is poetic or late:

Māvors caelātus ferrō, V., a. viii. 700; Mars carven of iron.

Meliōre lutō finxit, Juv., xiv. 35; he fashioned it of better clay.

2. Ablative of Respect.

397. The Ablative of Respect or Specification gives the Point From Which a thing is measured or treated, and is put in answer to the questions From What Point of View? According to What? By What? In Respect of What?

Discriptus populus cēnsū, ōrdinibus, aetātibus, C., Leg., iii. 19, 44; a people drawn off according to income, rank, (and) age. Ennius ingeniō māximus, arte rudis, Ov., Tr., ii. 424; Ennius in genius great, in art unskilled. Animō ignāvus, procāx ōre, Tac., H., ii. 23, 18; coward of soul, saucy of tongue.

Noteworthy are the phrases: crīne ruber, red-haired; captus oculīs (literally, caught in the eyes), blind; captus mente, insane; meā sententiā, according to my opinion; ētre, by right; lēge, by law, etc.; and the Supines in -ā (436).

Notes.—1. Prepositions are also used, which serve to show the conception:

(Caesaris) adventus ex colōre vestītūs cōgnitus, Cf. Caes., B. G., vii. 88, 1; the arrival of Caesar was known by the color of his clothing. Dē gestū intellegō quid respondēas, C., Val., 15, 35; I understand by your gesture what you are giving. Ab animō aeger fūi, Pl., Ep., 129; at heart I was sick. Ōtiōsum ab animō, Ter., Ph., 340; easy in mind.

Similarly ex lēge, according to law; ex pactō, according to agreement; ex (dē) mōre, according to custom; ex animī sententiā, according to (my) heart’s desire; ex ētū, useful.

2. A special category is formed by words indicating eminence or superiority; so excellere, antecellere, praestāre, superāre, vincere; and the adjectives: insignis, illustris, dignus, excellens, praecellens. Praeccellere is found in early and late Latin, while dignārī is poetical and post-Augustan.

Māximō populus Romanus animī māgnitudine excellit, C., Off., i. 18, 61; the Roman people excel most in loftiness of mind.

On dignus with Gen., see 374, n. 10.
A curious usage is that of decōrus and decēre, with Abl., in Pl., M.G., 619; Asin., 577.

3. The origin of these constructions is still undetermined. They may be deduced also from the Instrumental side of the Abl., or from the Locative side.

398. The Ablative of Respect is used with the Comparative instead of quam, than, with the Nominative or Accusative; but in the classical language mainly after a negative, or its equivalent. (Ablātīvus Comparātiōnis.)

Tunica propior palliōst, Pl., Trin., 1154; the shirt is nearer than the cloak. Nihil est virtūte amābilius, C., Lael., 8, 28; nothing is more attractive than virtue. Quid est in homine ratiōne divīnus? C., Leg., i. 7, 22; what is there in man more godlike than reason? So also after adverbs, but not so freely in prose:

Lacrimā nihil citius ārsēcit, C., Inv., i. 56, 109; nothing dries more quickly than a tear. Nēmō est qui tibi sapientius suādēre possit tē ipsō, C., Fam., ii. 7, 1; there is no one who can give you wiser advice than you yourself. Pulcrum ērōtātur turpēs mōrēs pēius caēnō conlinunt, Pl., Most., 291; foul behavior doth bedraggle fine apparel worse than mud.

Remark.—When the word giving the point of view is a relative, the Abl. must be used. See 296, r. 2.

Phidiae simulācris quibus nihil in illō genere perfectius vidēmus, cōgitāre tamen possimus pulchriōra, C., Or., 2, 8; the statues of Pheidias, than which we see nothing more perfect in their kind, still leave room for us to imagine those that are more beautiful.

Notes.—1. The comparative is also employed with the Abl. of certain abstract substantives and adjectives used as substantives; so opiniōne, spē, exspectātiōne; aequō, iūstō, solitō, and the like, all post-Ciceronian except aequō, opiniōne. (Consul) sērius spē (= quam spēs fuerat) Rōmam vēnit, L., xxvi. 26, 4; the consul came to Rome later than was hoped. Solitō citātō amnis, L., xxiii. 19, 11; the river running faster than usual.

2. Aequē and adaequē are found once each in Plautus with the Abl.; and then not till the time of the elder Pliny.

3. For other details, see 296 and 644.

C. ABLATIVE OF THE THING WHEREWITH.

Ablātīvus Sociātīvus. Ablative of Attendance.

1. Ablative of Manner.

399. The Ablative of Manner answers the question How? and is used with the Preposition cum when it has no Adjective; with or without cum when it has an Adjective or its equivalent. (Ablātīvus Modī.)

[Stellae] circulōs suōs orbēsque cōnficiunt celeritāte mirābilī, C., Rep., vi. 15, 15; the stars complete their orbits with wonderful swiftness. Vōs
ôrō ut attentē bonāque cum veniā verba mea audiātis, C., *Rose. Am.*, 4, 9; *I beg you to hear my words attentively and with kind indulgence.*

Beastē vivere, honestē, id est cum virtūte, vivere, C., *Fin.* III. 8, 29; *to live happily is to live honestly, that is, virtuously.*

**Notes.**—1. The simple Abl. without an attribute is confined to a few substantives, which have acquired adverbial force; early Latin shows *astū, curriculō, dolō, ergō, grātīs* and *ingrātīs, ioculō, meritō, numerō, optātō, ōrdīne, sortītō, voluntātē, vulgō.* *Terence* adds: *vl, iūre, iniūriā.* Classical Latin shows some of these, also *ratīōne, ratīōne et viā, mōribus, cōnsuētūdīne, silentiō, cāsū, lēge, fraudē, vitiō, sacrāmentō* (beginning with *Livy*), and a few others. Sometimes the idea of Specification is prominent, as in *lēge, iūre* (397); sometimes it is hard to distinguish between the Manner and the Instrument: *vl, violently and by violence; vl et armīs, by force of arms; pedibus, afoot; nāvibus, by ship.* Notice, also, the use of *per, through,* with the Accusative: *per vim, by violence; per litterās, by letter.*

2. The post-Ciceronian Latin extends the use of the Abl. without an attribute.

3. The phrases *sub condicīōne, sub lēge,* etc., begin with *Livy.*

### 2. Ablative of Quality.

(Descriptive Ablative.)

**400.** The Ablative of Quality has no Preposition, and always takes an Adjective or an equivalent.

*Hannibalīs* nōmen erat māgnā apud omnes glōriā, C., *Or.*, II. 18, 75; *the name of Hannibal was glorious in the esteem of all the world.* *(Agēsilāus)* statūrā fuit humilī, *Nep.*, XVII. 3, 1; *Agésilāus was (a man) of low stature.* *Ista turpiculō puella nāsō,* *Cat.*, 41, 3; *that girl of yours with the ugly nose.* *Clāvī ferrei digitī pollicis crassitūdīne,* *Cf. Caes., B.G.*, III. 13, 4; *iron nails of the thickness of your thumb.*

**Remarks.**—1. External and transient qualities are put by preference in the Ablative; Measure, Number, Time, and Space are put in the Genitive only; parts of the body in the Ablative only. Otherwise there is often no difference.

2. Of unnatural productions *cum* may be used: *āgnus cum suillō capite,* *L.*, xxxi. 12, 7; *a lamb with a swine's head.*

### 3. Ablative of Means.

**401.** The Means or Instrument is put in the Ablative without a Preposition.

The Agent or Doer is put in the Ablative with the Preposition *ab* (ā). The Person Through Whom is put in the Accusative with *per.*

*Xerxes certior factus est,*

1. *nūntiō, by a message.*

2. *ā nūntiō, by a messenger.*

3. *per nuntium, by means of a messenger.*
Qui sunt homines, a quibus ille sē lapidibus adpetītum, etiam percussum esse dīxit? C., Dom., 5, 13; who are the men by whom he said he had been thrown at with stones, and even hit? Vulgō occidēbantur? Per quōs et a quibus? C., Rosc. Am., 29, 80; were they cut down openly? Through whose instrumentality and by whose agency? Nec bene prōmerītīs capi-

tur neque tangitur īrā, Lūcr., n. 651 (227, n. 4). Ipse docet quid agam: fās est et ab hōste docēri, Ov., M., iv. 428 (219). Discēte sānārī per quem didīcistis amāre, Ov., Rem. Am., 43; learn to be healed by means of (him by) whom you learned to love.

Remarks.—1. When the Instrument is personified and regarded as an Agent, or the Agent is regarded as an Instrument, the constructions are reversed; when an adjective is used, the construction may be doubtful; see 354, n. 1, and 214, r. 2.

So iacent suiē tēstibus, C., Mīl., 18, 47; they are cast by their own witnesses; or, they are cast, their own men being witnesses.

2. A quality, when personified, has the construction of the person.

So désērī a mente, à spē.

Vōbīs animus ab ignāviā atque sōcordiā corruptus [est], S., Iug., 31, 2; you have had your soul(s) debauched by sloth and indifference.

Notes.—1. The number of verbs construed with this Abl. is very large and comprises several categories; so verbs of Clothing and Providing, Adorning and Endowing, Training (érudīre also takes in; others take Acc., see 339), Living and Nourishing, etc.

2. Of special importance are assuéscō, assuéfaciō, assuéetus; (Catilīna) secelerum exercitātiōne assuéfactus, C., Cat., n. 5, 9. The Dat. is found first in Livy in prose. Ad with the Acc. is also classical.

3. Afficiere, to treat, with the Ablative, is a favorite turn; see the Lexicons.

4. Verbs of sacrificing, such as sacrificāre, sacrum facere, divīnam rem facere, facere and fieri (mostly poetical), immolāre, litāre (poetical), have the Abl. of Means. But immolāre usually has Acc. and Dat., and so the others occasionally, except facere.

Quinquāginta caprīs sacrificāvērunt, L., xlv. 16, 6; they sacrificed fifty she-goats.

5. Here belong also verbs like pluere, sudāre (not classic), stillāre (not classic), fluere, mānāre, and the like: sanguine pluisse, L., xxiv. 10, 7. The Acc. is also common.

6. Nītor, I stay myself, is construed with the Abl.; occasionally with in. Fīdō, cōnfidō, I trust, rely on, have the Abl.; but with persons the Dat., sometimes also with things. On the other hand, diffidō, I distrust, always has the Dat. in classical Latin, but Tacitus shows Abl., and so do other later writers. Stāre, to abide by, usually has the Abl., but occasionally in; manēre has usually in; the Abl. is poetical. Acqui-

ēscere, to acquiesce in, with Abl. is rare. Prētus, supported, takes the Abl. regularly; Livy alone uses the Dative. Contentus, satisfied with (by), is used only of one's own possessions (rēbus, fortūna, etc.), and has the Ablative.

Salūs omnium nōn veritātē sōlum sed etiam fāmā nītitur, Cf. C., Q.F., i. ii.

1, 2; the welfare of all rests not on truth alone, but also on repute. Êius iūdicīō stāre nōlim, C., Tusc., n. 26, 63; I should not like to abide by his judgment.

7. A remnant of the old usage is found with fīō, faciō, and esse:

Quid fēcisti scipiōne? P.l., Cos., 975; what have you done with the wand? Quid

402. The Standard of Measure is put in the Ablative with verbs of Measurement and Judgment.

Benevolentiam nōn ārdōre amōris sed stabilitāte iūdicēmus, C., Off., i. 15, 47; good will we are to judge not by ardour but by steadfastness. Māgnōs hominēs virtūte mētīmur, nōn fortūnā, NEP., xviii. i, 1; we measure great men by worth, not by fortune. Sonīs hominēs ut aera tinnītū dignōscimus, QUINt., xi. 3, 31; we distinguish men by sound, as coppers by ring.

Remarks.—1. It is often hard to distinguish the Measure from the Respect (see 397).

2. Ex with the Abl. is frequently found with these verbs; so regularly with aēstīmare, existīmare, spectāre, in the sense of judge, value.

Dicendum erit nōn esse ex fortūnā fidem ponderandum, C., Part. Or., 34, 117; the plea will have to be made that faith is not to be weighed by fortune. Sic est vulgus: ex vēritāte paucā, ex opiniōne multa aēstīmat, C., Rosc. Com., 10, 29; this is the way of the rabble: they value few things by (the standard of) truth, many by (the standard of) opinion.

403. Measure of Difference is put in the Ablative.

Sōl multīs partibus māior (est) quam terra ānversā, C., N. D., ii. 36, 92; the sun is many parts larger than the whole earth. (Via) alterō tantō longīorem habēbat ānfractum, NEP., xviii. 8, 5; the road had a bend (that made it) longer by as much again, as long again. Quīniēns tantō amplius Verrēs, quam licitum est, civītātibus impērāvit, Cf. C., Verr., iii. 97, 225; Verres levied on the various cities five times more than was allowed by law. Turrēs dēnīs pedibus quam mūrus altīōrēs sunt, CURT., v. i, 26; the towers are (by) ten feet higher than the wall. Tantō est acēsāre quam dcēdere, quantō facere quam sānāre vulnera, facilius, QUINt., v. 13, 3; it is as much easier to accuse than to defend, as it is easier to inflict wounds than to heal them. Perfer et obdūrā: multō graviōrā tulisti, Ov., Tr., v. 11, 7; endure to the end and be firm: you have borne much more grievous burdens.

Notes.—1. This rule applies to verbs involving difference (such as abesse, distāre, mālle, praestāre, excellere, etc.), as well as to comparatives, with which must be reckoned infrā, supra, ultrā.
ABLATIVE.

[Aesclapii templum] quinque milibus passuum ab urbe [Epidaurii] distat, Cf. L., xliv. 28, 3; the temple of Aesculapius is five miles from the city of Epidaurus.

2. The Acc. is sometimes employed (see 335); especially with neuter adjectives multum, tantum, etc., but this is not common except with verbs.

3. The Plautine Abl. nimirum, with the comparative, is not classical (compare [C.], Ait., x. 8, 1), but reappears in Livy. Aliter with this Abl. is very rare and is not classical. So also the Abl. with the positive, of which a few examples are cited from early Latin, as Ter., Heaut., 205.

4. (a) Especially to be noted is the use of the Abl. of Measure with ante, before, and post, after:

Paucis ante dierbus, Paucis diebus ante, a few days before.

Paucis post diebus, Paucis diebus post, a few days after, afterward.

Duobus annis postquam Rōma condita est, two years after Rome was founded.

Paulō post Trōiam captam, a little while after the taking of Troy.

The Acc. can also be employed: post paucōs annōs, after a few years; ante paucōs annōs, a few years before; and the ordinal as well as the cardinal numbers (but only when quam follows): two hundred years after(ward) may be:

Ducentīs annīs post or Ducentēsimō annō post,
Post ducentōs annōs or Post ducentēsimum annum.

(b) Ante and post do not precede the Abl. in classical Latin except with aliquantō (rare) and paulō. Ante and post, with the Acc. followed by quam, instead of antequam and postquam with the Abl., belong preeminently to post-classical Latin; classical examples arc rare. Cicero never has ante.

(c) Ante hōs sex mēnsēs, six months ago (compare 393, r. 4) more frequently abhinc sex mēnsibus (393, r. 3); abhinc sex mēnsibus, means six months before.

(d) With a relative sentence the Abl. of the relative may be used alocu, instead of ante (post) quam:

Mors Rōsci quadriduō quō is occissus est, Chrysogonō nuntiātur, C., Rosc. Am., 37, 105; the death of Roscius was announced to Chrysogonus four days after he was killed (the course of the four days within which he was killed). See 393.

(e) Hence is ad: ad sex mēnsēs, six months hence.

(f) Do not confuse the Acc. with ante and post with the Acc. of Duration of Time.

5. Ablative of Price.

404. Definite Price is put in the Ablative.

Eriphyla aurō virī vitam vēndidit, C., Inv., 1. 50, 94; Eriphyle sold her husband’s life for gold. Vigintī talentī άναμ ορτάθινον Ἰσοκράτης vēndidit, Plin., N.H., vii. 31, 110; Isocrates sold one speech for twenty talents. Émit morte immortālitātem, Quint., ix. 3, 71; he purchased deathlessness with death. Argentum accept, dōte imperium vēndidi, Pl., Asin., 87; the cash I took, (and) for a dowry sold my sway.

NOTES.—1. Mūtāre, to exchange, is sometimes Givc, sometimes Get; sometimes Sell, sometimes Buy. The latter use is confined to poetry and later prose.

Nēmō nisi victor pāce bellum mūtāvit, S., 53, 15; no one unless victorious (ever) exchanged war for peace. Misera pāx vel bellō bene mūtātur, Cf. Tac., Ann., iii. 44, 10; a wretched peace is well exchanged even for war.

But cūr vale pērumēm Sabīnā dīvitiās operētūrēs? H., O., iii. 1, 47; why should I exchange my Sabine vale for riches sure to breed (me) greater trouble?

2. So vēnālis, vīlis, cheap; cārus, dear. Nūn, edepol, minis trecentīs cārast, Pl., Pers., 668; she is not dear, for George, at three hundred minae.

3. For Genitive of Price, see 379.
6. Ablative with Verbs of Plenty and Want.

405. Verbs of Depriving and Filling, of Plenty and Want, take the Ablative.

[Démocritus] dicitur oculis sē privāsse, C., Fin., v. 29, 87; Democritus is said to have deprived himself of his eyes. Deus bonis omnibus explēvit mundum, Cf. C., Univ., 3, 9; God has filled the universe with all blessings. Capua fortissimōrum virōrum multitūdine redundat, C., Pis., 11, 25; Capua is full to overflowing with a multitude of gallant gentlemen. Nōn caret effectū quod voluĕre duo, Ov., Am., ii. 3, 16; what two have resolved on never lacks execution. Quō māior est in [animīs] praestantia, eō māiore indigent diligentīā, C., Tusc., iv. 27, 58.

Notes.—1. Verbs of Depriving are commonly referred to the Ablative of Separation, rather than to the Instrumental Ablative, and are put here for convenience of contrast. But it must be remembered that in the classic tongues the construction of opposites is identical.

2. Егеō and (more frequently) indigeō also take the Genitive:

Nōn tam artis indigent quam labōrīs, C., Or., i. 34, 156; they are not so much in need of skill as of industry. So implērī, V., A., i. 214.

3. Adjectives of Plenty and Want take the Gen., but some of them follow the analogy of the verb (374, n. 1). So onustus, orbūs, have Abl. more often than Gen.; indigus, egēnus, and inops have the Gen. more commonly. Plēnus has usually the Gen.; the Abl. in increasing proportion from Lucretius on. Frequēns and va- lidus do not take the Gen. until the post-Augustan period. See 374.

Asellus onustus aurō, C., Att., i. 16, 12; a donkey laden with gold. Pollicitis dives quilibet esse potest, Ov., A.A., i. 444; anybody can be rich in promises. Amor et melle et felle est fecundissimus, Pl., Cist., 67; love is (very) fruitful both in honey and in gall (of acrimony).

406. Opus and ësus take the Dative of the Person who Wants and the Ablative of the Thing Wanted; but the Thing Wanted may be the subject, and opus (not ësus) the predicate.

Novō cōnsiliō mihi nunc opus est, Pl., Ps., 601; a new device is what I'm needing now. Vigintī iam ësusr filiō argenti miniās, Pl., Asin., 89; my son has urgent need of twenty silver minae. Nīhil opus est simulātiōne et fallācīs, C., Or., ii. 46, 191; there is no need of making believe, and of cheating tricks. Nōn opus est verbīs sed ūstibus, C., Pis., 30, 73; there is need not of words, but of cudgels. Emās nōn quod opus est, sed quod necesse est; quod nōn opus est asse cārum est, Cato (Sen., E.M., 94, 27); buy not what you want, but what is absolutely needful; what you do not want (have no use for) is dear at a penny.

So with the Perfect Participle Passive.

Quod parātō opus est parā, Ter., And., 523; what must be got ready, get ready. Vicīnō conventōst opus, Pl., Cas., 502; the neighbour must
be called on. *Citius quod nôn factêst usus fit quam quod factêst opus*, Pl., Am., 505.

Notes.—1. *Opus est* means properly: *there is work to be done with*; *usus est*, *there is making use of* (like *UTOR*); hence the Ablative. Some think that *opus* takes Abl. by analogy with *usus*.

2. *Opus est* is common throughout; *usus est* is very rarely found after the early period. It belongs especially to comedy.

3. The Gen. with *opus* occurs twice in Livy; also in Propertius, Quintilian, and Apuleius.

4. The neut. Acc. is usually adverbial (333, i):

*a* *quid* (Acc.) *digitôs opus est graphiô lassâre tenendô*? *OV., Am., i. 11, 23; what is the use of tiring the fingers by holding the stylus?*

5. Besides the Pf. Part. pass., we find the Infin. and sometimes *ut*; in this case the Person is usually in the Dat. with *opus* (*usus*), but may be in the Acc. with the Inf., or may be omitted.

*Opus est te animô valère ut corpore possis*, C., Fam., xvi. 14, 2; *you must be well in mind in order to be well in body. An quoiquamst usus homini se ut cruciet?* *Ter., Heaut., 51; of what good is it to any man to torture himself?*

The 3spine is found occasionally; in Cicero only *scitü* (Inv., i. 20, 23; disputed).

6. In Plautus and Lucretius are occasional examples of *usus* as a predicate, with the Thing Wanted as the subject.

7. Ablative with Sundry Verbs.

407. The Deponent Verbs *UTOR, abûtior, fruor, fungor, potior,* and *vescor,* take the Ablative.

*Victorîâ uti nescis*, L., xxii. 51, 4; *how to make use of victory you know not.* *Quô usque tandem abûtère patientiâ nostrâ, C., Cat., i. 1, 1; how long, tell me, will you abuse our patience? Lux quâ fruimur & Deô nóbis datur*, Cc. C., Rosc. Am., 45, 131; *the light which we enjoy is given to us by God. Funguntur officiô; défendantu suös, C., Caél., v, 21; they acquit themselves of a duty; they defend their own people. Fungar vice cótis, H., A.P., 304; I shall acquit myself of, discharge, the office of a whelstone. Tútius esse arbitrábantur sine ullô vulnerë victóriâ potîrî, Caès., R.G., iii. 24, 2; they thought it safer to make themselves masters of the victory without any wound. Numidae lacte vescèbantur, S., Inv., 89, 7; the Numidians made their food of milk* (fed on milk).

Notes.—1. These Ablatives are commonly regarded as Ablatives of the Instrument: but *fruor,* *I get fruit,* and *vescor,* *I feed myself from,* and perhaps *fungor,* may take the Abl. as a Whence-case.

2. These verbs seem to have been originally construed with the Acc.; but this case is not found in classical Latin except in the Gerundive construction (427, N. 3).

(a) *UTOR* with Acc. is very common in Plautus, less so in Terence, but only with nenter pronouns. Cato uses also the nenter of substantives. *Abûtior* is combined only with Acc. in early Latin.

(b) *Fruor* with Acc. is not in Plautus, but occasionally in Terence and Cato. *Frûniscor* (rare) is transitive in Plautus and quadrigarius (ap. Gell.).

(c) *Fungor* with Acc. is the rule in early Latin (Ter., Ad., 603, is disputed), then in Nepos, Tacticus, Suetonius, and later.

(d) *Potior* has Gen. at all periods (rare in Cicero; once in Caesar); the Acc.
occasionally in early and late Latin, in the b. Afr., the b. Hesp., and in Sallust. Note-worthv is the use of an act. potire with Gen. in Pl., Am., 178, and a pass. potitus with Gen. in several places in Plautus.

(a) Vescor takes the Acc. rarely in early Latin, in the poets, and in later Latin.

Vivere, hēlluāri, take Abl. like vesci.

3. Útor is a favorite word, and has a most varied translation:

Úti alicuò amicō, to avoid one's self of (to enjoy) a man's friendship (to have a friend in him); úti consiliō, to follow advice; úti bonō patre, to have the advantage of having a good father; úti lēgibus, to obey the laws. See the Lexicons.

D. ABLATIVE OF REASON.

408. The Ablative of Cause is used without a preposition, chiefly with Verbs of Emotion. Ablativus Causae.

In culpā sunt qui officia déserrunt mollitiā animī, C., Fin., i. 10, 33; they are to blame who shirk their duties from effeminacy of temper. Óderrunt peccāre bonō virtūtis amōre, H., Ep., i. 16, 52; the good hate to sin from love of virtue. Délictō dolēre, correctione gaudēre (opportet), C., Lael., 24, 90; one ought to be sorry for sin, to be glad of chastisement. Nōn dīci potest quam flagrem désideriō urbis, C., Att., v. ii, 1; I burn (am asire) beyond expression with longing for Rome.

Notes.—1. A number of combinations become phraseological, as the verba: arbitratū, hortātū, impulsū, iūsū, missū, rogātū, etc.; also consiliō, auctoritāte, with a Gen. or possessive pronoun: iūssū civium, at the bidding of the citizens; meō rogātū, at my request.

2. The moving cause is often expressed by a participle with the Abl., which usually precedes: adductus, led; ardēns, fired; commōtus, stirred up; incitātus, egged on; incensus, inflamed; impulsus, driven on; multus, moved, and many others; amōre, by love; irā, by anger; odio, by hate; metū, by fear; spē, by hope, etc.

Metū perterritus, sore frightened; vereundīa déterritus, abashed, etc.

3. Instead of the simple Abl. the prepositions de and ex (sometimes in), with the Abl., ob and propater with the Acc., are often used; perhaps occasionally ab.

4. The preventing cause is expressed by prae, for (417, 9): Prae gaudio ubi sim nescīō, Ter., Heaut., 308; I know not where I am for joy.

5. On causā and gratiā with the Gen., see 373.

6. The use of the Abl. for the external cause, as rāgale genus non tam rēgnī quam rēgis vitīs repudiātum est (C., Leg., iii. 7, 15), the kingly form of government was rejected not so much by reason of the faults of the kingly form, as by reason of the faults of the king, is not common in the early and in the classical period, except in certain formule; but it becomes very common later.

7. The Ablative of Cause may have its origin in the Instrumental Ablative, in the Ablative of Source, or in the Comitative Ablative.

E. ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE.

409. The so-called Ablative Absolute is an Ablative combined with a participle, and serves to modify the verbal predicate of a sentence. Instead of the participle, a predicative substantive or adjective can be employed.
Note.—This Ablative, which may be called the Ablative of Circumstance, springs from the Temporal Use of the Ablative—the Temporal from the Local. Another view regards it as an Ablative of Manner, with a predicate instead of an attribute.

410. The Ablative Absolute may be translated by the English so-called Nominative (originally Dative) Absolute, which is a close equivalent; but for purposes of style, it is often well to analyse the thought, to change Passive into Active, to make use of an abstract substantive.

Xerxe rēgnante (= cum Xerxes rēgnaret), Xerxes reigning. When Xerxes was reigning. In the reign of Xerxes.

Xerxe victō (= cum Xerxes victus esset), Xerxes being, having been, defeated. When Xerxes had been defeated. After the defeat of Xerxes.

Xerxe rēge (= cum Xerxes rēx esset), Xerxes [being] king. When Xerxes was king.

Patre vivō, while father is, was alive (in father’s lifetime).

Urbe expūgnātā imperātor rediit:
Passive Form: The city [being] taken (after the city was taken), the general returned.

Active Form: Having taken the city (after he had taken the city), the general returned.

Abstract Form: After the taking of the city. After taking the city.

Māximās virtūtēs iacēre omnēs necesse est voluptāte dominante, C., Fin., ii. 35, 117; all the great(est) virtues must necessarily lie prostrate, if (or when) the pleasure (of the senses) is mistress. Rōmāni veterēs rēgnāri omnēs volēbant libertātis dulcēdine nōndum expertā, L., i. 17, 3; the old Romans all wished to have a king over them (because they had) not yet tried the sweetness of liberty.

Remarks.—1. As the Latin language has no Pf. Part. active, except when the Deponent is thus used, the passive construction is far more common than in English:

Iuvenēs veste posītā corpora oleō perūnxerunt, C., Tusc., i. 47, 113; the youths, (having) laid aside their clothing, anointed their bodies with oil; or, laid aside their clothing, and anointed their bodies with oil.

2. The Abl. Abs., though often to be rendered by a coördinate sentence, for convenience’ sake, always presents a subordinate conception:

(Lysander) suādet Lacedaemoniīs ut rēgiā potestāte dissolūtā ex omnibus dūx diligatur ad bellum gerendum, Nep., vi. 3, 5; Lysander advises the Lacedaemonians that the royal power be done away with, and a leader be chosen from all, to conduct the war. Here the one is necessary to the other.

3. As a rule, the Abl. Abs. can stand only when it is not identical
with the subject, object, or dependent case of the verbal predicate. 

Manlius slew the Gaul and stripped him of his necklace is to be rendered: Manlius caesum Gallum torque spoliavit.

This rule is frequently violated at all periods of the language, for the purpose either of emphasis or of stylistic effect. The shifted construction is clearer, more vigorous, more conversational.

Neque illum mē vivō corrumpi sinam, Pl., B., 419; nor will I suffer him to be debauched while I am alive.

The violation is most frequent when the dependent case is in the Genitive:

Jugurtha fratre meō interfecit regnum eius sceleris sui praedam fecit,

S., Iug., 14, 11; Jugurtha killed my brother, and (= after killing my brother) made his throne the booty of his crime.

Notes.—1. The Pf. Part. of Deponents and Semi-deponents as an active in the Abl. Abs. is not found in early Latin, and is not common in classical Latin, where it is always without an object and is confined to verbs of Growth (principally ortus, coortus, nātus), Death, and Motion. It becomes common later, being used with an object from Sallust on.

2. The Pf. Part. of Deponents as a passive in the Abl. Abs. is confined in classical Latin to émeritus, pactus, partitus. Sallust and Livy, as well as later writers, extend the usage. Tacitus, however, shows but two cases: adeptus (Ann., I. 7, 8) and ausus (Ann., III. 67, 4).

3. The Fut. Part. act. in the Abl. Abs. is post-Ciceronian, beginning with Pollio and Livy.

4. The impersonal use of the Abl. Abs. is found not infrequently in early Latin and Cicero, rarely in Caesar and Sallust. Most of the forms so used have become adverbial in character, as optātō, sortitō, intēstātō, consulitō, auspiciatō, directō, meritō, etc. The use of a following clause dependent upon the Abl. is begun in Cicero: adiunctō ut (Off., II. 12, 42). Sallust uses audītō and compertō with the infinitive. But Livy extends this construction very greatly, and introduces the use of neuter adjectives in the same way: incertō prae tenebris quid aut peterent aut vitarent, L., XXVIII. 36, 13. It is frequent in Tacitus.

5. The use of adjectives and substantives in the Abl. is not common in early Latin, but is a favorite usage of the classical period and later: mē auctōre, C., Or., III. 14, 54.

6. A predicate substantive, with the participle, is rare, but occurs in good prose: Praetōre désignātō mortuō filiō, C., Tusc., III. 28, 70.

Locative.

411. In the Singular of the First and Second Declensions, names of Towns and Small Islands are put in the Locative of the Place Where.

Pompeius biemāre Dyrrha Khī, Apollōniae omnibusque oppidis consti-uterat, Caes., B.C., III. 5, 1; Pompey had determined to winter at Dyrrhachium, Apollonia, and all the towns. Timotheus Lesbī (vīxit), Nep., XII. 3, 4; Timotheus lived at Lesbos. Rhōdi ego nōn fui, sed fui in Bithyniā, C., Planc., 34, 83; I was not at Rhodes, but I was in Bithynia.
Remarks.—1. A few substantives of the Third Declension also form sporadic Locatives; so Carthāgīni, in Plautus, Cicero, and later; Tiburt in Cicero, Livy, and later, and a few others. See 386.

2. Other Locative forms are, domī, at home (61, r. 2), humī, on the ground (first in Cicero), bellī, and militiae, in the combinations domī militiaeque, bellī domique, in peace and in war, at home and in the field; rūfī, in the country (but rūre meō, on my farm).

Parvī sunt foris arma nisi est cōnsilium domī, C., Off., 1. 22, 76; of little value are arms abroad unless there is wisdom at home. Tacīre humī, C., Cat., 1. 10, 26; to lie on the ground. Humī prōsternere, L., XLV. 20, 9; to throw flat on the ground.

Bellī is found alone occasionally in Terence and Cicero; Ennius, Vergil, and Ovid have terrae; Vergil also campī.

3. Appositions are put in the Ablative, commonly with in, and regularly follow when qualified by an attribute:

Militēs Albae cōnstitērunt in urbe opportūna, C., Ph., iv. 2, 6; the soldiers halted at Alba, a conveniently situated town. Archīās Antiochiae nātus est celebri quondam urbe, C., Arch., 3, 4; Archias was born at Antioch, once a populous city.

When urbe, city, oppidō, town, or insulā, island, precedes, the preposition is always employed:


4. Domī takes the possessive pronoun in the Genitive:

Domī suae senex est mortuus, C., N.D., III. 32, 81; the old man died at his own house. Metuis ut meae domī cārētur diligenter, Ter., Hec., 257; you fear that she will not be carefully nursed at my house. Also aliēnae domī (61, r. 2), C., Tusc., 1. 22, 51; in a strange house; domī illius, C., Div. in Cacc., 18, 58; in his house.

But in domō Pericēl (65), Nep., VII. 2, 1; in the house(hold) of Pericles.

In domō castā, in a pure house. In domō, in the house (not, at home).

Notes.—1. Early Latin shows a number of Locative forms that have disappeared for the most part in the classical period. So temperī (tempori) replaced by temporē in Cicero (Livy and Tacitus only in tempore); mānī, replaced by māne; vesperi and herī; and rare forms like diē, crāstīnī, proximi. See 37, 5.

2. On Locative forms of the pronouns, see 91, 3. On animī, see 374, n. 7.

PREPOSITIONS.

412. The Prepositions are originally local adverbs, which serve to define more narrowly the local ideas involved in the cases. The analogy of the local adverbs is followed by other adverbs, which are not so much prepositions as prepositional adverbs. Of the Prepositions proper, that is, Prepositions
used in composition (see Note), as well as in the regimen of cases, cum (con) does not clearly indicate a local relation.

The only cases that involve local ideas are the Accusative and Ablative. The Accusative, as the case of the Direct Object, represents the relation whither? the Ablative represents the relations whence? and where?

Remarks.—1. In verbs of Motion, the Result of the Motion is often considered as Rest in a place (where). See 385, n. 2.

2. In verbs of Rest, the Rest is sometimes conceived as the Result of Motion (whither). See 385, n. 3.

Note.—Prepositions derive their name from the fact that they are prefixed in composition. Many of the Latin Prepositions are not used in composition, and these may be called improper Prepositions. The prefixes amb- (am- an-), dis (di), por- (porr-, pol-), red- (re-), sēd- (sē-) and vē- are sometimes called inseparable prepositions.

413. Position of the Preposition.—The Preposition generally precedes the case.

Remarks.—1. Cum always follows a personal pronoun, and may or may not follow a relative pronoun: mēcum, with me; quōcum or cum quō, with whom. Dē is not uncommonly placed after quō and quā, rarely after quibus. Position after the relative is found here and there also in the case of other Prepositions, but principally in early Latin or the poets, as follows: ab, ad (also in Cicero), ex, in, per, post (after hunc, C., Tusc., ii. 6, 15), and pró.

Dissyllabic Prepositions are postponed more often, but Cicero restricts this to pronouns, with the following Prepositions: ante, circā, contrā, inter, penes, propter, sine, ūltrā. Caesār postpones intra also.

Tenus, as far as, and versus, -ward, always follow.

2. When the substantive has an attribute the Preposition may come between; hanc igitur ob causam (C., Br., 24, 94), for this reason, therefore.

3. The Preposition may be separated from its case by an attributive adjective or its equivalent, or other modifier of the case: post vērō Sullae victoriam, but after Sulla’s victory; ad beātē vivendum, for living happily. But model prose usually avoids separating the Preposition by more than a word or two. The poets have no scruples.

Notes.—1. A peculiarity of poetry, Livy, and later prose is the post-position of both Preposition and attribute: metū in māgnō, L., ix. 37, 11; in great fear.

2. Especially to be noted is the position of per, through (by), in adjurations: Lydīa dic per omnēs tē deōs ōrō, H., O., i. 8, 1; Lydίa, tell, by all the gods, I pray thee. Per ego tē deōs ōrō, Ter., And., 834; I pray thee, by the gods.

3. Between the Preposition and its case are often inserted the enclitics que, ne, ve; and after ante, post, and praeter the conjunctions autem, enim, quidem, tamen, vērō, occur, but not frequently. The first word in the combinations et—et, aut—aut,
simul—simul, vel—vel, sometimes follows the Preposition; cum et diurnō et noctūrnō metū, C., Tusc., v. 23, 66.

414. Repetition and Omission of the Preposition.—With different words which stand in the same connection, the Preposition is repeated, when the Preposition is emphatic, or the individual words are to be distinguished; so regularly after aut—a aut, et—et, nec—nec, vel—vel, nōn modo—sed etiam, sed, nisi, quam, and in comparative clauses with ut. Otherwise it is omitted; so always with que.

Et ex urbe et ex agrīs, C., Cat., ii. 10, 21; both from (the) city and from (the) country. De honōre aut de dignitāte contendimus, C., Tusc., iii. 21, 50; we are striving about office, or about position.

Remarks.—i. When a relative follows in the same construction as its antecedent, the Preposition is usually omitted.

(Cimōn) incidit in eandem invidiam (in) quam pater suus, Nep., v. 3, 1; Cimon fell into the same disrepute into which his father had fallen.

2. So in questions: Ante tempus mori miserum. Quod tandem tempus? C., Tusc., i. 39, 93; a hard case 'tis, to die before the time. (Before) what time, pray?

3. After quasi, tamquam, sicut, the Preposition is more often inserted.

Rūs ex urbe tamquam ē vincīlis evolāvērunt, Cf. C., Or., ii. 6, 22; they sped from the city to the country as if from a jail.

4. Two Prepositions are rarely used with the same word. Either the word is repeated, a form of is used, or one Prep. turned into an adverb:

Prō Scipīōne et adversus Scipīōnem, for and against Scipio. Ante pūgnam et post eam, before and after the battle. Et in corpore et extrā [sunt] quaedam bona., C., Fin., ii. 21, 68. But intrā extrāque mūnitiōnēs, Caes., B.C., iii. 72, 2.

415. As adverbs without a case are used:

Ad, about, with numerals in Caesar, Livy, and later; adversus, to meet, especially in Plautus and Terence; ante and post of Time (403, n. 4); contra, opposite, on the other hand; circum, round about, and circum (rare); prae, forward, in Plautus and Terence; prope, near, and propter (rare); iūxta, near by (rare); intrā, inside (post-classical); extrā, outside; infrā, below; suprā, above; subter, beneath, and super, above, both rare; citrā, on this side; ūtrā, beyond; cōram, in the presence of; clam, secretly.

I.—Prepositions Construed with the Accusative.

416. The Prepositions construed with the Accusative are:

Ad, adversus, ante, apud, circum, circiter, cis, citrā,
clam, contrā, ergā, extrā, infrā, inter, intrā, iūxtā, ob, penes, per, post (pōne), praeter, prope, propter, secundum, supra, trāns, ultrā, úsque, versus.

1. Ad. Of Motion Whither, to, up to. Of Direction, towards (ad orientem). Of Respect, for, with regard to (ad hās rēs perspicāx); found first in Terence. Of Manner, after, according to (ad hunc modum); colloquial (in Cicero's speeches only quem ad modum). Of Place, at (= apud), colloquial (ad montem, C., Fam., xv. 2, 2) and legal (ad forum, ad tē), rare in Cicero's speeches. Of Time, at, refers only to future, and gives either a point (ad vesperum, at evening), an interval (ad paucōs diēs, a few days hence), or an approaching time, towards. With Numerals, about. Of Purpose, for (castra hostī ad prædam relinquunt, L., iii. 63, 4). Also in phrases. Post-Ciceronian Latin extended the sphere of ad, and colloquially it was often a substitute for the Dative.

2. Adversus (-um), [i.e., turned to]. Towards, over against, against. Rare in early Latin and in Caesar and Sallust. In the sense, over against, it is found first in Livy. In the transferred sense, towards, it expresses usually hostile disposition, but begins to indicate friendly disposition in Cicero. Exadversus (-um) is found occasionally, beginning with Cicero, and is always local.

3. Ante [i.e., over against, facing]. Of Place Where, before. Of Place Whither, before; rarely (not in Cicero). Of Time, before; the most frequent use. Of Degree, before; not in Cicero or Caesar.

4. Apud is used chiefly of Persons. At the house of (characteristic locality). In the presence of (iūdicem). In the writings of (Platōnem). In the view of. Of Place, at, in (= in); common in comedy (apud villam); rare elsewhere, especially with proper names, where ad was preferred, except by Sallust. In phrases like apud sē esse, to be in one's senses.

5. Circā (circum). Around. Circum is exclusively local (except once in Vitruvius, where it is temporal). Circā in the local sense is found first in Cicero. In the meaning about, of Time or Number, it is found first in Horace. So, too, in the transferred sense of the sphere of mental action: circā virentis est animus campōs, II., O., ii. 5, 5.

6. Circiter. Of Place, about; once in Plautus. Usually of Time, about, especially with numerals; but the prepositional usage is on the whole small.

7. Cis, citrā. This side, short of. Of Place; cis found first in Varro, citrā in Cicero. Cis is occasionally temporal in Plautus, Sallust, Ovid. Citrā, of Time, within, this side of; found first in Ovid. Without (stopping short of); found first in Livy, then in Ovid, and
the post-Augustan prose writers. In C., Or., 18, 50, citrā may be rendered further bacius; i.e., nearer the beginning.


9. Contrā. Opposite to, over against, opposed to, against. It appears as a Preposition first in the classical period, and is used both in local and transferred senses. In the latter case the force is predominantly hostile.

10. Ergā. Opposite, towards. Of Place; very rarely, in early and late Latin. Usually in the transferred sense of friendly relations. The hostile sense is occasional in comedy, NePos, and later writers. Ergā is used always of Persons or personified Things until the time of TACITUS.

11. Extrā. Without, outside of, beside. It is used of local and transferred relations; rarely in the sense of sine (TAC., H., i. 49); occasionally in sense of praeter, except.

12. Infra. Beneath, lower down. Of Space; more frequently in classical Latin, of Rank or Grade; Temporal but once (C., Br., 10, 40). It occurs but rarely in later Latin, and is cited only once from early Latin (Ter., Eun., 489).

13. Inter. Between. Of Place Where, rarely of Place Whither. Colloquial were phrases like inter viam (vias), on the road, inter nos, between ourselves. Inter pannos, preeminently, is post-classical. Of Time, during; at all periods, but in Cicero principally in the Letters.


15. Huxtā [i.e., adjoining]. Hard by, near, next to. It appears as a Preposition first in Varro, then in CaesAR, but not in Cicero. It is used locally until Livy, who employs it also in transferred senses of Time, Order, etc.

16. Ob [i.e., over against, opposite to]. Right before. Of Place occasionally at all periods (not in CaesAR, Livy, Curtius, TACITUS). Of Cause, for; found in early Latin (not with personal pronouns in Plautus), in classical and post-classical Latin in increasing proportion. CaesAR uses it only in formulae with rem (res) and causam. Cicero and CaesAR do not use ob id or ob ea, which, found in early Latin, reappear in SALLUST. Ob has almost completely supplanted propter in TACITUS. With the substantive and participle (ob defensionum Capitōlium) ob is found first in Livy.

17. Penes. With = in the hands of; of Persons. Applied to
Things, it is found in poetry first in Horace; in prose first in Tacitus.
It is found wholly with esse until later Latin.

18. Per. Of Space, through; of Time, during; of Cause, owing to;
of Instrument, by (both persons and things); of Manner, by, in. It
is used phraseologically in oaths, by; also with persons (sometimes
things), as per me licet, as far as I am concerned you may. Per = ab
of Agent is found only in late Latin.

19. Pone. Behind, only in Local relations; it is most frequent in
Plautus, occurs but once in Cicero, never in Caesar or Horace, and
is rare in general.

20. Post. Of Place, behind; rare, but in good usage. Of Time,
after. Of Rank, subordinate to; in Sallust, poets, and late prose.

21. Praeter. Of Place, in front of, on before, past. In a transferred
sense, except; contrary to (opinioinem and the like). Of Rank, beyond
(praeter omnēs is cited only from Plautus and Horace; usually praeter
cēteros).

22. Prope. Of Place, near; found first in the classical period. It
sometimes has the constructions of adjectives of Nearness. Of Time,
near; very rare and post-classical, as Livy, Suetonius. Propius is
found first in Caesar as a preposition.

23. Propert. Of Place, near. Of Cause, on account of; very com-
mon in early and classical Latin, but avoided by many authors, notably
Tacitus. With substantive and participle it appears first in Varro;
than is common in Livy, and later.

24. Secundum [i.e., following]. Of Place, along (litus), close behind;
very rare (C., Fam., iv. 12, 1). Of Time, immediately after; in early
Latin and Cicero, common in Livy, but never in Caesar, Sallust,
Tacitus. Of Series, next to; in Plautus and Cicero. Of Reference,
according to; at all periods. Secus is ante-classical and rare.

25. Supra. Of Place, above, beyond; so Cicero almost exclusively.
Of Time, beyond; very rare. Of Grade, above. Of Authority, in
charge of; Vitruvius and later.

26. Trans. On the other side, beyond, across; only in Local relations.

27. Ultra. Of Space and Measure, on that side, beyond. Of Time;
only in late Latin. The early form ëls is very rare and in formulae, as,
Cis Tiberim et ëls Tiberim. In late Latin ëltră supplants praeter
almost wholly.

28. Usque, up to, is found once in Terence, several times in Cicero,
and occasionally later, with the Acc. of the name of a town. With
other names of localities it appears first in Livy.

29. Versus, -ward. As a preposition it first appears in the classical
period and is found usually with names of Towns, and small Islands;
with other words it is regularly combined with the prepositions ad (not
in Cicero) or in.
II. Prepositions Construed with the Ablative.

417. Prepositions construed with the Ablative are \( \text{ab} \) (ab, abs), absque, \( \text{cōrām} \), cum, dē, \( \text{ē} \) (ex), prae, prō, sine, tenus; rarely fine, palam, procul, simul.

1. \( \text{A} \) (ab, abs). Of Place Whence, from, especially of the point of departure; so in phrases, \( \text{ā} \text{tergō}, \text{ā capite} \), etc. Of Cause, from (frē); beginning with Livy. Of Agent, by. Of Remote Origin, from. Of Time, from. Of Reference, according to, after. Of Specification, in (doleō \( \text{ab} \) oculis); often with compound verbs.

Note.—The form before vowels and \( \text{h} \) is always \( \text{ab} \); before consonants usually \( \text{ā} \), though \( \text{ab} \) is not uncommon before consonants other than the labials \( \text{b, f, p, v} \), and is frequent before \( \text{l, n, r, s, and i} \) (j); \( \text{abs} \) is found only before \( \text{tē} \) and in the combination \( \text{absque} \). Cicero uses \( \text{abs tē} \) in his early writings, but prefers \( \text{ā tē} \) in his later ones.

2. \( \text{Absque} \) [\( \text{i.e.}, \text{off} \)]. Without. Peculiar to early Latin, where it is used in conditional sentences only. Occasionally in later Latin, as, \( \text{absque sententiā} \) (Quint., VII. 2, 44), for praeter sententiam.

3. \( \text{Cōrām} \). Face to face with, in the presence of; it is used with Persons only, and is found first in Cicero, and then in later writers, but in general it is rare until the time of Tacitus, who uses it very often in the Annals and always postpones.

4. \( \text{Cum} \). With; of Accompaniment in the widest sense. With Abl. of Manner regularly when there is no attributive; often when there is one. Sometimes it is used of mutual action: \( \text{ōrāre cum, plead with} \) (Plautus), etc.

5. \( \text{Dē} \). Of Place, down from, and then from; especially with compounds of \( \text{dē} \) and \( \text{ex} \). Of Source, from; with verbs of Receiving (actual and mental). Of Origin; but mainly in poetry and later prose. Of Object, concerning. Of Time; in phrases \( \text{dē nocte, dē diē} \) (diem \( \text{dē diē}, \text{day after day} \). Of the Whole from which a part is taken. Of Reference, according to (dē sententiā). Of Material; poetical and late.

6. \( \text{E} \) (ex). Of Place, out of, from. Often in phraseological usages, as \( \text{ex parte, partly}; \text{ex asse}, \) and the like. With verbs of Receiving, from. Of Time, from; \( \text{ex tempore} \) is phraseological. Of Origin, from. Of Reference, according to. Of Manner; in many phrases, as \( \text{ex aequō, ex ērdine} \). \( \text{E} \) is used before consonants only, \( \text{ex} \) before both vowels and consonants.

7. \( \text{Fine} \) (or \( \text{finī} \)). Up to; found in Plautus and Cato, then not until very late Latin. With the Gen. it occurs in \( \text{b. Afr.} \) and in Sallust, \( \text{Fr.} \); then not until Ovid and very late Latin.

8. \( \text{Palam} \), in the sense of \( \text{cōrām} \), in the presence of, is found first in Horace and Livy, and is rare.
9. Prae. Of Place, in front of; with verbs of Motion only, in classical Latin. In early Latin in the phrase prae manū, at hand. Of the Preventive Cause, for; with negatives only, in and after the classical period; in early Latin, also in positive sentences. Of Comparison, in comparison with; occasionally at all periods.

10. Prō. Of Place, before; not in early Latin, but found first in the classical period, where it is confined to certain combinations, as prō rōstris, castrīs, aede, vāllō, etc., and means before and on. In behalf of; not cited for early Latin. Instead of; very common at all periods. In proportion to; at all periods. Quam prō; found first in Livy.

11. Procul, far from, is poetical, and begins in prose with Livy. In classical Latin prose always with ab.

12. Simul, in the sense of cum, belongs to poetry and Tacitus (Ann., III. 64).

13. Sine, without, is opposed to cum.

14. Tenus, to the extent of. Of Space (actual and transferred), as far as. It is found occasionally with the Gen., but almost wholly with Pl., and perhaps but once in Cicero (Arat., 83); otherwise it belongs to poetry, making its first appearance in prose in Cicero (Dei., 13, 36) and Livy. It occurs with the Acc. in late Latin. Tenus is always postponed.

III. Prepositions Constrained with the Accusative and Ablative.

418. Prepositions construed with the Accusative and Ablative are in, sub, subter, super.

1. In (the forms endo, indu, are early and rare). (a) With Accusative: Of Place, into, into the midst of. Of Disposition and Direction, towards. Of Time, into (multam noctem), for (diem, multōs annōs, postrema). Of Purpose or Destination, for; mostly post-classical. Of Manner, in, after. Phraseologically with neuter adjectives: in dēterius, for the worse; but mainly post-classical. With Distributives, to, among.

   (b) With Ablative: Of Place, in, on. Of Time, within. Of Reference, in the case of, in regard to, in the matter of. Of Condition, in (armis). In many phrases, especially with neuter adjectives, in incertō, dubio, integrō, ambiguō, etc.

2. Sub. (a) With Accusative: Of Place Whither, under. Of Time Approaching, about (noctem, vesperum); just Past, immediately after. Of Condition, under (sub potestātem redigī).

   (b) With Ablative: Of Place Where, under; also in phrases, sub armis, etc. Of Time When, about; rare, and first in Caesar. Of Position, under (rége, iūdice, etc.). Of Condition, under (ea condicione); first in Livy.
3. **Subter.** (a) With Accusative; rare, and locally equal to sub.
   (b) With the Ablative; more rare and almost wholly poetical (Catullus and Vergil). *Cf. C., Tuscul., v. i, 4, which may be Acc.* Subtus occurs only in Vitr., iv. 2, 5, and then with the Accusative.

4. **Super.** (a) With Accusative but once before the classical time: Of Place, over, above. Of Time, during; found first in Pliny, *Epp.* Metaphorically of Degree, beyond (super modum); post-classical.
   (b) With the Ablative: Of Space, above. Of Time, during (not until the Augustan poets). Metaphorically = praeter; very rare: = de, concerning; colloquial; hence in Plautus, Cato, Cicero's *Letters* (ad Att.), Sallust, Horace, Livy; but uncommon.

**INFINITIVE.**

The Infinitive as a Substantive.

419. The Infinitive is the substantive form of the verb.

*Note.—* The Infinitive differs from a verbal substantive in that it retains the adverbal attribute, the designations of voice and time, and the regimen of the verb:

*Amare, to love; valde amare, to love hugely; amari, to be loved; amavisse, to have loved; amare aliquem, to love a man; nocere aliqui, to hurt a man.*

But the great claim of the Infinitive to be considered a verb lies in the involution of predicate and subject. Like the finite verb, the Infinitive involves predicate and subject; but the sub. is indefinite and the predication is dependent.

420. The Infinitive, when it stands alone, involves an indefinite Accusative Subject, and the Predicate of that Subject is, of course, in the Accusative Case.

*Régem esse, to be king. Bonum esse, to be good.* Compare *quid stultius quam aliquem sé sibi placere quod ipse non fecit*, Sen., *E.M.*, 74, 17; *what is more foolish than for a man to (that a man should) pride himself on what he has not done himself.*

So in the paradigm of the verb:

*Amatürum esse, to be about to love.*

*Note.—* On the Nom. with the Inf. by Attraction, see 528.

In consequence of this double nature, the Infinitive may be used as a substantive or as a verb.

421. The Infinitive, as a substantive, is used regularly in two cases only—Nominative and Accusative. In the other cases its place is supplied by the Gerund and the Ablative Supine.

*Notes.—* 1. Traces of the original Dat. (or Loc.) nature of the Infinitive are still apparent in many constructions, which are, however, mostly poetical:
(a) With verbs of Motion in early Latin and the later poets, when ut, ad with Gerundive or Sup. is to be expected.

Abiit aedem visere Minervae, Pl., B., 900; she went away to visit the temple of Minerva. Semper in Oceanum mittit mē quaeere gemmās, Prop., II. (III.) 16 (8), 17; she is always sending me to the Ocean to look for (in quest of) pearls.

(b) With verbs of Giving, Rendering, and the like, in early Latin and the poets, where the Acc. of the Gerundive is to be expected. Classical is the use of bibere only, in this way. (The old form biber points to the effacement of the final sense of this Inf.)

Iovi bibere ministrāre, Cf. C., Tusc., 1. 26. Quem virum aut hērōa lyrā vel acri tibiā sūmēs celebrāre, Clō? II., O., 1. 12, 1. Different, of course, are cases like di tibi posse tuŭs tribuamōt défendere semper, Ov., Tr., III. 5, 21, where posse défendere is felt as potestātem défendendi.

(c) With many adjectives where the Sup. in ā, or some construction of Purpose, is to be expected.

In early Latin the adjectives are parātus, consuetūs, défessus. But this usage is widely extended by the Augustan poets Vergil and Horace, and later.

It is confined principally, however, to adjectives of capability, ability, necessity, etc., and adjectives like facilis (with act. as well as pass. Inf., first in Prop.), difficilis, and the like: Romā capī faciliā, Lucan, II. 656. Note the strange usage dissentire manifestus, Tac., Ann., II. 57, 4, and occasionally elsewhere.

2. The Inf. may take an adj. attribute, but in classical prose this is limited to ipsum, hōc ipsum, and tōtum hōc:

Vivere ipsum turpe est nōbīs, living itself is a disgrace to us. Quibusdam tōtum hōc displicet philosophārī (280, 1, a).

The Infinitive as a Subject.

422. The Infinitive, as a Subject, is treated as a neuter substantive.

Incipere multō est quam inpetrāre faciliā, Pl., Poen., 974; beginning is much easier (work) than winning. Miserum est dēturbarī fortūnīs omnibus, C., Quint., 31, 95; it is wretched to find one’s self turned rudely out of all one’s fortunes. Nōn tam turpe fuit vincī quam contendīsse decōrum est, Ov., M., IX. 6 (280, 2, a).

Notes.—1. The use of the Inf. as a subj. grew out of its use as an obj., but the original Dat. (Loc.) sense was lost to the consciousness just as the prepositional sense of our own to is lost when our Inf. becomes a subj.; as in, to err is human, to forgive divine. No Roman felt turpe fuit vincī, as, there was disgrace in being beaten; bonum est legere was to him another bona est lēctō (see Priscian, 408, 27).

2. The substantives used as predicates are not common in early Latin. Lubīdō est is confined to Plautus. Stultitia est, cōnsilium est, and tempus est are universal. Cicero introduces the not uncommon mōs est, and many others with est, as: cōnsueītūdō (-inis), vitium, īūs, fas, nefās, facīnus, fātum, caput, rēs (Caesar), opus, mūnus, officium, onus, sapientia, and a few others. Still more are found later. Many of these also take ut; so officium always in comedy (except Ter., And., 331).

3. Neuter adjectives are used as predicates in great variety. Ciceronian are certius (quam), cōnsentāneum, falsum, incrēdibile, integrum, glōriōsum, māius (quam), mīrum, novum, optimum, rectum, singulāre, trītum, vērsimile, vērum. Most of them, however, but once. Some of these also take ut, but not often in good prose.
4. In early Latin many impersonal verbs are used as predicates. Classical Latin retains most of them, but drops *condecet, dispudet, subolet*, and adds some, such as *paenitet, dèdecet, displïcet, pròdest, obest, attinet*. Others come in later. Some, such as *optet*, also take *ut* or the simple Subjv. Noteworthy is *est, it is possible*, found first in Varro and Lucr., then not till Verg. and Hor., and never common.

5. Certain abstract phrases, whose meanings are akin to the words already mentioned, take the Inf. as a subject. So especially predicate Genitives, as *consuetūdīnis* and *mōris*; or combinations like *quid negōtiī, nihil negōtiī est*; predicate Datives such as *cordī est, cūrāe est*, both unclassical; or phrases, as *operae pretium, in animō esse, in mentem venire*, of which the last two were introduced by Cicero.

### The Infinitive as an Object.

#### 423. 
1. The Infinitive is used as the Object of Verbs of Creation, commonly known as Auxiliary Verbs.

These Verbs *help* the Infinitive into existence.

2. Such verbs denote Will, Power, Duty, Habit, Inclination, Resolve, Continuance, End, and the like, with their opposites.

**Emorī cupīō, Terr., Heaut., 971; I want to die.** [Catō] esse quam vidēri bonus mālebat, S., C., 54, 5; Cato preferred being (good) to seeming good. *Sed precor ut possim tūtius esse miser*, Ov., Tr., v. 2, 78; *but I pray that I may be more safely wretched*. *Vincere scīs, Hannibal; victōriā utī nescīs, L., xxii. 51; how to win victory, you know, Hannibal; how to make use of victory, you know not*. *Qui mortī didicit, servīre dēdīcit, Sen., E.M., 26, 10; he who has learned to die has unlearned to be a slave*. *Maledictīs dētīrēre nē scribat parat, Terr., Ph., 3; he is preparing (trying) to frighten (him) from writing, by abuse*. *Quī mentīri solet, pēlerāre cōnsuēvit, C., Rosc. Com., 16, 46; he who is wont to lie is accustomed to swear falsely*. *Vulnera quae fecit debuit ipse patī, Ov., Am., ii. 3, 4; the wounds he gave he should himself have suffered*. *Vereor laudāre præsentem, C., N.D., i. 21, 58; I feel a delicacy about praising a man to his face*. *Religionum animum nōdīs exsolvere pergō, Lucr., i. 932; I go on to loose the spirit from the bonds of superstitions creeds*. *Tuā quod nīl rēsērt, percontārī dēsinās, Terr., Hec., 810; cease to inquire what is not to your advantage*

So habēo, I have (it in my power).

**Tantum habēo pollicerī miē tībī cumulātē satisfactūrum, C., Fam., i. 5a, 3; so much I can promise, that I will give you abundant satisfaction.**

Notes.—1. The original force of the Inf. is, in most of these constructions, hard to determine, and was certainly not felt by the Romans themselves. In many cases the Inf. seems to have been used because the governing word or phrase was felt to be more or less equivalent to a Verb of Creation.

2. The principal verbs, construed thus with the Inf., are as follows:

**Will**: velle, mālle, nōlle, cupere, optāre (rare, except in passive), petere, pōstulāre, avēre, audēre, dēsiderāre (first in Cic.), praegestire, gestire, ārdēre,
metuere (ante-class.), verēri, timere, formidāre (ante-class.), reformidāre, horrēre, horrēscere, horētāri and compounds, monēre and compounds, suādēre (first in Cíc.), persuādēre, iubēre, imperāre, praeципere, cōgere, permettere (once in Cíc., then later), concedēre (first in Cíc.), cūrāre (not in Cás., Sál., Lív.), vetāre, recūsāre (first in Cíc.), mittere, omittere, intermittere, cunctārī, cēssāre, morārī, dubitāre, gravārī, prohibēre, impedire, détērēre.


Duty: dēbēre, necesse habēō.

Habit: assuēscere, assuēfacere (first in Cíc.), consuēscere, solēre.

Inclination: cōnārī (only with Inf.), studēre, contendere, intendere (Cás.,), labōrāre (always with neg. in Cíc.), mōlīrī (rare), aggredī, ingredī, adorīrī, nitī (first in Cás.), ēnītī (ante-class. and post-class.), quaerere (first in Cíc.), temptāre (first in Hīntius).

Resolve: cōgitāre, meditārī, meminī (mostly poct.), parāre, statuere (first in Cíc.), constituerre (first in Ter.), dēcernere (not class. in pass.), iūdicāre (first in Cíc.), dēstināre (first in Cás.), certum est, dēliberātum est, prōpositum est (first in Cíc.).

Continuance: stāre (first in Cíc.), instāre, perstāre (once in Cíc., then late), perseverāre (first in Cíc.), properāre (only word used in early Latin), festināre (first in Cíc.), mātūrāre (first in Cíc.).

Beginning and End: coepī, incipere (first in Cíc.), exōrdīrī, pergerē, dēsinere. Poets are free in using the Inf. after other verbs.

3. Notice that coepī, I have begun, and dēsinō, I cease, are used in Pl. pass. with passive Infinitives, in early Latin, Cicero, Caesar, always; later the construction varies, and Tacitus does not observe the rule.

Bellō Athēniēnsēs undique premī sunt coepītī, Nep. xiii. 3, 1; the Athenians began to feel the pressure of war on (from) all sides. Veterēs orātiōnes legī sunt dēsitae, C. Br., 32, 123; the old speeches have ceased to be read.

When the passives are really reflexives or neuter, the active forms may be used.

4. Verbs of Will and Desire take ut as well as the Infinitive. So regularly optō, I choose, in classical prose.

5. Verbs which denote Hope, Promise, and Threat are treated as verbs of Saying and Thinking (330), but also occasionally as in English:

Spērant sē māximum frūctum esse captūrōs, C. Læt. 21, 70; they hope that they will derive great advantage. Subruptūrum pallam prōmisit tibi, Plu. Asín. 930; he promised to steal the mantle from you.

6. Doceō, I teach, inbō, Ibid, vetō, I forbid, sinō, Ilet, take the Inf. as a Second Accusative (330):

(Dionysius) nē collum tōnsārī committeret tondēre filiās suās docuit, C. Tusc. v. 20, 58; Dionysius, to keep from trusting his neck to a barber, taught his daughters to shave (taught them shaving). Ipse iubet mortis tē meminisse dens, Mart. ii. 59 (376). Vitae summa brevis spem nōs vetat inchoāre longam, H., O., i. 4, 15; life's brief sum forbids us open (a) long (account with) hope. Neu sinās Mēdōs equitāre inultōs, II., O., i. 2, 51; nor let the Median ride and ride unpunished.

The Infinitive as a Predicate.

424. The Infinitive, as a verbal substantive, may be used as a Predicate after the copula esse, to be, and the like.

Doctō homini et ērudītō vivere est cōgitāre, C. Tusc. v. 38, 111; to a learned and cultivated man to live is to think.
GERUND AND GERUNDIVE.

425. The other cases of the Infinitive are supplied by the Gerund. With Prepositions, the Gerund, and not the Infinitive, is employed.

N. Legere difficile est, reading (to read) is hard to do.
G. Ars legendi, the art of reading.
Puer studiōsus est legendi, the boy is zealous of reading.
D. Puer operam dat legendo, the boy devotes himself to reading.
Ac. Puer cupit legere, the boy is desirous to read.
Puer prōpēnus est ad legendum, the boy has a bent toward reading.
Ab. Puer dicit legendi, the boy learns by reading.

Note.—Of course the Inf. may be quoted as an abstract notion, a form of the verb: Multum interest inter "dare" et "accipere," Sen., Ben., 5, 10; there is a vast difference between "Give" and "Receive."

426. As a verbal form, the Gerund, like the Infinitive, takes the same case as the verb.

Hominēs ad deōs nullā re propius accēdunt, quam salūtem hominibus dandō, C., Lig., 12, 38; men draw nearer to the gods by nothing so much as by bringing deliverance to their fellow-men.

Notes.—1. The Gerund is the substantive of the Gerundive (251, n. 1). The most plausible theory connects the forms in -ndo- with those in -nt- (Pr. Part. active) as being verbal nouns originally without any distinction of voice. The signification of necessity comes mainly from the use as a predicate, i.e., through the characteristic idea. Thus, he who is being loved, implies he who is of a character to be loved (qui amētur), and then he who should be loved.

The Gerundive is passive: the Gerund, like other verbal nouns (363), is theoretically active or passive, according to the point of view. Practically, however, the passive signification of the Gerund is rare.


2. Gerundive and Pf. Part. passive are often translated alike; but in the one case the action is progressive or prospective, in the other it is completed.

Caesare interficiendō Brūtus et Cassius patriae libertātēm restituere cō-nātī sunt; by the murder of Caesar (by murdering Caesar), Brutus and Cassius endeavoured to restore their country's freedom to her. Caesare interfectō, Brūtus et Cassius patriae libertātēm nōn restituērunt; by murdering Caesar, Brutus and Cassius did not restore their country's freedom to her.

427. Gerundive for Gerund.—Instead of the Gerund, with an Accusative Object, the object is generally put in the case of the Gerund, with the Gerundive as an Attribute.

G. Plācandī Dei, of appeasing God.
D. Plācandō Deō, for appeasing God.
Ab. Plācandō Deō, by appeasing God.
In model prose this construction is invariably employed with Prepositions.

Ad placandōs Deos, for appeasing the gods (C., Cat., iii. 8, 20).

In placandīs Diis, in appeasing the gods.

Notes. — 1. It is impossible to make a distinction between the Gerund and the Gerundive form. They are often used side by side, where there can be no difference (L., xxi. 5, 6; xxv. 40, 6; xxviii. 37, 1; xxxi. 26, 6). The preference for the Gerundive is of a piece with the use of the Pf. Part. pass. in preference to an Abstract Substantive (366, R. 2).

2. The impersonal Gerundive is found with an Acc. obj. once in Plautus (agitandum st vigiliās, Trin., 869), and occasionally elsewhere in early Latin (principally Varro); very rarely in Cicero and for special reasons (Cat. M., 2, 6); here and there later (not in Caesar, Horace, Ovid, and, perhaps, Livy).

Aeternās quoniam poenās in morte timendum st, Lucr., i. 111; since we must fear eternal punishments in death.

3. Neuter adjectives and pronouns are not attracted: aliquid faciendī ratiō, C., Inv., i. 25, 36; method of doing something. Cupidītās plūra habendi, greed for having more. But when the neuter adjective has become a substantive (204, N. 2), the Gerundive form may be used: cupidītās vērī videndī, C., Fin., ii. 14, 46; the desire of seeing the truth.

4. The Gerundive with personal construction can be formed only from Transitive Verbs, like other passives (217). Hence the impersonal form must be used for all verbs that do not take the Acc., but with such verbs prepositions are rarely found.

Ad nōn pārendum senātū, L., xlii. 9; for not obeying the senate.

5. But the Gerundives from ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor (407) have the personal construction, but usually only in the oblique cases (C., Fin., i. 1, 8, is an exception), as a remnant of their original usage. The poets and later prose writers use still more forms in the same way, as laetandus, dolendus, medendus, paenitendus, etc. Cicero also shows single instances of gloriandus, disserendus, respondendus.

6. The use of the Nom. of the Gerundive follows the ordinary rules of the Nominative.

Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive.

428. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive is used chiefly after substantives and adjectives which require a complement:

Sapientia ars vivendi putanda est, C., Fin., i. 13, 42; philosophy is to be considered the art of living. Et propter vitam vivendi perdere causās, Juv., viii. 84; and on account of life, to lose the reasons for living. Raucaque garrulitās studiumque immāne leqendī, Ov., M., v. 678; and hoarse chattiness, and a monstrous love of talking. Triste est nōmen ipsum car- rendī, C., Tusc., i. 36, 87; dismal is the mere word “carère” (go without). Nōn est placandī spēs mihi nūlla Dei, Ov., Tr., v. 8, 22; I am not without hope of appeasing God. Ígnōrant cupidīt maledicendī plūs invidiam quam convicium posse, Quint., vi. 2, 16; those who are eager to abuse know not that envy has more power than billingsgate. (Titus) equitandī pertissimus fuit, Suet., Tit., 3; Titus was exceedingly skilful in riding. Neuter sui prōtegendī corporis memor (erat), L., ii. 6, 9; neither
thought of shielding his own body. Qui hic mäs obsidendi viäs et virōs alienōs appellandi? L., xxxiv. 2, 9; what sort of way is this of blocking up the streets and calling upon other women's husbands? Summa slü-
dendi occasiōst mihi nunc senēs, Ter., Ph., 885; I have a tip-top chance to fool the old chaps now.

Remarks.—1. As mei, tui, sui, nostrī, vestrī, are, in their origin, neuter singulares, from meum, my being, tuum, thy being, sum, one's being, etc., the Gerundive is put in the same form: cōnservandi suī, of preserving themselves; vestrī adhortandī, of exhorting you; and no regard is had to number or gender.

Cōpia plācandī sit modo parva tui, Ov., Her., 20, 74; let (me) only have a slight chance of trying to appease you (feminine).

2. The Gen. of the Gerund and Gerundive is used very commonly with causā, less often with grātiā, and rarely with (antiquated) ergō, on account of, to express Design: Dissimulandi causā in senātum vēnit, S., C., 31, 52; he came into the senate for the purpose of dissimulation.

The Gen. alone in this final sense is found once in Terence, several times in Sallust, occasionally later, especially in Tacitus.

(Lepidus arma) cēpit libertātis subvortundae, S., Phil.Fr., 10; Lepidus took up arms as a matter of (for the purpose of) subverting freedom.

More commonly ad, rarely ob. See 432.

Esse with this Gen. may be translated by serve to; this is occasional in Cicero; see 366, 429, 1.

Omnia discrimina tālia concordiae minuendae [sunt], L., xxxiv. 54, 5; all such distinctions are matters of (belong to) the diminishing of concord (serve to diminish concord). Compare Caes., B.G., v. 3, 6: [nāvēs] quās suī quisque commodi fēcerat, ships which each one had (had) made (as a matter) of personal convenience.

Notes.—1. In early Latin, in Cicero (early works, Phīlippics and philosophical writings), then in later authors, we find occasionally a Gen. Sing. of the Gerund, followed by a substantive in the Plural. Here it is better to conceive the second Gen. as objectively dependent upon the Gerund form.

Agitur utrum Antōniō facultās dētur agrōrum suis latrōnibus condō-
nandī, C., Ph., v. 3, 6; the question is whether Antony shall receive the power of giving away (of) lands to his pet highwaymen.

2. Fās est, nefās est, iūs est, fātum est, cōpia est, ratīō est, cōnsilium est, cōnsilium capere, cōnsilium intēre, and a few others, have often the Inf. where the Gerund might be expected. Sometimes there is a difference in meaning; thus tempus, with Gerund, the proper time (season), with Inf., high time.

The poets and later prose writers extend this usage of the Infinitive.

3. Another peculiarity of the poets is the construction of the adj. or subst. like the cognate verb with the Inf., instead of with the Gen. of the Gerund. (At) secūra quiēs et nescia fallere (= quae nesciat fallere) vita, V., C., ii. 467; quiet without a care, and a life that knoweth not how to disappoint (ignorant of disappointment).

Later prose is more careful in this matter.

4. The Gen. of Gerund, depending upon a verb, is rare and Tacitean (Ann., ii. 43). Tacitus also uses the appositional Gerund with a substantival neuter (Ann., xiii. 26).
5. Some substantives, like auctor, dux, may have a Dat. instead of a Gen.; Liv., i. 23: me Albani gerendō bellō duce creāvere.

**Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive.**

429. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used chiefly after words that denote Fitness and Function.

1. The usage is rare in classical Latin, and begins with a few verbs and phrases: esse (= parem esse), to be equal to; praessesse and praeficere, to be (put) in charge of; studère and operam addere, labōrem impertire, to give one's attention to; then it is used with a few substantives and adjectives to give the object for which, and with names of Boards.

Solvendō civitātēs non erant, Cf. C., Fam., iii. 8, 2; the communities were not equal to (ready for) payment (were not solvent). [Sapiens] vīres suās nōvit, scit sē esse onerī fērendō, Sen., E.M., 71, 26; the wise man is acquainted with his own strength; he knows that he is (equal) to bearing the burden.

So comitia decemviris creandīs (C., Leg. Agr., 2, 8); triumvir colōnis dēdūcendīs (S., Jug., 42); reliqua tempora dēmetendīs fructibus accommodāta sunt, C., Cat. M., 19, 70.

2. Classical Latin requires ad with the Acc., but from Livy on the use of this Dat. spreads, and it is found regularly after words which imply Capacity and Adaptation. It is found also technically with verbs of Decreeing and Appointing, to give the Purpose.

Aqua nitrosa ūtīlis est bibendō, Cf. Plin., N.H., xxxi. 32, 59; alkaline water is good for drinking (to drink). Lignum āridum māteria est idōnea ściendiis ignibus, Cf. Sen., N.Q., ii. 22, 1; dry wood is a fit substance for striking fire (drawing out sparks). Referundae ego habeō linguam nātām grātiae, Pl., Pers., 428; I have a tongue that's born for showing thankfulness.

**Notes.**—1. In early Latin the use of this Dat. is very restricted, it being found principally after studère; operam dare, or sūmere (both revived by Livy); finem (or modum) facere; and a few adjectival forms. Of the latter, Cicero uses only accommodātus, Caesār only pār.

2. Rare and unclassical is the Acc. in dependence upon a Dat. of the Gerund.

**Epidicum operam quaerendō dabo,** Pl., Ep., 605.

**Accusative of the Gerundive.**

430. The Gerundive is used in the Accusative of the Object to be Effected, after such verbs as Giving and Taking, Sending and Leaving, Letting, Contracting, and Undertaking. (Factitive Predicate.)

Diviti hominī id aurum servandum dedit, Pl., B., 338; he gave that
gold to a rich man to keep. Conōn mūrōs reficiendōs curat, NEP., IX. 4, 5; Conon has the walls rebuilt. Patriam diri piendum reliquimus, C., Fam., xvi. 12, 1; we have left our country to be plundered. [Carvilius] aedem faciendam locāvit, L., x. 46, 14; Carvilius let the (contract of) building the temple.

Of course, the passive form has the Nominative:

Filius Philippī Dēmētriūs ad patrem redūcendus lēgātīs datus est, L., xxxvi. 35, 13; the son of Philip, Demetrius, was given to the envoys to be taken back to his father.

Notes.—1. Early Latin shows with this construction dare, conducére, locāre, rogāre, petere, habēre, própināre. Classical Latin gives up rogāre, petere, própināre, but adds others, as tradere, obicere, concédere, committere, cūrāre, relinquere, próponere. Livy introduces suscipere. The use of ad in place of the simple Acc. is not common.

[Caesar] oppidum ad diri piendum militibus concēssit, CAES., B. C., III. 80, 6. But ad is necessary in nēmini sē ad docendum dābat, C., Br., 89, 306; he would yield to no one for teaching, i.e., would accept no one as a pupil.

2. Habeō dicendum and the like for habeō dicere, or, habeō quod dicam, belongs to later Latin (Tac., Dial., 37; Ann. iv. 40, etc.).

Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive.

431. The Ablative of the Gerund or Gerundive is used as the Ablative of Means and Cause, seldom as the Ablative of Manner or Circumstance.

Unus homō nōbis cunctandō restituit rem, ENNIUS (C., Cat. M., 4, 10); one man by lingering raised our cause again. Hominis mēns discendō altur et cōgitan do, C., Off., i. 30, 105; the human mind is nourished by learning and thinking. Plaumem meō nōmine recitandō dedērunt, Of. C., Att., iv. 1, 6; they clapped when my name was read. Exercendōcottidiē milite hostem opperīebātur, L., xxxiii. 3, 5; drilling the soldiers daily he waited for the enemy.


2. The Abl. after a comparative is cited only from C., Off., i. 15, 47.

3. In post-Augustan Latin, and occasionally earlier, we find the Abl. of the Gerund paralleled by the Pr. participle: Bocchus, seu reputandō (= reputāns) . . . seu admonitus, etc., S., Iug., 103, 2.

Prepositions with the Gerund and Gerundive.

432. The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive follows the preposition ad, seldom ante, cir čā, in, inter, ob, and propter. See 427.

Nūlla rēs tantum ad dicendum próficit quantum scrip tiō, C., Br. 24, 92;
nothing is as profitable for speaking as writing. Atticus philosophorum preceptis ad vitam agendam non ad ostentationem utebatur, Cf. Nep., xxv. 17, 3; Atticus made use of the precepts of philosophers for the conduct of life, not for display. Inter spoliandum corpus hostis expiravit, Cf. L., ii. 20, 9; while in the act of stripping the body of the enemy he gave up the ghost.

REMARK.—Ad is very common; noteworthy is its use with verbs of Hindering (palus Rōmānōs ad Insequendum tardabat, Caes., B. G., vii. 26, 2); with substantives to give the End (for); with adjectives of Capacity and Adaptation (aptus, facilis, etc.). See 429, 2.

Notes.—1. Ante is very rare (L., Praef., 6; V., G., iii. 206). Circē and ergā are post-Augustan and very rare. In gives the End For Which, and is classical but not common. Inter is temporal, during, while, and is found rarely in early, more often in later, but not in classical prose. Ob is used first by Cicero (not by Caesar), and is rare. Propter occurs first in Valerius Maximus; super first in Tacitus.

2. On the Infinitive after a Preposition, see 425.

433. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive takes the prepositions ab, dē, ex, often in, but seldom prō. Post-classic and rare are cum and super.

Prohibenda máximē est fra in pūniendō, C., Off., i. 25, 89; especially to be forbidden is anger in punishing. [Brūtus] in liberandā patriā (= dūm liberat) est interfectus, C., Cat. M., 20, 75; Brutus was slain in the effort to free his country. Philosophi in īīs libris īpsīs quīs scribunt dē contemnendā glorīā sua nōmina inscrībunt, C., Tusc., i. 15, 34 (385, r. 1). Ex discendō capiunt voluptātem, Cf. C., Fin., v. 18, 48; they receive pleasure from learning.

Notes.—1. In with Abl. is sometimes almost equivalent to a Pr. participle: In circumceundō exercitū animadvertit, b.Afr., 82.
2. Sīne is used once in Varro, L. L., 6, 75, and in Donatus (Ter., And., 391).
3. Even when the word and not the action is meant, the Gerund is the rule: Discrepat ā timendō cóndiderē, C., Tusc., iii. 7, 14; the Inf. in Varro, L. L., 6, 50.

SUPINE.

434. The Supine is a verbal substantive, which appears only in the Accusative and Ablative cases.

The Accusative Supine.

435. The Accusative Supine (Supine in -um) is used chiefly after verbs of Motion, to express Design.

Galliae lēgātī ad Caesarem grātulātum convēnērunt, Caes., B. G., i. 30, 1; the commissioners of Gaul came to congratulate Caesar. Spectātum
veniunt; veniunt spectentur ut ipsae, Ov., A.A., 1. 99; they come to see the show; they come to be themselves a show. (Galli gallinācei) cum sōle eunt cubitum, Plin., N.H., x. 24, 46; cocks go to roost at sunset. Stultitia est vēnātum dūcre invitās canes, Pl., St., 139; 'tis foolishness to take unwilling dogs a-hunting.

Notes.—1. ire and venire are the most common verbs with the Supine, and they form many phraseological usages, as: ire coctum, cubitum, dormitum, pāstum, supplīcātum, sessum, salūtātum, etc. Similarly dare is found in phrases with nūptum, vēnum, pessum.

2. The Supine is very common in early Latin, less so in Cicero, comparatively rare in Caesar, frequent again in Sallust and Livy. Later Latin, and especially the poets, show but few examples, as the final Inf. takes its place.

3. The Acc. Supine may take an object, but the construction is not very common:
   (Hannibal) patriam dēfēnsum (more usual, ad dēfendendam patriam) revocātus (est), Ne®., xxiii. 6, 1; Hannibal was recalled to defend his country.

4. The Fut. Inf. passive is actually made up of the passive Inf. of ire, to go, iri (that a movement is made, from itur; 206, 2), and the Supine:
   Rūmor venit datum irī gladiātōrēs, Ter., Iec., 39; the rumour comes that gladiators (gladiatorial shows) are going to be given.

The consciousness of this is lost, as is shown by the Nom. (398).

Reus damnātum irī vidēbātur, Quint., ix. 2, 58; the accused seemed to be about to be condemned.

The Ablative Supine.

436. The Ablative Supine (Supine in -ū) is used chiefly with Adjectives, as the Ablative of the Point of View From Which (397). It never takes an object.

Mirābile dictū, wonderful (in the telling) to tell, visū, to behold.
Id dictū quam rē facilius est, L., xxxi. 38, 4; that is easier in the saying than in the fact (easier said than done).

Notes.—1. Cicero and Livy are the most extensive users of this Supine; Caesar has but two forms: factū and nātū; Sallust but three; Cicero uses twenty-four. In early Latin and in the poets the usage is uncommon; in later Latin it grows. Altogether there are over one hundred Supines, but only about twenty-five Supines occur in Abl. alone; the most common are dictū, to tell, factū, to do, auditū, to hear, visū, to see, memorātū, relātū, trāctātū; then, less often, cognītū, to know, inventū, intellectū, scītū, adspectū.

2. The adjectives generally denote Ease or Difficulty, Pleasure or Displeasure, Right or Wrong (fas and nefas). These adjectives are commonly used with Dative, and a plausible theory views the Supine in ā as an original Dative (ui).

3. Ad, with the Gerundive, is often used instead: Cibus facillimus ad concomium, C., Fin., ii. 20, 64; food (that is) very easy to digest.

The Infinitive, facili conconqui, is poetical. Common is facile concoquitur.

Other equivalents are active Infim., a verbal substantive, a Pf. Part. pass. (with opus), or a relative clause (with dignus).

4. The use of the Abl. Supine with verbs is very rare.

(Vilicus) prīmus cubītū surgat, postrēmus cubītum eat, Cat., Agr., 5, 5; the steward must be the first to get out of bed, the last to go to bed. Obsōnātū ređēb, Pl., Men., 277; I come back from marketing (imitated by Statius).
PARTICIPLE.

437. The Participle may be used as a substantive, but even then generally retains something of its predicative nature.

Nihil est māgnum somniāntī, C., Div., ii. 68, 141; nothing is great to a dreamer (to a man, when he is dreaming). Rāgīa, crēde mihi, rēs est succurrere lēpsis, Ov., Pont., ii. 9, 11; it is a kingly thing, believe me, (to run to catch those who have slipped,) to succour the fallen.

REMARK.—The Attribute of the Participle, employed as a substantive, is generally in the adverbial form: rectē facta, right actions; facētē dictum, a witty remark.

Notes.—1. This use as a substantive is rare in classical prose, but more common in the poets and in post-classical prose. In the Pr. Part., principally sapīēns, adulēscēns, amāns; in the Pf. more often, but usually in the Plural; doctī, the learned, victī, the conquered. The first examples of Fut. Part. used as substantives are nūntiātūrī (Curt., vii. 4, 32), peccātūrōs (Tac., Agr., 19).

2. The use of an attributive or predicative Pf. Part. with a substantive is a growth in Latin. Early Latin shows very few cases, and those mostly with opus and ūsus. Cato has post dōmissum bellum, and this innovation is extended by Varro, with propert. Cicero is cautious, employing the prepositions ante, dē, in, post, praeter, but Sallust goes much farther, as the strange sentence inter haece parāta atque dēcēta (664, r. 2) indicates. Livy and Tacitus are, however, characterised by these prepositional uses more than any other authors. The use of a Part. in the Nom. in this way is found first in Livy.

438. The Participle, as an adjective, often modifies its verbal nature, so as to be characteristic, or descriptive.

(Epaminondas) erat temporibus sapienter utēns, Nep., xv. 3, 1; Epaminondas was a man who made (to make) wise use of opportunities (= is qui ātētur). Senectūs est operōsa et semper agēns alicquid et mōlēns, Cf. C., Cat. M., 8, 26; old age is busy, and always doing something and working.

REMARK.—Especial attention is called to the parallelism of the participle or adjective with the relative and Subjunctive:

Rēs parva dicitū, sed quae studiīs in māgnum cērtāmen excēsserit, L. xxxiv. 1; a small thing to mention, but one which, by the excitement of the parties, terminated in a great contest. Mūnera nōn ad dēlīciās muli- ebrēs quaeātā nec quibus nova nūpta cōmātur, Tac., Germ., 18.

Note.—The Fut. Part. active is rarely used adjectively in classical Latin except the forms futūrus, ventūrus. The predicate use after verbs of Motion to express Purpose is found first in Cicero (Verr., 1, 21, 56), though very rarely, but becomes increasingly common from Livy’s time. Livy is the first to use the Fut. Part. as an adjective clause, a usage which also becomes common later.

(Marobodus) misit lēgātōs ad Tiberium orātūrōs auxilia, Tac., Ann., ii. 46; Marobod sent commissioners to Tiberius, to beg for reinforcements. Servilius adest
The Adverb may be qualified by an Adverb.

2. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs, and sometimes substantives, when they express or imply verbal or adjective relations.

Male vivit, he lives ill; bene est, it is well; fere omnès, almost all; nimis saepe, too often; admodum adulœscens, a mere youth; láté rēx (V., A., i. 21), wide-ruling; bis cōnsul, twice consul; duo simul bella, two simultaneous wars.

Notes.—1. The form of the Adverb does not admit of any further inflection, and therefore the Adverb requires no rules of Syntax except as to its position.

2. With other adverbs and with adjectives, adverbs of degree only are allowable, to which must be reckoned bene, egregiè, and (later) insigniter. Poetical are such expressions as turpiter āter, splendide mendiō (II., A.P., 3; O., iii. 11, 35). Male as a negative is found with sānus only in Cicero (Att., ix. 15, 5); other combinations are poetical, or post-classical.

3. The translation for very varies at different periods; multum is common in Plautus and in Horace’s Satires and Epistles, rare elsewhere; valde is introduced by Cicero, but did not survive him, to any extent. Sānus is also frequent in Cicero, especially in the Letters ad Atticum. Cornificius affected vehementer, and so do colloquial authors, as Vitruvius; fortiter comes in later; bene is occasional in Plautus and Terence, more common in Cicero; oppido is characteristic of early Latin, and Livy and the Archists; admodum is Ciceronian, but ad fretam comes later and is rare. Abundō is rare before the time of Sallust. Nimium (nimīō) belongs to early Latin, as do impensē and impedīō. Satis is common in the classical period, and also nimis, but mainly with negatives.

4. The Adverb as an attribute of substantives is rare. Cicero shows tum, saepé, quasi, tamquam. Livy uses more.

440. Position of the Adverb.—Adverbs are commonly put next to their verb, and before it when it ends the sentence, and immediately before their adjective or adverb.

Infuṣtē facit, he acts unjustly. Admodum pulcher, handsome to a degree, very handsome. Valē diligenter, very carefully.

Remark.—Exceptions occur chiefly in rhetorical passages, in which great stress is laid on the adverb, or in poetry:

[Iram] bene Ennius initium dixit insāniae, C., Tusc., iv. 23, 52; well did Ennius call anger the beginning of madness. Vixit dum vixit bene Ter., Hec., 461; he lived while he lived (and lived) well.

One class of Adverbs demands special notice—the Negatives.
Negative Adverbs.

441. There are two original negatives in Latin, ne and

hand (haut, hau). From ne is derived non [nē-oinom (unum),

no-whit, not]. Nē is used chiefly in compounds, or with the

Imperative and Optative Subjunctive. The old use appears

in nē—quidem. Non is used with the Indicative and Poten-
tial Subjunctive; haud negatives the single word, and is used
mainly with adjectives and adverbs.

442. Non (the absolute not) is the regular Negative of the
Indicative and of the Potential Subjunctive.

Quem amat, amat; quem non amat, non amat, Petr., 37; whom she
likes, she likes; whom she does not like, she does not like.

Non ausim, I should not venture.

Remarks.—1. Non, as the emphatic, specific negative, may negative
anything. (See 270, r. 1.)

2. Non is the rule in antitheses: Non est vivere sed valere vita, Mart.,
vi. 70, 15; not living, but being well, is life.

Notes.—1. Non in combination with adjectives and adverbs, and rarely with sub-
stantives and verbs, takes the place of negative in- or ne-. Non arbitrabatur quod
officieret aliquid posse esse non corpus (àσωματον), C., Ac., i. 11, 39; Cat. M., 14, 47.
2. Other negative expressions are neutiquam, by no means; nihil, nothing
(“Adam, with such counsel nothing swayed”). On nūllus, see 317, 2, n. 2.
3. Nec = non is found in early Latin, here and there in Verg., Livy, and Tacitus.
In classical Latin it is retained in a few compounds, as: necopīnāns, negōtium, and
in legal phraseology.

443. Haud is the negative of the single word, and in model
prose is not common, being used chiefly with adjectives and
adverbs: haud quisquam, not any; haud māgnus, not great; haud male, not badly.

Notes.—1. Haud is found only before consonants, and belongs to early Latin and
Vergil. Haut (early) and haud are found indiscriminately before vowels.

2. Haund is very rarely or never found in Conditional, Concessive, Introgative, Rela-
tive, and Infinitive sentences.

3. Caesar uses haund but once, and then in the phrase haund scio an (457, 2).
Cicero says also haund dubitō, haund ignōrō, haund erraverō, and a few others;
and combines it also with adjectives and adverbs, but not when they are compounded
with negative particles, i.e., he does not say haund difficilis, and the like.

4. Haund with verbs is very common in early Latin, and then again in Livy and
Tacitus. In antitheses it is not uncommon in comedy, but usually in the second
member: inceptīōst ꜜmente ꜜa haund amantium, Ter., And. 218; the undertaking
is one of lunatics, not lovers.

5. A strengthened expression is haund quāquam.
444. 1. Nē is the Negative of the Imperative and of the Optative Subjunctive.

Tū nē cēde malis, V., A., vi. 95; yield not thou to misfortunes. Nē transieris Hiberum, L., xxi. 44, 6; do not cross the Ebro. Nē vivam, si scio, C., Att., iv. 16, 8; may I cease to live (strike me dead), if I know.

Notes.—1. On the negative with the Imperative, see 270, n.
2. Nē as a general negative particle, = nōn, is found very rarely in early Latin, mostly with forms of velle (nē parount, Pl., Most., 124, is disputed). Classical Latin retains this only in nē—quidem, in compound nēquāquam, and in a shortened form in nefās, negō, neque, etc.

2. Nē is continued by nēve or neu. See 260.

Nē illam vendās neu mē perdās hominem amantem, Pl., Ps., 322; don't sell her, and don't ruin me, a fellow in love.

445. Subdivision of the Negative.—A general negative may be subdivided by neque—neque, as well as by aut—aut, or strengthened by nē—quidem, not even.

Nihil umquam neque insolēns neque gloriōsum ex ēre [Timoleontis] procēssit, Nep., xx. 4, 2; nothing insolent or boastful ever came out of the mouth of Timoleon. Consciōrum nēmō aut latuit aut fugit, L., xxiv. 5, 14; of the accomplices no one either hid or fled. Numquam [Scipīōnem] nē minimā quidem re offendī, C., Lael., 27, 103; I never wounded Scipio's feelings, no, not even in the slightest matter.

(‘‘I will give no thousand crowns neither.’’—Shakespeare.)

Note.—In the same way negō, I say no, is continued by neque—neque (ne—ne): Negant nec virtūtēs nec vitia crescere, C., Fin., iii. 15, 48; they deny that either virtues or vices increase (that there are any degrees in).

446. Negative Combinations.—In English, we say either no one ever, or, never any one; nothing ever, or, never anything; in Latin, the former turn is invariably used: nēmō umquam, no one ever.

Verrēs nihil umquam fecit sine aliquō quaestū, C., Verr., v. 5, 11; Verrēs never did yield without some profit or other.

Notes.—1. No one yet is nōndum quisquam; no more, no longer, is iam nōn.
2. The resolution of a negative nōn āllus for nēlīlus, nōn umquam for numquam, nōn scio for nescio, is poetical, except for purposes of emphasis, or when the first part of the resolved negative is combined with coordinating conjunction (490): Nōn ālla tibi facta est iniūria, Cf. C., Div. in Cat., i. 18, 60.
347. Negó (I say no, I deny) is commonly used instead of dico nón, I say—not.

Asseml sēsē datūrum negat, C., Quinct., 19; he says that he will not give a copper. Vel a vel negā, Accius, 125 (R.); say yes or say no!

Remark.—The positive (aiō, I say) is sometimes to be supplied for a subsequent clause, as C., Fin., 18, 61. The same thing happens with the other negatives, as volō from nolō, iubeō from vetō, scio from nescio, queō from nequeō, quisquam from nēmō, ut from nē.

POSITION OF THE NEGATIVE.

348. The Negative naturally belongs to the Predicate, and usually stands immediately before it, but may be placed before any emphatic word or combination of words.

Potes non revertī, Sen., E.M., 49, 10; possibly you may not return. (Non potes revertī, you cannot possibly return.) Saepe virī fallunt; tenerae non saepe puellae, Ov., A.A., III, 31; often do men deceive; soft-hearted maidens not often. Non omnis aetās, Lyde, lūdō convent, Pl., B., 129; not every age, (good) Lydus (Playfair), sorts with play. Non ego ventōsae plābis suffrāgia vēnōr, H., Ep., 1, 19, 37; I do not hunt the voices of the windy commons, no, not I.

Notes.—1. As the Copula esse, to be, is, strictly speaking, a predicate, the Negative generally precedes it, contrary to the English idiom, except in contrasts. The difference in position can often be brought out only by stress of voice: fēlix non erat, he wasn’t happy; non fēlix erat, he was not happy, he was far from happy.

2. Ne—quidem straddles the emphatic word or emphatic group (445); but very rarely does the group consist of more than two words.

3. A negative with an Inf. Is often transferred to the governing verb: non putant lugendum (esse) virīs, C., Tusc., III, 28, 70; on negō, see 347.

349. Two negatives in the same sentence destroy one another, and make an affirmative, but see 445:

Nōn negō, I do not deny (I admit).

Remarks.—1. Nōn possum nōn, I cannot but (I must):

Qui mortem in malis pōnit nōn potest eam nōn timēre, C., Fin., III, 8, 29; he who classes death among misfortunes cannot but (must) fear it.

2. The double Negative is often stronger than the opposite Positive; this is a common form of the figure Litotēs, understatement (700).

Nōn indoctus, highly educated; nōn sum nescius, I am well aware.

Nōn indecorō pulvere sordidī, H., O., II, 1, 22; swart (soiled) with (no dis)honourable dust. Nōn Ignāra mali miseris succurrere discō, V., A., I, 630; not unacquainted (= but too well acquainted) with misfortune, I learn to succour the wretched.
3. It follows from n. 2 that nec non is not simply equivalent to et, and; nec belongs to the sentence, non to the particular word:

Nec hoc [Zenô] non vidit, C., Fin., iv. 22, 60; nor did Zeno fail to see this. At neque non (di) dit gunt nos, C., Div., ii. 49, 102; but neither (is it true that) the gods do not love us, etc.

In the classical Latin this form of connection is used to connect clauses but not single words, and the words are regularly separated. Varro, the poets, and later prose use necnon like et, and connect with it also single ideas.

4. Of especial importance is the position of the Negative in the following combinations;

Indefinite Affirmative. General Affirmative.
nconom, somewhat; nihil non, everything;
nennemô, some one, some; nêmô non, everybody;
nennullî, some people; nûli non, all;
nonnunque, sometimes; numquam non, always;
nennamquam, somewhere; nûsquam non, everywhere.

In ipsâ cûria nônemô hostis est, C., Mur., 39, 84; in the senate-house itself there are enemies (nêmô non hostis est, everybody is an enemy).
Nû est plâcandî spês mihi nulla Dei, Ov., Tr., v. 8, 22 (428); I have some hope of appeasing God (nulla spês non est, I have every hope). Nêmô non didicisse mâuvt quam discere, Quint., III. i, 6; everybody prefers having learned to learning.

INCOMPLETE SENTENCE.

Interrogative Sentences.

450. An interrogative sentence is necessarily incomplete. The answer is the complement.

451. A question may relate:
(a) To the existence or the non-existence of the Predicate: Predicate Question.

Vivitne pater? Is my father alive?
(b) To some undetermined essential part of the sentence, such as Subject, Object, Adjective, Adverbial modifier: Nominal Question.


Remarks.—1. The second class requires no rules except as to mood (462).
2. The form of the question is often used to imply a negative opin-
ion on the part of the speaker: Quid interest inter perifurum et mendacem? C., Rosc. Com., 16, 46; what is the difference between a perjured man and a liar? All questions of this kind are called Rhetorical.

452. 1. Interrogative sentences are divided into simple and compound (disjunctive). Am I? (simple) ; Am I, or am I not? (disjunctive).

Note.—Strictly speaking, only the simple interrogative sentence belongs to this section; but for the sake of completeness, the whole subject will be treated here.

2. Interrogative sentences are further divided into direct and indirect, or independent and dependent. Am I? (direct); He asks whether I am (indirect).

DIRECT SIMPLE QUESTIONS.

453. Direct simple questions sometimes have no interrogative sign. Such questions are chiefly passionate in their character, and serve to express Astonishment, Blame, Disgust.

Infelix est Fabricius quod rūs suum fodit? Sen., Dial., i. 3, 6; Fabricius is unhappy because he digs his own field? (Impossible!) Heus, inquit, linguam vis meam praecláedere? Phaedr., i. 23, 5; Ho! ho! quoth he, you wish to shut my mouth, you do? (You shall not.) Tuon parasitum nōn nōvisti? Pl., Men., 505; you don’t know your own parasite? (Strange!) Hunc tū vitae splendōrem maculis adspergis istic? C., Planc., 12, 30; you bespatter this splendid life with such blots as those?

Notes.—1. Questions of this kind are characteristic of the Comic Poets. In Cicero they are found especially in expressions of doubt, with posse, and with an emphatic personal pronoun.

2. Such a question may have the force of a command. So in the phrase etiam tū tacēs? won’t you keep quiet? common in comedy (Pl., Trin., 514).


4. When several questions follow in immediate succession, only the first generally takes the Interrogative Pronoun, or -ne. Repeated questioning is passionate.

5. On ut in the exclamatory question, see 558.

454. Interrogative Particles.—-Ne (enclitic) is always appended to the emphatic word, and generally serves to denote a question, without indicating the expectation of the speaker.

Omnisne pecūnia dissolūta est? C., Verr., iii. 77, 180; is all the money paid out? (Estne omnis pecūnia dissolūta? is all the money paid out?)

Remarks.—1. As the emphatic word usually begins the sentence,
so -ne is usually appended to the first word in the sentence. But exceptions are not uncommon.

2. -Ne is originally a negative. Questioning a negative leans to the affirmative; and -ne is not always strictly impartial.

Notes.—1. -Ne sometimes cuts off a preceding -s (in which case it may shorten a preceding long vowel), and often drops its own e. Viden? Seest? Tun? You? Satin? For certain? Also scín, ain, vin, itan, etc. This occurs especially in early Latin.

2. This -ne is not to be confounded with the asseverative -ne, which is found occasionally in Plautus and Terence, Catullus, Horace (ősērī studiorum, quīne putētis, etc.), II., S., i. 10, 21, a much discussed passage), and later appended to personal, demonstrative, and relative pronouns.

3. In poetry -ne is sometimes appended to interrogative words, to heighten the effect: utrumne (II., S., ii. 3, 251), quōne (II., S., ii. 3, 295).

4. -Ne is often added to personal pronouns in indignant questions: tūne ināne quiquam putēs esse? C., Ac., ii. 40, 125.

5. In early Latin -ne seems to be used sometimes with a force similar to that later exercised by nōnne; but in most of the examples the expectation of an affirmative answer seems to be due rather to the context than to ne; see, however, ii. 2.

455. Nōnne expects the answer Yes.

Nōnne meministi? C., Fin., ii. 3, 10; do you not remember? Nōnne is generōssissimus qui optimus? Quint., v. 11, 4; is he not the truest gentleman who is the best man?

So the other negatives with -ne: nēmōne, nihilne, and the like.

Note.—Nōnne is denied for Plautus, but wrongly, though it occurs but rarely, and regularly before a vowel. It is also rare in Terence. In classical Latin it is frequent, but is never found in Catullus, Tibullus, and Seneca Rhetor.

456. Num expects the answer No.

Numquis est hic alius præter mē atque tē? Nēmō est, Pl., Tr., 69; is anybody here besides you and me? No. Num tibi cum faucēs ūrit sitis, aurea quaeris pōcula? II., S., i. 2, 114; when thirst burns your throat for you, do you ask for golden cups? [No.]

Note.—Numne is found very rarely, perhaps only in C., N.D., i. 31, 88, and Lael., ii, 36. Numnam belongs to early Latin. In many cases in early Latin, num seems to introduce a simple question for information, without expecting a negative answer.

457. i. An (or) belongs to the second part of a disjunctive question.

Sometimes, however, the first part of the disjunctive question is suppressed, or, rather, involved. The second alternative with an serves to urge the acceptance of the positive or negative proposition involved in the preceding statement. This abrupt form of question (or, then) is of frequent use in Remonstrance, Expostulation, Surprise, and Irony.

Nōn manum abstīnēs? An tibi iam māvis cerebrum dispergam hic? Ter., Ad., 781; are you not going to keep your hands off? Or would
you rather have me scatter your brains over the place now? (Vir cūstōdit absēns, my husband keeps guard, though absent. Is it not so?) An nescīs longās rēgibus esse manūs? Ov., Her., 16, 166; or perhaps you do not know (you do not know, then) that kings have long hands (arms).

Notes.—1. This usage is found in early Latin, but is a characteristic of CICERO especially.

2. An is strengthened by ne. This is found frequently in early Latin, more rarely later. CICERO uses an only in disjunctive questions, and HORACE, TIBULLUS, PROPERTIUS not at all.

3. In early Latin very frequently, less often in the poets; occasionally in prose, beginning with LIVY, an is used as a simple interrogative; so nesciō an = nesciō num. There seems to be good reason for believing that an was originally a simple interrogative particle, but became identified later with disjunctive questions.

2. Especially to be noted, in connection with an, are the phrases, nesciō an (first in CICERO, and not common), haud scīō an (this is the usual phrase: haud sciam an is rare), I do not know but; dubitō an, I doubt, I doubt but = I am inclined to think; incertum an (once in CICERO), and rarely dubitārim and dubium an, which give a modest affirmation; very rarely a negation. Negative particles, added to these expressions, give a mild negation.

Haud scīō an ita sit, C., Tusc., ii. 17, 41; I do not know but it is so. Haud scīō an nīlla (senectūs) beātior esse possit, C., Cat., M., 16, 56; I do not know but it is impossible for any old age to be happier. Dubitō an [Thrasybūlum] primum omnium pōnām, NEP., VIII. i. 1; I doubt but I should (= I am inclined to think I should) put Thrasybulus first of all.

Note.—In early Latin these phrases are still dubitative. The affirmative force comes in first in Cicero, and seems to have been equivalent to fōrsitan, perhaps, with the Potential Subjunctive: Fōrsitan et Priami fuerint quae fāta requirās, V., A., ii. 506; perhaps you may ask what was the fate of Priam, too.

**DIRECT DISJUNCTIVE QUESTIONS.**

458. Direct Disjunctive Questions have the following forms:

**First Clause.**

- utrum, whether,
- ne,

**Second and Subsequent Clauses.**

- an (anne), or
- an,
- an (anne).

Utrum nescīs quam altē ascenderīs, an prō nihilō id putās? C., Fam., x. 26, 3; are you not aware how high you have mounted, or do you count that as nothing? Vōsne Lūciun Domitium an vōs Domitius dēseruīt? CAES., B.C., ii. 32, 8; have you deserted Lucius Domitius, or has Domitius deserted you? Éloquar an sileam? V., A., III. 39; shall I speak, or hold my peace? Utrum hōc tū parum commeministī, an ego nōn satis intellexi, an mūtāstī sententiam? C., Att., ix. 2; do you not remember this, or did I misunderstand you, or have you changed your view?
INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

459. In direct questions, or not is annón, rarely necne; in indirect, necne, rarely annón.

Isne est quem quaeró, annón? Ter., Ph., 852; is that the man I am looking for, or not? Sitque memor nostrí necne, referte mihi, Ov., Tr., iv. 3, 10 (204, N. 7).

Notes.—1. Necne is found in direct questions in Cicero, Tusc., iii. 18, 41 (sunt haec tua verba necne?), Flacc., 25, 50; and also Lucr., iii. 713. Annón in indirect questions occurs in Cicero, Inv., i. 50, 95; ii. 20, 60; Cæs., ii. 52; Babl., 8, 22, etc.

2. Utrum is sometimes used with the suppression of the second clause for whether or no? but not in early Latin. So C., Flacc., 19, 45, etc.

INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

460. Indirect questions have the same particles as the direct, with the following modifications.

1. Simple Questions.

(a) Num loses its negative force, and becomes simply whether. It decays in later Latin.

Speculārī (iusserunt) num sollicitātī animī sociōrum essent, L., xlil. 19, 8; they ordered them to spy out whether the allies had been tampered with.

(b) Si, if, is used for whether, chiefly after verbs and sentences implying trial. Compare ō si (261).

Temptāta rēs est si prīmō impetū capī Ardea posset, L., i. 57, 2; an attempt was made (in case, in hopes that, to see) if Ardea could be taken by a dash (coup-de-main). Íbō, visam si domī est (467, N.), Ter., Heaut., 170; I will go (to) see if he is at home.

Notes.—1. An is sometimes used for num and ne, but never in model prose.

Consuluit deinde (Alexander) an totius orbis imperium fātis sibi dēstīnārētur, Curt., iv. 7, 33; Alexander then asked the oracle whether the empire of the whole world was destined for him by the fates.

2. Nōnne is cited only from Cicero and only after quaerere (Ph., xii. 7, 15).
2. Disjunctive Questions.

In addition to the forms for Direct Questions (458), a form with -ne in the second clause only is found in the Indirect Question, but is never common; see 458, n. 2.

Tarquinius Priscd Tarquinii regis filius nepöse fuerit parum liquet, L., i. 46, 4; whether Tarquin was the son or grandson of king Tarquin the Elder does not appear.

NOTES.—1. The form -ne is not found in CAESAR or SALLUST.
2. The form ne—ne is poetical, except once in CAESAR (B. G., vii. 141, 8).
3. Uttrum—ne—an is rare but classical. Uttrumne—an begins with HORECE, is not found in LIVY, VELL., VAL. M., and both PLINYS. In TACITUS only in the Dialogus.

SUMMARY OF DIRECT AND INDIRECT DISJUNCTIVE QUESTIONS.

461. Direct.

Is the last syllable short or long? Cf. C., Or., 64, 217.

Postrëma syllaba utrum brevis est an longa?

brevisne est an longa?

Indirect.

In a verse it makes no difference whether the last syllable be short or long:

\[
\begin{cases}
\text{utrum postrëma syllaba brevis sit an longa.} \\
\text{postrëma syllaba brevisne sit an longa.} \\
\text{postrëma syllaba brevis an longa sit (Cicero).} \\
\text{postrëma syllaba brevis sit longane.}
\end{cases}
\]

MOODS IN INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

1. In Direct Questions.

462. The Mood of the question is the Mood of the expected or anticipated answer.

463. Indicative questions expect an Indicative answer, when the question is genuine.

A. Quis homö est? B. Ego sum, Ter., And., 965; who is that? It is I.

A. Vivitne (pater)? B. Vivom liquimus, Pl., Capt., 282; is his father living? We left him alive.

464. Indicative questions anticipate an Indicative answer in the negative when the question is rhetorical.

Quis nöin paupertätem extimëscit? C., Tusc., v. 31, 89; who does not dread poverty?
MOODS IN INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

Remark.—Nonne and num in the direct question are often rhetorical (see Pl., Am., 539; C., Div., i. 14, 24). With nonne a negative answer is anticipated to a negative, hence the affirmative character. Compare further, 451, r. 2.

465. Subjunctive questions which expect Imperative answers are put chiefly in the First Person, when the question is deliberative.

A. Abeam? B. Abi, Pl., Merc., 749; shall I go away? Go.
A. Quid nunc faciam? B. Tē suspenditō, Pl., Ps., 1229; what shall I do now? Hang yourself.

Remark.—So in the representative of the First Person in dependent discourse (265).

466. Subjunctive questions anticipate a potential answer in the negative, when the question is rhetorical.

Quis hōc crēdat? who would believe this? [No one would believe this.] Quid faceret aliud? what else was he to do? [Nothing.] Quis tulerit Gracchōs dē sēditīone querentēs? Juv., ii. 24 (259).

Remark.—On the Exclamatory Question see 534, 558.

2. In Indirect Questions.

467. The Dependent Interrogative is always in the Subjunctive.

The Subjunctive may represent the Indicative.

[Considerābimus] quid fecerit (Indic. fecit), quid faciat (Indic. faciit), quid factūrus sit (Indic. faciat or factūrus est), Cf. C., Inv., i. 25, 36; we will consider what he has done, what he is doing, what he is going to do (will do). (Epaminondās) quaesīvit salvusne esset clīpeus, C., Fin., ii. 30, 97; Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe. (Salvusne est?)

The Subjunctive may be original. See 265.

Ipse doct quid agam; fās est et ab hoste doceīri, Ov., M., iv. 428 (219); (Quid agam, what I am to do; not what I am doing). Quaerō ā tē cūr C. Corneīlium nōn dēfenderem, C., Vat., 2, 5; I inquire of you why I was not to defend C. Cornelius. (Cūr nōn dēfenderem? why was I not to defend?)

Remarks.—1. Nesciō quis, nesciō quid, nesciō qui, nesciō quod, I know not who, what, which, may be used exactly as indefinite pronouns, and then have no effect on the construction. This usage is found at all periods.

Nesciō quid māius nāscitur Ἰλιάδα, Prop., ii. (iii.) 32 (34), 66; something, I know not what, is coming to the birth, greater than the Iliad.
PECULIARITIES OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

2. The Relative has the same form as the Interrogative quis? except in the Nom. Sing.; hence the importance of distinguishing between them in dependent sentences. The interrogative depends on the leading verb, the relative belongs to the antecedent. (611, n. 2.)

Interrogative: dic quid rogem, tell me what it is I am asking.
Relative: dic quod rogō, Ter., And., 764; tell me that which I am asking (the answer to my question).

The relative is not unfrequently used where we should expect the interrogative, especially when the facts of the case are to be emphasised:

Dicam quod sentio, C., Or., 1, 44, 195; I will tell you my real opinion.

Incorporated relatives are not to be confounded with interrogatives:

Patēfacio vōbis quās isti penitus abstrūsās insidiās (= insidiās quās) sē posuisse arbitrantur, C., Agr., ii, 18, 49; I am exposing to your view the schemes which those people fancy they have laid in profound secrecy.

Note.—In the early Latin of Comedy the leading verb is very frequently discon- nected from the interrogative, which consequently appears as an independent sentence with the Indicative. This is most common after dic, respondē, loquere, and kindred Imperatives; vidē (Plautus also circumspice, respice); tē rogō, interrogō, quaerō, and similar phrases; audire, vidēre, etc., sōlī; relative words, ut, quōmodō, etc., where the modal and not interrogative force is prominent. Classical prose has given up all these usages. A few cases in Cicero are contested or differently explained. In poetry and later prose the examples are found only here and there.

Dic, quid est? Pl., Men., 397; tell me, what is it? (Dic quid sit, tell me what it is.) Quin tū undō verbō dic: quid est quod mē velis? Ter., And., 45; won't you tell me in one word: What is it you want of me? Dic mihi quid fēcī nisi nōn sapienter aēmāvi, Ov., Her., ii, 27; tell me what have I done, save that I have loved unwisely.

So also, nescio quōmodō, I know not how = strangely; and mirum quantum, it (is) marvellous how much = wonderfully, are used as adverbs:

Mīrum quantum prōfuit ad concordiam, L., ii, 1, 11; it served wonderfully to promote harmony. Nescio quō pactō vel magis hominēs iuvat gōria lāta quam māgna, Plin., Ep., iv, 12, 7; somehow or other, people are even more charmed to have a widespread reputation than a grand one.

Early Latin shows also perquam, admodum quam, nimis quam, incrēdibile quantum; Cicero mīrūm (mīrē) quam, nimium quantum, sānē quam, valē quam; Cæsar nonc of these; Sallust immāne quantum; Livy adds oppidō quantum; Pliny Magn. immānēsum, infinitum quantum; Florus plūrimum quantum. The position excludes a conscious ellipsis of the Subjunctive.

PECULIARITIES OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

468. The subject of the dependent clause is often treated as the object of the leading clause by Anticipation (Prolēpsis).

Nōstī Marcellum quam tardus sit, Cælius (C., Fam., viii, 10, 3); you know Marcellus, what a slow creature he is.

Note.—This usage is very common in Comedy, and belongs to conversational style in general.
PECULIARITIES OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

469. Contrary to our idiom, the interrogative is often used in participial clauses. In English, the participle and verb change places, and a Causal sentence becomes Final or Consecutive.

Quam utilitatem petentes scire cupimus illa quae occulta nobis sunt? C., Fin., iii. 11, 37; what advantage do we seek when we desire to know those things which are hidden from us? [Solon Pisistrato tyrann?] quaerenti quâ tandem re frê tus sibi tam audaciter resisteret, respondisse dicitur senectûte, C., Cat.M., 20, 72; Solon, to Pisistratus the usurper, asking him (= when Pisistratus the usurper asked him) on what thing relying (= on what he relied that) he resisted him so boldly, is said to have answered "old age."

Note.—The Abl. Abs. with the interrogative is rare. C., Verr., iii. 80, 185.

470. Final sentences (sentences of Design) are used in questions more freely than in English.

Sessum it praetor. Quid ut iudicetur? C., N.D., iii. 30, 74; the judge is going to take his seat. What is to be adjudged? (To adjudge what?)

Remark.—The Latin language goes further than the English in combining interrogative words in the same clause; thus two interrogatives are not uncommon:


Yes and No.

471. (a) Yes is represented:

1. By sâne, (literally) soundly, sâne quidem, yes indeed, etiam, even (so), vêrô (rarely vêrum), of a truth, ita, so, omnînô, by all means, certê, surely, certî, for certain, admodum, to a degree, etc.

Ant etiam aut nôn respondere [potest], C., Ac., ii. 32, 104; he can answer either yes or no.

2. By censeô, I think so; scellicet, to be sure.

Quid si etiam occentem hymeneum? Censeô, Pl., Cas., 806; what if I should also sing a marriage-song? I think you had better.

3. By repeating the emphatic word either with or without the confirmatory particles, vêrô (principally with pronouns), sâne, prôrsus, etc.

Estisne? Sumus, are you? We are. Dâsne? Dô sâne, C., Leg., i. 7, 21; do you grant? I do indeed.

(b) No is represented:

1. By nôn, nôn vêrô, nôn ita, minimô, by no means, nihil, nothing, minimê vêrô, nihil sâne, nihil minus.

2. By repeating the emphatic word with the negative:
SYNTAX OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE. 299

Non irata es? Non sum irata, Pl., Cas., 1007; you are not angry? I am not.

(c) Yea or Nay.—Immo conveys a correction, and either removes a doubt or heightens a previous statement: yes indeed, nay rather.

Ecquid placeant (aedēs) mē rogās? Immo perplacent, Pl., Most., 907; do I like the house, you ask me? Yes indeed, very much. Causa igitur nōn bona est? Immo optima, C., Att., ix. 7, 4; the cause, then, is a bad one? Nay, it is an excellent one.

REMARK.—Yes, for, and no, for, are often expressed simply by nam and enim: Tum Antōnius: Herī enim, inquit, hōc mihi prōposueram, C., Or., ii. 10, 40; then quoth Antony: Yes, for I had proposed this to myself yesterday.

SYNTAX OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

472. 1. A compound sentence is one in which the necessary parts of the sentence occur more than once; one which consists of two or more clauses.

2. Coördination (Parataxis) is that arrangement of the sentence according to which the different clauses are merely placed side by side.

3. Subordination (Hypotaxis) is that arrangement of the sentence according to which one clause depends on the other.

He became poor and we became rich; the second clause is a coördinate sentence.

He became poor that we might be rich; the second clause is a subordinate sentence.

4. The sentence which is modified is called the Principal Clause, that which modifies is called the Subordinate Clause. "He became poor" is the Principal Clause, "that we might be rich" is the Subordinate Clause.

REMARK.—Logical dependence and grammatical dependence are not to be confounded. In the conditional sentence, vivam si vivet, let me live if she lives, my living depends on her living; yet "vivam" is the principal, "si vivet" the subordinate clause. It is the dependence of the introductory particle that determines the grammatical relation.

COÖRDINATION.

473. Coördinate sentences are divided into various classes, according to the particles by which the separate clauses are bound together.
Remark.—Coördinate sentences often dispense with conjunctions (Asyndeton). Then the connection must determine the character.

Copulative Sentences.

474. The following particles are called Copulative Conjunctions: et, -que, atque (āc), etiam, quoque.

Note.—The Copulative Conjunctions are often omitted, in climax, in enumerations, in contrasts, in standing formulae, particularly in dating by the consuls of a year, if the praenōmina are added; and finally, in summing up previous enumerations by such words as alii, cēteri, cūncī, multi, omnēs, reliquī.

475. Et is simply and, the most common and general particle of connection, and combines likes and unlike.

Panem et aquam nātūra dēsiderat, Sen., E.M., 25, 4; bread and water (is what) nature calls for. Probitās laudātūr et alget, Juv., i. 74; honesty is bepraised and—freezes.

Notes.—1. We find sometimes two clauses connected by et where we should expect et tamen. This usage is characteristic of Tacitus, but is found all through the language. Fieri potest, ut rēctē quis sentiat et id, quod sentit, politē eloqui nōn possit, C., Tusc., i. 3, 6.
2. Et sometimes introduces a conclusion to a condition expressed in the Imperative, but only once in early Latin, never in classical prose. Dic quibus in terris; et eris mihi māgnus Apollō, V., Ec., iii. 104.
3. Et, instead of a temporal conjunction, begins with Caesar (Cf. B.G., i. 37, 1) and Sallust (Aug., 97, 4); it is never common.
4. On neque ālūs for et nūllos and the like, see 480. On et after words indicating Likeness, see 643. On et for etiam, see 478, n. 2.

476. -que (enclitic) unites things that belong closely to one another. The second member serves to complete or extend the first.

Senātus populusque Rōmānus, C., Planc., 37, 90; the Senate and people of Rome. Ibi mortuus seputusque Alexander, l., xxxvi. 20, 5; there Alexander died and was buried. [Sōl] oriēns et occidēns diem noctemque conīcit, C., N.D., ii. 40, 102; the sun by its rising and setting makes day and night.

Notes.—1. Que was very common in early Latin, especially in legal phraseology, where it was always retained.
2. Que—que—que is ante-classical and poetic.
3. Que is always added to the first word in the clause it introduces, in Plautus, as well as in classical prose; but the Augustan poets are free in their position, for metric reasons. As regards prepositions, que is never appended to ob and sub, rarely to ā and ad, but frequently to other monosyllabic prepositions; it is always appended to dissyllabic prepositions in ā, and often to other dissyllabic prepositions.
4. On que for quoque see 479, n. 2.
5. Combinations:
   (a) et—et;
   (b) que — et; rare in early Latin, never in Cicero, Caesar; begins with Sallust.
Sallust and Tacitus always add the *que* to the pronoun, Livy and later prose writers to the substantive.

(c) *et-que*; rare, and beginning with Ennius.

(2) *que-que* begins with Plautus, Ennius. Cicero has it but once (*nōctēsque diesque*, *Fil.*, I. 16, 51); it enters prose with Sallust, and poets are fond of it.

Et dominō satis et nimium *fūrīque lupōque*, *Tib.*, IV. I, 187; *enough for owner, and too much for thief and wolf*.

477. *Atque* (compounded of *ad* and *-que*) adds a more important to a less important member. But the second member often owes its importance to the necessity of having the complement (*-que*).

*Aq* (a shorter form, which does not stand before a vowel or *h*) is fainter than *atque*, and almost equivalent to *et*.

**Intrā moenia atque in sinū urbīs sunt hostēs, S., C., 52, 35; within the walls, *ay*, and in the heart of the city, are the enemies. A. Servos? Ego? B. Atque meus, PL., Cas., 735; a slave? *I? And mine to boot.*

Notes.—1. The confirmative force of *atque*, as in the second example, is found especially in Plautus, occasionally later.

2. *Atque* adds a climax, and then is often strengthened by *ėcastor, protectō, vērō*, etc., PL., B., 86; C., *Tusc.*, I. 20, 46.

3. In comedy, *atque* has sometimes demonstrative force: *atque* *eccum*, *Pl.*, *St.*, 577.

4. Occasionally in Cicero, then in the Augustan poets, Livy and later prose writers, notably Tacitus, *atque* or *āq* is often used to connect the parts of a clause in which *et* or *que* (sometimes both) has been already employed:

*Et potentēs sequitur invidia et humīlēs abiectōsque contemptus et turpēs āc nocentēs odiūm, Quint., IV. I, 11; the powerful are followed by envy; the low and grovelling, by contempt; the base and hurtful, by hatred.*

5. *Atque*-atque is found occasionally in Cato, Catullus, Cicero, and Vergil. *Que*-atque begins in poetry with Vergil, in prose with Livy, and is very rare.

6. *Atque*, introducing a principal clause after a temporal conjunction, belongs exclusively to Plautus: *Dum circumspectō me, atque ego lembum conspicor, B.*, 279. Also *Ep.*, 217.

7. *Atque* is used before consonants, as well as *āq*, to connect single notions: when sentences or clauses are to be connected, *āq* only is allowable; either *atque* or *āq* with expressions of likeness.—*Stamm*.

8. On *atque*, after words indicating likeness, see 643. *Atque* follows a comparative only after a negative in early and classical Latin. Horace is first to use it after a positive.

9. Phrasological is *alius atque alius*, *one or another*, found first in Livy, and rare.

478. *Etiam*, *even* (*now*), *yet, still*, exaggerates (heightens), and generally precedes the word to which it belongs.


Notes.—1. *Etiam* as a temporal adverb refers to the Past or Present, and means *still*; it is sometimes strengthened by *tum* (*tunc*) or *num* (*nunc*). But beginning with
Livy, adhuc, which properly refers only to the Present, is extended to the Past and used like etiam (tum).

Nōn satīs mē pernōstī etiam quālīs sim, Ter., And., 503; you still do not know well enough (= little know) what manner of person I am. Cum iste (i.e., Polemar-
chus) etiam cubāret, in cubiculum introductus est, C., Verr., iii. 23, 56; while the
defendant (Polemarchus) was still in bed, he was introduced into the bedroom.

2. Instead of etiam, et is occasional in Plautus, in a change of person. Cicero
uses it also after an adversative conjunction, as vērum et; also after nam and simul;
more often when a pronoun follows, as et ille, et ipse. Caesare never uses it so,
Sallust rarely, but it becomes common from Livy on.

3. Phraseological is etiam atque etiam, time and again. On etiam for yes, see
471, 1.

479. Quoque, so also, complements (compare que) and always follows the words to which it belongs.

Cum patrī (Timothē) populus statuam posuisset, filīō quoque dedit, Cf.
Nep., xiii. 2, 3; the people, having erected a statue in honour of the
father of Timothēus, gave one to the son also (likewise).

Remark.—The difference between etiam and quoque is not to be
insisted on too rigidly:

Grande et conspicuous nostrō quoque tempore mōnstrum, Juv., iv. 115;
a huge and conspicuous prodigy, even in our day.

Notes.—1. In ante-classical and post-classical Latin the double forms etiam —
quoque, etiam quoque, are sometimes found, and in classical Latin also quoque
etiam occasionally: nunc vērō meā quoque etiam causā rogō, C., Or., i. 35, 164.
2. Que in the sense of quoque is rare (compare meque, Cat., ch. 3; me too), and is
found chiefly in the post-Augustan hodiēque, to-day also.

480. Copulation by means of the Negative.—Instead of et
and the negative, neque (nec) and the positive is the rule in
Latin.

Opiniōnibus vulgī rapimur in errōrem nec vēra cernimus, C., Leg., ii. 17,
43; by the prejudices of the rabble we are hurried into error, and do not
distinguish the truth. (Caesar) properāns noctem diēl cōnīnserat neque
iter intermiserat, Caes., B. C., iii. 13, 2; Caesar in his haste had joined
night with day and had not broken his march.

Remarks.—1. Et—nōn, and—not, is used when the negation is
confined to a single word, or is otherwise emphatic; but neque is found
occasionally here, even in Cicero (Off., iii. 10, 41).

Et militāvi nōn sine gloriā, H., O., iii. 26, 2; and I have been a sol-
dier not without glory.

On nec nōn, the opposite of et nōn, see 449, n. 3.

2. In combination with the negative we have the following

Paradigms: And no one, neque quisquam, nor any one.

And no, neque illus, nor any.

And nothing, neque quidquam, nor anything.

And never, neque umquam, nor ever.
Neque amet quemquam nec amatur ab ullam, Juv., xii. 130; may he love no one, and be loved by none.

3. Nec is often nearly equivalent to nec tamen, and yet not:

Extrā invidiam nec extrā gloriām erat, Tac. Agr., 8, 3; he was beyond the reach of envy, and yet not beyond the reach of glory. Cf. Ter., Enn., 249; C., Tusc., ii, 25, 60.

Notes.—1. Neque = nē quidem, is ante-classical and post-classical: nec nunc, cum mē vocat ultrim, accẽdam? H., s., ii, 3, 262 (the only case in Horace).

2. Caesar, Lucretius, Vergil, and Propertius use neque regularly before vowels.

3. Combinations:

(a) neque—neque; nec—nec; neque—nec; nec—neque. Sometimes the first neque has the force of and neither; but this is limited in prose to Caesar, Sallust, and Livy; in poetry to Catullus and Propertius.

(b) neque—et; neque—que; neque—āc. Of these neque—et is rare in early Latin, but more common in Cicero and later; neque—que is rare, and found first in Cicero; neque—atque (āc) is very rare, and begins in Tacitus.

(c) et—neque is found first in Cicero, who is fond of it, but it fades out after him.

4. Neque is usually used for nōn, when followed by the strengthening words enim, tamen, vērō, etc.

481. i. Insertion and Omission of Copulatives.—When multus, much, many, is followed by another attribute, the two are often combined by copulative particles: many renowned deeds, multa et praecālārā facinora; many good qualities, multae bonaēque artēs.

2. Several subjects or objects, standing in the same relations, either take et throughout or omit it throughout. The omission of it is common in emphatic enumeration.

Phrygēs et Pisidae et Cilicēs, C., Div., i, 41, 92; or, Phrygēs, Pisidae, Cilicēs, Phrygians, Pisidians, and Cilicians.

Note.—Et before the third member of a series is rare, but occurs here and there at all periods; in Cicero it usually draws especial attention to the last member. Atque (āc) is used thus a little more frequently (mōrēs instītūtā atque vita, C., Fam., xv. 4, 14), and que is not uncommon: aegritūdīnes, frae libīdīnēque, C., Tusc., i. 33, 80.

3. Et is further omitted in climaxes, in antitheses, in phrases, and in formulē.

Virī nōn [est] debilitārī dolōre, frangī, succumbere, C., Fin., ii. 29, 95; it is unmanly to allow one's self to be disabled (unnerved) by grief, to be broken-spirited, to succumb. Difficilis facilis, iūcundus acerbus, es īdem, Mart., xii. 47, 1 (310).

Patrēs Conscriptī, Fathers (and) Conscript (Senators).

Iūpīter Optimus Máximus, Father Jove, supremely good (and) great.
Other Particles Employed.

482. Other particles are sometimes employed instead of the copulative in the same general sense.

1. Temporal: tum—tum, then—then; aliās—aliās, at one time—at another; iam—iam, nunc—nunc, modo—modo, now—now; simul—simul, at the same time.

Tum Graecē—tum Latīnē, partly in Greek, partly in Latin. Horātius Cocles nunc singulōs prōvocābat, nunc increpābat omnēs, Cf. L., ii. 10, 8; Horatius Cocles now challenged them singly, now taunted them all. Modo hūc, modo illūc, C., Att., xiii. 25, 3; now hither, now thither (hither and thither). Simul spernēbant, simul metuēbant, they despised and feared at the same time (they at once despised and feared).

Notes.—1. Of these tum—tum is not ante-classical, nunc—nunc is found first in Lucr., and is introduced into prose by Livy: simul—simul is found first in Caesār, but not in Cicero; iam—iam begins with Vergil and Livy. Aliquandō—aliquando, quandōque—quandōque, are post-Augustan; interdum—interdum is rare, but occurs in Cicero.

2. The combinations vary in many ways. Ciceronian arc tum—aliās; aliās—plerumque; interdum—aliās; modo—tum; modo—vicissim; most of them found but once. Some fifteen other combinations are post-Ciceronian.

3. On cum—tum, see 558.

2. Local: In Cicero only aliō—aliō; hinc—illinc. Others are: hic—illic (first in Vergil); hinc—hinc (Vergil, Livy); hinc—inde (Tacitus); illinc—hinc (Livy); inde—hinc (Tacitus); alibi—alibi (Livy); aliunde—aliunde (Pliny).

3. Modal: aliter—aliter; quā—quā, rare, and lacking in many authors (e.g., Caesar, Sallust). In Cicero only four times, and confined to the Letters; pariter—pariter is poetical and post-classical; aequē—aequē is found once in Horace and once in Tacitus.

4. Comparative: ut—ita, as—so:

Dolābellam ut Tarsēnsēs ita Lāodiēnsē ultrō arcessiērunt, C., Fam., xii. 13, 4; as the people of Tarsus so the people of Laodicea (= both the people of Tarsus and those of Laodicea) sent for Dolabella of their own accord.

Often, however, the actions compared are adversative; and ut may be loosely translated although, while.

Haece omnia ut invitus ita non adversantibus patriciis trānsēcta, L., iii. 55, 15; all this was done, the patricians, though unwilling, yet not opposing (= against the wishes, but without any opposition on the part of the patricians).

Note.—There are also many other similar combinations, as: quemadmodum—sic; ut—sic; tamquam—sic, etc. The adversative use of ut—ita is rare in the classical period, but extends later.
5. Adversative: nōn modo, nōn sōlum, nōn tantum, not only; sed, sed etiam, sed—quoque, vérum etiam, but even, but also:

Urbēs maritimae nōn sōlum multīs periculis oppositae [sunt] sed etiam caecis, C., Rep., ii. 3, 5: cities on the seaboard are liable not only to many dangers, but even (also) to hidden (ones). [Nōn] docērī tantum sed etiam délectārī volunt, Quint., iv. 1, 57; they wish not merely to be taught, but to be tickled to boot.

In the negative form, nōn modo nōn, not only not; sed nē—quidem, but not even; sed vix, but hardly.

Ego nōn modo tibi nōn frāscor, sed nē reprehendō quidem factum tuum, C., Sull., 18, 50; I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even find fault with your action.

Remarks.—1. Instead of nōn modo (sōlum) nōn—sed nē—quidem, the latter nōn is generally omitted, when the two negative clauses have a verb in common, the negative of the first clause being supplied by the second; otherwise both negatives are expressed.

Pisōne cōnsule senātūl nōn sōlum iuvāre rem pūblicam sed nē lūgēre quidem licēbat, Cf. C., Pis. 10, 23; when Piso was consul, it was not only not left free for the senate (= the senate was not only not free) to help the commonwealth, but not even to mourn (for her).

2. Nēdum, not (to speak of) yet, much less, is also used, either with or without a verb in the Subjunctive; it is found first and only once in Terence, never in Caesar and Sallust, in Cicero only after negative sentences; from Livy on it is used after affirmative clauses as well.

Sabatapumnumquam sufferre ēius sīmpitūs quest, nēdum ētū possis, Ter., Heaut., 454; a nabob could never stand that girl’s expenditures, much less could you.

Notes.—1. Nōn tantum is never found in early Latin, Caesar and Sallust, rarely in Cicero. Sed—quoque is found first in Cicero; so, too, sed simply, but rarely. Livy is especially free in his use of sed. Vērum, in the second member, is not ante-classical nor Tacitean. Nōn alone in the first member is rare, but Ciceronian, it is usually followed by sed only; occasionally by sed etiam. Sed is sometimes omitted from Livy on. Cf. L., xxviii. 39, 11; Tac., Ann., iii. 19, 2, etc.

2. Sed et, for sed etiam, belongs to post-Augustan Latin.

Adversative Sentences.

483. The Adversative particles are: autem, sed, vērum, vērō, at, atquī, tamen, cēterum. Of these only sed and tamen are really adversative.

Note.—The Adversative particles are often omitted: as when an affirmative is followed by a negative, or the reverse, or in other contrasts.

484. Autem (post-positive) is the weakest form of but, and
indicates a difference from the foregoing, a contrast rather than a contradiction. It serves as a particle of transition and explanation (= moreover, furthermore, now), and of resumption (= to come back), and is often used in syllogisms.

Modo accēdēns, tum autem recessēns, C., N.D., ii. 40, 102; now approaching, then again receding. Rūmōribus mēcum pūgnās, ego autem ā tē rationēs requīrō, C., N.D., iii. 5, 13; you fight me with rumours, whereas I ask of you reasons. Quod est bonum, omne laudābile est; quod autem laudābile est, omne est honestum; bonumigitur quod est, honestum est, C., Fin., iii. 8, 27; everything that is good is praiseworthy; but everything that is praiseworthy is virtuous; therefore, what is good is virtuous.

Remark.—Autem commonly follows the first word in the sentence or clause; but when an unemphatic est or sunt occupies the second place, it is put in the third. So igitur and enim.

Notes.—1. Noteworthy is the use of autem in lively questions. Cicero employs it in this way, also to correct his own previous questions (Epanorthosis).


2. Autem is a favorite word with Cicero, especially in his philosophical and moral works, but not with the Historians, least of all with Tacitus, who uses it only nine times in all.

485. Sed (set) is used partly in a stronger sense, to denote contradiction, partly in a weaker sense, to introduce a new thought, or to revive an old one.

Nōn est vivere sed valēre vita, Mart., vi. 70, 15 (442, r. 2). Domitius nūllā quidem arte sed Latinē tamen dīcēbat, C., Br., 77, 267; Domitius spoke with no art it is true, but for all that, in good Latin.

Notes.—1. The use of sed to carry on a narrative is characteristic of the historians, though found also in Cicero. Sed in eā coniūrātiōne fuit Q. Cūrinus, S., C., 23, 1.

2. Sed is repeated by anaphora (682), occasionally in Cicero (Verr., iii. 72, 169), more often later.

3. Sed may be strengthened by tamen; by vērō, enimvērō, enim; by autem, but only in connection with quid, and then only in comedy and in Vergil. Sometimes it is equal to sed tamen, as in V., A., iv. 666.

486. Vērum, it is true, true, always takes the first place in a sentence, and is practically equivalent to sed in its stronger sense.

Sī certum est facere, faciam; vērum nē post cōnferās culpam in mē, Ter., Eun., 388; if you are determined to do it, I will arrange it; but you must not afterward lay the blame on me.
COÖRDINATION.

Note.—Vérum gradually gives place to sed in Cicero. It is used occasionally to return to the subject (vérum haec quidem hæctenus, C., Tuscr., iii. 34, 84), and in yielding a point (vérum estō, C., Fin., ii. 23, 75), where sed is the usual word.

487. Véró, of a truth, is generally put in the second place, asserts with conviction, and is used to heighten the statement.

[Platōnem] Dion adéō admiratus est ut sō tōtum ei trāderet. Neque véro minus Platō dēlectātus est Dīone, NEP., x. 2, 3; Dion admired Plato to such a degree that he gave himself wholly up to him; and indeed Plato was no less delighted with Dion.

Notes.—1. Véro is properly an affirmative adverb, and such is its only use in Plautus. In Terence it has also acquired adversative force, which it preserves throughout the language in greater or less degree; so in the historians it is hardly more than autem.

2. The combination vérum véro is ante-classical; on combinations with enim, see 488, n. 6.

3. Véro is also, but not so commonly, used in transitions; especially in the formulæ age véro, iam véro.

488. At (another form of ad = in addition to) introduces startling transitions, lively objections, remonstrances, questions, wishes, often by way of quotation.

"Philoctēta, St! brevis dolor." At iam decimum annum in spēlunca iacet, C., Fin., ii. 29, 94; "Philoctetes, still! the pain is short." But he has been lying in his cave going on ten years. "At multis malis affectus?" Quis negat? C., Fin., v. 30, 92; "but he has suffered much?" Who denies it? At vidēte hominis intolerābilem audāciam! C., Dom., 44, 115; well, but see the fellow's insufferable audacity! At vōbis male sit! Cat., iii. 13; and ill luck to you!

Notes.—1. Ast is the archaic form of at, and is found occasionally in Cicero, de Leg. and ad Att., but more often in the poets and the later archaists.

2. At is used in anaphora, and also, especially in the poets, in continuing the narrative. Noteworthy is its use after conditional sentences (in Cicero only after negatives, never in Sallust), where it is frequently strengthened by certē, tamen, saltem: si minus supplicō adfīci, at cūstōdirī oportēbat, C., Verr., v. 27, 69.

489. Atquī (but at any rate, but for all that) is still stronger than at, and is used chiefly in argument.

Vix crédibile. Atquī sic habet, H., S., i. 9, 52; scarce credible. But for all that, 'tis so.

Notes.—1. Atquīn is occasional in early Latin, and even in Cicero.

2. At seems sometimes to be used for atquī. C., Tuscr., iii. 9, 19.

490. Tamen (literally, even thus), nevertheless, is often combined with at, vérum, sed.
It is commonly prepositive, unless a particular word is to be made emphatic.

Nātūram expellēs furcā, tamen āque recurret, H., Ep., i. 10, 34; you may drive out Dame Nature with a pitchfork, for all that she will ever be returning. Domitius nūllā quidem arte sed Latinē tamen dicebat, C., Br., ii. 77, 267 (485).

Remark.—Nihilōminus (nothing the less), nevertheless, is used like tamen, by which it is occasionally strengthened.

491. Četerum, for the rest, is used by the Historians as an adversative particle.

Duo imperātōrēs, ipsī parēs cēterum opibus disparibus, S., Iug., 52, 1; two commanders, equal in personal qualities, but of unequal resources.

Note.—Četerum is found once in Terence (Eun., 452), once in Cicero (Q.F., ii. 12, 1), otherwise not before Sallust.

Disjunctive Sentences.

492. The Disjunctive particles are aut, vel, -ve, sive (seu).

Note.—The Disjunctive particles are but rarely omitted, and then mainly in contrasted opposites like pauper dives, plus minus, and the like.

493. 1. Aut, or, denotes absolute exclusion or substitution.

Vinceris aut vincis, Prop., ii. 8, 8; you are conquered or conquering.

2. Aut is often corrective = or at least, at most, rather (aut saltem, aut potius).

Cūntū aut māgna pars fidem mūtāvissent, S., Iug., 56, 5; all, or at least a great part, would have changed their allegiance. Duo aut summum trēs iuvenēs, L., xxxiii. 5, 8; two, or at most three, youths.

3. Aut—aut, either—or.

Quaedam terrae partēs aut frigore rigent aut āruntūr calōre, Cf. C., Tusc., i. 28, 68; some parts of the earth are either frozen with cold or burnt with heat. Aut die aut accipe calcem, Juv., iii. 295; either speak or take a kick.

Notes.—1. The use of aut to carry on a preceding negative is found first in Cicero, but becomes more common later: nēmō tribūnōs aut plēberi timēbat, L., iii. 16, 4.

2. Aut is sometimes equivalent to partly—partly in Tacitus:
Hausta aut obruta Campānīae dōra, H., i. 2.

3. On aut in interrogative sentences, see 458, n. 4.

494. 1. Vel (literally, you may choose) gives a choice, often with etiam, even, potius, rather.
Ego vel Cluviénus, Juv., i. 80; I, or, if you choose, Cluvienus. Per
mé vel stértás licet, nón modo quíscás, C., Ac., ii. 29, 93; for all I care,
you may (even) snore, if you choose, not merely take your rest (sleep).
Satis vel etiam nimium multa, C., Fam., iv. 14, 3; enough, or even too
much. Epicurus homó minimé malus vel potius vir optimus, C., Tusc., ii.
19, 44; Epicurus (was) a person by no means bad, or, rather, a man of
excellent character.

2. Vel—vel, either—or (whether—or).

[Miltiádēs dixit] ponte rescissō régem vel hostium ferrō vel inopiā paunci
diébus interitūrum, Nep., i. 3, 4; Miltiades said that if the bridge were
cut the king would perish in a few days, whether by the sword of the
enemy, or for want of provisions.

Notes.—1. Vel, for example, is rare in Plautus and Terence, but common in
Cicero, especially in the Letters.
2. Vel in the sense of aut is rare in the classical period (C., Rep., ii. 28, 50), but is
more common later, beginning with Ovid. See Tac., Ann., i. 59.
3. Vel—vel is found in Plautus occasionally in the sense as well as, but in clas-
sical Latin is rigidly distinguished from et—et.
4. Aut is not uncommonly subdivided by vel—vel: aut canere vel vocē vel
fidibus, C., Div., ii. 59, 122.

495. Ve (enclitic) is a weaker form of vel, and in Cicero
is used principally with numerals, in the sense at most, or
with words from the same stem or of similar formation.

Bis terve, C., Fam., ii. 1, 1; twice or at most thrice (bis terque, twice
and indeed as much as thrice, if not more).

Cur timeam dubitemve locum défendere? Juv., i. 103; why should I
fear or hesitate to maintain my position? Aliquid faciendi nón faciendi
eratiō, C., Inv., ii. 9, 31; the method of doing something or not doing it.

Notes.—1. In early Latin ve is more often copulative than adversative.
2. Ve—ve is poetical only.

496. 1. Sive (seu), if you choose, gives a choice between
two designations of the same object.

Urbem mātrī seu novercae relinquit, L., i. 3, 3; he leaves the city to his
mother or (if it seems more likely) to his step-mother.

2. Sive—sive (seu—seu), whether—or (indifference).

Sive medicum adhibueris sive nón adhibueris nón convaléscés, C., Fat.,
12, 29; whether you employ a physician, or do not employ (one), you
will not get well. Seu visa est catulīs cerva fidelibus seu rūpit teretes
Marsus aper plagās, H., 0., i. 1, 27; whether a doe hath appeared to the
faithful hounds, or a Marsian boar hath burst the tightly-twisted toils.

Notes.—1. Single sive (= or) is not found in Plautus or Terence (Cf. And., 190),
but it occurs in Lucretius, Lucilius, and is common in Cicero. Caesar and Sal-
Lust, however, do not use it, and it is rare in the Poets. In the sense of sive—sive it is found occasionally in poetry; but in prose only three times in Tacitus.

2. Sive—sive is not found in Terence, but from Cicero on becomes common.

3. No distinction seems possible between sive and seu.

497. An is used in the sense of or not uncommonly in Cicero, especially in the Letters; occasionally in Livy, and frequently in Tacitus. Elsewhere it is rare. See 457.

Tiberius cásū an manibus [Haterii] impeditus prōciderat, Tac., Ann., i. 13, 7; Tiberius had fallen forward, either by chance or tripped by Haterius' hands.

Causal and Illative Sentences.

498. A. The Causal particles are nam, enim, namque, and etenim, for.

Nam is put at the beginning of a sentence; enim is post-positive (484, r.): namque and etenim are commonly put in the first place.

Sensus mirificē colocāti sunt; nam oculī tamquam speculātōres altissi-
mum locum obtinent, C., N.D., ii. 56, 140; the senses are admirably
situated; for the eyes, like watchmen, occupy the highest post. Piscēs
ōva reliquunt, facile enim illa aquā sustinentur, C., N.D., ii. 51, 129;
fish leave their eggs, for they are easily kept alive by the water. [Themis-
tocles] mūrōs Atheniēnsium restituit suō periculō; namque Lacedaemonii
prohibēre cōnātī sunt, Nep., ii. 6, 2; Themistocles restored the walls of
Athens with risk to himself; for the Lacedaemonians endeavoured to
prevent it.

Notes.—1. The Augustan poets postpone both nam and namque according to the requirements of the metre, and in prose, beginning with Livy, namque is found sometimes in the second place, but more often in Livy than later.

In early Latin enim is often first in the sentence; etenim is postponed in prose only in the elder Pliny and Apuleius; in the poets, not uncommonly, so in Aprianus, Tibullus, Propertius, and Horace.

2. These particles are originally asseverative, and are often used not only to furnish a reason, but also to give an explanation or illustration (as for instance). Quid enim agās? what, for instance, can you do? This is especially true of enim, but is also common enough with nam (n. 3), and a broad difference between nam and enim (which is of common origin with nam) cannot be proved. Etenim is often used to carry on the argument, and gives an additional ground.

3. The asseverative force of nam is retained in conversational style occasionally, even in Cicero (Verr., i. 51, 133). Enim is almost wholly asseverative in Plautus and Terence. Namque is very rare in Plautus and Terence, and is found before vowels only. In classical Latin it is also rare, and found usually before vowels. With Livy it comes into general use before vowels and consonants equally. Etenim is found but once in Plautus (Am., 26, an interpolation) and four times in Terence; in post-classical Latin also it is not common, but it is very frequent in classical Latin, especially in Cicero.

4. Noteworthy is the use of nam, in passing over a matter: nam quid ego dé
āctūne ipse plurā dicām? (C., O., i. 5, 18), which is especially common in Cicero.

5. Nam shows an affinity for interrogative particles. Here it sometimes precedes in
the early language (Ter., Ph., 933), but becomes firmly attached in the classical period in the forms quisnam, ubinam, etc., which, however, sometimes suffer transposition and transposition in poetry (V., G., 4, 445).

6. In atenim (first in Cicero), nempe enim (ante-classical and post-classical), sed enim (rare), vērumenim, enimvērō, vērum enimvērō, as in etenim, the enim gives a ground or an illustration of the leading particle, but translation by an ellipsis would be too heavy, and enim is best left untranslated:

A. Audī quid dicam. B. At enim taeđet iam audīre eadem miliëns, Ter., Ph., 487; A. Hear what I say. B. But (I won’t, for) I am tired of hearing the same things a thousand times already.

7. Enim is used pleonastically after quia in early Latin, and then again in Petronius and Cælius; also after ut and nē in early Latin.

8. Quippe is originally interrogative. From this the causal force develops, which is not uncommon in Cicero. In Sallust, and especially in Livy and later writers, quippe is equal to enim.

499. B. Illative particles are itaque, igitur, ergō; eō, hinc, inde, ideō, idcirco, quōcirca, propterea, quāpropter, proin, proinde.

500. Itaque (literally, and so), therefore, is put at the beginning of the sentence by the best writers, and is used of facts that follow from the preceding statement.

Nemō ausus est Phocionem liber sepellire; itaque a servis sepultus est, Cf. Nep., xix. 4, 4; no free man dared to bury Phocion, and so he was buried by slaves.

Remark.—Itaque in early and classical Latin has first place in a sentence. It is first postponed by Lucretius, then by Cornificius and Horace, and more often later.

501. Igitur, therefore, is used of opinions which have their natural ground in the preceding statement; in Cicero it is usually post-positive, in Sallust never.

Mihi nōn satisfactit. Sed quot hominēs tot sententiae; fallī igitur possimus, C., Fin., i. 5, 15; me it does not satisfy. But many men many minds. I may therefore be mistaken.

Note.—In historical writers igitur is sometimes used like itaque. Occasionally also (not in classical Latin), it seems to have the force of enim (Pl., Most., 1102, Mss.).

502. Ergō denotes necessary consequence, and is used especially in arguments, with somewhat more emphasis than igitur.

Negat haec filiam mē suam esse; nōn ergō haec māter mea est, Pl., Ep., 590; she says that I am not her daughter, therefore she is not my mother.

Notes.—1. In the Poets ergō sometimes introduces a strong conclusion in advance of the premise (II., O., i. 24, 5). In the classical period, however, its predominant use is to introduce the logical conclusion.
2. Ergō usually comes first, but its position is apt to vary in accordance with the stress laid upon it.

3. Itaque ergō is found in Terence and Livy; ergō igitur in Plautus.

503. Other Coordinating Conjunctions: hinc, hence, is found not unfrequently: hinc illae lacræmae, Ter., And., 126. Inde, therefore, is rare, and first in Cicero, but more common in later Latin. Eō, therefore, is found in early Latin, rarely in Cicero (Fam., vi. 20, 1), not in Caesar or Sallust; again in Livy and later; so ideō, on that account, but atque ideō is found once in Caesar. Idcirco, on that account, is rare, but from the earliest times. Quōcīrca, on which account, is found first in the classical period; quāpropter is found here and there in early Latin, but more commonly in the classical period, rarely later; propterēā, on that account, is rare, and belongs to early Latin. Proin, proinde, accordingly, are employed in exhortations, appeals, and the like.

Quod praeceptum (nosce te ipsum), quia māius erat quam ut ab homine videretur, idcirco assignātum est deō, C., Fin., v. 16, 44; this precept (know thyself), because it was too great to seem to be of man, was, on that account, attributed to a god. Proinde aut exsēant aut quiescēant, C., Cat., ii. 5, 11; let them then either depart or be quiet.

SUBORDINATION.

504. Subordinate sentences are only extended forms of the simple sentence, and are divided into Adjective and Substantive sentences, according as they represent adjective and substantive relations.

This arrangement is a matter of convenience merely, and no attempt is made to represent the development of the subordinate sentence from the coördinate.

505. Adjective sentences express an attribute of the subject in an expanded form.

Uxor quae bona est, Pl., Merc., 812 (624) = uxor bona.

506. Substantive sentences are introduced by particles, which correspond in their origin and use to the Oblique Cases, Accusative and Ablative.

These two cases furnish the mass of adverbial relations, and hence we make a subdivision for this class, and the distribution of the subordinate sentence appears as follows:

507. A. Substantive sentences.
   I. Object sentences.
II. Adverbial sentences:
1. Of Cause. (Causal.)
2. Of Design and Tendency. (Final and Consecutive.)
3. Of Time. (Temporal.)
4. Of Condition and Concession. (Conditional and Concessive.)

B. Adjective sentences. (Relative.)

Moods in Subordinate Sentences.

508. 1. Final and Consecutive Clauses always take the Subjunctive. Others vary according to their conception. Especially important are the changes produced by Ōrātiō Obliqua.

2. Ōrātiō Obliqua, or Indirect Discourse, is opposed to Ōrātiō Recta, or Direct Discourse, and gives the main drift of a speech and not the exact words. Ōrātiō Obliqua, proper, depends on some Verb of Saying or Thinking expressed or implied, the Principal Declarative Clauses being put in the Infinitive, the Dependent in the Subjunctive.

Socratēs dicere solēbat:
Ō. R. Omnēs in eō quod sciunt satis sunt ēloquentēs.
Socrates used to say: “All men ARE eloquent enough in what they understand.”

Ō. O. Omnēs in eō quod scirent satis esse ēloquentēs, C., Or., 1. 14, 63.
Socrates used to say that all men WERE eloquent enough in what they understood.

3. The oblique relation may be confined to a dependent clause and not extend to the whole sentence. This may be called Partial Obliquity.

Ō. R. Nova nupta dicit: Fleō quod ire necesse est.
The bride says: I weep because I must needs go.

Ō. O. Nova nupta dicit sē flēre quod ire necesse sit.
The bride says that she weeps because she must needs go.

Ō. R. Nova nupta flet quod ire necesse est, Cf. Cat., lxi. 81.
The bride weeps because she must go.

Ō. O. Nova nupta flet quod ire necesse sit.
The bride is weeping because “she must go” (quoth she).
4. Akin to ō. ὀ. is the so-called Attraction of Mood, by which clauses originally Indicative are put in the Subjunctive because they depend on Infinitives or Subjunctives. (663.)

Non dubitō quin nova nupta fleat quod ēre necesse sit. I do not doubt that the bride is weeping because she must go.

Remark.—The full discussion of ō. ὀ. must, of course, be reserved for a later period. See 648.

SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

509. i. In those dependent sentences which require the Subjunctive, the choice of the tenses of the dependent clause is determined largely by the time of the leading or principal clause, so that Principal Tenses are ordinarily followed by Principal Tenses; Historical, by Historical.

Note.—As the subordinate sentence arose out of the coordinate, hypotaxis out of parataxis, the tenses of the Subjv. had originally an independent value, and the association was simply the natural association of time. But in some classes of sentences a certain mechanical levelling has taken place, as in the Final sentence; and in others, as in the Interrogative sentence, the range of the Subjv. is restricted by the necessity of clearness, just as the range of the Inf. is restricted by the necessity of clearness (530); so that a conventional Sequence of Tenses has to be recognised. To substitute for every dependent tense a corresponding independent tense, and so do away with the whole doctrine of Sequence, is impossible. At the same time it must be observed that the mechanical rule is often violated by a return to the primitive condition of parataxis, and that

2. This rule is subject to the following modifications:

1. Tense means time, not merely tense-form, so that

(a) The Historical Present may be conceived according to its sense (Past) or according to its tense (Present). (229.)

(b) In the Pure Perfect may be felt the past inception or origin (Past), or the present completion (Present). (235, i.)

2. The effect of a past action may be continued into the present or the future of the writer (513).

3. The leading clause may itself consist of a principal and dependent clause, and so give rise to a conflict of tenses with varying Sequence (511, r. 2).

4. An original Subjunctive (467) of the past (265) resists levelling, especially in the Indirect Question.
510.

All forms that relate to the Present and Future (so especially Principal Tenses) are followed by the Present Subjunctive (for continued action); the Perfect Subjunctive (for completed action).

All forms that relate to the Past (so especially Historical Tenses) are followed by the Imperfect Subjunctive (for continued action); the Pluperfect Subjunctive (for completed action).

Remark.—The action which is completed with regard to the leading verb may be in itself a continued action. So in English: *I do not know what he has been doing, I did not know what he had been doing.* The Latin is unable to make this distinction, and accordingly the Imperfect Indicative (*I was doing*) is represented in this dependent form by the Perfect and Pluperfect, when the action is completed as to the leading verb.

511.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Latin Form</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pr. (Pure) cognoscō</td>
<td><em>I am finding out</em></td>
<td>quid faciäs, what you are doing; quid facerēs, what you are to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or Hist.)</td>
<td>cognoscēbam,</td>
<td>cognovi,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.,</td>
<td>cognoscam,</td>
<td><em>I shall (try to) find out</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pure Pf.,</td>
<td>cognōvī,</td>
<td><em>I have found out</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Pf.,</td>
<td>cognōverō,</td>
<td><em>I shall have found out (shall know)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hist. Pr.,</td>
<td>cognoscō,</td>
<td><em>I am (was) finding out</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPF.,</td>
<td>cognoscēbam,</td>
<td><em>I was finding out</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hist. I'p.,</td>
<td>cognōvī,</td>
<td><em>I found out</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLUPF.,</td>
<td>cognōveram,</td>
<td><em>I had found out (I knew)</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the Subjunctive is original, we have:

cognoscō, etc., *I am finding out*, quid faciäs, what you are to do.
cognōvī, etc., *I knew*, quid facerēs, what you were to do.

Principal Tenses.

Nihil réfert postrēma syllaba brevis an longa sit, *Cf. C., Or., 64, 217 (461).* Ubīf (Caesarem) ōrant (historical) ut sibī parcat, *Caes., B. G., vi. 9,*
SEQUENCE OF TENSES.


Historical Tenses.


Original Subjunctive Retained.

Ipse docet quid agam (original, agam) ; fās est et ab hoste docēri, Ov., M., iv. 428 (219). Quaerō ā tē cūr ego Ť. Cornélium nōn dēfenderem (original, dēfenderem), C., Val., 2, 5 (467). Misērant Delphōs consultum quid fæcerent (original, faciāmus), Nep., ii. 2, 6 (518).

Remarks.—1. The treatment of the Hist. Pr. according to its sense (past) is the rule in classical Latin, especially when the dependent clause precedes. But there are many exceptions.

Agunt grātiās quod sībi pepercissent ; quod arma cum hominibus consanguineis contulerint queruntur, Caes., B. C., 1, 74, 2; they return thanks to them for having spared them, and complain that they had crossed swords with kinsmen.

2. Noteworthy is the shift from the primary to the secondary sequence; this is mostly confined to clauses of double dependence, i.e., where one subordinate clause is itself principal to a second subordinate clause.
Here the first has usually the primary, the second the secondary sequence.

Rogat ut cūret quod dīxisset, C., Quinct., 5, 18; he asks him to attend to what he had said (he would).

So of authors:

[Chrysippus] disputat aethera esse eum quem hominēs Io vem appellārent, C., N.D., i. 15, 40; Chrysippus maintains that to be ether which men call Jove.

3. The Pure Pf. is usually treated as a Hist. Pf. in the matter of sequence:

Quae subsidia habēres et habēre possēs, exposui, Q. CICERO, 4, 13; what supports you have or can have I have set forth.

4. The reverse usage, when an Hist. Pf. is followed by a primary Subjv., is not common. Many of those cited from Cicero are from the Letters, where the shift of tense might be influenced by the letter-tense principle (252).

Sed quō cōnsiliō redierim, initiō audistis, post estis expert!, C., Ph., x. 4, 8. Quis miles fuit, qui Brundisii illum nōn viderit, C., Ph., ii. 25, 61. (The context shows that fuit cannot be Pure Pf.)

512. Sequence of Tenses in Sentences of Design.—Sentences of Design have, as a rule, only the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. The Roman keeps the purpose and the process, rather than the attainment, in view.

| Pr. | edunt, | they are eating, | ut vivant, | that they may live (to live). |
| Pure Pf. | ēdērunt, | they have eaten, | | |
| Fut. | edent, | they will eat, | | |
| Fut. Pf. | ēderint, | they will have eaten, | | |
| IMPF. | edēbant, | they were eating, | ut viverent, | that they might live (to live). |
| PLUFF. | ēderant, | they had eaten, | | |
| Hist. Pf. | ēdērunt, | they ate, | | |

Spectātum veniunt, veniunt spectentur ut ipsae, Ov., A.A., i. 99 (435). Sed precor ut possim tūtius esse miser, Ov., Tr., v. 2, 78 (424). Gallīnae pen- nīs fovent pullōs nē frigore laedantur, Cf. C., N.D., ii. 52, 129 (545). Lēgem brevem esse oportet quō facilius ab imperitis teneātur, Sen., E.M., 94, 38 (545). Mē praemisit domum haec ut nūntiam uxōrī suae, Pl., Am., 195; he has sent me home ahead of him, to take the news to his wife. Oculōs ecfodiam tibi nē mē observāre possis, Pl., Aul., 53; I will gouge out your eyes for you, to make it impossible for you to watch me.

[Laelius] veniēbat ad cēnam ut satiāret désideria nātūrae, C., Fin., ii. 8, 25; Laelius used to go to table, to satisfy the cravings of nature. (Phaēθōn) optāvit ut in currum patris tollerētur, C., Off., iii. 25, 94 (546, 1).
Remark.—Parenthetical final sentences like ut ita dicam, nē errētis, are really dependent on the thought or utterance of the speaker, and have the present sequence everywhere.

Nē longior sim, valē, C., Fam., xv. 19; not to be tedious, farewell! Nē tamen ignōrēs, virtūte Nerōnis Armeniūs ecedit, II., Ep., i. 12, 25; but that you may not fail to know it, it was by the valour of Nero that the Armenian fell.

Notes.—1. The Pf. and Plupf. Subjv. are sometimes found in sentences of Design, chiefly in earlier and later Latin (no example is cited from CAESAR or SALLUST), when stress is laid on completion, or when an element of Hope or Fear comes in: Ut sic dixerim (first found in Quint.), if I may be allowed to use the expression.

Affirmāre audēō mē omnī ope adnōsūrum esse nē frustrā vōs hanc spem dē mē concēperītis, L., xliv. 22; I dare assure you that I will strain every nerve to keep you from having conceived this hope of me in vain. (After a past tense, nē concēpisētis.) Nunc agendum est nē frustrā oppressum esse Antōnium gāvīsī simul, C., ad Br., i. 4, 3. Hic obesitam, nē imprudentī huic ea sē subrēpsit (313, 3, b. 2) mihi, Pl., M. G., 333. Effecit nē cūius alterius sacrilegium rēs pública quam Nerōnis sēnsisset, Tac., Agr., 6.

When the tense is compound, the participle is usually to be considered as a mere adjective.


2. Occasional apparent cases of the subjunctive mood are explained in various ways. Thus, in C., Sest., i. 14, 32: etiamne ēdicere audēās nē maerērent, we have a repetition as an insignificant question of the preceding statement: ēdicunt (Hist. Pr.) duo cōnsules ut ad suum vestitum senātōres redirent.

513. Exceptional Sequence of Tenses:—Sentences of Result (Consecutive Sentences). In Sentences of Result, the Present Subjunctive is used after Past Tenses to denote the continuance into the Present, the Perfect Subjunctive to imply final result. This Perfect Subjunctive may represent either the Pure Perfect or Aorist, the latter especially with the negative: the action happened once for all or not at all.

Present Tense:

[Siciliam Verrēs] per triennium ita vexāvit ut ea restitutī in antiquum statum nūlī modō possit, C., Verr., i. 4, 12; Verres so harried Sicily for three years as to make it utterly impossible for it to be restored to its original condition. In [Lūcullō] tanta prudentia fuit ut hodiē stet Asia, C., Ac., ii. 1, 3; Lucullus's forethought was so great that Asia stands firm to-day.

Perfect Tense (Pure):

(Mūrēna) Asiam sic oblit ut in eā neque avāritiae neque lūxuriae vestīgium relinquuerit, C., Mur., 9, 20; Murena so administered Asia as not to have (that he has not) left in it a trace either of greed or debauchery (there is no trace there).
Perfect Tense (Aorist):

Equitès hostium à critērum cum equitātū nostrō consistērunt, tamen ut nostrī eōs in silvās collēisque compulerint, Caes., B.G., v. 15, 1; the cavalry of the enemy engaged the cavalry on our side briskly, and yet (the upshot was that) our men forced them into the woods and hills. Neque vero tam remissō æc languidō animō quisquam omnium fuit qui eō nocte conquēverit, Caes., B.C., i. 21, 5; and indeed there was no one at all of so slack and indifferent a temper as to take (a wink of) sleep that night.

Remarks.—1. After a Pure Pf., if the dependent clause is affirmatiu. Cicerō prefers the Impf. (he has but five cases of Pf.); if negative the Pf. (in the proportion 2 to 1).

2. After accidit, contigit, and other verbs of Happening, the Impf. is always used, the result being already emphasised in the Indic. form.

Accidit ut ānā nocte omnēs Hermae décicerentur, Nep., vii., 3, 2; it happened that in one night all the Hermae were thrown down.

Notes.—1. The use of the Aoristic Pf. Subjv. after an Aoristic Pf. Indic. seems to have been an attempt of the Romans to replace the consecutive Aor. Inf. in Greek with ἀπόκρυφo. Examples are not found in early Latin, are rare in Cicero, very rare in Caesar, perhaps not at all in Sallust; more frequent in Livy, common in Tacitus, very common in Nepos and Suetonius, etc.

2. In two coördinated clauses depending on the same verb we find the tenses occasionally varying. The Pf. in the first subordinate, with Impf. in the second, is doubtful in any case, rare in Cicero, and is cited but once each from Caesar (B.G., vii. 17) and Velleius (i. 9, 1). The reverse construction, Impf. followed by Pf., is more common, but found first (though rarely) in Livy, and belongs mainly to late Latin.

Zēnō nūllō modo ες erat quī nervōs virtūtis inciderit, sed contrā quī omnia in virtūte pōneret, C., Ac., i. 10, 35. Here the shift is due to the negative. Tantus pavor omnēs occupāvit ut nōn modo alius quisquam arma caperet—sed etiam ipse rēx perfugerit, L., xxiv. 40, 12. Here the tenses depend on the ideas of continuation and completion, of the many and the single (nōn capiēbant—rēx perfugīt).

3. In relative sentences of coincident action with causal coloring, either the coincidence is retained, or a principal clause in the Past is followed by the Impf. Subjunctive.

Tū hūmānissimē fēcisti quī mē certōrem fēcerīs, C., Att., xiii. 43, 1. Cum hōc Pompeius vehemens ēgit cum diceret, etc., C., Att., ii. 23, 2. Videor mihi grātum fēcisse Siculīs, quod eōrum iniūriās simul persecūtus, C., Verēs., ii. 6, 15 (518, r.).

Representation of the Subjunctive in the Future and Future Perfect Tenses.

514. The Subjunctive has no Future or Future Perfect, which are represented either by the other Subjunctives, or in the Active by the Subjunctive of the Periphrastic Conjugation.

Rule I.—(a) After a Future or Future Perfect Tense, the Future relation (contemporary with the leading Future) is
represented by the Present Subjunctive; the Future Perfect (prior to the leading Future) by the Perfect Subjunctive, according to the rule.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Cōgnōscam,} & \quad \text{quid faciās, what you are doing (will be doing).} \\
I \text{ shall (try to) find out,} & \\
\text{Cōgnōverō,} & \quad \text{quid fēceris, what you have done (will have done).} \\
I \text{ shall have found out (shall know),}
\end{align*}
\]

(b) But whenever the dependent Future is subsequent to the leading Future, the Periphrastic Tense must be employed.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Cōgnōscam,} & \quad \text{quid factūrus sis, what you are going to do (what you will do).} \\
I \text{ shall (try to) find out,} & \\
\text{Cōgnōverō,} & \\
I \text{ shall have found out (shall know),}
\end{align*}
\]

[Considerābimus], [we shall consider].

A. Quīd fēcerit aut quīd ipsī acciderit aut quīd dixerit, what he has done, or what has happened to him, or what he has said.

B. Aut quīd faciat, quīd ipsī accidat, quīd dīcat, or, what he is doing, what is happening to him, what he is saying.

C. Aut quīd factūrus sit, quīd ipsī cāsūrum sit, quā sit āsūrus ōrātiōne, C., Inv., i. 25, 36; or what he is going to do (will do), what is going to (will) happen to him, what plea he is going to employ (will employ).

Tū quīd sis factūrus pergrātum erit si ad mē scripseris, C., Fam., ix. 2, 5; it will be a great favour if you will write to me what you are going to do.

Remark.—In some of these forms ambiguity is unavoidable. So A may represent a real Perfect, B a real Present.

515. Rule II.—After the other tenses, the Future relation is expressed by the Active Periphrastic Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Cōgnōscō,} & \quad \text{quid factūrus sis (what you are going to do), what you will do.} \\
I \text{ am finding out,} & \\
\text{Cōgnōvī,} & \\
I \text{ have found out (know),}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Cōgnōscēbam,} & \quad \text{quid factūrus essēs (what you were going to do), what you would do.} \\
I \text{ was trying to find out,} & \\
\text{Cōgnōveram,} & \\
I \text{ had found out,}
\end{align*}
\]
SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

Tam ea rēs est facilis ut innumerābilis nātūra mundōs effectūra sit, efficiat, effecerit, Cf. C., N.D., i. 21, 53; the thing is so easy that nature will make, is making, has made, innumerable worlds.

Incercium est quam longa cūiusque nostrum vita futūra sit, C., Verr., i. 58, 153; it is uncertain how long the life of each one of us is going to be (will be).

Anteā dubitābam ventūræe essent legiōnes; nunc mihi nōn est dubium quin ventūræe nōn sint, C., Fam., ii. 17, 5; before, I was doubtful whether the legions would come (or no); now I have no doubt that they will not come.

REMARKS.—1. The Pf. and Plupf, Subjv. of the Periphrastic are used only to represent the Apodosis of an Unreal Conditional Sentence.

Cōgnōscō, Cōgnōvi, quid factūrus fueris, (what you have been I am finding out, I have found out what you would have done, going to do), (know),

Cōgnōscēbam, Cōgnōveram, [quid factūrus fuisses, (what you had been I was trying to find out, I had found out, what you would have going to do), done, rare.]

2. There is no Periphrastic for the Fut. Pf. active, no Periphrastic for passive and Supineless Verbs. The Grammars make up a Periphrastic for all these from futūrum sit, esset ut, as:

Nōn dubitō quin futūrum sit, I do not doubt

ut redierit, that he will have returned.

ut maerēat, that he will grieve.

ut necētur, that he will be killed.

But there is no warrant in actual usage.

For the dependent Fut. Pf. act. Terence says (Hec., 618): Tuā rēfert nihil utrum illaece fēcerint quanto haec aberint.

For the dependent Fut. Pf. pass. Cicerō says (Fam., vi. 12, 3): Nēc dubitō quin confecta rēs futūra sit, nor do I doubt but the matter will have been settled.

In the absence of the Periphrastic forms, use the proper tenses of posse. (243, n.)

3. When the preceding verb has a future character (Fear, Hope, Power, Will, and the like), the simple Subjv. is sufficient.

Galli, nisi perfrēgerint mūnitiōnes, dē omni salūte dēspērant; Rōmānī, si rem obtinuerint, finem labōrum omnium exspectant, Caes., B.G., vii. 85, 3; the Gauls despair of all safety unless they break through (shall have broken through) the fortifications; the Romans look forward to an end of all their toils, if they hold their own (shall have held). Vēnerunt querentēs nec spem ūllam esse resistendi, nisi praesidium Rōmānus misisset, L., xxxiv. 11, 2; they came with the complaint that there was no hope of resistance unless the Roman sent a force to protect them. Intenti quandō hostis imprōidentiā rueret, Tac., H., ii. 34.

Of course the Deliberative Subjunctive is future: Examples, 265.

Et certēmen habent lēti, quae viva sequātūr cōningium, Prop., iv. 12, 19 (M.).

516. Sequence of Tenses in Öratiō Obliqua: In Öratiō Obliqua and kindred constructions, the attraction of tenses ap-
plies also to the representatives of the Future and Future Perfect Subjunctive.

In [clāvā] erat scriptum nisi domum revertērūr sē capitis eum damnā-
tūrēs, NEP., IV. 3, 4; it was written on the staff that if he did not re-
turn home, they would condemn him to death. (Orātio Rēcta: nisi
domum revertēris, tē capitis damnābimus, unless you (shall) return home,
we will condemn you to death). Pythia praecēpit ut Mīltiadem sībī im-
perātorem sūmerent; id si fēscissent (Ō. R., fēserītis) incepta prōspera futūra
(Ō. R., erunt), NEP., I. 1, 3; the Pythia instructed them to take Mīltiades
for their general; that if they did that, their undertakings would be
successful. Lacedaemonii, Philippō mīnitante per litterās sē omnia quae
conārentur (Ō. R., conābimini) prohibitūrum, quaeśivērunt num sē esset eti-
am morī prohibitūrus (Ō. R., prohibēbis), C., Tusc., v. 14, 42; the Lacedae-
monians, when Philip threatened them by letter that he would prevent
everything they undertook (should undertake), asked whether he was
going to (would) prevent them from dying too.

517. Sequence of Tenses after the other Moods.—The Im-
perative and the Present and Perfect Subjunctive have the Se-
quences of the Principal Tenses; the Imperfect and Plu-
perfect have the Sequences of the Historical Tenses.

[Nē] compōne comās quia sīs ventūrus ad illam, Ov., Rem. Am., 679; do
not arrange (your) locks because (forsooth) you are going to see her.
Excellentibus ingeniis citius dēfuerit ars quā cīvem regant quam quā hostem
superent, L., II. 43, 10; great geniuses would be more likely to lack the
skill to control the citizen than the skill to overcome the enemy. Quid
mē prohibēret Epicūreum esse, sē probārem quae ille diceret? C., Fin., I.
8, 27; what would prevent me from being an Epicurean if I approved
what he said (says)? Tum ego tē primus hortārē diū pēnsitārēs quem
potissimum ēligerēs, Plin., Ep., IV. 15, 8; in that case I should be the
first to exhort you to weigh long whom you should choose above all
others. Quae vīta fuisset Priamō sī ab adulēscentiā scisset quōs ēventūs
senectūtis esset habitūrus? C., Div., II. 9, 22; what sort of life would
Priam have led if he had known, from early manhood, what were to be
the closing scenes of his old age?

Remarks.—I. Of course, when the Pf. Subjv. represents an Histori-
cal Tense, it takes the historical Sequence:

Māgna culpa Pelopis quī nōn docuerit filium quātenus esset quidque
cūrandum, C., Tusc., I. 44, 107; greatly to blame is Pelops for not having
taught his son how far each thing was to be cared for. Quī scis an ea
causā mē sāisse adsimulāverit, ut cum mātre plūs ūnā esset? Ter., Hec.,
235; how do you know but she has pretended to hate me in order to be
more with her (own) mother?
SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

323

So also in the Conditional proposition, when the action is past. For varying conception, see C., Off., iii. 24, 92.

2. The Impf. Subjv., being used in opposition to the Present, might be treated as a Principal Tense, but the construction is less usual:

Verērē nē immodicam ōrātiōnem putārēs nisi esset generis ēius ut saepe incipere saepe désinere videātur, PLIN., Ep., ix. 4, 1; I should be afraid of your thinking the speech of immoderate length, if it were not of such kind as to produce the effect of often beginning, often ending. Ō ego nē possim tālēs sentīre dolōrēs quam māllem in gelidīs montibus esse lapis! TIB., ii. 4, 7.

518. Sequence of Tenses after an Infinitive or Participle. —When a subordinate clause depends on an Infinitive or Participle, Gerund or Supine, the tense of that clause follows the tense of the Finite verb, if the Finite verb is Past; if the Finite verb is Present, it follows the tense that the dependent verb would have had, if it had been independent.

Dicit sē interrogāre (original interrogātō),
He says that he is asking,

Dicit sē interrogāsse (original interrogāvī),
He says that he asked,

Dicit sē interrogāre (original interrogātō),
He said that he was asking,

Mihī interrogantī,
when I ask him,
(literally: to me asking),

Mihī interrogantī,
when I asked him,
(literally: to me asking),

quip agās, what you are doing.
quip ēgerīs, what you have done.
quip āctūrus sīs, what you are going to do (will do).

quip agerēs, what you were doing.
quip ēgissēs, what you had done.
quip āctūrus essēs, what you were going to do (would do).

quip agat, what he is doing.
quip ēgerit, what he has done.
quip āctūrus what he is going to do (will do),

quip ageret, what he was doing.
quip ēgisset, what he had done.
quip āctūrus what he was going to do,

nōn repondet, he gives no answer.

Apud Hypanim fluvium Aristotelēs ait bēstiolās quāsdam nāscī quae ānam diem vivant, C., Tusc., i. 39, 94 (650). Satīs mihī multa verba fēcisse vidērum quāre esset hōc bellum necessārium, C., Imp., 10, 27; I think I have said enough (to show) why this war is necessary. Apellēs pictōrēs ēōs
peccare dixebat qui non sentirent quid esset satis, C., Or., 22, 73; Apelles used to say that those painters blundered who did not perceive what was (is) enough. Athéniensés Cyrsilum quendam suădentem ut in urbe manerent lapidibus obruērunt, C., Off., iii. ii, 48 (546). Cupîdō incēssit animōs iuvenum sciscitandī ad quem ēorum rēgnum Rōmānum esset ventūrum, L., i. 56, 10; the minds of the young men were seized by the desire of inquiring to which of them the kingdom of Rome would come. Miserunt Delphōs consultum quid facerent, Nep., ii. 2, 6; they sent to Delphi to ask the oracle what they should do. See 265.

Remark.—Nevertheless examples are not unfrequent where the sequence of the governing verb is retained: Videor mihi grātum fēcisse Sicilīs quod ēorum iniūriās mēō periculō sim persecūtus, C., Verr., ii. 6, 15; I seem to have pleased the Sicilians, in that I have followed up their injuries at my own risk (on account of the coincidence, 513, n. 3).

519. Original Subjunctives in Dependence.—1. The Potential of Present or Future after a Past tense goes into the Past; the same is true of Deliberative Questions (465). On the other hand, the Potential of the Past must be retained even after a Present tense (467).

Videō causās esse permultās quae [Titum Rōscium] impellerent, C., Rosc. Am., 33, 92; I see that there are very many causes which might have impelled Titus Roscius. Quaerō a tē cur Gāium Cornēlium nōn défæderem, C., Vat., 2, 5 (467).


Remark.—The Sequence of Tenses is not unfrequently deranged by the attraction of parenthetic clauses or, especially in long sentences, by the shifting of the conception. Examples are C., Balb., i. 2; Ph., iii. 15, 39; Ac., ii. 18, 56, and many others.

Use of the Reflexive in Subordinate Sentences.

520. In subordinate clauses, the Reflexive is used with reference either to the subject of the principal, or to the subject of the subordinate, clause; and sometimes first to the one and then to the other.

521. The Reflexive is used of the principal subject when reference is made to the thought or will of that subject; hence, in Infinitive Sentences, in Indirect Questions, in Sen-
tences of Design, and in Sentences which partake of the Oblique Relation.

Sentit animus sē vi suā, nōn aliēnā moveri, C., Tusc., i. 23, 55; the mind feels that it moves by its own force, (and) not by that of another. Quaesīvērunt num sē esset etiam mortī prohibītūrus, C., Tusc., v. i. 14, 42 (516). Pompeius ā me petīvit ut sécum et apud sē essem cottīdiē, Cf. C., Att., v. 6, 1; Pompey asked me to be with him, and at his house, daily. Paetus omnēs librōs quōs frāter suus reliquisset mihi dōnāvit, C., Att., ii. 1, 12; Paetus presented to me all the books (as he said) that his brother had left (quōs frāter ēius reliquerat, would be the statement of the narrator).

Remarks.—1. Sentences of Tendency and Result have forms of is, when the subj. is not the same as that of the leading verb; otherwise the Reflexive:

Tarquinius sīc Servium dīligēbat ut is ēius vulgō habēretur filius, C., Rep. ii. 21, 38; Tarquin loved Servius so that he was commonly considered his son. But Tanta opibus Etrūria erat ut iam nōn terrās sōlum sed mare etiam fāmā nōminis suī impīlesset, L., i. 2, 5; so great in means (= so powerful) was Etruria that she had already filled not only the land, but even the sea, with the reputation of her name.

2. The Reflexive may refer to the real agent, and not to the grammatical subj. of the principal clause. (309, 2.)

Ā Caesare invītor sībi ut sim lēgātus, C., Att., ii. 18, 3; I am invited by Caesar (= Caesar invites me) to be lieutenant to him.

Especially to be noted is the freer use of suus (309, 4). The other forms are employed chiefly in reflexive formulae (309, 3), as sē recipere, to withdraw, etc.

(Rōmānī) sūl colligendī hostibus facultātem (nōn) relinquant, Caes., B. G., iii. 6, 1 (309, 3).

3. The Reflexive is used in general sentences, as one, one's self, etc. (309, 1): Déforme est dē sē ipsum praedicāre, C., Off., i. 38, 137; it is unseemly to be bragging about one's self.

With the Inf. this follows naturally from 420.

4. In Indic. relative sentences, which are mere circumlocutions (505), is is the rule:

Sōcratēs inhonestam sībī crēdīdit orātōnem quam eī Lysiās reō compo-
suerat, Quint., ii. 15, 30; Socrates believed the speech which Lysias had composed for him when he was arraigned, dishonoring to him.

Sometimes, however, the Reflexive is put contrary to the rule:

Metellus in īs urbibus quae ad sē dēfēcerant praeсидia impōnit, S., Iug., 61, 1; Metellus put garrisons in those towns which had gone over to him; regularly, ad eum.

Ille habet quod sībī dēbēbātur, Petr., 43, 1; he has his due; regularly, et.
5. Sometimes the Demonstrative is used instead of the Reflexive, because the narrator presents his point of view:

Solōn, quōā tūtior vita ēius esset, furere sē simulāvit, C., Off., i. 30, 108; Solon feigned madness that his life might be the safer. (The notion of Result intrudes.) Pompēius ignēs fieri prohibuit, quōā occultior esset ēius adventus, Caes., B.C., iii. 30, 5; Pompey forbade fires to be kindled in order that his approach might be the better concealed.

Notes.—1. Occasionally, principally in early Latin, the Reflexive seems to be used with the force merely of a third personal pronoun:

Vitis sē maera erit, sarmenta sua conditiō minūtē, Catō, Agr., 37, 3.

But sentences like eum fēcisse sēiunt quod sibi faciundum fuit (Pl., Pocen., 956), where the relative clause is but a circumlocution for officium suum, belong properly under n. 4. Similarly, C., Inv., i. 33, 55. In the sentence, Cicero tibi mandat, ut Aristōdōmō idem dē sē respondēs quod dē frātre sūb respondistī (C., Att., ii. 7, 5), dē frātre ēius would jar on account of the sē to which it refers.

2. Examples of Reflexives pointing both ways:

[Rōmanī] lēgātōs misērunt quā [Prūsīa] pereant nē īnimicissīsimum suum (= Rōmanōrum) apud sē (= Prūsiam) habēret, Nep., xxiii. 12, 2; the Romans sent ambassadors to ask Prūsias not to keep their bitterest enemy at his court. Agrippa Atticūm sēns frābat atque sociābat ut sē sībī suīsque reservaret, Cf. Nep., xxv. 22, 2; Agrippa begged and conjured Atticus with tears to save himself [Atticus] for him [Agrippa] and for his own family [Atticus].

Hopeless ambiguity:

Hērēs mens dare illi damnās estō omnīa sua, Quint., vii. 9, 12; my heir is to give him all that is his. .

3. For the sake of clearness, the subj. of the leading sentence is not unfrequently referred to in the form of the Demonstrative instead of the Reflexive:

(Helvētīō) Allobrogiōbus sēēs vel persuāsūrōs existimābant vel vī coāctūrōs ut per suūs finēs sēēs ire patenterunt, Caes., B.C., i. 6, 3; the Helvetians thought that they would persuade or force the Allobroges to let them [the Helvetians] go through their territory.

4. Ipse is always used in its proper distinctive sense; so, when it represents the speaker in Ò. 0. (660.)

Ēius and Suī.

522, Alexander morīēns ānulum suum dederat Perdīccae, Nep., xviii. 2, 1; Alexander, [when] dying, had given his ring to Perdīccas.

Perdīccās accēperat ēius ānulum, Perdīccas had received his ring.

Quārē Alexander declarāverat sē régnum eī commendāsse, thereby, Alexander had declared that he had committed the kingdom to him.

Ex quō Perdīccās coniēcerat eum régnum sībī commendāsse, from this Perdīccas had gathered that he had committed the kingdom to him.

Ex quō omnēs coniēcerant eum régnum eī commendāsse, from this, all had gathered that he had committed the kingdom to him.

Perdīccās pōstulāvit ut sē régem habērent cum Alexander ānulum sībī dedisset, Perdīccas demanded that they should have him for king, as Alexander had given the ring to him.

Amīci pōstulāverunt ut omnēs eum régem habērent cum Alexander ānu-
327

OBJECT SENTENCES.

523. Verbs of Doing, Perceiving, Conceiving, of Thinking and Saying, often take their object in the form of a sentence.

Notes.—1. These sentences are regarded, grammatically, as neuter substantives. The Accusative of neuter substantives is employed as a Nominative. Hence, a passive or intransitive verb may take an object sentence as a subject.

2. To object sentences belong also Dependent Interrogative clauses, which have been treated elsewhere for convenience of reference. See 452, i., n., 460, 467.

I. Object Sentences introduced by QUOD.

524. Clauses which serve merely as periphrases (circumlocutions) or expansions of elements in the leading sentence are introduced by quod, that.

Notes.—1. This usage seems to be in origin explanatory; that is, a demonstrative in the leading clause is explained by the quod clause. But as the relative can always include the antecedent demonstrative, the prevailing usage is without an antecedent. In any case, however, the connection is essentially relative.

2. The original relation of quod and its antecedent is adverbal. They are Accusatives of Extent, that = in that, and are to be classed under the Inner Object (332). But after transitive verbs quod and its antecedent are felt as Outer Objects, though whenever the notion of Cause intrudes (in that = because), the original relation comes back, as in causal sentences proper.

3. The antecedent demonstrative (whether omitted or inserted) would therefore be either the direct object of the verb or it would be in adverbal or prepositional relation. We have then two uses of the explanatory clause; (a) with verbe, with or without an antecedent demonstrative; (b) as explanatory of an antecedent (expressed or implied) in adverbal relation to the verb or dependent upon a preposition.

525. 1. Quod (the fact that, the circumstance that, in that) is used to introduce explanatory clauses, after verbs of Adding and Dropping, and after verbs of Doing and Happening with an adverb.

Adde huc quod perferrì litterae nullâ condicioâ potuœrant, Pollio (C., Fam., x. 31, 4); add to this the fact that letters could under no circumstances be got through. Adde quod ingenuâs didicisse fidèliter artês emollit mûres nec sinit esse ferês, Ov., Pont., ii. 9, 47; add (the fact) that to have acquired faithfully the accomplishments (education) of a gentleman, softens the character, and does not let it be savage. Praeterœ quod
eam sibi domum dēlēgit, C., Cluent., 66, 188; I pass over the fact that he chose that house for himself. Bene facis quod mē adiuvās, C., Fin., iii. 4, 16; you do well (in) that you help me. Accidit perincommodā quod eum nūscuam vidisti, C., Att., i. 17, 2; it happened very unfortunately that you saw him nowhere. Bene mihi ēvenit quod mittor ad mortem, C., Tusc., i. 41, 97; it is fortunate for me that I am sent to death (execution).

Notes.—1. Of verbs of Adding addicere is introduced by Livy, addere is cited once each from Accius (209, R.) and Terence (Ph., 168), then more often from Lucilius, Horace, and Ovid, but not from Cicero and Vergil. Accēdere is the passive of addere and occurs at all periods. Of verbs of Dropping, only praeterēō, mittō, and missitō (C., Att., viii. 3, 3) are cited (all classical).

2. Essē is found mostly in the combinations quid (hōc) est quod, why is it that, this is why, which are confined to early Latin: Sic quid est quod ego ad tē venīō? Pl., Mem., 677; hōc est quod ad vōs venīō, Pl., St., 127. Est quod, nihil est quod, etc., occur here and there before, but the effect of the negative on the mood is noteworthy. Compare positive sed est quod suscēnet tibi (Ter., And., 448); there is something that makes him angry with you, with negative nihil est iam quod mihi suspēnēsā (Pl., Merc., 317); there is nothing to make you angry with me.

3. To this group belongs the exclamatory interrogation Quid? quod, or quid quod — what of this, what?

Quid quod simulāc mihi collībitum est praestō est imāgō? C., N.D., i. 38, 108; what is to be said of the fact that the image presents itself as soon as I see it? (Nay, does not the image present itself?)

4. The use of quod after verbs of Doing and Happening is found first in Cicero; Plautus uses quia in this construction.

5. With several of the above-mentioned verbs ut can be employed, as well as quod (ut, of the tendency—quod, of the fact): Ad Appl. Claudī senectūtem accēdēbat ut etiam caecus esset, C., Cat.M., 6, 16 (553, 4), or, quod caecus erat. Accēdit quod patrem plus etiam quam ipse scīt amā, C., Att., xiii. 21, 7; besides, I love the father even more than he himself knows.

But when the action is prospective or conditional, ut must be used:

Additur ad hanc dēfīnītiōnem a Zenōne rectē ut illa opiniō praestēs mall sit recēns, C., Tusc., iii. 31, 75.

6. Quod with verbs of Motion as an adverbial Acc. is confined to early Latin and to venīō (Pl., Mem., 677) and mittō (Pl., Ps., 639).

7. The extension of quod to verba sentiendi et dicendi is very unusual. One example in early Latin (Pl., Asin., 52) is much disputed; conspicuous examples are C., Fam., iii. 8, 6; Caes., B.C., i. 23, 8, but a certain example is in b.Hipp. (10, 2), re-nuntiārunt quod habērent. The only case in Augustan poets is V., A., ix. 280; it is doubtful in Livy; perhaps twice in Tacitus (Ann., iii. 54; xiv. 6). In later Latin, from Petronius on, it becomes frequent.

2. Quod (in that, as to the fact that) is used to introduce explanatory clauses after demonstratives (expressed or implied), independent of the leading verb. See 627, r. 2.

Mihi quidem videntur hominēs hāc rē máximē bēstīs praestāre, quod loquī possunt, C., Inv., i. 4; to me men seem to excel beasts most in this, that they have the power of speech. Praeterquam quod fierī nōn potuit, nē fingi quidem potest, C., Div., ii. 12, 28; besides the fact that this could not be done, it could not even be made up. Nīl habet infelīx paupertās
object sentences.

329
dōrius in sē quam quod (= id quod) ridiculōs hominēs facit, Juv., iii. 152; unhappy poverty hath in itself nothing harder (to bear) than that it makes people ridiculous. Magnum beneficium [est] nātūrae quod nescē est morī, Sen., E. M., 101, 14 (204). Quod spirō et placeō, si placeō, tum est, H., O., iv. 3, 24; that I do breathe and please, if that I please, is thine.

Notes.—1. In early usage the antecedent is not common, but it is employed very often by Cicero, for the purposes of argument.

2. Prepositional usages with the Abl. are ex eō, dē eō, in eō, prō eō, cum eō quod. Of these cum eō quod, with the proviso that, is very rare, occurring but once in Cicero (Att., vi. 1, 7). The prepositional usages with the Acc. are ad id quod (only in Livy); super id quod (only in Tacitus); prae ter quod (Florus and late writers); prae quod (Plautus only). Similar is exceptō quod (Hor., Quint.). As prae ter and super are comparative in force, we find prae ter quam quod (early Latin, Cic., and later), super quam quod (only in Livy). Similar to prae ter quod is nisi quod (Plaut., Cicero [not Orations], Sall., Livy, and later). Tantum quod = nisi quod, once in Cicero (Verr., i. 45, 116) and is rare; tantum quod, temporal, "just," is colloquial, and found first in Cicero's Letters, then not till the post-Augustan period.

3. Quod, "as to the fact that," is combined also with the Subjv. in early Latin: quod ille gallinam sē sectāri dicat, etc. (Pl., M. G., 162). This is explained as being the Potential Subjv., inasmuch as all the examples cited involve supposed statements or actions of a second or third (often indefinite) person, which the speaker merely wishes to anticipate. The usage is occasional, also, later: C., Pis., 27, 60; Verr., v. 68, 175, and sporadically in Fronto and Gaius. Sometimes the idea of Partial Obliquity enters, as in C., Br., 18, 73, quod aequālis fuerit Livius, minor fuit aliquantō; Inv., ii. 29, 89, (reading doubtful).

In general the usage of quod, "as to the fact that," is familiar. Cicero uses it often in his Letters. But Caesar is fond of it too. Tacitus has it but once (Dial., 25).

3. The reigning mood is the Indicative. The Subjunctive is only used as in Īrātiō Obliqua.

Cum Castam accusārem nihil magis pressi quam quod accusātor ēius prae- vāricātiōnis crimine correisset, Plin., Ep., iii. 9, 34; when I accused Casta there was no point that I laid more stress on than (what I stated) "that her accusor had gone to pieces under a charge of collusion."

Remark.—Verbs of Emotion, such as Rejoicing, Sorrowing, etc., take quod with the Indic. or Subjunctive. See Causal Sentences, 539.

II. Object Sentences, with Accusative and Infinitive.

526. Preliminary Observation.—On the simple Infinitive as an object, see 423.

The Inf., as a verbal predicate, has its subject in the Accusative. (420.)

527. Active verbs of Saying, Showing, Believing, and Perceiving (verba sentiendi et declarandi), and similar expressions, take the Accusative and Infinitive:

Thalēs Milēsius aquam dixit esse initium rērum, C., N. D., i. 10, 25;
Thales of Miletus said that water was the first principle of things. [Solôn] furere sē simulāvit, C., Off., 1. 30, 108; Solon pretended to be mad. Medici causā morbi inventā curātiōnēm esse inventam putant, C., Tusc., 111. 10, 23; physicians think that, (when) the cause of disease (is) discovered, the method of treatment is discovered. Volucrēs vidēmus fingere et cōnstruere nīdōs, C., Or., 11. 6, 23; we see that birds fashion and build nests. Andiet cīvēs acuisse ferrum, H., O., 1. 2, 21; [the youth] shall hear that citizens gave edge to steel. Timāgenes auctor est omnium in litterīs studiōrum antiquissimam mūsicēn extitisse, Quint., 1. 10, 10; Timagenes is the authority (for the statement) that of all intellectual pursuits music was the most ancient.

The sentence very often passes over into the Acc. and Inf. (Ō. O.) without any formal notice.

Remarks.—1. Verba sentiendi comprise two classes, those of (a) Actual and those of (b) Intellectual Perception. Some verbs, such as sentīre, vidēre, cernere, audīre, belong to both classes. Otherwise the most common are:

(a) Cōnspicārī, cōnspicere, aspicere, sūspicere, prōspicere, also rarely tuērī and somniārē (early).

(b) Intelligere, cōgnōscere, commperīre, scire, nescire, and less commonly, but Ciceronian, discere, ignōrārē, accipere, animadvertere, perspicere, etc.

2. Verba dēclārandi can likewise be divided into two classes: (a) those of Actual and (b) those of Intellectual Representation; but the classes often fade into each other, or, rather, a verb of Intellectual Representation can be readily used as one of Actual Representation. In general, verbs of Intellectual Representation are those of Thinking, Remembering, Belief and Opinion, Expectation, Trust and Hope. Verbs of Actual Representation are those of Saying, Showing, Approving, Boasting, Pretending, Promising, Swearing, Threatening, Accusing (the last have more often quod). Verbs of Concluding belong always to both classes. The principal of these verbs are: putāre, dūcere, arbitrārī, cēnsēre, sūspicārī, crēdere, existimāre, meminisse, cōnfidere, spērāre, dēspērāre. Then dicere, ēdicere, affirmāre, cōnfirmāre, ādō (rare), loquī (rare), negāre, fatērī, nārrāre, trādere, scribere, nūntiāre, ostendere, probāre, glōriārī, dēmōnstrāre, persuādēre, significāre, pollicērī, prōmittere, minārī, simulāre, dissimulāre, etc.; conclūdere, colligere, efficere. Also pōnere, to suppose (rare), facere, to represent. Similar expressions are spēs est, opinīō est, fāma est, auctor sum, tēstis sum, certiōrem aliquem facere, etc.

3. When the subj. of the Inf. is a personal or reflexive pronoun, that subj. may be omitted—chiefly with Fut. Inf.—and then esse also is dropped. This occurs rarely in Cicero, more frequently in early Latin, Caesar, and later.
Refracturōs carcerem minēbantur, L., vi. 17, 6; they threatened to break open the jail.

4. The simple Inf. is often used in English, where the Latin takes Acc. and Infinitive. This is especially true of verbs of Hoping and Promising. Sperō mē hoc adeptūrum esse, I hope to (that I shall) obtain this. Prōmittēbat sē ventūrum esse, he promised to (that he would) come.

5. When the Acc. with the Inf. is followed by a dependent Acc., ambiguity may arise:

Āiō tē, Aeacidā, Rōmānōs vincere posse (C., Div., ii. 56, 116), in which tē may be subject or object.

Real ambiguity is to be avoided by giving the sentence a passive turn:

Āiō ā tē, Aeacidā, Rōmānōs vincī posse, I affirm that the Romans can be conquered by thee, son of Aeaicus.

Āiō tē, Aeacidā, ā Rōmānīs vincī posse, I affirm that thou, son of Aeaicus, canst be conquered by the Romans.

When the context shows which is the real subj., formal ambiguity is of no importance. But see Quint., vii. 9, 10.

Notes.—1. Verbs of Perception and Representation take the Part. to express the actual condition of the object of Perception or Representation (536). As there is no Pr. Part. pass., the Inf. must be used, and thus the difference between Intellectual and Actual Perception is effaced, sometimes even in the active, and, in fact, the use of the Part. is confined to authors who arc consciously influenced by a rivalry with the Greek.

Audiō civēs acuentēs ferrum, C. ii. 2, 21; I hear citizens sharpen(ing) the steel. Audiō ā civibus acuī ferrum, I hear that the steel is sharpened by citizens; or, the steel as it is sharpened by citizens. Octāvium (dolōre) confici vīdī, C., Fin., ii. 23, 33; I have seen Octavius (when he was) wearing out with anguish. Vīdī histriōnēs fientēs ēgredi, Quint., vi. 2, 35; I have seen actors leave the stage weeping.

(Platō) ā Deo aedificāri mundum facit, C., N.D., i. 8, 19; Plato makes out that the universe is built by God. Polyphēnum Hōmērus cum ariete conlocuentem facit, C., Tusc., v. 39, 115 (536). Fac, quaesō, qui ego sum esse tē, C., Fam., vii. 23, 1; suppose, I pray, yourself to be me.

2. The (Greek) attraction of the predicate of the Inf. into the Nom. after the Verb of Saying or Thinking, is poetical; the first example is Pl., Akin., 634.

Phasēlus ille, quem vidētis, hospitēs, ait fuisset nāvium celerrimus, Cat., iv. 1; that pinnacle yonder, which you see, my stranger guests, declares she used to be (claims to have been) the fastest craft afloat.

There is one example in Cicero (Agr., i. 21, 57).

3. The use of the Acc. and Inf. with verba déclārandi is an outgrowth of the use after verbs of Creation (423), just as in English "I declare him to be," is an extension of "I make him to be," in which Acc. and Inf. have each its proper force. This is the origin of the so-called Óratiō Obliqua, or Indirect Discourse, which represents not the exact language used, but the general drift, and in which the tenses of the Inf. seem to represent approximately the tenses of the Indicative. It was to complete the scheme of the Tenses that the Fut. Inf. was developed, and this is the sole use of that tense. The use of the Acc. and Inf. after verba sentiendi, like the use in English "I see him go," is more primitive, but the original case of the Inf. is no longer felt.
Nominative with Infinitive.

528. Passive verbs of Saying, Showing, Believing, and Perceiving:

1. In the Simple tenses prefer the personal construction, in which the Accusative Subject of the Infinitive appears as the Nominative Subject of the leading verb.

2. In the Compound tenses prefer the impersonal construction, which is the rule with Gerund and Gerundive.

Thus, instead of

Trādunt Homērum caecum fuisse, they say that Homer was blind,

we should have,

Trāditur Homērus caecus fuisse, Homer is said to have been blind,
or,

[Trāditum] est Homērum caecum fuisse, C., Tusc., v. 39, 114; there is a tradition that Homer was blind.

[Aristaeus] inventor olei esse dicitur, C., Verr., iv. 57, 128; Aristaeus is said to be the inventor of oil. Terentī fābellae propter elegantiam sermōnis putābantur ā Laelīō scribī, C., Att., vii. 3, 10; Terence’s plays, on account of the elegance of the language, were thought to be written by Laelius. [ṣī Velīōs migrābimus] āmisisse patriam vidēbimur, L., v. 53, 5; if we remove to Veji, we shall seem to have lost our country. Reus damnātum ēri vidēbātur, Quint., ix. 2, 88 (435, n. 4). Crēditur Pythagoraς auditōrem fuisse Numam, L., xl. 29, 8; it is believed that Numa was a hearer of Pythagoras.

But:

[Venerem] Adōnidī nūpsisse prōditum est, C., N.D., iii. 23, 59; it is recorded that Venus married Adonis. (Philōnem) existimandum est disertum fuisse, C., Or., i. 14, 62; we must suppose that Philo was eloquent.

Remarks.—1. The impersonal construction is the rule if a Dat. is combined with the verb: mihī nūntiābātur Parthōs trānsisse Euphrātem, C., Fam., xv. 1, 2; it was announced to me that the Parthians had crossed the Euphrates.

2. Various peculiarities are noteworthy in the matter of these verbs. Thus, dicitur usually means it is maintained, dictum est, it is said. Crēditur, etc. (impersonal), is the regular form in classical prose; the personal construction is poetical and late. Vidēri is used, as a rule, personally; the impersonal construction vidētur is rare. The active forms trādunt, crēdunt, etc., are everywhere common.
TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

NOTES.—1. In early Latin the personal construction is found with argui, cluère (a virtual passive), dicí, existimári, inveniri, inbéri, nuntiári, perhibéri, reperiári. All these, except cluère, are retained in the classical period. Cicero and Caesar add twenty-five new verbs, and from this time on the construction increases.

2. Virtual passives, on the analogy of cluère, are rare; apparere, constare, venire in suspicionem, are Ciceronian; so also opus est in [C.], Fam., xi. 11, 2, and perhaps Ter., And., 337.

3. A second clause following a Nom. with the Inf. takes its subj. in the Accusative C., Or., n. 74, 299.

4. In verbs of Saying, except dicí (compare Tac., Ann., iv. 34, 3), the personal construction is confined to the third person. The poets are free in treating verbs under this head.

Tenses of the Infinitive with Verba Sentíendi et Déclárandi.

529. The Infinitive denotes only the stage of the action, and determines only the relation to the time of the leading verb (281).

530. After verbs of Saying, Showing, Believing, and Perceiving, and the like,

The Present Infinitive expresses contemporaneous action;
The Perfect Infinitive expresses prior action;
The Future Infinitive expresses future action.

Remark.—The action which is completed with regard to the leading verb may be in itself a continued action. So in English: I have been studying, I had been studying. Hence, the Impf. Indic. (I was studying) is represented in this dependent form by the Pf. Inf., because it is prior to the leading verb.

In this table the Present is taken as the type of the Principal, the Imperfect as the type of the Historical, Tenses.

531. Contemporaneous Action.

ACTIVE.

P. T. Dicit: tē errāre,
He says, that you are going wrong,
tē dēcipi,
that you are (being) deceived (217, R.).

H. T. Dicēbat: tē errāre,
He was saying, that you were going wrong,
tē dēcipi,
that you were (being) deceived.

Prior Action.

P. T. Dicit: tē errāsse,
He says, that you have gone wrong,
that you went wrong,
that you have been going wrong,
tē dēceptum esse,
that you have been (are) deceived,
that you were deceived (Aor.),
(that people have been deceiving you).
II. T. Dicēbat: tē errāsse,
_He was saying, that you had gone wrong,_
that you went wrong,
that you had been going wrong,
tē dēceptum esse,
that you had been deceived,
that you were deceived (Aor.),
(that people had been deceiving you).

Subsequent Action.

P. T. Dicit: tē errātūrum esse,
_He says, that you (are about to go wrong), will (be) going wrong,_
tē dēceptum īri,
that you (are going to) will be deceived.

II. T. Dicēbat: tē errātūrum esse,
_He was saying, that you were about to (would) go wrong,_
tē dēceptum īri,
that you were going to (would) be deceived.

Periphrastic Future.

The following form (the Periphrastic Future) is necessary when the verb has no Sup. or Fut. participle. It is often formed from other verbs to intimate an interval, which cannot be expressed by other forms, and is more common in the passive than the Fut. Inf. pass. of the paradigms.

P. T. Dicit: fore (futūrum esse) ut errās (metuās),
fore (futūrum esse) ut errāverīs (rare),
fore ut dēciπiāris (metuāris),
fore ut dēceptus sīs (rare), usuall y dēceptus fore (not futūrum esse).

H. T. Dicēbat: fore (futūrum esse) ut errārēs (metuerēs),
errāssēs (rare),
dēceptum fore (rarely: fore ut dēceptus essēs).

Foremen.—1. For examples of the Periphrastic, see 248.
_Carthaginienses debellātum mox fore rebantur, L., xxiii. 23, 6;_ the Carthaginians thought that the war would soon be (have been) brought to an end. From debellātum erit, _it will be (have been) brought to an end._ So in the deponent adep tum fore.

2. Ponderous periphrastics are of rare occurrence. So fētiāles dēcrēvērunt utrum eōrum fecisset rēctē factūrum (L., xxxi. 8); not fore ut fecisset, although the Ō. R. requires utrum fecerīs, rēctē fecerīs. (244, r. 4.) See Weissenborn's note.

3. Posse, velle, etc., do not require the Periphrastic, and seldom take it. (248, r.)

4. Spērāre, to hope, prōmittere (pollicēri), to promise, which regularly take the Fut. Inf., have occasionally the Pr. when an immediate realisation of the hope is anticipated. With spēs est the Pr. Inf. is more common.

Lēgātī veniunt qui pollicebantur obsidēs dare, Caes., B. G., iv. 21, 5; ambassadors come to promise the giving of (to give) hostages.

So, too, when the Fut. Inf. is not available, sometimes also when it is, posse and the Pr. is a fair substitute. Tōtīus Galliāe sēsē putrī posse (= potitūrōs esse) spērānt, Caes., B. G., i. 3, 8; they hope they can (will) get possession of the whole of Gaul. See 423, n. 5.

Of course spērāre may be used simply as a verb of Thinking.


Accusative and Infinitive with Verbs of Will and Desire.

532. Verbs of Will and Desire take a Dependent Accusative and Infinitive.

The relation is that of an Object to be Effected.

Si vis me flère, dolendum est primum ipsi tibi, H., A. P., 102; if you wish me to weep, you must first feel the pang yourself. Utrum [Milônis] corporis an Pythagorae tibî mâtis virès ingenii dari? C., Cat. M., 10, 33; which (whether) would you rather have given to you, Milo’s strength of body or Pythagoras’ strength of mind? Ipse iubet mortis tê meminisse deus, Mart., II. 59 (376). Vitâe summa brevis spem nôs vetat inchoâre longam, H., O., i. 4, 15 (423, n. 6). Nêmô ire quemquam publicâ prohibet viâ, Pl., Cure., 35 (389). Germanî vinum ad sê omnînô importâtî nôn sinunt, Caes., B.G., iv. 2, 6; the Germans do not permit wine to be imported into their country at all.

Remarks.—1. A list of these verbs is given in 423, n. 2.

2. When the subj. of the Inf. is the same as the subj. of the leading verb, the subj. of the Inf. is usually not expressed:

Nî pârêre velis, perundum erit ante lucernâs, Juv., x. 339; unless you resolve to obey, you will have to perish before candle-light. Et iam mäl-let equôs numquam tetigisse paternôs, Ov., M., ii. 182; and now he could have wished rather never to have touched his father’s horses.

But the subj. may be expressed, and commonly is expressed, when the action of the Inf. is not within the power of the subject; so especially with an Inf. passive:

(Timoleôn) mâruit sê dilígî quam metuî, Nep., xx. 3, 4; Timoleon preferred that he should be loved rather than that he should be feared.

Ego rûs abitûram mês certû dêcrêvi, Ter., Hec., 586. Princîpem sê esse mävult quam vidéri, C., Off., i. 19, 65.

Notes.—1. On the construction of this class of verbs with ut (nê, quôminus), see 546. Imperô, I command, in model prose takes only the Inf. passive or deponent; in Sallust, Hirtius, Curtius, Tacitus, and the Poets sometimes the active.

(Hannibal) imperâvit quam plûrimâs venênâtâs serpentes vivâs colligî, Nep., 23, 10; Hannibal ordered as many poisonous serpents as possible to be caught alive.

Permittô seldom takes the Inf. (e.g., C., Verr., v. 9, 22); the Acc. with Inf. begins in Tacitus; concedô takes Inf. pass. only, in classical prose. Iubeô, I bid; sinô, I let; vetô, I forbid; prohibeô, I prohibit, always have the Inf. of passive verbs. With sinô and vetô the model construction is Inf. only. Sinô takes ut occasionally in early and late Latin, vetô does not have nê till in the post-Ciceronian period. Iubeô takes ut when it is applied to decrees of the Senate, and from Livy on when used of the orders of generals; prohibeô takes nê and quôminus. These verbs may themselves be turned into the passive: iubeôr, sinôr, vetôr, prohibeôr.

2. After iubeô, I bid, and vetô, I forbid, the Inf. act. can be used without a subj. (even an imaginary or indefinite one):

Iubet reddere, he bids return (orders the returning).
Accusative and Infinitive with Verbs of Emotion.

533. Verbs of Emotion take a dependent Accusative and Infinitive, inasmuch as these verbs may be considered as verbs of Saying and Thinking. (542.)

Salvom tē advēnisse gaudeō, Ter., Ph., 286 ; I rejoice that you should have arrived safe (to think that you have arrived safe, at your arriving safe). Quod salvos advēnisti, that you have arrived safe. Quod salvos advēnisti, that (as you say) you have arrived safe.

İnferiōres nón dolēre [débent] sē ē suis dignitāte superāri, C., Lael., 20, 71; inferiors ought not to consider it a grievance that they are surpassed in rank by their own (friends).

Remarks.—1. This construction, outside of a few verbs, is not common, though found in a wide range of authors. Gaudēre, laetārī, dolēre, querī (beginning in Cic.), mirārī, are common; in addition CICERO uses, rarely, however, more than once each, maerēre, lūgēre, cōnści, discruclārī, angī, sollicitārī, indignārī, fremere, dēmirārī, admirārī, subsesse timōrem. Early Latin shows ridēre (NAEV.), gestēre, mihi dolet (TER.), maestus sum (PLAUT.), cruciārī (PLAUT.), lāmentārī (PLAUT., HOR.), sūspīrāre (LUCR.), incendor frā (TER.), ferōx est (PLAUT.), invidēre (PLAUT., HOR.), formidārē, verērī, in addition to the common gaudoēre, etc., already cited.

2. On the Participle after a verb of Emotion, 536, n. 2.

Accusative and Infinitive in Exclamations.

534. The Accusative with the Infinitive is used in Exclamations and Exclamatory Questions as the object of an unexpressed thought or feeling.

Hem, mea lūx, tē nunc, mea Terentia, sic vexārī, C., Fam., xiv. 2, 2; h'm, light of my life, for you to be so harassed now, Terentia dear. Hominemne Rōmānum tam Graecō loquī? PLIN., Ep., iv. 3, 5; a Roman speak such good Greek? (To think that a Roman should speak such
good Greek.) Mêne inceptô désistere—? V., A., i. 37; I—desist from my undertaking? Hinc abire mātrem? Ter., Hec., 612; mother go away from here?

Remarks.—1. Different is quod, which gives the ground.

Ei mihi quod nūllis amor est sānābilis herbis, Ov., M., i. 523; woe's me that (in that, because) love is not to be cured by any herbs.

2. On ut, with the Subjv. in a similar sense, see 558. Both forms offer an objection.

Accusative and Infinitive as a Subject.

535. The Accusative with the Infinitive may be treated as the Subject of a sentence. The Predicate is a substantive or neuter adjective, an impersonal verb or abstract phrase.

In the English "for—to," the "for" belongs not to the case but to the Infinitive, but the object relation has been effaced here as it has been in Latin. See 422, n. 1.

Est inūsitātum régem reum capitis esse, C., Dei., i. 1; it is an extraordinary thing that a king should (for a king to) be tried for his life. Facinus est vincire cīvem Rōmānum, C., Verr., v. 66, 170; it is an outrage to put a Roman citizen in chains. Necesse est facere sāmptum quī quaerit (= eum quī quaerīt) lucrum, Pl., As., 218; need is that he make outlay who an income seeks. Lēgēm brevem esse oportet, quō facilius ab imperitis teneātur, Sen., E.M., 94, 38; it is proper that a law should be brief (a law ought to be brief), that it may the more easily be grasped by the uneducated. Quīd Milōnis intererat interfīcī Clōdium, C., Mil., 13, 34 (382, 2). Opus est tē animō valēre, C., Fam., xvi. 14, 2 (406, n. 5).

Remarks.—1. A list of expressions taking the Inf. as a subj. is given in 422, n.n.

2. Oportet, it is proper, and necesse est, must needs, are often used with the Subjunctive. So also many other phrases with ut. (See 557.)

Necesse also takes the Dat. of the Person:

Ut culpēnt alīt, tibi mē laudāre necesse est, Ov., Her., 12, 13; let others blame, but you must give me praise.

3. When the indirect obj. of the leading verb is the same as the subj. of the Inf. the predicate of the subj. is put in the same case as the indirect object; in standard prose chiefly with licet, it is left (free); in poetry and later prose with necesse, with satius est, it is better, contingit, it happens, vacat, there is room.

Licuit esse ōtīsō Themistoclī, C., Tusc., i. 15, 33; Themistocles was free to live a life of leisure.

The Acc. is occasionally found; always if the Dat. is not expressed.

Mediōs esse iam nōn licēbit (nōs), C., Att., x. 8, 4; it will no longer be allowable to be neutral.
Object Sentences Represented by the Participle.

536. The Participle is used after verbs of Perception and Representation, to express the actual condition of the object of perception or representation.

Catēnem vidī in bibliothēcā sedentem multīs circumfūsus Stōicōrum libris, C., Fin., III. 2, 7; I saw Cato sitting in the library with an ocean of Stoic books about him. Prōdigā nōn sentit pereuntem femīna cēnum, Juv., VI. 362; the lavish woman does not perceive (how) the income (is) dwindling. Saepe illam audīvi furtīva vōce loquentem, Cat., LXVII. 41; I have often heard her talking in a stealthy (in an under-) tone. Gaudē quod spectant ocūlt tē mille loquentem, II., Ep., I. 6, 19 (542). Polyphemum Homērus cum ariete conloquentem facit, C., Tusc., V. 39, 115; Homer represents Polyphemus (as) talking with the ram.

Notes.—1. This construction is found but once in early Latin (Piso), then in Cicerō, SALLUST, NEPOS, VITRUVIUS, LIVY, HORACE. The naturalisation of it is due to Cicero, and other students of Greek models. The poverty of Latin in participles was a serious drawback to the convenient distinction from the Infinitive; and it may be said that the participle was never perfectly at home.

2. On the Inf., see 537, n. 1. The Greek construction of Part. agreeing with the leading Nom. after verbs of Perception and Emotion, is rare and poetical:

Gaudent scribentēs, H., Ep., II. 2, 107; they have joy while writing. Sensit mediōs dēlāpus in hostēs, V., A., II. 377; he perceived (ii) having fallen (that he had fallen) 'midst the enemy. Gaudent perfūsī sanguine frātrum, V., G., II. 510; they rejoice, bedrenched with brothers' blood.

537. The Perfect Participle Passive is used after verbs of Causation and Desire, to denote impatience of anything except entire fulfilment:

Si qui voluptātibus dūcantur missōs faciunt honōrēs, C., Sest., 66, 138; if any are led captive by sensual pleasures, let them dismiss honours (at once and forever). Hunc mandēs si quid rectē cūrātum velis, Ter., Ad., 372; you must intrust to him whatever you want properly attended to.

Notes.—1. After verbs of Will and Desire, the Inf. esse is occasionally found with this Part., and hence it may be considered a Pf. Infinitive (290, 2, c). Compare, however, Pf. Part. pass. with opus est, usus est (406).

2. The verbs of Causation thus employed are cūrēre, dare, facere, reddere. The usage is most common in early Latin. In the classical period only missum facere.

Causal Sentences.

538. Causal sentences are introduced:

1. By quia, because, quod, (in that) because.
2. By quoniam (quom iam), now that, quandō, quandō- quidem, since.

{(Cause Proper.)}
Causal Sentences with QUOD, QUA, QUONIAM, and QUANDÔ.

339. Causal sentences with quod, quia, quoniam, and quandô are put in the Indicative, except in oblique relation (Partial or Total).

Remark.—The other person of the oblique clause may be imaginary, and the writer or speaker may quote from himself indirectly:

Laetatus sum, quod mihi liceret recta defendere, C., Fam., i. 9, 18; I was glad (to say to myself) that I was free to champion the right.

540. Causal sentences with quod, quia, quoniam, and quandô take the Indicative in Direct Discourse.

Torquatus filium suum quod is contrà imperium in hostem pugnaverat necâri iussit, S., C., 52, 30; Torquatus bade his son be put to death because he had fought against the enemy contrary to order(s) [quod pugnasset = because, as Torquatus said or thought]. Amantès dê fòrmâ iùdicâre nòn possunt, quia sènsum oculòrum praecipit animus, Quint., vi. 2, 6; lovers cannot judge of beauty, because the heart forestalls the eye. Quia nàtûra mútâri nòn potest idcirco véræ amicitiae sempiternae sunt, C., Lael., 9, 32; because nature cannot change, therefore true friendships are everlasting. Neque mē vixisse paenitet quoniam ita vixi ut nòn frûstrâ mē nátum existuìm, C., Cat. M., 23, 84; and I am not sorry for having lived, since I have so lived that I think I was born not in vain. Sélûs erô quoniam nòn licet esse tuum, Prop., ii. 9, 46; I shall be alone since I may not be thine. Voluptâs semovenda est quandô ad màiôra quaedam nàti sumus, Cf., C., Fin., v. 8, 21; pleasure is to be put aside.
because we are born for greater things. Erant quibus appetentior fāmæ [Helvidius] viderētur quandō etiam sapientibus cupīdō glōriæ novissima exuitur, Tac., H., iv. 6, 1; there were some to whom Helvidius seemed too eager for fame, since, even from the wise, ambition is the last (infirmity) that is put off. Sequitur ut liberātōrēs (sint), quandōquidem tertium nihil potest esse, C., Ph., ii. 13, 31.

541. Causal sentences with quod, quia, quoniam, and quandō take the Subjunctive in Oblique Discourse (Partial or Total).

Noctū ambulābat in públicō Themistoclēs quod somnum capere nōn posset, C., Tusc., iv. 19, 44; Themistocles used to walk about in public at night because (as he said) he could not get to sleep. Aristidēs nōnne ob eam causam expulsus est patriā quod praeter modum iūstus esset? C., Tusc., v. 96, 105; (there is) Aristides; was he not banished his country for the (alleged) reason “that he was unreasonably just”? [Nē] compōne comās quīa sīs ventūrus ad ilλam, Ov., Rem. Am., 670 (517). Quoniam (so most MSS.) ipse prō sē dīcere nōn posset, verba fēcit frāter eīus Stēsagogrās, Nēp., i. 7, 5; “as [Miltiades] could not speak for himself,” his brother, Stesagoras, made a speech. (Indirect quotation from the speech of Stesagoras.)

A good example is Pl., M. G., 1412–15.

NOTES.—1. Quia is the usual particle in the causal sense in Plautus, quod being very rare; but quod is more common in Terence, and is the regular particle in classical prose (Caesar has but one case of quia), though the use of quia revives in post-classical Latin. Cicero makes a point on the difference in meaning in Rosc. Am., 50, 145: concēdō et quod (by reason of the fact that) animus sequus est, et quia (because) neceō est.

2. A rejected reason is introduced by nōn quod with the Subjv. (as being the suggestion of another person). The Indic., which is properly used of excluded facts, is also used of flat denials, like the negative and Indic. in the independent sentence, but the Subjv. is the rule. Nōn quia is the rule in early Latin, but classical prose shows very few examples. From Livy on it becomes common. Other equivalents are nōn quō, nōn eō quod, nōn eō quō; further, nōn quīn for nōn quō nōn. All of these are found with Subjv. only. The corresponding affirmative is given by sed quod or sed quia indiscriminately, regularly with the Indicative.

Subjunctive:

Pugilēs in factandīs caestibus ingemēscunt, nōn quod doleant, sed quia profundēndā vōce omne corpus intenditur venīteque plāga vehementior, C., Tusc., ii. 23, 56; boxers in plying the caestus heave groans, not that (as you might suppose) they are in pain, but because in giving full vent to the voice all the body is put to the stretch and the blow comes with a greater rush. Māiōrēs nostri in dominum dé servō quaerīt nōlērunt; nōn quīn possēt vērum invenīrī, sed quia vidēbātur indīgnātum esse, C., Mil., 22, 59; our ancestors would not allow a slave to be questioned by torture against his master, not because (not as though they thought) the truth could not be got at, but because such a course seemed degrading. A [Lacedaemonīōrum exulībus] prætor vim arcerat, nōn quia salvōs vellet sed quia pērēre causā indīctā nōlēbat, L., xxxviii. 33, 11; the prætor had warded off violence from the
Locadaemonian exiles, not (as you might have supposed) because he wished them to escape, but because he did not wish them to perish with their case not pleaded (unheard).

The same principle applies to *magis quod* (quō), *quia—quam quō* (first in Cicero), *quod* (first in Sallust), *quia* (first in Livy), with the moods in inverse order.

Liberātās originem inde, magis quia annuum imperium consulāre factum est quam quō déminītūm quidquam sit ex régii potestāte, numerēs, L., ii. 1. 7; you may begin to count the origin of liberty from that point, rather because the consul government was limited to a year, than because owning was taken away from the royal power.

Indicative:

Sum nōn dicam miser, sed certē exercitus, nōn quia multīs dēbeō sed quia saepe concurrunt aligōrum bene de mé meritōrum inter ipsōs contentiōnēs, C., Planc. 32, 78; I am, I will not say, wretched, but certainly worried, not because I am in debt to many, but because the rival claims of some who have deserved well of me often conflict. Compare also H., S., ii. 2, 89.

3. Verbs of Saying and Thinking are occasionally put in the Subjv. with *quod* by a kind of attraction. Compare 538, n. 3.

Impetrāre nōn potui, quod religiōne sē impedit dicerent, C., Fam., iv. 12, 3; I could not obtain permission, because they said they were embarrassed (prevented) by a religious scruple (= *quod impedifrentur*, because (as they said) they were prevented).

This attraction is said to occur not infrequently in Cicero, several times in Caesar and Sallust, but is not cited from any other author. Compare, however, crēderent, L., xxl. i. 3.

4. On the use of *tanquam*, etc., to indicate an assumed reason, see 602, n. 4.

5. *Quandōque* is archaic and rare. It is found first in the Twelve Tables, a few times in Cicero and Livy, three times in Horace, and occasionally later.

6. Causal sentences may be represented by a participle (669), or by the relative (636).

**QUOD with Verbs of Emotion.**

542. Quod is used to give the ground of Emotions and Expressions of Emotion, such as verbs of Joy, Sorrow, Surprise, Satisfaction and Anger, Praise and Blame, Thanks and Complaint.

The rule for the Mood has been given already: 539.

Indicative:

Gaudē quod spectant oculī tē mille loquentem, H., Ep., i. 6, 19; rejoice that a thousand eyes are gazing at you (while you are) speaking. Dolet mihi quod tē nunc stomachiāris, C., ad Br., i. 17, 6; it pains me that you are angry now. Quintum paenitet quod animum tuum offendit, Cf. C., Att., xii. 13, 2 (377, r. 3). Invat mē quod vigent studia, Plin., Ep., i. 13, 1; I am charmed that studies are flourishing. Trīstis es? indignor quod sum tibi causa dolōris, Ov., Tr., iv. 3, 33; are you sad? I am provoked (with myself) that I am a cause of pain to you. Tibi grātiās agō, quod mē omnī molestiā liberāstī, C., Fam., xiii. 62; I thank you, that you freed me from all annoyance.

Subjunctive:

Gaudet miles quod vicerit hostem, Ov., Tr., ii. 49; the soldier rejoices
at having conquered the enemy. Neque mihi umquam veniet in mentem poneitëre quod a me ipse non dèciverim, C., Att., II. 4, 2; it will never occur to me to be sorry for not having been untrue to myself. Laudat Africànum Panætius quod fuerit abstînens, C., Off., II. 22, 76; Panætius praises Africanus for having been abstinent. Némô est orátorem quod Latinë loqueréatur admiratús, C., Or., III. 14, 52; no one (ever) admired an orator for speaking (good) Latin. Socratész accusatús est quod corrumpéret inventútem, Quint., IV. 4, 5; Socrates was accused of corrupting youth. Memini gloriári solitum esse Quintum Hortënsiam quod numquam bellō civили interfuisse, C., Fam., II. 16, 3; I remember that Quintus Hortënsius used to boast of never having engaged in civil war. Agunt grátiás quod sibí pepercissent, Caes., B.C., I. 74, 2 (511, r. 1).

Remark.—This class of verbs may be construed with the Acc. and Inf.: salvom tē advénisse gaudeó (553) ; also with quia, principally in early Latin, and in Cicero’s Letters, then occasionally in Livy, Tacticus, Suetonius, and later. But in Expressions of Praise and Blame, Thanks and Complaint, quod is more common. *On cum, see 564, n. 2.

Amō tē et nōn néglëxisse habēo grátiam, Ter., Ph., 54; I love you (= much obliged), and I am thankful to you for not having neglected (it). Grátulor ingeniun nōn latuisses tuum, Ov., Tr., I. 9, 54; I congratulate (you) that your genius has not lain hidden. [Isocrates] queritur plús honôris corporum quam animórum virtútibus dārī, Quint., III. 8, 9; Isocrates complains that more honour is paid to the virtues of the body than to those of the mind.

Notes.—1. Perplexing Emotion (Wonder) may be followed by a Conditional, or by a Dependent Interrogative, as in English, but this construction is not found in Vergil, Caesar, Sallust, and is never common. *Mírоро sī [Tarquinius] quemquam amicum habêre potuit, C., Lael., 15, 54; I wonder if Tarquin could ever have had a friend.

Besides miror (and mirum), there is one case of gaudeó sī in Cicero (Verr., IV. 17, 37), and a few cases after expressions of Fear in Tacticus. There are also sporadic cases of indignári (indignatás) sī.

2. Noteworthy is the phrase mirum (-a) nī (nisi), ‘tis a wonder that—not, which belongs to the colloquialisms of early Latin (Pl., Capt., 820), but reappears once in Livy.

SENTENCES OF DESIGN AND TENDENCY.

543. 1. Sentences of Design are commonly called Final Sentences. Sentences of Tendency are commonly called Consecutive Sentences. Both contemplate the end—the one, as an aim; the other, as a consequence.

2. They are alike in having the Subjunctive and the particle ut (how, that), a relative conjunction.
3. They differ in the Tenses employed. The Final Sentence, as a rule, takes only the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. Consecutive Sentences may take also Perfect and Pluperfect.

4. They differ in the kind of Subjunctive employed. The Final Sentence takes the Optative. The Consecutive Sentence takes the Potential. Hence the difference in the Negative.

Final: nē (ut nē), Consecutive: ut nōn, that not.

nē quis, ut nēmō, that no one.
nē āllus, ut nūllus, that no.
nē umquam, (nē quandō,) ut numquam, that never,
nē āsquam, (nēcobī,) ut nāsquam, that nowhere.
nē aut—aut, (ut nēve—nēve,) ut neque—neque, that neither—nor.

Remarks.—1. Verbs of Effecting have the Final Sequence.
2. Verbs of Hindering have the sequence of the Final Sentence, but often the signification of the Consecutive.
3. Verbs of Fearing belong to the Final Sentence only so far as they have the Optative Subjunctive; the subordinate clause is only semidependent upon the principal, and we have a partial survival of original parataxis.

Notes.—1. Inasmuch as the Subjv. cannot express a fact, the Latin Consecutive clause does not properly express actual result, but only a tendency, which may, we infer, lead to a result. To obviate this difficulty, the Latin has recourse to the circumlocations with accidit, evenit, etc.
2. It is to be remarked that the difference between Final and Consecutive often consists only in the point of view. What is final from the point of view of the doer is consecutive from the point of view of the spectator; hence the variation in sequence after verbs of Effecting. A frustrated purpose gives a negative result; hence the variation in negative after verbs of Hindering.
3. Here and there in Cicero, more often in Livy and later writers, instead of nēve (neu), a second clause is added by neque, the force of the final particle being felt throughout the sentence.

Monitor tuus suādebit tibi ut hinc discēdās neque mihi verbum āllum respondeās, C., Div. in Caec., 16, 52; your adviser will counsel you to depart hence and answer me never a word.

544. Final Sentences are divided into two classes:

I. Final Sentences in which the Design is expressed by the particle; Pure Final Sentences (Sentences of Design).

Oportet ēsse, ut vivās, nōn vivere ut edās, [C.], ad Her., iv. 28, 39; you must eat in order to live, not live in order to eat.
This form may be translated by, *in order* to; sometimes by *that may, that might, that*, with the Subjunctive and the like.

II. Final Sentences in which the Design lies in the leading verb (*verba studii et voluntatis*, verbs of Will and Desire); Complementary Final Sentences.

Volò uti mihi respondeäs, C., Vat., 7, 17; *I wish you to answer me.*

This form is often rendered by *to*, never by *in order to*, sometimes by *that* and the Subjunctive, or some equivalent.

Of the same nature, but partly Final and partly Consecutive in their sequence, are:

Verbs of Hindering.

Peculiar in their sequence are:

III. Verbs of Fearing.

Remarks.—1. The use of the Subjv. with Temporal Particles often adds a final sense, inasmuch as the Subjv. regularly looks forward to the future. So *sòm, dòneec, quoad* (572), *antequam, priusquam* (577).

2. The general sense of a Final Sentence may also be expressed:

(1) By the Relative *qui* with the Subjunctive. (630.)

(2) By the Genitive of Gerund or Gerundive, with (seldom without) *causâ* or *grätia*. (428, n. 2.)

(3) By *ad* with Gerund and Gerundive. (432.)

(4) By the Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive. (429, 2.)

(5) By the Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive after verbs of Giving, *etc*. (430.)

(6) By the Accusative Supine after verbs of Motion. (435.)

(7) By the Future Participle Active (post-Ciceronian). (438, n.)

(8) By the Infinitive (poetic and rare). (421, n. 1, a.)

I. Pure Final Sentences.

545. Pure Final Sentences are introduced by:

1. *Ut* (*uti*) (*how*) *that*, and other relative pronouns and adverbs. (630.)

*Ut* and *né* are often preceded by a demonstrative expression, such as: *idcirco*, therefore; *eò, to that end*; *propterea*, on that account; *eò consilio*, with that design; *eà causâ*, *ré*, for that reason.

2. *Quò = ut eò, that thereby*; with comparatives, *that the... —*;
3. *Nē, that not, lest, continued by nēve, nev.* (444.)

Oportet esse, ut vivās, nōn vivere ut edās, [C.], *ad Hēr.*, iv. 28, 39 (544, I.). Inventā sunt specula, ut homō ipsum sē nōsset, *Sen.*, *N. Q.*, i. 17, 4; mirrors were invented, to make man acquainted with himself. Ut amēris, amābilis estō, *Ov.*, *A. A.*, ii. 107; that you may be loved (to make yourself loved, in order to be loved), be lovely. Lēgem brevem esse oporet, quō facilius a īmperītīs teneātur, *Sen.*, *E. M.*, 94, 38 (535). [Senex] serit arborēs, quae alterī saecūlō prōsint, *Caecilius* (C., *Tusc.*, i. 14, 31); the old man sets out trees, to do good to the next generation. Semper habē Pyladēn alīquem qui ēaret Orestēm, *Ov.*, *Rem. Am.*, 589; always have some Pylades, to tend Orestes. [Athēniēnsēs] creant decem praetōrēs qui ēxercitū praesēnt, *Nep.*, i. 4, 4; the Athenians make ten generals to command their army. [Māgnēsiam Themistoclī Artaxerxēs] urbēm dōnārat, quae ā pānēm prāebēret, *Nep.*, i. 10, 3; Artaxerxes had given Themistocles the city of Magnesia, to furnish him with bread. Gallīnae pennis fovent pulēs, nē frigōra laēdantur, *Cf. C.*, *N. D.*, ii. 52, 129; hens keep (their) chickens warm with (their) wings, that they may not be (to keep them from being) hurt by the cold. Dionysius, nē collum tōnsōrī committeret, tondēre filiās suās docēt, C., *Tusc.*, v. 20, 58 (423, n. 6).

Remarks.—1. Ut nē is found for nō with apparently no difference in signification, occasionally at all periods, but not in *Caesar*, *Sallust*, *Livy*. Quō without comparative is rare and cited only from *Plautus*, *Terence*, *Sallust*, *Ovid*, and late Latin; quōnē (= ut nē) is not found till the time of *Dionysius*; apparent examples in classical Latin are to be otherwise explained. Quōminus and quīn occur in special uses.

2. Ut nōn is used when a particular word is negativē:

Cōnfer tē ad Māllium, ut nōn ēiectus ad aliēnsēs sed invitātus ad tuōs isse videāris, C., *Cat.*, i. 9, 23; betake yourself to Mallius, that you may seem to have gone not as an outcast to strangers but as an invited guest to your own (friends).

3. Ut and nē are used parenthetically at all periods, depending on a suppressed word of Saying or the like.

Utque magis stupeās lūdēs Paridēmquē reliquit, *Juvi.*, vi. 87; and to stun you more (I tell you that) she left Paris and the games.

The verb of Saying may be inserted: atque ut omnēs intellegant dicō, C., *Imp.*, iii. 20; and that all may understand, I say.

II. Complementary Final Sentences.

A. Verbs of Will and Desire.

546. Complementary Final Sentences follow verbs of Willing and Wishing, of Warning and Beseeching, of Urg-
ing and Demanding, of Resolving and Endeavouring (verba studii et voluntatis).


Volō utī mihi respondeās, C., Vat., 7, 17 (544, II.). (Phaethōn) optāvit ut in currum patris tollerētur, C., Off., III. 25, 94; Phaethon desired to be lifted up into his father's chariot. Admoneō ut cottīdiē meditēre resistendum esse frācundiae, C., Q.F., I. i. 13, 38; I admonish you to reflect daily that resistance must be made to hot-headedness. Ubī (Caesaris) ōrant, ut sībī parcat, Caes., B.G., vi. 9, 7; the Ubiī beg Caesar to spare them. Sed precor ut possim tūtius esse miser, Ov., Tr., v. 2, 78 (423, 2). Exīgis ut Priamus nātōrum fūnere ēdūdat, Ov., Tr., v. 12, 7; you exact that Priam sport at (his) sons' funeral. Athēniēnsēs cum statuerent ut nāvēs cōnscederent, Cyrsilum quendam suādēntem ut in urbe manērent lapidibus obruārunt, C., Off., III. 11, 48; the Athenians, resolving to go on board their ships, overwhelmed with stones (= stoned) one Cyrsilus, who tried to persuade them to remain in the city.

So also any verb or phrase used as a verb of Willing or Demanding.

Pythia respondit ut moenibus lignēs sē mūnīrent, Nep., II. 2, 6; the Pythia answered that they must defend themselves with walls of wood.

2. Negative: nē, ut nē; continued by nēve (neu), and not.

Caesar suīs imperāvit nē quod omnīnō tēlum in hostēs rēicērent, Caes., B.G., i. 46, 2; Caesar gave orders to his (men) not to throw back any missile at all at the enemy. Themistoclēs [collēgīs suīs] praedīxit ut nē prius Lacedaemoniōrum lēgātōs dīmitterent quam ipse esset remissus, Nep., II. 7, 3; Themistocles told his colleagues beforehand not to dismiss the Lacedaemonian envoys before he were sent back. Pompēius suīs praedīxerat ut Caesaris impetu exicīrent nēve sē locō movērent, Caes., B.C., III. 92, 1; Pompey had told his men beforehand to receive Caesar's charge and not to move from their position.

Remarks.—I. When verbs of Willing and Wishing are used as verbs of Saying and Thinking, Knowing and Showing, the Inf. must be used. The English translation is that, and the Indic.: volō, I will have it (maintain), moneō, I remark, persuādeo, I convince, dēcernō, I decide, cōgō, I conclude:

[Moneō] artem sine adsiduitāte dicendi nōn multum iuvāre, Cf. [C.], ad Her., i. 1, 1; I remark that art without constant practice in speaking is of little avail. Vix cuiquam persuādēbātur Graeciā omni cēssūrōs (Rōmānōs), L., xxxii. 32, 3; scarce any one could be persuaded that the Romans would retire from all Greece. Nōn sunt isti audiendi quī virtūtem dūram et quasi ferream esse quandam volunt, C., Lael., 13, 48 (313, r. 2). Est
mōs hominum ut nōlint eundem pluribus rēbus excellere, C., Brut., 21, 84; it is the way of the world not to allow that the same man excels in more things (than one).

2. When the idea of Wishing is emphatic, the simple Subjv., without ut, is employed, and the restriction of sequence to Pr. and Impf. is removed:

Velicim existimēs nēminem cuiquam cāriōrem unquam fusisse quam tē mihi, C., Fam., i. 9, 24; I wish you to think that no one was ever dearer to any one than you to me. Mālō tē sapiēns hostis metuat quam stultī cīvēs laudent, L., xxxii. 39, 20; I had rather a wise enemy should fear you than foolish citizens should praise you. Excūsātum habeās mē rogo, cēno domī, Mart., ii. 79, 2 (238). Hūc ades, ἵνα σε param sine lūtor auctūr flūctūs, V., Ec., 9, 43; come hither (and) let the mad waves lash the shores. Tam fēlix essēs quam fōrmāssīs velum, Ov., Am., i. 8, 27 (302). Vellem mē ad cēnam invitāssēs, C., Fam., xii. 4, 1 (261, r.). Occidit occiderique sinās cum nōmine Trōia, V., A., xii. 823; 'tis fallen, and let Troy be fallen, name and all.

So inbēō in poetry and later prose. Compare also potius quam, 577, n. 6.

3. Ut nē is not used after verbs of negative signification, as impediō, I hinder, recūsō, I refuse (548). Otherwise there seems to be no difference in meaning between it and nē, except that sometimes the nē seems to apply more to a single word in the sentence.

4. On nēdum, see 482, 5, r. 2.

Notes.—1. Such verbs and phrases are: Willing and Wishing: volō, nōlō, mālō, optō, studeō. Warning and Beseeching: hortor, adhortor, moneō, admoneō, auctor sum, consilium dō, ōrō, rogō, petō, precor, pōscō, pōstulō, flagitō, obsecrō. Urging and Demanding: suādeo, persuādeo, cēnseo, imperō, mandō, praecipiō, ēdicō, dicō, scribō. Resolving and Endeavouring: statuō, consītūō, dēcernō, nītor, contendō, labōrō, pūgnō, id ago, operam dō, cūrō, vīdeo, prōvideō, prōspiciō, legem fero, lex est, etc.

2. Substantives of kindred meaning, in combination with the copula or other verbs, take similar constructions. Such are volūtās, cupiditās, spēs, ārdor, auctōritās, consilium (especially in the combination ēā hōc consiliō), signum, praeceptum, exemplum, prōpositum, officium, negotium, mūnus, verba, and litterae (with dare, mittere, etc.), sententia, animus (especially eō animō), condiciō (especially eā cōndiciōne), foedus, ītus, lex (eā lēge), cūra, opera, causa, ratiō.

3. Instead of ut with the Subjv., the Inf. is frequently used with this class of verbs. So, generally, with inbēō, Lorder, 532. With verbs of Asking, however, the Inf. is not common until Vergil. Örāre has Inf. once in Plautus, then in Vergil and later poets; in prose first in Tacitus. Rogāre has ut regularly, Inf. only once (Cat., xxxv. 10). Quaesō, implōrō, obscērō, obtēstor, never have Inf., flagitāre only once (H., S., ii. 4, 61) until Suetonius; pōstulāre very often, especially in early Latin in the sense expect; pōscere not till the Augustan poets. Authors vary. The use of the Inf. is wider in poetry and silver prose.

B. Verbs of Hindering.

547. The dependencies of verbs of Hindering may be regarded as partly Final, partly Consecutive. Nē and quōminus are originally final,
but the final sense is often effaced, especially in quôminus. Quin is a
consecutive particle. The sequence of verbs of Hindering is that of
the Final Sentence.

The negative often disappears in the English translation.

548. Verbs and phrases signifying to Prevent, to Forbid,
to Refuse, and to Beware, may take né with the Subjunc-
tive, if they are not negativated.

Impedior né plûra dîcam, C., Sull., 33, 92; I am hindered from say-
ing more (I am hindered that I should say no more). "Who did hinder
you that ye should not obey the truth?" GAL., v. 7.

Servitûs mea mihi interdîxît né quid mîrûr meum malum, Pl., Pers.,
621; my slavery has forbidden me to marvel aught at ill of mine. Hi-
stitaesus né rês ànîcîrêtur obstîtît, Nep., i. 3, 5; Histitaeus opposed
the thing's being done. (Régulus) sententiam né diceret recûsâtît, C., Off., III.
27, 100; Regulus refused to pronounce an opinion. Maledictis dîsterrêre
né scrîbat parat, Ter., Ph., 3 (423, 2). Tantum cum fîngês né sis mani-
fêsta cavêtô, Ov., A.A., III. 801 (271, 2). Tantum né noceás dum vis prô-
desese vidêtô, Ov., Tr., i. 1, 101; only see (to it) that you do not do harm
while you wish to do good.

Notes.—1. The most important of these words are: Preventing: impedîrê, im-
pedîmentô, esse, prohibêrê, tenêrê, retînêrê, dîsterrêrê, intercludêrê, interpel-
lêrê, dêprecârî, obsîstere, obstârê, intercôdêrê, interpônrê. Forbidding:
interdîcere. Refusing: recûsât, repûgnârê, resistêrê, sê tenêrê, sê reprî-
mere, sibî temperârê, morârî. Beware: cavèrentô, vidèrentô, and a few others,
especially the phrase per aliqum stârê (more often with quôminus).
2. Many verbs of Preventing and Refusing also take quôminus (549), and some also
the Infinitive (423, 2, N. 2).

3. Cavèrentô, to beware, and praecavèrentô belong to verbs of Hindering only so far as
action is contemplated. Cavèrentô, followed by ut, means to be sure to; by nê or ut
nê, to see to it that not; by nê, to take precautions against. When nê is omitted,
cavê, cavêtô, with the Subjv., form circumlocutions for the negative Imperative
(271, 2). So with vidê ut, nê. Cavèrentô also has the Inf. occasionally as a verb of
negative Will (428, 2, N. 2), beginning with PIAUTUS. In prose it is cited only from
Cato (once), Cicero (Att., III. 17, 3), SALLUST (Iug., 64, 2), and Pliny Mai.
4. Vidê nê (nê nôn), see to it lest, is often used as a polite formula for dubitô an
(457, 2), I am inclined to think. Crôdéré omnia vidê nê nôn sit necesse, C., Div.,
11. 13, 31.

549. Verbs of Preventing and Refusing may take quôminus
(= ut eō minus), that thereby the less, with the Subjunctive.

Aetâs nôn impedît quôminus agrî colendi studia teneâmus, C., Cat. M.,
17, 60; age does not hinder our retaining interest in agriculture. Nôn
dîterret sapientem mors quôminus ref públicae cônslat, C., Tusc., i. 38,
91; death does not deter the sage from consulting the interest of the
State. Quid obstât quôminus (Deus) sit beâtus? C., N. D., i. 34, 95; what
is in the way of God’s being happy? Caesar cōgnōvit per Afrānium stare quōminus proelīo dīmicārētūr, CAES., B.C., i. 41, 3; Caesar found that it was Afranius’s fault that there was no decisive fight (stat, there is a stand-still).

Notes.—1. With impedīre and prohibēre CAESAR never uses quōminus; CICERO rarely. But with other words implying Hindrance CICERO uses quōminus not unfrequently. With prohibēre the regular construction is the Inf., but this is rare with impedīre, quōminus being the rule. With recūsāre, the Inf. is rare (CAES., B.C., iii. 22, 3) but classical, becoming more frequent from LIVY on. The passive of dēterrēre is also construed with the Inf. occasionally.

2. PLAUTUS does not use quōminus, TERENCE first, but seldom. It is especially common from the time of CICERO. In TERENCE the elements are sometimes separated (quō—minus), thus emphasising the relative character. But it is not so used in the classical Latin, and in the Silver Age the force of its origin ceases to be felt, so that it is construed like quin. The fact that it is not found in PLAUTUS nor in VITRUVIUS has led to the suggestion that it is a book-word.

3. The difference in usage between quōminus and quin seems to be that while quin is always used with negatives, quōminus occurs sometimes with positives, so that according to the connection it is either Final or Consecutive.

4. Quō sētius for quōminus is archaic, but occurs twice in CORNIFICIIUS and twice in CICERO (INV., ii. 45, 132; 57, 170).

III. Verbs of Fearing.

550. 1. Verbs of Fearing, and expressions that involve Fear, take the Present and Perfect, Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.

The Present Subjunctive represents the Present and Future Indicative. The Perfect Subjunctive regularly represents the Perfect Indicative.

Present and Perfect Subjunctive become Imperfect and Pluperfect after a Past Tense.

These constructions are survivals of the original parataxis, when nē and ut were particles of wish. Thus, timeō: nē veniat, I am afraid; may he not come (i.e., I am afraid that he will), becomes, when the two clauses are combined, timeō nē veniat, I am afraid lest (that) he may (will) come. Similarly with ut, which in this usage was originally how. Hence,

2. With verbs of Fearing, nē, lest, shows that the negative is wished and the positive feared; ut (nē nōn) shows that the positive is wished and the negative feared: nē nōn is used regularly after the negative, or an interrogative with negative force.

Vereor nē hostis veniat, I fear lest the enemy come, that he is coming, that he will come. (I wish he may not come.)

Vereor nē hostis vēnerit, I fear lest the enemy have come, that (it will turn out that) he has come.
Vereor ut amicus veniat, I fear (how my friend can come) lest my friend come not, that he is not coming, will not come. (I wish he may come.)

Vereor ut amicus vēnerit, I fear lest my friend have not come, that he has not come.

Nōn vereor nē amicus nōn veniat, I do not fear that my friend is not coming, will not come.

Nōn vereor nē amicus nōn vēnerit, I do not fear that my friend has not come.

Id paves, nē dūcās tū illam, tū autem ut dūcās, Ter., And., 349; that's what you dread, you lest you marry her (nē dūcām!); you, on the other hand, lest you don't (utinam dūcām!).

Vereor nē dum minuere velim labōrem angeam, C., Leg., i. 4, 12; I fear lest, while I wish to lessen the toil, I increase it (that I am increasing it). Verēmur nē parum hīc liber mellis et absinthii multum habēre videātur, Quint., iii. 1, 5; I am afraid that this book will seem to have too little honey and (too) much wormwood. Timeō nē tībī nihil praeter la- crīmās queam reddere, C., Planc., 42, 101; I am afraid that I can give you nothing in return save tears. Aurum inspicere volt nē subruptum siet, Pl., Aul., 39; he wishes to inspect the gold (for fear) lest it be filched.

Timeō ut sustineās (labōres), C., Fam., xiv. 2, 3; I fear that you will not hold out under your toils. Vereor nē dum défendam meōs, nōn parcam tuis, C., Att., i. 17, 3; I fear lest in defending my own I may not spare thine. Nōn vereor nē tua virtūs opiniōnī hominum nōn respondēcat, Cf. C., Fam., ii. 5, 2; I do not fear that your virtue will not answer to (come up to) public expectation. Metūō nē id cónsiliī cēperimus quod nōn facile explicāre possimus, C., Fam., xiv. 12; I fear that we have formed a plan that we cannot readily explain. Ünum illud eximēsēbam nē quid turpius facerem, vel dicam, iam efficēssēm, C., Att., ix. 7, 1; the only thing I feared was, lest I should act disgracefully, or, I should (rather) say, (lest) I had already acted disgracefully.

Notes.—1. Ut seems to be used only after metūō, paveō, timeō, and vereor. Most common is vereor; metuō is common in early Latin, but is cited but rarely later (Horace, Cicero); paveō has to be supplied once with ut in Ter., And., 349. Timeō ut is found first in Cicero, and is very rare.

2. Nē nōn is very rare in early Latin, but becomes more frequent from Cicero on. Ut nē is never found for nē.

3. Two strange cases are cited where, instead of nē, ut seems to be used, viz., Hor., S., i. 3, 190, nam ut ferulā caedās meritum maiōra subire verbera, nōn vereor, and L., xxviii. 22, 12, nihil minus, quam ut ēgredi obsessi moenibus audērent, timēri poterat. In the first case the ut clause precedes, and the nōn vereor is used by anacoluthon; in the second the ut clause is a circumlocution for an omitted illud, parallel to nihil. This is also helped by the antecedence of the ut clause.

4. When a verb of Fear is a verb of Uncertainty an indirect question may follow: vereor quō modō acceptūri sitis, [C.], ad Her., iv. 37, 49.
5. (a) With the Inf. verbs of Fear are verbs of (negative) Will: *vereor* = *prae timōre nōlō.*

Vōs Allobrogum tēstimonītis nōn crēdere tīmētis? C., Font., 12, 26; are ye afraid to disbelieve the testimony of the Allobroges? *Vereor laudāre praesentem,* C., N.D., 1. 21, 58 (423, 2). *Nil metuunt iūrāre,* Cat., LXXIV. 146; they have no fear to take an oath.

These constructions are found at all periods and with a wide range of words. Cicero, however, is restrained in his usage, and the most examples are found in the poets and later prose writers.

(b) With the Acc. and Inf. verbs of Fear are verbs of Thinking or of Perception: *vereor* = *cum timōre putō* or *vēdō.*


This construction is rare, but occurs at all periods; more often, however, it involves the substantives *timor* and *metus,* especially in Livy, who shows seven cases altogether.

### CONSECUTIVE SENTENCES.

**Sentences of Tendency and Result.**

551. 1. Consecutive Sentences are those sentences which show the Consequence or Tendency of Actions. In Latin, Result is a mere inference from Tendency, though often an irresistible inference. In other words, the Latin language uses *so as* throughout, and not *so that,* although *so that* is often a convenient translation. The result is only implied, not stated.

2. Consecutive Sentences are divided into two classes:

I. Consecutive Sentences in which the Tendency is expressed by the Particle: Pure Consecutive Sentences.

II. Consecutive Sentences in which the Tendency lies in the leading Verb: (a) after verbs of Effecting; (b) after negatived verbs of Preventing, Doubt, and Uncertainty; (c) after words and phrases requiring expansion.

1. Pure Consecutive Sentences.

552. Pure Consecutive Sentences are introduced by

1. *Ut* (*uti*), *that,* *so that,* and other relative pronouns and adverbs (631).

2. *Ut—nōn,* *that,* *so that,* *as—not,* continued by *neque,* *nec* (543, 4).

3. *Quīn = ut nōn,* after a negative sentence (554).

Correlative demonstratives occur very often: *ita* (*sic*), *tam,*
In virtūte multī sunt adscēnsūs, ut is máximē glōriā excellat, quī virtūte plūrimum praeestet, C., Planc., 25, 60; in virtue there are many degrees, so that he excels most in glory who is most advanced in virtue. Neque mē vixisse paenitet quoniam īta vixī ut nōn fruṣtrā mē nātum exiṣĭtumem, C., Cat. M., 23, 84 (540). Tanta vis probitātīs est, ut eam in hoste etiam diligamūs, C., Lael., 9, 29; so great is the virtue of uprightness, that we love it even in an enemy. Nōn īs es ut tō pudor umquam ā turpitudine revocārit, C., Cat., i. 9, 22; you are not the man for shame ever to have recalled you (= ever to have been recalled by shame) from baseness. Nēmō adeō ferus est ut nōn mitēscere possit, H., Ep., i. 1, 39; no one is so savage that he cannot (be made to) soften. Nil tam difficile est quīn quaerendō ĭnvestīgāri possīt, T. E., Heaut., 675; naught is so hard but it can (= that it cannot) be tracked out by search. Numquam tam male est Siculis quīn aliqūid fācētē et commodē dicant, C., Verr., iv. 43, 95; the Sicilians are never so badly off as not to (have) something or other clever and pat (to) say.

Remarks.—1. Notice especially the impersonal tantum abest, āśūt (rarely aberat)—ut—ut. The phrase originates with an abstract Abl. dependent on a personal absūm, which abstract Abl. is afterward expanded into a consecutive clause with ut.

[Aģēsilāus] tantum āśūt ab insolentīā glōriae ut commiserātūs sit fortūnam Graeciae, N. E., xvii. 5, 2; Agesilaus was so far from the insolence of glory that he pitied the (mis)fortune of Greece. Tantum abest ab eō ut malum mors sit ut verear nē hominī sit nihil bonum aliūd, C., Tusc., i. 31, 76; so far is it from death (= so far is death from) being an evil that I fear man has no other blessing. Tantum āśūt, ut illūrōm praesidēō nostram firmārēmus classem, ut etiam ā Rhōdīs urbe prohibērentur nostrī militēs, Lėntulus [C., Fam., xii. 15, 2]; so far were we from strengthening our fleet by reinforcements from them that our soldiers were actually kept away from the city by the Rhodians. Tantum abest ut nostrā mirēmur ut āsque eō difficile īsimus ut nōbīs nōn satisfaciat ipse Dēmōsthēnēs, C., Or., 29, 104; so far are we from admiring our own (compositions) that we are so hard to please that Demosthenes himself fails to satisfy us.

The personal construction is extremely rare.

The second ut may be omitted, and a declarative sentence follow asyndetically: Tantum aberat ut bīnōs (librōs) scriberent: vix singulōs confecerunt, C., Att., xiii. 21, 5; so far were they from writing two copies of each book, they with difficulty finished up one.

2. Dignus, worthy, indignus, unworthy, aptus, idōneus, fit, take a consecutive sentence with quī. Occasionally in early, more often in later
Latin, dignus and indignus take ut. In poetry all these words are found sometimes with the Infinitive.

Quì modestè paret, vidētur quì aliquandò imperet dignus esse, C., Leg., III. 2, 5; he who obeys duly seems to be worthy to command some day.

3. While ita (sic) is usually antecedent to a consecutive ut, it may also be antecedent to a final ut or nē when the design or wish intrudes. Ita má gessi nē tibi pudōris esse, L., xl. 15, 6; I behaved myself so as not to be a disgrace to you.

So not unfrequently when a restriction or condition is intended:

Ita probanda est ānsuētūdō ut adhibeātur ref publicae causā severitās, C., Off., i. 25, 88; mildness is to be approved, so that (provided that) strictness be used for the sake of the commonwealth. Ita frui volunt voluptātibus ut nullī propter eās consequantur dolōres, C., Fin., i. 14, 48; they wish to enjoy pleasures without having any pain to ensue on account of them. [Pythagoras et Plato] mortem ita laudant ut fugere vitam vetent, C., Scæv., 4, 5; Pythagoras and Plato so praise death, that they (while they praise death) forbid fleeing from life. Ita tú istæc tua miscētō nē má admisceās, Ter., Heaut., 733; mix up your mixings so you mix me not withal. Tantum a vallō [Pompè] prīma acies abeart, uti nē tēlō adici posset, Caes., B.C., III. 55.

Ut alone may also be used thus: Rēx esse nōlim ut esse crūdēlis velim, Syri., 577; king I would not be, if I must school myself to cruelty.

4. Ut nōn is often = without, and the English verbal in -ing:

(Octāvianus) numquam filiās suōs populo commendāvit ut nōn adiceret: si merēbuntur, Suet., Aug., 56; Octavianus (Augustus) never recommended his sons to the people in such a way as not to add (= without adding): if they are worthy. Quī nē malum habeat abstīnet só ab injūriā certē mālet existimāri bonus vir ut nōn sit quam esse ut nōn putētur, C., Fin., ii. 22, 71; he who, to avoid misfortune, abstains from injury, will certainly prefer being thought a good man without being such, to being (a good man) without being believed (to be such).

II. Complementary Consecutive Sentences.

A. Verbs of Effecting.

553. Verbs of Effecting belong partly to the Consecutive, partly to the Final Sentence. The negative is nōn or nē; the sequence, final.

Such verbs are:

1. Verbs of Causation: facere, efficere, perficere, I make, effect, achieve; assequi, consequí, I attain, accomplish, and many others.

The following are cited as more or less common in Cicero: prōficere,
impeetrāre, valēre, committere, tenēre, adiūvāre, adferre, adipīscī, praestāre, ferre (in phrases cōnsuētūdō, nātūra, fortūna fert), adferre, adiūvāre, expūgnāre, extorquēre, exprimere, and a few others.

Efficiam ut intellegātis, C., Cluent., 3, 7; I will cause you to understand. Sed perficē, ut Crassus haec quae coartāvit nōbis explicet, C., Or., i. 35, 163; but bring it about that Crassus (make Crassus) unfold to us what he has condensed. Nōn committam ut causam tībī recūsandī dem, C., Or., ii. 57, 233; I shall not make the blunder of giving you an excuse for refusing.

Negatives:

Rērum obsūritās nōn verbōrum facit ut nōn intellegātur ōrātiō, C., Fin., ii. 5, 15; it is the obscurity of the subject, not of the words, that causes the language not to be understood. Potestis efficere ut male moriar, ut nōn moriar nōn potestis, Plin., Ep., iii. 16, 11; you may make me die a hard death, keep me from dying you cannot. Efficiam posthāc nē quemquam vōce lacessās, V., Ec., 3, 51; I will bring it about that you challenge no one hereafter in song.

Facere ut is often little more than a periphrasis; especially in the forms fac ut and faxō, faxit (both peculiar to Comedy).

Fortūna vestra facit ut trace meae temperem, L., xxxvi. 35, 3; your fortune causes that I (makes me) restrain my anger (put metes to my anger). Invitus (325, r. 6) faciō ut recorder ruinās rei pūblīcae, C., Vat., 9, 21; (it is) against my will that I (am doing so as to) recall the ruined condition of the commonwealth.

2. Verbs of Compelling and Permitting:

Cōgere, adigere, impellere, dācere, with its compounds, movēre, commovēre, to which must be added extrāre, to force by pleading. Permittere, sinere, concēdere, dare, (nōn) patī, and less often largīrī, tribuere, ferre.

Tenēmus memoriā Catulum esse coāctum ut vitā sē ipse privāret, C., Or., iii. 3, 9; we remember that Catulus was forced to take his own life. Illud nātūra nōn patitur, ut allōrum spoliīs nostrīs cōpiās angeāmus, C., Off., iii. 5, 22; nature does not allow us to increase our wealth by the spoils of others. Collēgam perpulerat nē contra rem pūblīcam sentīret, S., C., 26, 4; he had prevailed upon his colleague, not to take sides against the commonwealth.

Note.—Cōgere has usually the Inf. (423, 2, N. 2), so occasionally sinere, patī. On permittere, see 532, N. 1. Cōgere in the sense conclude is a verb of Saying (546, N. 1). Facere and efficere, in the sense cause, are very rarely used with the Infinitive. Compare C., Br., 38, 142, (āctio) talēs orātōrēs vidēri facit, quāles ipsī sē vidēri volunt. This becomes more common in very late Latin.

3. Passive verbs of Causation, and their equivalents,
namely, many Impersonal Verbs of Happening and Following, of Accident and Consequent.

Such verbs are conicit, efficic, fit, accidit, contingit, obtingit, evenit, it happens, ustu evenit, it occurs, sequitur, it follows, and many others. So also est, it is the case.

Ex quod efficitur, non ut voluptas nē (the design of the arguer) sit voluptas, sed ut voluptas non (the result of the argument) sit summum bonum, C., Fin., ii. 8, 24; from which it results, not that pleasure is not pleasure, but that pleasure is not the supreme good. Potest fieri ut fallar, C., Fam., xiii. 73, 2; (it) may be (that) I am mistaken. Potest fieri ut est unde tā audisse dēcis iūrus dixerit, C., Or., ii. 70, 285; (it) may be (that) he from whom you say you heard (it) said it in anger. Persaepe evenit ut utilitās cum honestāte certet, C., Part. Or., 25, 89; it very often (so) happens that profit is at variance with honor.

Note.—Noteworthy is the early Latin use of (fieri) potis ut nē, as in fieri potis est ut nē quā exeat, Ter., Ad., 626.

4. Very many impersonal verbs and combinations of neuter adjectives with est, after the analogy of the impersonals just mentioned.

Such are: additur, accēdit, it is added; restat, reliquom est, it remains; appāret, it is plain. Enumerations, as, proximum, tertium, extrēnum est; īnīsitātum, rārum est, it rarely happens that; novom, singularē, mirum, inauditum, vērum, falsum, (nōn) vērisimile, consequēns, etc. Also rarely, interest, nesses est, necessārum est, and the like.

Ad App. Claudi senectūtem accēdēbat etiam ut caecus esset, C., Cat. M., 6, 16; to the old age of Appius Claudius was further added his being blind. Eī ne integrum quidem erat ut ad iūstītiam remigrāret, C., Tusc., v. 21, 62; for him it was not even an open question to go back to justice. Rārum (= rārō accidit) ut sit idōneus suae ref quīisque défensor, Quint., iv. 1, 46; it is rare for a man to be a good defender of his own case.

Remarks.—1. Necesse est, it is necessary, generally, and oportet, it behooves, always omit ut:

[Leuctrica pūgna] immortālis sit necesse est, Nep., xv. 10, 2; the battle of Leuctra must needs be immortal. Sed nōn effugies; mēcum moriāris oportet, Prop., ii. 8, 25; but you shall not escape; you must die with me.

2. The neuter adjectives with ut are very rare until the post-classical period and are far more commonly construed with the Infinitive.

3. Very common is the periphrasis fore (futūrum) ut, which gives the common form of the Fut. Infinitive. See 248.
356

CONSECUTIVE SENTENCES.

B. Verbs of Hinder ing.

554. **Quin** is used like **quóminus**, with Verbs of Preventing, Refusing, *etc.*, but only when they are negatived or questioned.

**Notes.—1.** **Quin** is compounded of **qui**—an interrogative-relative Ablative or Locative—and **né** (**nón**). Its first use is interrogative: "why not?" in an indignant question; almost equivalent to an indignant Imperative, with which, through the fading out of its composition, it is occasionally connected, especially in early and later Latin, rarely in Cicero (209).

2. An indignant question (How not? Why not?) objects to opposition, and is therefore naturally construed with the negative of a verb of Hinder ing. Hence **quin**, as an interrogative (How not?), takes the sequence of the Interrogative Sentence. But this shows itself only after words of doubt; after verbs of Preventing the sequence coincides with that of the Final Sentence, and after other negative sentences the sequence coincides with that of the Consecutive Sentence.

3. By its combination with verbs of Preventing, **quin** came to be felt as a consecutive particle = **ut nón**, and was then used in other consecutive connections for **ut nón**.

555. **Quin** is used when Verbs and Phrases of Preventing, Omitting, Refraining, Refusing, and Delaying, Doubt, and Uncertainty, are negatived or questioned.

1. Verbs of Preventing and the like (sequence of the Final Sentence).

**Vix nunc obsititur illis quin lanient mundum**, **Ov., M., i. 58**; they are now hardly to be kept (that they should not rend) from rending the universe. **Antiochus nón sē tenuit quin contrā suum doctōrem librum ęderet**, **C., Ac., ii. 4, 12**; Antiochus did not refrain from publishing a book against his teacher. **Vix reprehior quin tē manēre iubeam**, **Pl., M. G., i368**; I am scarcely kept back (keep myself back) from bidding you remain. **Neque mé Jūpiter [prohibēbit] quin sic faciam utī cons titui**, **Pl., Am., io5i**; nor will Jupiter prevent me from doing just as I determined to do.

**Remark.—The list of verbs is given in 548, n. 1.**

2. Verbs of Doubt and Uncertainty (sequence of the Interrogative Sentence).

**Nōn dubium est quin uxōrem nōlīt filius**, **Ter., And., i72**; there is no doubt that (my) son does not want a wife. **Quis dubitet (= nēmō dubitet) quin in virtūte divitiae sint?** **C., Parad., vi. 2, 48 (259).** **Nōn dubitārī dēbet quin fuerint ante Homērum poētae**, **C., Br., i8, 71**; it is not to be doubted that there were poets before Homer. **Nunc mīhī nōn est dubium quin ventūrae nōn sint** (**legiōnēs**), **C., Fam., ii. 17, 5 (515).**
Occasionally verbs of Saying and Thinking are found with the same construction, because they are near equivalents.

Negarī nōn potest quin rēctōs sit etiam ad pācātōs barbarōs exercitum mitti, Cf. L., XL. 36, 2; it cannot be denied (doubted) that it is better for an army to be sent to the barbarians even though they be quiet. Nōn abest sūspicīō (Litotēs [700] for dubitārī nōn potest) quīn (Orgetorīx) ipse sibi mortem cōnscīverit, CAES., B.G., I. 4, 4; there is no lack of ground to suspect (= there is no doubt that) Orgetorix killed himself.

Remarks.—1. The principal gain of the interrogative sequence is that the Periphrastic Fut. may be employed (of which, however, the first example is cited from Cicero), but according to 515, r. 3, nōn dubitō quīn may have the simple Subjv. instead of the Periphrastic:

Nōn dubitārē quīn dē omnibus obsidibus supplicium sūmat (Ariovistus), CAES., B.G., I. 31, 15; "he did not doubt that Ariovistus would put all the hostages to death." Compare Cat., cviii. 3.

So when there is an original Subjv. notion:

Nōn dubitō quīn ad tē statim veniam, C., Att., viii. II B, 3; I do not doubt that I ought to come to you forthwith. (Veniam? Shall I come?)

2. Of course dubitō and nōn dubitō may have the ordinary interrogative constructions (467). On dubitō an, see 457, 2.

3. Nōn dubitō, with the Inf., usually means I do not hesitate to:

Nōn dubitem dicere omnēs sapientēs semper esse beātōs, C., Fin., v. 32, 95; I should not hesitate to say that all wise men are always happy.

Et dubitāmus aūtēm virtūtem extendere factūs? V., A., vi. 806; and do we still hesitate to spread our (fame for) valour by our deeds? Compare vereor, timeō, I fear, hesitate to (550, 2, n. 5).

So occasionally nōn dubitō quīn. See r. 1.

(Rōmānī) arbitrābantur nōn dubitātūrum fortem virum quīn ċederet aequā animō légibus, C., Mil., 23, 63; the Romans thought that a brave man would not hesitate to yield with equanimity to the laws.

Note.—Nōn dubitō with the Inf. for nōn dubitō quīn occurs chiefly in Nēpos, Livy, and later writers.

Sunt multi qui quae turpia esse dubitāre nōn possunt utilitātis speciē ductī probent, QUINT., iii. 8, 3; there are many who, led on by the appearance of profit, approve what they cannot doubt to be base.

556. Quin, equivalent to ut nōn, may be used after any negative sentence (sequence of the Consecutive Sentence). Here it may often be translated "without."

Nīl tam difficile est quin quaerendō invenīgāri possīet, TERT., Heaut., 675 (552). Nūllum aūtēc intermiś diem quīn aliqūid ad tē litterārūm darem, C., Att., vii. 15, 1; I have thus far not allowed a day to pass but I dropped you (without dropping you) something of a letter (a line or two).
Note the combination (facere) nōn possum quīn, I cannot but, and similar combinations; nōn possum nōn with Inf. is also classical.

Facere nōn possum quīn cottiōdiē ad tē mittam (litterās), C., Att., xii. 27, 2; I cannot do without (I cannot help) sending a letter to you daily. Nōn possum quīn exclāmēm, Pl., Trin., 705; I cannot but (I must) cry out. (Nullō modo facere possum ut nōn sim populāris, C., Agr., ii. 3, 7 (reading doubtful); I cannot help being a man of the people.)

Nihil abest quīn sim miserrimus, C., Att., xi. 15, 3; there is nothing wanting that I should be (=to make me) perfectly miserable. Pauulum āfuit quīn (Fabius) Vārum interficeret, Caes., B.C., ii. 35, 2; there was little lacking but Fabius (had) killed Varus (= Fabius came near killing Varus).

Explanatory Ut.

557. A Consecutive Sentence with ut is often used to give the contents or character of a preceding substantive, adjective, or pronoun.

Est mōs hominum ut nōlint eundem pluribus rēbus excellere, C., Br., 21, 84 (546, r. 1). An quoquamst āsus homini sē ut cruciet? Ter., Heaut., 81 (406, n. 5). Est miserōrum ut malevolentēs sint atque invideant bonis, Pl., Capt., 533; the wretched have a way of being ill-natured and envying the well-to-do. Nec meum ad tē ut mittam grātīs, Pl., Asin., 190; nor is it my style to let her go to you as a gracious gift. Id est proprium civitātis ut sit libera, C., Off., ii. 22, 78; it is the peculiar privilege of a state, to be free. Illud ipsum habet cōnsul ut eī reliqui magistrātīs pāreant, C., Leg., iii. 7, 16; the consul has this very prerogative, that the other magistrates be obedient unto him. Tōtum in eō est, ut tibī imperēs, C., Tusc., ii. 22, 53; all depends upon this (one thing), your self-command.

Remark.—These are principally mōs, cōnssuētūdō, habit, wont; opus, āsus, need; many substantives of opinion and perception, as opinīō, sententia, cōgitātiō, mens, sapientia, scientia, cōgnitio; nātūra, genus, status, and others, usually with a demonstrative attached; adjectives indicating possession: meum, tuom, suom (all mainly ante-class.), proprium, commune, praeceptum (Livy), and predicate Genitives with esse: id, hoc, illud, etc. These should be distinguished from final usages.

Notes.—1. Tendency and Character lend themselves readily to circumlocution, and ut with Subjv. becomes a manner of equivalent to the Inf., which, however, is by far the more common construction.

2. To the same principle is to be referred the use of ut after māior (magis) quam, nōn aliter quam (without), first in Livy; after nisi (501, b, r. 3). See 298.

Praeceptum māius erat quam ut ab homine vidērētur, C., Fin., v. 16, 44 (503).
Exclamatory Questions.

558. *Ut* with the Subjunctive is used in Exclamatory Questions, usually with the insertion of *-ne.*

Egone *ut te interpellem?* C., *Tusc.*, ii. 15, 42; *I interrupt you?* *Tu* ut *umquam te corrígäs?* C., *Cat.*, i. 9, 22; *you—ever reform yourself?* Di *magni, ut qui cives Römannum occidisset, impunitatem acciperet,* Sen., *Ben.*, v. 16, 3; *Great Gods! that one who had slain a Roman citizen, should escape unpunished!*

**NOTE.**—The expression is closely parallel with the Acc. and Infinitive. The one objects to the idea; the other, to any state of things that could produce the result. In neither case is there any definite or conscious ellipsis. Compare *Ter.*, *Hec.*, 589, with 613.

TEMPORAL SENTENCES.

559. The action of the Temporal or Dependent clause may stand to the action of the Principal clause in one of three relations:

I. It may be *antecedent.*

**CONJUNCTIONS:** *Postquam* (*Postea quam*, not ante-class.), *after that,* *after; ut, as; ubi, when (literally, where); simulac, as soon as; ut primum, cum primum, the first moment that.*

II. It may be *contemporaneous.*

**CONJUNCTIONS:** *Dum, dònee, while, until; quoad, up to (the time) that; quamdiú, as long as; cum, when.*

III. It may be *subsequent.*

**CONJUNCTIONS:** *Antequam, priusquam, before that, before.*

A special chapter is required by

IV. *Cum (quom), when.*

Moods in Temporal Sentences.

560. 1. The mood of Temporal clauses is regularly the Indicative.

2. The Subjunctive is used only:

(1) In *óratiō Obliqua* (508), Total or Partial. So also in the Ideal Second Person.

(2) When the idea of Design or Condition is introduced.
I. ANTECEDENT ACTION.

561. In historical narrative, Temporal Clauses with postquam (posteaquam), ubi, ut, simulac, ut primum, and cum primum commonly take the Historical Perfect or the Historical Present Indicative.

The English translation is not unfrequently the Pluperfect. Postquam Caesar pervenit, obsidēs popōscit, Caes., B.G., i. 27, 3; after Caesar arrived, he demanded hostages. Quae ubi nuntiantur Rōmam, senātus extemplō dictātorem dīci iūssit, L., iv. 56, 8; when these tidings were carried to Rome, the senate forthwith ordered a dictator to be appointed. Pompēius ut equitātum suum pulsum vīdit, aciē excessit, Caes., B.C., iii. 94, 5; as Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the line of battle. (Pelopidas) nōn dubitāvit, simul ac conspexit hostem, confīgīre (555, 2, R. 3), Nep., xvi. 5, 3; as soon as he (had) caught sight of the enemy, Pelopidas did not hesitate to engage (him).

Subjunctive in Ōrātiō Obliqua.

Ariovistum, ut semel Gallōrum cōpiās vīcerit (Ō. R. vīcit), superbē imperāre, Caes., B.G., i. 31, 12; "that Ariovistus, as soon as he had once beaten the forces of the Gauls, exercised his rule arrogantly."

562. The Imperfect is used to express an action continued into the time of the principal clause (overlapping).

The translation often indicates the spectator (233, n. 1). Tū postquam quī tībī erant amīci nōn poterant vincere, ut amīci tībī essent quī vincēbant effecisti, C., Quinct., 22, 70; after (you saw) that those who were friendly to you could not be victorious you managed that those should be friendly to you who were going to be victorious. Ubi nēmō obviōs iōbat, ad castra hostium tendunt, L., ix. 45, 14; when (they saw that) no one was coming to meet them, they proceeded to the camp of the enemy.

Subjunctive in Ōrātiō Obliqua.

Scīpsistī (eum) posteaquam nōn audēret (Ō. R. nōn audēbat) reprehendere, laudāre coepisse, C., Att., i. 13, 4; you wrote that, after he could not get up the courage to blame, he began to praise.

563. i. The Pluperfect is used to express an action completed before the time of the principal clause; often of the Resulting Condition.

Albinus postquam dēcrēverat nōn ēgredi prōvinciā, militēs statīvis castris habēbat, S., Jug., 44, 4; after Albinus had fully determined not to depart
from the province, he kept his soldiers in cantonments. Posteaquam multitūdinem collegērat emblēmatum, instituit officinam, C., Verr., iv. 24, 54; after he had got together a great number of figures, he set up shop.

2. The Pluperfect is used with postquam when a definite interval is mentioned. Rarely also the Historical Perfect (Aorist).

Post and quām are often separated. With an Ablative of Measure, post may be omitted (403, n. 4, d).

(Aristidēs) dēcessit fērē post annum quārtum quam Themistoclēs Athēnis erat expulsus, Nēp., iii. 3, 3; Aristides died about four years after Themistocles had been (was) banished from Athens. Post diem tertium gesta rēs est quam dīxerat, C., Mil., 16, 44; the matter was accomplished three days after he had said it would be. [Hamilcar] nonō annō postquam in Hīspāniam vēnerat occīsus est, Nēp., xxii. 4, 2; Hamilcar was killed nine years after he came to Spain. (Aristidēs) sextō fērē annō quām erat expulsus in patriam restitūtus est, Nēp., iii. 1, 5; Aristides was restored to his country about six years after he was exiled. Tridūō fērē postquam Hannibāl ā ripā Rhodānī mōvit, ad castra hostium vēnerat, L., xxii. 32, 1; (within) about three days after Hannibal moved from the banks of the Rhone he had come to the camp of the enemy.

Subjunctive in Ōrātiō Obliqua.

Scriptūm ā Posidōnīō est trigintā annīs vīxisse Panaetium posteaquam librōs [dē officīs] ēdīdisset, C., Off., iii. 2, 8; it is recorded by Posidonius that Panaetius lived thirty years after he put forth his books on Duties. The attraction is sometimes neglected.

Notes.—1. The most common of these conjunctions is postquam, but the others also occur at all periods. Simul (atque) is rare in early Latin. In the following notes the usage in Iterative action is excluded.

2. The Impf. with postquam is cited but once from early Latin (Pl., Most., 640), it becomes more common in Cicerō, but is distinctive of Livy, who shows nearly one hundred examples. The Impf. with ubi is cited once in early Latin (Ter., Eun., 405), where, however, it is Iterative, not at all from Cicerō, once from Caesār, after which it is found more frequently, but never becomes common. The Impf. with ut is found first in Cicerō, never in Caesār, Saullust, Vergil, but not uncommonly in Livy; only once in Tacītus (H., iii. 31), where it is Iterative. The Impf. with simul (atque) is not cited from Cicerō and Caesār, but appears once in Saullust, where it is Iterative; it is very rare.

3. The Plupf. with postquam is not cited from Plautus or Horace, and but once from Terence (And. 177); Cicerō uses it but rarely, Caesār but once (B.C., iii. 58, 5); Livy uses it often, and Tacitus is fond of it. The Plupf. with ubi is found once in Plautus, twice each in Cicerō and Caesār, and then more frequently. The Plupf. with ut (primum) is found first in Cicerō, perhaps but once in Caesār (B.C., iii. 63, 6), more often later. The Plupf. with simul (atque) is cited once from Cicerō, not at all from Caesār, and rarely later.

4. Some dozen cases are cited, principally from Cicerō, of the Subjv. with post-
quam not in ό.ο. Most of these are disputed. If the Subjv. is to remain in these passages it is to be explained as due either to Partial Obliquity or to the intrusion of the cum Subjv. into other temporal constructions. The Subjv. appears in late Latin.

5. The Subjv. with ubi occurs occasionally in early Latin, but only once in Cicero, not unfrequently in Livy and Tacitus. This is usually explained as either the Iterative or Potential Subjunctive. The Subjv. with ut is post-classical, and the Subjv. with simul does not occur.

564. Postquam and the like, with the Present and Perfect Indicative, assume a causative signification (compare quoniam, now that = since).

[Cūria] minor mihi videtur posteāquam est māior, C., Fin., v. 1, 2; the senate-house seems to me smaller now that it is (really) greater. Tremō horreoque postquam aspexi hanc, Ter., Eun., 84; I quiver and shiver since I have seen her.

Notes.—1. The use of temporal conjunctions, especially postquam in the Present Sphere, is much more common in early Latin than later. Ubi and ut occur at all periods, but rarely; ubi has almost the same force as si; ut means ex quō, since. Simul is rare, and found first in Lucretius.

2. Cum, also, has sometimes the causal signification.

Grätulor tibi cum tantum valēs, C., Fam., ix. 14, 3; I wish you joy now that you have so much influence.

565. Ubi and simul are occasionally found with the Future and Future Perfect; not so postquam and ut.

Ubi mē aspiciet ad carnucicem rapiet continuō, Pl., B., 689; as soon as he shall catch (catches) sight of me he will hurry me at once to the hangman. Id tibi quidem hercle fiet, Dēmaenētum simulāc cōnspexerō, Pl., Asin., 477; that indeed shall certainly be your fate, as soon as I shall have espied Demaenetus.

Note.—When thus used ubi and simul approach almost the meaning of cum (560). So also quandō; see 580, n. 3. These uses should be distinguished from those of Iterative Action.

Iterative Action.

566. Rule I.—When two actions are repeated contemporaneously, both are put in tenses of continuance.

Humilēs labōrant ubi potentēs dissident, Phaēd., i. 30, 1; the lowly suffer when the powerful disagree. Populus mē sibilat; at mihi plaudō ipse domi simul ac nummōs contemplor in arcā, H., S., i. 1, 66; the people hiss me; but I clap myself at home as soon as I gloat o'er my cash in the strong box. Ubi frūmentō opus erat, cohortēs praesidium agitābant, S., Iug., 55, 4; when there was need of corn, the cohorts would serve as an escort,
The Subjunctive with the Ideal Second Person.

**Bonus sēgnior fit ubi neglegās**, S., *Iug.*, 31, 28; a good man becomes more spiritless when you neglect him.

567. **Rule II.**—When one action is repeated before another, the antecedent action is put in the Perfect, Pluperfect, or Future Perfect; the subsequent action in the Present, Imperfect, or Future, according to the relation.

As this use runs through all sentences involving antecedent action, all the classes are represented in the following examples.

Observe the greater exactness of the Latin expression. Compare 244, r. 2.

**Quotiēns cecidit, surgit**, As often as he falls, he rises.

**Quotiēns ceciderat, surgēbat**, As often as he fell, he rose.

**Quotiēns ceciderit, surgēt**, As often as he falls, he will rise.

Simul Inflāvit tībīcēn ā perītō Carmen ēgnōscitur, C., *Ac.*, ii. 27, 86; as soon as the fluter blows, the song is recognised by the connoisseur. [Alcibiadēs] simul ēc sē remiserat, luxūriōsus reperiēbātur, *Nep.*, vii. i., 4; as soon as Alcibiades relaxed, he was found a debauchee. Dociliōra sunt ingenia prīusquam obdūruērunt, *Quint.*, i. 12, 9; minds are more teachable before they (have) become hardened. [Ager] cum multōs annōs quīēvit, uberiōres efferre frūgēs solet, C., *Br.*, 4, 16; when a field has rested (rests) many years, it usually produces a more abundant crop. Cum pālam ēius ānullī ad palamn convertērat (Gyges) ā nūllō vidēbātur, C., *Off.*, iii. 9, 38; when(ever) Gyges turned the bezel of the ring toward the palm (of his hand), he was to be seen by no one. Si pēs condoluit, si dēns, ferre nōn possumus, C., *Tusc.*, ii., 22, 52; if a foot, if a tooth ache(s), we cannot endure it. Stomachābātur senex, si quid asperius dīxeram, C., *N.D.*, i. 33, 93; the old man used to be fretted, if I said anything (that was) rather harsh. Quōs labōrantēs cōnspeperat, his subsidia submittēbat, *Caes.*, *B.G.*, iv. 26, 4; to those whom he saw (had espied) hard pressed he would send reinforcements. Haerēbant in memoriā quae cumque audierat et viderat (Themistoclēs), C., *Ac.*, ii. i., 2; whatever Themistocles had heard and seen (= heard and saw) remained fixed in his memory. Quī timēre dēsi- erint, ōdisse incipient, *Tac.*, *Agr.*, 32; those who cease to fear will begin to hate.

The Subjunctive with the Ideal Second Person.

**Ubi cōnsulueris, mātūrē factō opus est**, S., *C.*, i., 6; when you have deliberated, you want speedy action.

The Subjunctive in Ὄρατῳ Obliqua.

[Catō] mirārī sē ściēbat quod nōn rīdēret haruspex haruspicem cum vidis-
set, C., Div., ii. 24, 51; Cato said that he wondered that an haruspex did not laugh when he saw (another) haruspex. (Nohn ridet cum vidit.)

The Subjunctive by Attraction.

[Araneolae] rite texit ut si quid inhaesperit confidant, C., N.D., ii. 48, 128; spiders weave webs to despatch anything that gets caught (si quid inhaesperit, confessent). Quaerit fidebat, ut omnium oculos, quotiescunque in publicum prōdisset, ad sē converteret, Nep., vii. 3, 5; whereby it happened that he attracted the eyes of all every time he went out in public (quotiescunque prōderat, convertēbat).

NOTE.—The Subjunctive in Iterative Tenses may be accounted for on the principle that a repeated action which is retrospective from the point of view of the narrator, and so naturally takes the Indicative, becomes prospective from the point of view of the agent, and so takes the Subjunctive. But, however the construction is justified, the fact remains that the Subjunctive in Iterative Sentences is a growth in Latin. With the principal tenses it is confined mostly to the Ideal Second Person. Indefinite quis is very near to this. So Cicero, Rab. Post., 13, 36: ubi semel quis pēleraverit—opportet. With Impf. and Plupf. the first examples (excluding cum) are in Catullus (LXXXIV. 1), and Caesar (e.g. B.C., ii. 15, 3). Then it spreads, probably under Greek influence, and is very common in the historians, especially Livy and Tacitus. Ubī and ut are the particles employed; also very often si and relatives, in general quicumque, quotiens, etc. With cum, Iterative Subjunctives are found to a limited extent also in Cicero and Caesar; but all cases of principal tenses in third person have been emended, and those with historical tenses are not common, and sometimes doubtful.

Cum ferrum sē inflexisset, neque ēvellere neque pugnāre poterat (= vidēbant sē nōn posse), Caes., B.G., i. 25, 3; when the iron had bent, they found that they could neither pluck it out nor fight. Incurrere ea gēns in Macedoniam solitā erat (as if constituerat) ubi rāgēm occupātum externō bellō sēnīsisset, L., xxvi. 25, 7; that tribe was wont to make a raid on Macedonia whenever they perceived the king engrossed in foreign war. Quī dūnum ĕius ōrdinis offensīsset omnēs adversōs habēbat (as if certō sciēbat sē habitūrum), L., xxxiii. 46, 1; whose had offended one of that order was sure to have all against him. Modum adhibēndō ubi rēs pōsecet, priōrēs erant, L., iii. 19, 3; by the use of moderation, when the case demanded it, they were his superiors.

II. CONTEMPORANEOUS ACTION.

568. Conjunctions used of Contemporaneous Action are:

Dum, dōnec, while, so long as, untīl; quoad, up to (the time) that; quamdiū, as long as; cum, when.

An action may be contemporaneous in Extent—so long as, while.

An action may be contemporaneous in Limit—until.

REMARK.—Dum, (while) yet, denotes duration, which may be coextensive, so long as, or not. It is often causal. Dōnec (old form dōnīcum, used only in the sense until), is parallel with dum in the sense so long as, until. Cicero uses it only as untīl.

(As long as, while.)

569. Complete Coextension.—Dum, dōnec, quoad, quamdiu, so long as, while, take the Indicative of all the tenses.

Vita dum superest, bene est, Maecenas (Sen., E.M., 101, 11); while (so long as) life remains, 'tis well. Sibi vērō hanc landem relinquunt, “Vixit, dum vixit, bene,” Ter., Hec., 461; they leave indeed this praise for themselves, “He lived well while he lived” (all the time). Tiberius Gracchus tam diā laudābitur dum memoria rērum Rōmānārum manēbit, C., Off., II. 12, 43; Tiberius Gracchus shall be praised so long as the memory of Roman history remains (shall remain). Fuit haec gēns fortis dum Lycūrgī lēgēs vigēbant, C., Tusç., I. 42, 101; this nation was brave so long as the laws of Lycurgus were in force. Dōnec grātus eram tibi, Persārum vigil rēgē beātor, H., O., III. 9, 1; while I was pleasing in your sight, I threw more blessed than Persia’s king. Quoad potuit, restitit, Caes., B.G., IV. 12, 5; as long as he could, he withstood.

Subjunctive in Örātiō Obliqua.

(Rēgulus dīxit) quam diā iūre iūrandō hostiōnum tenērētur nōn esse sē senātōrem, C., Off., III. 27, 100; [Regulus said] that as long as he was bound by his oath to the enemy he was not a senator. (Quamdiu teneor nōn sum senātor.)

Subjunctive by Attraction.

Faciam ut mei memineris dum vitam vivēs, Pl., Pers., 494 (333, 2).

Notes.—1. Dum.—In the Past Sphere we have the Pf. (Aor.), Hist. Pr., and Imperfect. Of these the Hist. Pr. is found first in Sallust (C., 36, 1), and the Impf., while occurring at all periods, is rare. The Pf. is not in Caesār. Dum in the Present Sphere is rare; the Pure Pr. has been observed in Pl., B., 737: mane dum scribit, which looks much like parataxis, and occasionally in Cicero and later; the Pure Pf. is cited only from Terence (And., 556, 597), and is only apparent. Several examples of the Future Sphere are cited, Pl., B., 225, nōn metuō mihi dum hōc valēbit pectus; Ter., Heaut., 107; C., Rosc-Am., 32, 991; V., A. I. 607, etc.

Dōnec is not found in the sense “so long as,” until Lucr., V. 176; then H., O., I. 9, 16; III, 9, 1. Also Ov., Tr., I. 9.5. Livy uses it occasionally, but Tacitus affects it, and employs Hist. Pf., Impf., and Fut. tenses.

Quoad (correlative with adeō) belongs especially to the classical poets, but is also found in prose. Compare C., Ph., III. 11, 23, etc. It is usually found in the Past Sphere; in the Present the adverbial force, “so far as,” seems to preponderate; Pl., Ἀθην., 296: quoad virēs valent. The Future tenses are more common.

Quamdiu (correlative with tamdiu) is found with this usage first in Cicero.

2. When the actions are coextensive, the tenses are generally the same in both members, but not always.

570. Partial Coextension.—Dum, while, while yet, dur-
ing, commonly takes the Present Indicative after all Tenses: so especially in narrative.

Cape hunc equum, dum tibi virium aliquid superest, L., xxii. 49, 7; take this horse, while you have yet some strength left. Dum haec Rōmāe aguntur, cōnsulēs ambō in Liguribus gerēbant bellum, L., xxxix. 1, 1; while these things were going on at Rome, both consuls were carrying on war in Liguria. Praetermissa ēius ref occāsīō est, dum in castellis recipiendīs tempus teritur, L., xxxiii. 18, 20; the opportunity was allowed to slip by, while time was wasted in recovering miserable forts.

Dum in this sense often resists the change into Subjv. in Ō. O., especially in post-classical Latin. (655, n. 3.)

Notes.—1. Quamdiū and quoad are, by their composition, incapable of being used in this sense, and as dōnec was avoided, dum is the only temporal conjunction of limit that is loose enough in its formation to serve for partial coextension. The Pr. after it, formally an Hist. Pr., always connotes continuance, and the construction becomes practically a periphrasis for a missing Pr. participle.

2. The Pure Pr. of the Present Sphere is found occasionally, principally in early Latin. In this sense the relation is often casual, and the construction is parallel with the Pr. participle, the lack of which in the passive it supplies.

Ardua dum metuunt (= metuentēs) ēmittunt vēra viāe, Lucr., i. 660 (372, n. 2). The causal relation is also often present with the other tenses.

3. Other tenses are extremely rare, as the Future; Pl., Men., 214, dum coquētur, interim pōtābimus; the Impf., Nep., xiii. 2, 4, quae divīna rēs dum conāscībātur, quaeāvīt a mē.

4. Livy, xxxii. 24, 5, shows one case of the Plnpp. as a shorthand to express the maintenance of the result, dum āverterat = dum āversōs tēnēbat.

2. Contemporaneous in Limit.

(Until.)

571. Dum, dōnec, quoad, up to (the time) that, until, have the Present, Historical Present, Historical Perfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.

Tityre, dum redeō, brevis est via, pāsca capellās, V., Ec., 9, 23; Tityrus, while I am returning (= till I return)—the way is short—feed my kids. Epaminōndās ferrum in corpore ēisque eō retinuit, quoad renūntiātum est viciisse Boeoitīōs, Cf. Nep., xv. 9, 3; Epaminondas retained the iron in his body, until word was brought back that the Boeotians had conquered. Dōnec rediti Mārcellus, silentium fuit, L., xiii. 31, 9; until Marcellus returned, there was silence. Haud dēsīnam dōnec perfēcerō hōc, Ter., Ph., 420; I will not cease until I have (shall have) accomplished it. Expectābō dum venit, Ter., Eun., 206; I will wait until he comes.

Subjunctive in Ōrātīō Oblīqua.

Sciōniī silānōque dōnec revocāti ab senātū forent prōrogātum imperium
est, L., xxvii. 7, 17; Scipio and Silanus had their command extended until "they should have been recalled by the senate."

Notes.—1. With the Past Sphere the idea of limit precludes the employment of a tense of continuance, which would naturally involve the notion of Overlapping Action. The Impf. is, therefore, not found until the time of Tacitus (once with donec, H., l. 9). With the Present Sphere the tense must be iterative or historical. Otherwise the Pr. is used by anticipation for the Future.

2. The Fut. Indic. is found occasionally in early Latin, usually, however, the Present. In the classical times, and afterwards, the Subjv. takes its place. Thus Cicero uses the Subjv. regularly, after verba exspectandī, except in possibly four passages of the earlier Orations and Letters.

3. Donec is not uncommon in early Latin, but is very rare in Cicero, and never occurs in Caesar. On the other hand, Tacitus shows one hundred and thirty-eight cases of it.

4. Dōnicum belongs to early Latin, but is not found in Terence; one case with the Subjv. is found in Nepos. Dōnique is found in Lucretius four times with the Indic., always before vowels; in Vitruvius once with Indic., three times with Subjv.; otherwise it is not cited.

5. Quoad, until, occurs once in Plautus, and with the Subjunctive. Otherwise it is found with both moods occasionally throughout the language.

6. Livy introduces donec inversum like cum inversum (581). See xxi. 46, 6; xxxv. 50, 4, etc.

572. Dum, donec, and quoad, until, take the Subjunctive when Suspense and Design are involved.

Verginius dum collāgam cōnsuleret morātus (est), L., iv. 21, 10; Verginius delayed until he could (long enough to) consult his colleague. At tanti tibi sit nōn indulgere theāris, dum bene dē vacuō pectore cēdat amor, Ov., Rem. Am., 751; but let it be worth the cost to you (= deem it worth the cost) not to indulge in play-going, until love be fairly gone from (your) untenanted bosom.

Often with verba exspectandī, especially exspectō, I wait.

Rūsticus exspectat dum dēfluat amnis, H., Ep., i. 2, 42; the clown waits for the river to run off (dry).

Remarks.—1. The Subjv. is sometimes used in narrative with dum, while, and donec, while, until, to express subordination. The principle is that of Partial Obliquity. There is often a Causal or Iterative sense (like cum, 584, r.).

Dum intentus in eum sē rēx tōtus āverteret, alter ēlātam secūrim in caput dēēcit, L., i. 40, 7; while the king, intent upon him, was turning quite away, the other raised his axe and planted it in his skull. (Averteret from the point of view of alter = dum videt āvertentem.)

2. Verba exspectandī have also other constructions, as ut, si, quīn, but not the Infinitive.

573. Dum, modō, and dummodō, if only, provided only,
only, are used with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive in Conditional Wishes.

The negative is nē (dum nē = nē interim).

Oderint dum metuant, Accius (C., Off., i. 23, 97); let them hate so long as they fear (provided that, if they will only fear). Quō lubeat nūbant, dum dōs nē fiat comes, Pl., Aul., 491; let them marry where (= whom) they please, if but the dowry do not go with them. Dummodō mōrāta rectē veniat, dōtāta est satīs, Pl., Aul., 239; provided only she come with a good character, she is endowed (= her dowry is) enough. In eō multa admiranda sunt: ēligere modo cūræ sit, Quint., i. 1, 131; many things in him are to be admired; only you must be careful to choose. Cópia plācāndī sit modo parva tui, Ov., Her., 20, 74 (428, E. 1).

Notes.—1. It has been noticed that Tacitus uses dummodō only in the Germania and Dialogus, otherwise dum.

2. Dummodō nē and modō nē are found first in Cicero. In post-Augustan Latin nōn is sometimes used for nē; Juv., vii. 222, dummodo nōn pereat.

III. SUBSEQUENT ACTION.

Antequam and Priusquam with the Indicative.

574. Antequam and priusquam, before, take the Present, Perfect, and Future Perfect Indicative, when the limit is stated as a fact. The Present is used in anticipation of the Future.

Remarks.—1. The elements ante, antēa, prīs, and quam are often separated.

2. As prīs (ante)-quam is negative in its signification (= neodium), the Indic. is sometimes found where we should expect the Subjunctive.

Note.—Antequam is much rarer than priusquam, especially in early Latin, where it is cited only from Cato, Caesius, Terence (Hec., i. 46, with Subjv. in O. O.), and Varro. Cicero prefers it before a Pr. Indic., priusquam elsewhere.

575. The Present Indicative is used after positive sentences.

Antequam ad sententiam redeō, dē mē paucā dīcam, C., Cat., iv. io, 20; before I return to the subject, I will say a few things of myself. Omnia experīri certum est prius quam pereō, Ter., And., 311; I am determined to try everything before I perish. (Prius quam peream = sooner than perish, to keep from perishing.)

Notes.—1. The Pure Pf. Indic. is used of Iterative Action, and is rare. (567.)

Dociliōra sunt ingeniā priusquam obdūrāruit, Quint., i. 12, 9 (567).

Instead of this, the Pr. Subjv. is more common in general statements. (567, N.)

2. Tacitus shows no example of the Pr. Indicative.
576. The Perfect (Aorist) and Future Perfect Indicative are used both after positive and after negative clauses, chiefly the latter.

Hēræliō, aliquantō ante quam est mortuus, omnia tràdiderat, C., Verr., ii. 18, 46; some time before he died he had handed over everything to Heracleius. Lēgātī nōn ante protectī quam impositōs in nāvēs militēs vidērunt, L., xxxiv. 12, 8; the envoys did not set out until they saw the soldiers on board. Neque dēfatigābor ante quam illōrum viās rationēsque et prō omnibus et contra omnia disputandī percēperō, C., Or., iii. 36, 145; I will not let myself grow weary before (until) I learn (shall have learned) their methods of disputing for and against everything.

Subjunctive in Oṟātiō Obliqua.

Themistoclēs [collēgis suls] praedīxit, ut nē prius Lacedaemoniōrum lēgātōs dimitterent quam ipse esset remissus, Nep., ii. 7, 3 (546, 2). (Nōn prius dīmittētis quam ego erō remissus.)

Remark.—After negative clauses containing a historical tense the Pf. is the rule and the connection is always close: nōn priusquam = dum. Violations of this rule are very rare; see 577, 2.

Notes.—1. The Fut. is found occasionally in Plautus, but has disappeared by the time of Terence. The Fut. Pf. is never common, but is found at all periods. Tacitus avoids it, and so do other authors.

2. The Impf. is confined to Livy, who shows four examples, and to one case in late Latin. The Plpf. is found once in Cicero (Dom., 30, 78), where it may be Iterative, and once in early Latin.

Antequam and Priusquam with the Subjunctive.

577. Antequam and priusquam are used with the Subjunctive when an ideal limit is given; when the action is expected, contingent, designed, or subordinate.

1. An ideal limit involves necessary antecedence, but not necessary consequence. After positive sentences, the Subjunctive is the rule, especially in generic sentences and in narrative. (Compare cum, 585.) After Historical Tenses the Subjunctive is almost invariable when the action does not, or is not to, take place. The translation is often before, and the verbal in -ing (Greek πρὶν with the Infinitive).

Ante vidēmus fulgōrem quam sonum audīāmus, Sēn., N.Q., ii. 12, 6; we see the flash of lightning before hearing the sound (we may never hear it). But compare Lucr., vi. 170. In omnibus negotiis prius quam aggregiāre adhibenda est praeparātiō diligēns, C., Off., i. 21, 73; in all affairs, before addressing yourself (to them), you must make use of careful preparation (Ideal Second Person). [Collem] celeriter priusquam ab
adversarīis sentiātūr commūnit, Caes., B.C., i. 54, 4; he speedily fortified the hill before he was (too soon to be) perceived by the enemy (prius quam = prius quam ut). Hannibal omnia priusquam excēderet pāgnā (erat) expertus, L., xxx. 35, 4; Hannibal had tried everything before withdrawing from the fight (= to avoid withdrawing from the fight). Saepe magna indolēs virtūtīs priusquam reī publicae prōdesse potuisset extincta est, C., Ph., v. 17, 47; often hath great native worth been extinguished before it could be of service to the State. Ducentīs annīs antequam urbem Rōmam caperent in Italiam Gallī trānscederunt, L., v. 33, 5; (it was) two hundred years before their taking Rome (that) the Gauls crossed into Italy (here the Subjv. gives the natural point of reference).

2. After an historical tense in the negative, the Subjunctive is exceptional. (576, r.)

Inde nōn prius ēgressus est quam (= ibi manēbat dum) rēx eum in fidem recipert, Nep., ii. 8, 4; he did not come out until the king should take him under his protection (he stayed to make the king take him under his protection). See Caes., B.G., vi. 37, 2; L., xliv. ii. 3.

Notes.—1. The Pr. Subjv. is common, but is usually generic; the few cases of Final Subjv. are confined to early Latin. Very rarely the Hist. Pr. is found after a Hist. Present. See Caes., B.C., i. 22.

2. The Pr. occurs occasionally; it is usually in a final sense.

Nōn prius dīmītτū t quām ab his sīt concēssum, Caes., B.G., iii. 18.

3. In Livy we find the Impf. Subjv. used not unfrequently, where the idea of suspense or design is very slight, much after the manner of cum nōndum (as C., Ph., v. 1, 4).

4. The Plupf. Subjv. is cited five times from Cicero and four times from Livy. In these passages the completion rather than the continuance is in suspense.

5. Postridēquum is found in Plautus, Cicero (Letters), and Suetonius with the Indicative. In Cicero, Ac., ii. 3, 9, with the Subjunctive. Pridēquum is found in Plautus and Cicero with the Indicative; in Livy, Val. Max., and Suetonius with the Subjunctive. Both are very rare.

6. When the will is involved, potius quām is used in the same way as prius quām. Dēpūgnā potius quām servīās, C., Att. vii. 7, 7; fight it out rather than be a slave.

IV. CONSTRUCTIONS OF CUM (QUOM).

578. Cum is a (locative) relative conjunction.

Note.—Originally locative (where), quom became temporal (when) like ubi. When time is not defined by a fixed date, it readily becomes circumstance, and this circumstance is interpreted as cause, condition, and the like. Compare the circumstantial relative itself. The first construction was with the Indicative as with any other merely relative clause, and this is the sole construction in earliest Latin. But, beginning with Terence, we can observe the drift ever increasing in Latin towards the expression of character by tendency (Subjv.) rather than by fact (Indic.), so that the relative of character takes more and more the Subjunctive, and cum follows the lead of ut and of the inflected relative pronoun.

579. There are two great uses of cum:

I. Temporal cum (when, then), with the Indicative.
II. Circumstantial *cum* (*as, whereas*), with the Subjunctive.

In the second usage the relation is still purely a matter of inference; but according to this inferential connection we distinguish:

(a) Historical *cum*, *as*, giving the attendant circumstances, mainly temporal, under which an action took place.

(b) Causal *cum*, *as, whereas, since*, indicating that the main action proceeded from the subordinate one.

(c) Concessive *cum*, *whereas, although*, indicating that the main action was accomplished in spite of that of the subordinate clause.

I. Cum *vēr* appetit, militēs ex hibernis movent, *when spring approaches*, soldiers move out of winter-quarters.

II. (a) Cum *vēr* appeteret, Hannibal ex hibernis mōvit, *as spring was approaching* (spring approaching), Hannibal moved out of winter-quarters.

(b) Cum *vēr* appetat, ex hibernis movendum est, *as (since) spring is approaching*, we must move out of winter-quarters.

(c) Cum *vēr* appeteret, tamen hostēs ex hibernis nōn mōverunt, *whereas (although) spring was approaching*, nevertheless the enemy did not move out of winter-quarters.


580. *Cum, when*, is used with all the tenses of the Indicative to designate merely temporal relations.

In the Principal clause, a temporal adverb or temporal expression is frequently employed, such as *tum, tunc, then; nunc, now; diēs, day; tempus, time; iam, already; vix, scarcely*, and the like.

Animus, nec cum adest nec cum discēdit, appāret, C., *Cat.M.*, 22, 80; *the soul is not visible, either when it is present, or when it departs. Stomachor cum aliōrum nōn mē digna in mē cōnferuntur, C., Planc., 14, 35; I get fretted when other people's jokes that are not worthy of me are foisted on me. [Sex librōs dē rēs pūblīcā] tum scīpsimus cum gubernācula rerēs pūblīcēs tenēbāmus, C., *Div.*, ii. 1, 3; *I wrote the six books about the State at the time when I held the helm of the State. Recordāre tempus illud cum pater Ĉuriō maerēns iacēbat in lectō, C., *Ph.*, ii. 18, 45; remem- ber the time when Curio the father lay abed from grief. Longum illud tempus cum nōn erō magis mē movet quam hoc exiguum, C., *Att.*, xii. 18, 1; that long time (to come), when I shall not exist, has more effect on me than this scant (present time). Iam dilūcēscēbat cum signum cōnsul
dedit, L., xxxvi. 24, 6; by this time day was beginning to dawn, when the consul gave the signal. (See 581.)

Ideal Second Person with the Subjunctive:

Pater, hominum immortālis est insanīam. Etiam tum vivit quom esse crédās mortuam, Pl., Pers., 355; Father, immortal is the ill-fame of the world. It lives on even when you think that it is dead.

But the presence of a temporal adverb does not mean necessarily that the cum clause is merely temporal.

Remarks.—1. Fuit cum commonly follows the analogy of other characteristic relatives (631), and takes the Subjunctive:

Fuit tempus cum (= fuit cum) rūra coherent hominēs, Varro, R. R., iii. 1, 1; there was a time when all mankind tilled fields = were countrymen.

The Indic. is rare.

2. Meminī cum, I remember the time when, takes the Indic., but audīre cum takes the Subjv. parallel with the participle:

Meminī cum mihī désipere videbāre, C., Fam., vii. 28, 1; I remember the time when you seemed to me to show the worst possible taste. Audīre Metrodōrum cum dē ipsis rēbus disputāret, C., Or., ii. 90, 365; I have heard Metrodorus discus(ing) these very matters.

3. Peculiar is the use of cum with Lapses of Time. Lapses of Time are treated as Designations of Time in Accusative or Ablative:

Multi annī sunt cum (= multōs annōs) in aere mē est, C., Fam., xv. 14, 1; (it is) many years (that) he has been (230) in my debt. Permulti annī iam erant cum inter patriciōs magistratūs tribūnōsque nūlla certaminā fuerant, L., ix. 33, 3; very many years had elapsed since there had been any struggles between the patrician magistrates and the tribunes.

Nōndum centum et decem annī sunt cum (= ex quō = abhinc annōs) dé pecūniis repetundīs lāta lēx est, C., Off., ii. 21, 75; it is not yet one hundred and ten years since the law concerning extortion was proposed.


The same holds true for Terence, except that the Subjv. is now making its appearance in cases where it can be neither potential, ideal, nor attracted, as Hec., 341: non visam uxōrem Pamphilī, quom in proxumō hic sit aegra?

Of course, this prevalence of the Indic. does not exclude the attraction into the Subjv., nor does it exclude the regular potential use.

2. The explicative use dies out, except where it is akin to the conditional; but it always retains the Indicative. With Causal and Concessive-Adversative uses, the Subjv. is used more and more in place of the Indicative.

3. In early Latin we find quoniam and quandō, used sometimes with the force of quom. In the case of quoniam several examples are cited from Plautus, in most of which, however, the causal conception lies very close at hand; the temporal force seems to have disappeared by the time of Terence, and only reappears in Gellius. The
temporal usage of *quando* is still the prevailing one in Plautus, over seventy instances having been collected. Of these the majority are in the Present and Future Spheres, in which the shift to the causal conception is very easy; many of them are also iterative. In Terence the temporal usage of *quando* has disappeared unless possibly in one passage (Ad., 206), but sporadic cases are found later, even in Cicero.

Quoniam hinc est profecturus peregrē thēnsaurum dēmonstrāvit mihi, Pl., Trin., 149. *Tum, quando légātōs Tyrum misimus*, C., Leg.Agr., ii. 16, 41.

581. Cum Inversum. When the two actions are independent, *cum* is sometimes used with the one which seems to be logically the principal clause, just as in English.

*Iam nōn longius bidūi viā aberant, cum duās vēnsisse legiōnēs cognōscunt, Caes., B.G., vi. 7, 2; they were now distant not more than two days' march, when they learned that two legions were come.*

Similar is the addition of an illustrative fact, often causal or adversative, by *cum interea* (interim), *quidem, tamen, etc.*, with the Indicative.

582. Explicative *cum*.—When the actions of the two clauses are coincident, *cum* is almost equivalent to its kindred relative *quod, in that*.

*Āisocem, hunc quom vidēs, ipsum vidēs, Pl., Capt., 615; when you see him, you see Ajax himself. · Cum tacent, clāmant, C., Cat., i. 8, 21; when (= in that) they are silent, they cry aloud. Dixi omnia cum hominem nōmināvi, Plin., Ep., iv. 22, 4; I have said everything, in naming the man.*

583. Conditional *cum*.—*Cum* with the Future, Future Perfect, or Universal Present, is often almost equivalent to *si, if*, with which it is sometimes interchanged.

*Cum pōscēs, pōse Latinē, Juv., xi. 148; when (if) you (shall) ask (for anything), ask in Latin. Cum veniet contrā, digitō compōsce labellum, Juv., i. 160; when (if) he meets you, padlock your lip with your finger.*

584. Iterative *cum*.—*Cum* in the sense of *quotiens, as often as*, takes the Tenses of Iterative Action.

*Solet cum sē purgat in mē cōnferre omnem culpam, C., Att., ix. 21, 1; he is accustomed, when he clears himself, to put off all the blame on me. [Ager] cum multōs annōs requīēvit ūberiōres efferre frūges solet, C., Br., 4, 16 (567). Cum pālam ēius ānulī ad palmam converterat (Gyges) & nūllō videbātur, C., Off., iii. 9, 38 (567).*

Remark.—The Subjv. is also found (567, n.): *Cum in iūs dūci dēbitōrem vidissent, undique convolābant, L., ii. 27, 8; whenever they saw a debtor taken to court, they made it a rule to hurry together from all quarters.*
2. Circumstantial *cum*.

585. **Historical *cum***.—*Cum*, when (as), is used in narrative with the Imperfect Subjunctive of contemporaneous action, with the Pluperfect Subjunctive of antecedent action, to characterise the temporal circumstances under which an action took place.

[Ägësiläus] *cum ex Aegypthé reverterétur décésit*, N.B., xvii. 8, 6; Agæsiläus died as he was returning from Egypt. Zénönum *cum Athënis essem audiébam* frequenter, C., N.D., i. 21, 59; when I was (being) at Athens, I heard Zeno (lecture) frequently. Athëniënsës *cum statuerent ut náveś cónscenderent*, Cyrsilum quendam suádentem ut in urbe manérent, lapidibus obruérunt, C., Off., iii. 11, 48 (546).

*Cum* Caesar Anconam occupávisset, urbem reliquímus, C., Fám., xvi. 12, 2; *when* (as) Caesar had occupied Ancona (Caesar having occupied Ancona), I left the city. Attalus moritur alteré et septuágésimó annó, *cum quattuor et quadraginta annós régnasset*, L., xxxiii. 21, 1; Attalus died in his seventy-second year, having reigned forty-four years.

**Remark.**—The subordinate clause generally precedes. The circumstantiality often appears as causality, but sometimes the exact shade cannot be distinguished. Owing to this implicit character, *cum* with the Subjv. is a close equivalent to the participle, and often serves to supply its absence. Compare 611 with 631, 2.

**Notes.**—1. How closely allied the ideas of time and circumstance are, in these constructions, is seen from such examples as this:


2. The use of temporal particles with the Pr. is necessarily limited to iterative or causal (adversative) relations. Hence there is no room for the circumstantial *cum* with the Subjv. except so far as it is causal-adversative. Fut. and Fut. Pf. are found chiefly in general or iterative relations.

3. By attraction similar to that with quod (541, N. 3) and other relatives, *cum diceret*, with an Inf., is found where diceret would be more naturally omitted or inserted as (ut dícebát); so *cum adsentíre sē diceret* for *cum adsentíret*, L., i. 54, 1. Similarly with *cum* causal: “saying, as he did,” C., Mel., 5, 12.

586. **Causal *cum***.—*Cum*, when, whereas, since, seeing that, with any tense of the Subjunctive, is used to denote the reason, and occasionally the motive, of an action (580, N. 1).

Quæ *cum īta sint, effectum est nihil esse malum quod turpe nón sit*, C., Fin., iii. 8, 29; since these things are so, it is made out (proved) that nothing is bad that is not dishonourable. *Cum [Athënás] tamquam ad*
mercāturam bonārum artium sīs profectus, inānem redīre turpissimum est, C., Off., iii. 2, 6; as (since) you set out for Athens as if to market for accomplishments, it would be utterly disgraceful to return empty (handed). Dolō erat pūgnandum, cum pār nōn esset armīs, Nep., xxiii. 10, 4; he had to fight by stratagem, as he (seeing that he) was not a match in arms.

Remarks.—1. The characteristic nature of the Subjunctive with *cum* comes out more clearly in the causal connection, owing to the parallel with *utpote*, *quippe*, and the relative (626, n.).

2. The primary tenses are more common, in this connection, but the historical tenses are abundant enough. With the latter the causal relation need never be emphasised.

587. Concessive and Adversative *cum*.—Causal *cum*, whereas, becomes Concessive *cum*, whereas, although, with the Subjunctive, when the cause is not sufficient; the relation is often adversative, and there is no limitation as to tense.

The temporal notion is still at work; whether the times are for or against an action is a matter outside of language (580, n. 1).

*Nihil mē adīuvit cum posset*, C., Att., ix. 13, 3; he gave me no assistance, although (at a time when) he had it in his power. *Cum primī ordinēs hostium concidissent, tamen ācerrīmō reliquī resistēbant*, Caes., B.G., vii. 62, 4; although the first ranks of the enemy had fallen (been cut to pieces), nevertheless the rest resisted most vigorously. *Perīre artem putāmus nisi appendet, cum dēsīnat ars esse, si appendet*, Quint., iv. 2, 127; we think that (our) art is lost unless it shows, whereas it ceases to be art if it shows.

Remarks.—1. To emphasise the adversative idea, *tamen* is often added in the principal clause.

2. Adversative *cum nōn*, whereas not, is often conveniently translated without; *cum nōn inferior fuisset*, C., Off., i. 32, 116; without being inferior.

588. *Cum*—tum. 1. When *cum*, when, tum, then, have the same verb, the verb is put in the Indicative. *Cum*—tum then has the force of both—and especially, and a strengthening adverb, such as *māximē, praecipūē*, is often added to the latter.

(Pausaniās) cōnsilia cum patriae tum sībī inimīca capiēbat, Nep., iv. 3, 3; Pausanias conceived plans that were hurtful both to his country and especially to himself.
2. When they have different verbs, the verb with *cum* is usually in the Indicative, but *may* be in the Subjunctive, especially when the actions of the two verbs are not contemporary; this Subjunctive often has a concessive force.

[Sisennae historia] *cum* facile omnēs vincat superiōrēs, *tum* indicat tamen quantum absit a summō, C., Br., 64, 228; although the history of Sisenna easily surpasses all former histories, yet it shows how far it is from the highest (mark).

**CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.**

589. In Conditional Sentences the clause which contains the condition (supposed cause) is called the *Protasis*, that which contains the consequence is called the *Apodosis*.

Logically, Protasis is *Premiss*; and Apodosis, *Conclusion*. Grammatically, the Apodosis is the *Principal*, the Protasis the *Dependent*, clause.

590. *Sign of the Conditional.*—The common conditional particle is *si*, *if*.

**Notes.**—1. *si* is a locative case, literally, *so, in those circumstances* (comp. *si-c, so*, and the English: "I would by combat make her good, so were I a man."—Shakespeare). Hence, conditional clauses with *si* may be regarded as adverbs in the Abl. case, and are often actually represented by the Abl. Absolute.

*Si* is found as the correlative of *si* in the colloquial language, *as*: *sic* scribēs ali-quid, *si* vacābis (C., Att., xii. 38, 2); *sic* ignōvisse putātō me tibi, *si* cēnās hodiē mēcum (H., Ep., i. 7, 69). Instead of *sic*, its equivalent *tum* occurs at all periods, being in the Augustan time restricted to formal uses. *Igitur* is also found as late as Cicero, who likewise uses *ita*. Other particles are post-classical.

2. The connection with the Causal Sentence is shown by *si quidem*, which in later Latin is almost = *quoniam*; see 595, r. 5.

3. The temporal particles *cum* and *quandō*, *when*, and the locative *ubi*, are also used to indicate conditional relations in which the idea of Time or Space is involved.

591. *Negative of si.*—The negative of *si* is *si nōn* or *nisi*.

(a) With *si nōn*, *if not*, the *nōn* negatives the single word; hence an opposing positive is expected, either in a preceding condition, or in the conclusion. Therefore, *si nōn* is the rule:

1. When the positive of the same verb precedes.

*Sī feceris, māgnam habēbō grātiam*; *si nōn feceris, ignōscam*, C., *Fam.*, v. 19; *if you do it, I will be very grateful to you; if you do not, I will forgive (you).*
2. When the Condition is concessive; in this case the principal clause often contains an adversative particle.

_Si nihil bonâ rē públicā fruī non licuerit, at carēbō malā, C.,_ Mil., 34, 93; _if I shall not be allowed to enjoy good government, I shall at least be rid of bad._

(b) With _nisi, unless_, the negative ni- refers to the principal clause, which is thus denied, if the conditional clause is accepted; hence:

1. _Nisi_ adds an exception or restriction to the leading statement. Compare the general use of _nisi, except_ (R. 2).

_Nisi molestumst, paucis percontāriō (130, 6) volō ego ex tē,_ Pl., Rud., 120; _if it is not disagreeable, I wish to ask you a few questions._

So the formula _nisi fallor_ (ni fallor is found first in Ovid), _nisi mē omnia fallunt_ (C., Att., viii. 7, 1), and the like.

2. _Nisi_ is in favorite use after negatives.

_Parvi (= nihil) sunt foris arma nisi est consilium domī, C., Off., i. 22, 76 (411, R. 2). [Nōn] possem vivere nisi in litteris vivere m., C., Fam., ix. 26, 1; _I could not live unless I lived in study._ Memoria minuitur nisi eam exerceās, C., Cat.M., 7, 21; _memory wanes unless (except) you exercise it._ (Si nōn exerceās, in case you fail to exercise it.)

So more often than si nōn, in asseverations. _Peream nisi sollicitus sum, C., Fam., xv. 19, 4; may I die if I am not troubled._

Remarks.—1. Sometimes the difference is unessential:

_Nisi Cūriō fuisset, hodie tē muscae comēdissent, Cf. Quint., xi. 3, 129; if it had not been for Curio, the flies would have eaten you up this day._

_Si nōn fuisset_ would be equally correct.

2. _Nisi_ is often used after negative sentences or equivalents in the signification of _but, except, besides, only_:

_Insipce quid portem; nihil hic nisi triste videōbis, Ov., Tr., iii. i, 9;_ examine what I am bringing; _you will see nothing here except (what is) sad._

_Falsus honor iuvat et mendāx infamia terret, quem nisi mendōsum et medicandum?_ II., Ep., i. 16, 39; _false honour charms and lying slander scares,_ whom but the faulty and the fit for physic?

So _nisi si, except in case,_ with a following verb; occasional in early Latin, more common later, but not in _Caes._ (B. G., i. 31, 14, is disputed), _Sall., Verg., Hor._ _Nisi ut, except on condition that,_ is post-classical.

_Necessē est Casillinēsēs sē dēdēre Hannibāl i; nisi si mālunt āmē perire, C., Inv., ii. 57, 171; the people of Caesilinum must needs surrender to Hannibal; unless (except in case) they prefer to perish by hunger._

3. _Nisi quod_ introduces an actual limitation—with the exception, _that_ (525, 2, n. 2); _so praeterquam quod; nisi ut_ (e. g. C., _Imp.,_ 23, 67).
Nihil acciderat [Polyerati] quod nollet nisi quod anulum quod delectabatur in marit abiecerat, C., Fin., v. 30, 92; nothing had happened to Polyerates that he could not have wished, except that he had thrown into the sea a ring in which he took delight (= a favorite ring). Nihil peccat nisi quod nihil peccat, Plin., Ep., ix. 26, 1; he makes no blunder except—that he makes no blunder ("faultily faultless").

4. Nisi forte (found very often in Cicero, very rarely earlier), unless, perhaps, nisi vērō (peculiar to Cicero), unless, indeed, with the Indic., either limit a previous statement, or make an ironical concession:

Nēmō fērē saltat sōbrinus nisi forte īnsānit, C., Mur., 6, 13; there is scarce any one that dances (when) sober, unless perhaps he is cracked. Plēnum forum est eōrum hominum, . . . nisi, vērō paucōs fuisse arbitrāmini, C., Sull., 9, 28; the forum is full of those men; unless, indeed, you think they were (but) few.

Notes.—1. Nisi is sometimes strengthened by tamen, but, yet.

Nisi etiam hic opponiār tamēn paulisper, Pl., Aut., 805; Cf. C., Att., v. 14, 3. Even without tamen it is adversative in colloquial Latin, especially after nesciō.

2. Nī is found mostly in early Latin and the poets, and in legal formule and colloquial phrases. It is rare in Cicero, and never used in Caesar.

Peream nī pisicem putāvī esse, Varro, R.R., iii. 3, 9; may I die if I did not think it was a fish.

3. Nisi forte is found occasionally with the Subjv. from Apuleius on.

592. Two Conditions excluding each the other.—When two conditions exclude each the other, sī is used for the first; sīn, if not (but if), for the second.

Sīn is further strengthened by autem, vērō (rare), but; minus, less (not); secus (rare), otherwise; aliter, else.

Mercātūra, sī tenuis est, sordida putanda est; sīn māgna et cōpiōsa, nōn est admodum vituperanda, C., Off., i. 42, 151; mercantile business, if it is petty, is to be considered dirty (work); if (it is) not (petty, but) great and abundant (= conducted on a large scale), it is not to be found fault with much.

Remark.—If the verb or predicate is to be supplied from the context, sī minus, if less (not), sīn minus, sīn aliter, if otherwise, are commonly used, rarely sī nōn:

Ēdūc tēcum omnēs tuōs; sī minus, quam plurīmos, C., Cat., i. 5, 10; take out with you all your (followers); if not, as many as possible. Ōdero sī poterō; sī nōn, invītus amābō, Ov., Am., iii. ii, 35 (242, r. 2).

Note.—Much less common are simple sī, or sī strengthened by nōn, nihil, nūllus, minus, or by autem, vērō; or sīd sī, at sī (Col.), sī contrā (Hor., Plin.). Sīn may also be followed by nōn, but commonly only when one or more words intervene.

Pōma crūda sī sunt, vix ēvelluntur; sī mātūra, decidunt, C., Cat.M., 19, 71; if fruit is green it can hardly be plucked, if ripe it falls (of itself).
593. Other Forms of the Protasis.—1. The Protasis may be expressed by a Relative.

Quia vidēret, urbem captam diceret, C., Verr., iv. 23, 52; whoso had seen it, had said that the city was taken. Mirārētur qui tum cerneret, L., xxxiv. 9, 4 (258).

2. The Protasis may be contained in a Participle.

Si latet ars, prōdest; afferit dēprēssa pudōrem, Ov., A.A., ii. 313; art, if concealed, does good; detected, it brings shame. Maximās virtūtēs iacēre omnēs necesse est voluptāte dominante, C., Fin., ii. 35, 117; all the greatest virtues must necessarily lie prostrate, if the pleasure (of the senses) is mistress. Nihil [potest] ęvenire nisi causā antecedente, C., Fat., 15, 34; nothing can happen, unless a cause precede.

3. The Protasis may be involved in a modifier.

Fecerunt id servi Milo quod suós quisque servós in tātī ré facere voluisset, C., Mil., 10, 29; the servants of Milo did what each man would have wished his servants to do in such case (si quid tāle accidisset). At bene nōn poterat sine pūrō pectore vivē, Lucr., v. 18; but there could be no good living without a clean heart (nisi pūrum pectus esset). Neque enim māteriam ipsam (cēnsēbant) cohaerēre potuisset si nūllā vi continērētur, neque vim sine aliqüā māteriā, C., Ac., i. 6, 24.

4. The Protasis may be expressed by an Interrogative, or, what is more common, by an Imperative or equivalent.

Trístis es? indīgnor quod sum tibi causa doloris, Ov., Tr., iv. 3, 33 (542). Cēdit amor rēbus: rēs age, tūtus eris, Ov., Rem-Am., 144; love yields to business; be busy (if you plunge into business), you will be safe. Immutā (verbūrūm collocātiōnem), perierit tōta rēs, C., Or., 70, 232 (244, r. 4).

Classification of Conditional Sentences.

594. Conditional sentences may be divided into three classes, according to the character of the Protasis:

I. Logical Conditional Sentences: si, with the Indicative.

II. Ideal Conditional Sentences: si, chiefly with Present and Perfect Subjunctive.

III. Unreal Conditional Sentences: si, with Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.

Notes.—1. In some grammars of Greek and Latin, conditional sentences, and sentences involving conditional relations, have been divided into particular and general. Whether a condition be particular or general depends simply on the character of the Apodosis. Any form of the Conditional Sentence may be general, if it implies a rule of action. The forms for Iterative action have been given (566, 567).
2. Conditional Sentences with the Subjunctive (Ideal and Unreal) are best understood by comparing the forms of the Ideal and Unreal wish which have the same mood and the same tenses. The Unreal wish of the Past is the Plupf., that of the Present is the Impf. Subjunctive. The Ideal wish is the Pr. and Pf. Subjunctive. The same temporal relations appear in the conditional.

I. LOGICAL CONDITIONAL SENTENCES:

595. The Logical Conditional Sentence simply states the elements in question, according to the formula: if this is so, then that is so; if this is not so, then that is not so.

It may be compared with the Indicative Question.

The Protasis is in the Indicative: the Apodosis is generally in the Indicative; but in future relations any equivalent of the Future (Subjunctive, Imperative) may be used.

PROTASIS.                      APODOSIS.
Si id crédis,                   errás,
    If you believe that,       you are going wrong.
Si id crédēbās,                 errēbās,
    If you believed that,     you were going wrong.
Si id crédidisti,              errēstī,
    If you (have) believed that,  you went (have gone) wrong.
Si id crédēs,                  errēbis,
    If you (shall) believe that,  you will (be) going wrong.
Si id crédideris,              errēverēs,
    If you (shall have) believe(d) that,  you will have gone (will go) wrong.
Si quid crédidisti,            errēs,
    If you have believed anything   you go wrong.  Comp. 569.
Si quid crédiderās,            errēbās,
    If you had believed anything (= when you believe anything), you went wrong.
                        
Si spiritum dūcit, vivit, C., Inv., i. 46, 86; if he is drawing (his) breath (breathing) he is living. Parvi sunt foris arma nisi est cōnsilium domi, C., Off., i. 22, 76 (411, r. 2). Si occidī, rēctē fēci; sed nōn occidī, QUINT., iv. 5, 13; if I killed him, I did right; but I did not kill him. [Nātūram] si sequēmur ducem, numquam aberrābimus, C., Off., i. 28, 100; if we (shall) follow nature (as our) guide, we shall never go astray. [Improbēs] si meus cōnsulātus sustulerit, multa saecula prōpāgārit rei publicae, C., Cat., ii. 5, 11; if my consulship shall have done away with the destructive, it will have added many ages to the life of the State. Si pēs condoluit, si dēns, ferre nōn possēmus, C., Tusc., ii. 22, 52 (567). Stomachābātur senex, si quid asperius dixeram, C., N.D., i. 33, 93 (567). Vivam, si vivet; si cadet illa, cadam, Prop., ii. (iii.) 28 (25), 42 (8); let me live, if she lives; if she falls, let me fall. Nunc si forte potes, sed nōn potes, optima cōniūnx, finitis gaude tot mihi morte malēs, Ōv., Tr., iii. 3, 55;
now, if haply you can, but you cannot, noble wife, rejoice that so many evils have been finished for me by death. Flectere si nequeo superos, Acheronta movēbō, V., Α., vīl. 312; if I can't bend the gods above, I'll rouse (all) hell below. Si tot exempla virtūās nōn movēnt, nihil umquam movēbit; si tanta clādēs vīlem vitam nōn fēcit, nulla faciet, L., xxii. 60, 14; if so many examples of valour stir you not, nothing will ever do it; if so great a disaster has not made life cheap, none (ever) will. Dēsinēs timēre, si spērāre dēsieris, Sen., E.M., 1. 5, 7; you will cease to fear, if you (shall have) cease(d) to hope. Pereat male, si nōn optimum erat, II., S., II. 1, 6; may I die the death if it was not best. Si volēbās participāri, auferēs (= auferre dēbēbās) dimidium domum, Pl., Truc., 748; if you wished to share in it, you should have taken the half home. Respi-rārō si tē viderō, C., Att., II. 24, 5; I shall breathe again, if I shall have seen you.

Remarks.—1. After a verb of Saying or Thinking (Œrātiō Obliqua), the Protasis must be put in the Subjv., according to the rule.

(Si id crēdis, errās.) Dicō, tē, si id crēdās, errāre.

Dicī, tē, si id crēderēs, errāre.

(Si id crēdēs, errābis.) Dicō, tē, si id crēdās, errātūrum esse.

Dicī, tē, si id crēderēs, errātūrum esse.

(Si id crēdidisti, errāstī.) Dicō, tē, si id crēdiderēs, errāsse.

Dicī, tē, si id crēdidissēs, errāsse.

For examples, see Œrātiō Obliqua, 657.

2. The Subjv. is used by Attraction:

[Arāneolae] rēte texunt ut si quid inhaeserit cōnficiant, C., N.D., ii. 48, 123 (567). (Si quid inhaesis cōnficiunt.)

3. The Ideal Second Person takes the Subjv. in connection with the Universal Present:

(Senectūs) plēna est voluptātis si illā scīäs ēti, Sen., E.M., 12, 4; old age is full of pleasure if you know (if one knows) how to enjoy it.

Memoria minuitur nisi eam exercēs, C., Cat.M., 7, 21 (591, δ. 2).

4. Siōe—sīve (seu—seu) almost invariably takes the Logical form. (496, 2.) The Subjv. is occasionally used by Attraction or with the Ideal Second Person.

Seu vicit, fercēiter instat victis; seu victus est, instaurat cum victōribus certāmen, L., xxvii. 14, 1; if he vanquishes (567), he presses the vanquished furiously; if he is vanquished, he renews the struggle with the vanquishers.

5. Siquidem, as giving the basis for a conclusion, often approaches the causal sense (590, n. 2). In this case the Apodosis precedes.

Molesta vēritās, siquidem ex eā nāscitur odium, C., Lael., 24, 89; truth is burdensome, if indeed (since) hatred arises from it.

6. Si modō, if only, serves to limit the preceding statement.
Ā deō tantum rationem habēmus, si modo habēmus, C., N.D., iii. 28, 71; all that we have from God is (bare) reason, if only we have it.

Sī vērō when thus used is ironical (C., Ph., viii. 8, 24). Sī tamen seems to be post-classical.

Notes.—1. Phraseological are sī quaeris (quaerimus) in a sense approaching that of profectō (C., Off., iii. 20, 89; Tusc., iii. 29, 75): Sī dis placet, if the gods will, often ironical (Cf. Ter., Eun., 919; C., Fin., ii. 10, 31). Sī forte, peradventure (C., Or., iii. 12, 47; Mil., 38, 104).

2. It will be observed that the tense involved depends in each member upon the sense. But for this very reason certain combinations would be uncommon. Thus Pr.—Impf. and Fut.—Pr. are rare; Pr.—Fut. is more common in ante-classical and post-classical Latin than Fut.—Fut., the Pres. being used by anticipation. Cicero prefers Fut.—Fut. Cicero also uses frequently Fut. Pf.—Fut. Pf., which is also found elsewhere, but rarely. Pf.—Fut. is found first in Cicero, and is never common; also Impf.—Impf. Plupf.—Impf. is mostly found in ante-classical and post-classical Latin. The Pf., by anticipation for Fut. Pf., is not unfrequent in early Latin. So C., Fam., xii. 6, 2: (Brutus) sī conservātus erit, vicimus (237); Cf. Sen., Ben., iii. 62, 145. Ptn., Poen., 67x, shows us our only example of Pr.—Fut. Pf.: Rex sum, sī ego illum ad mē adlexerō.

II. IDEAL CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

596. The Ideal Conditional Sentence represents the matter as still in suspense. The supposition is more or less fanciful, and no real test is to be applied. There is often a wish for or against. The point of view is usually the Present.

1. The Protasis is put in the Present Subjunctive for continued action, and in the Perfect Subjunctive for completion or attainment.

The Apodosis is in the Present or Perfect Subjunctive. The Imperative and Future Indicative or equivalents are often found. The Universal Present is frequently used, especially in combination with the Ideal Second Person (595, R. 3; 663, 2).

On the difference between Subjunctive and Future, see 257.
SI vicinus tuus equum meliorem habeat quam tuus est, tuumne equum mälis an illius? C., Inv., i. 31, 52; if your neighbour (were to) have a better horse than yours is, would you prefer your horse or his? SI gladium quis apud tē sānā mente déposuerit, repetat īnsāniēns, reddere pecētūm sit, officium nōn reddere, C., Off., iii. 25, 95; if a man in sound mind were to deposit (to have deposited) a sword with you, (and) reclaim it (when) mad, it would be wrong to return it, right not to return it. Hanc viam sī asperam esse negem, mentiār, C., Sest., 46, 100; if I should say that this way is not rough, I should lie. Sī nunc mē suspendam meam operam lāserim, et meīs inimīcis voluptātem creāverim, Pt., Cas., 424; should I hang myself now, I should (thereby) (have) fool(ed) my work away, and give(n) to my enemies a charming treat. Cicerōnī nēmo ducentōs nunc dederit nummōs nisi fulserit ānulus ingēns, Juv., vii. 139; no one would give Cicero nowadays two hundred two-pences unless a huge ring glittered (on his hand). Sī quis furīōsō praecpta det, erit ipsō quem monēbit, Īnsāniōr, Sen., E.M., 94, 17; if one should give advice to a madman, he will be more out of his mind than the very man whom he advises. Sī valeant hominēs, ars tua, Phoebe, iacet, Ov., Tr., iv. 3, 78; should men keep well, your art, Phoebus, is naught. Ōtia sī tollās, perīere Cupīdinis arcūs, Ov., Rem. Am., 139 (204, x. 6). (Senectūs) est plēna voluptātēs, sī illā scīs ūtī, Sen., E.M., 12, 4 (595, r. 3). Memoria minuitur nisi eam exercēas, C., Cat. M., 7, 21 (591, b. 2). Nūlla est excūsātiō peccāti, sī amīct causā peccāveris, C., Lael., ii, 37; it is no excuse for a sin to have sinned for the sake of a friend.

2. The Point of View may be the Past. In that case the Protasis is found in the Imperfect, very rarely the Pluperfect Subjunctive, and the Apodosis has corresponding forms. This usage, however, is rare, inasmuch as it coincides in form with the Unreal Condition, from which it is distinguishable only by a careful study of the context. When found with indefinite persons, the construction is the Potential of the Past.

The idea of Partial Obliquity frequently enters, in which case sī may often be translated, in case that.

Quod āsū nōn veniēbat dē eō sī quis lēgem cōstitueret nōn tam prohibēre vidērētur quam admonēre, C., Tull., 4, 9; if one should make a law about that which was not customary, he would seem not so much to prevent as to warn. (Present: sī quis cōstituat, videātur.) Sī Alfenus tum iūdicium accipere vellet, dēnīque omnia quae pōstulārēs facere voluisset, quid agerēs? C., Quint., 26, 83; in case Alfenus was willing then to undertake the trial, and should have been willing afterwards to do all that you required, what were you to do? (See the whole passage—Present:
sí nunc velit, . . . voluerit, agás.) Sí tribúnī mé triumphāre prohibērēnt, Fārium et Aemilium tēstēs citātūrus fui, L., xxxviii. 47; should the tribunes prevent me from triumphing, I was going to summon Furius and Aemilius as witnesses. Quid faceret sí vivere vellet, Sēiānus rogandus erat, Sen., Cons.Marc., 22, 6; what was he to do? if he wished to live Sejanus was (the man) to be asked. See Tac., Ann., iii. 13. Erat Quinctius, sí cederès, plācābilis, L., xxxvi. 32, 5; Quinctius was, if you yielded to him, (sure to be) placable. (Est sí cēdās.) Sí luxuriae temperāret, avāritiam nōn timērēs, Tac., II, ii. 62; if he were to control his love of pleasure, you should not have feared avarice. (Sí temperet, nōn timeās.) Cūr īgitur et Camillus dolēret, sí haec . . . ēventūra putāret? et ego dolēam sí . . . putem? C., Tusc., i. 37, 90. (Present: dolēat sí putet.)

Remarks.—i. The Ideal is not controlled by impossibility or improbability, and the lively fancy of the Roman often employs the Ideal where we should expect the Unreal. (Comp. 256, n. 2.) This is more common in early Latin.

Tū sí hic sis, aliter sentiās, Ter., And., 310; if you were I (put yourself in my place), you would think differently. Haece sí tēcum patria loquātur, nōnne impertrāre dēbeat? C., Cat., i. 8, 19; if your country should (were to) speak thus with you, ought she not to get (what she wants)? So C., Fin., iv. 22, 61.

2. Sometimes the conception shifts in the course of a long sentence:

Sí reviviscant et tēcum loquantur—quid tālibus virīs respondērēs! C., Fin., iv. 22, 61: if they should come to life again, and speak with you—what answer would you make to such men?

3. When nōn possum is followed by nisi (Sí nōn), the Protasis has the Ideal of the Past, after the past tense, and may have the Ideal of the Present after a primary tense.

Neque mūnitionēs Caesaris prohibēre poterat, nisi proelīō dēcērēre vellet, Caes., B.C., iii. 44. See Madvig on C., Fin., iii. 21, 70.

4. In comparing Ideal and Unreal Conditionals, exclude future verbs such as posse, velle, etc. The future sense of such Unreal Conditionals comes from the auxiliary.

5. In Īrātiō Obliqua the difference between Ideal and Logical Future is necessarily effaced, so far as the mood is concerned. (656.)

III. UNREAL CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

597. The Unreal Conditional sentence is used of that which is Unfulfilled or Impossible, and is expressed by the Imperfect Subjunctive for continued action—generally, in opposition to the Present; and by the Pluperfect Subjunctive—uniformly in opposition to the Past.
The notion of Impossibility comes from the irreversible character of the Past Tense. Compare the Periphrastic Conjug. Perfect and Imperfect. Any action that is decided is considered Past (compare C., Off., ii. 21, 75). (See 277, 3, n.)

**Protasis.**

Si id crēderēs,

*If you believed (were believing) that, [you do not,]*

Si id crēdidissēs,

*If you had believed that, [you did not,]*

**Apodosis.**

errārēs,

*you would be going wrong.*

errāvissēs,

*you would have gone wrong.*

Sapientia nōn expeterētūr, sī nihil efficērat, C., Fin., i. 13, 42; wisdom would not be sought after, if it did no practical good. Caedērem tē, nisi frāscerē, Sen., Ira, i. 15, 3; I should fling you, if I were not getting angry. Sī iī biē esse scissēm, ad tē ipse vēnissem, C., Fin., i. 8; if I had known you were there, I should have come to you myself. Hectōra quis nōsset, felix si Trōia fuisset? Óv., Tr., iv. 3, 75; who would know (of) Hector, if Troy had been happy? Nisi ante Rōmā prefectus essēs, nunc eam certē reliquērēs, C., Fam., vii. ii. 1; if you had not departed from Rome before, you would certainly leave it now. Ego nisi peperissent, Rōmā nōn oppāgnārētūr; nisi filium habērem, libera in libera patriā mortua essem, L., ii. 40, 8; had I not become a mother, Rome would not be besieged; had I not a son, I should have died a free woman in a free land.

**Remarks.—** I. The Impf. Subjv. is sometimes used in opposition to continuance from a point in the Past into the Present. This is necessarily the case when the Protasis is in the Impf., and the Apodosis in the Plupf., except when the Impf. denotes opposition to a general statement, which holds good both for Past and for Present:

Nōn tam facile opēs Carthāginis tantae concidissent, nisi Sicilia clāssibus nostris pātēret, Cf. C., Verr., ii. 1, 3; the great resources of Carthage (Carthage with her great resources) would not have fallen so readily, if Sicily had not been (as it still continues to be) open to our fleets. Si pudōrem habērēs, ultīmam mihi pēnsīōnem remīsēssēs, Sen., E.M., 29, 10; if you had (= you had not, as you have not) any delicacy, you would have let me off from the last payment. Memoriam ipsam cum vōce perdidissēmus, sī tam in nostrā potestāte esset oblīvīscī quam tacēre, Tac., Agr., 2, 4; we should have lost memory itself, together with utterance, if it were as much in our power to forget as to keep silent.

The Impf. in both members, referring to the Past, always admits of another explanation than that of the Unreal; thus we have a case of Representation (654, x.) in

Protogenēs sī Iālysum illum suum caenō oblītum vidēret, māgnun, crēdō, accipēret dolōrem, C., Att., ii. 21, 4; if Protogenes could see that famous Ialysus of his besmeared with mud, he would feel a mighty pang. See Pl., Aul., 742.
2. In Unreal Conditions, after a negative Protasis, the Apodosis is sometimes expressed by the Impf. Indic., when the action is represented as interrupted (233); by the Plupf. and Hist. Pf., when the conclusion is confidently anticipated (254, r. 3).

Labēbar longius, nisi mē retinuissem, C., Leg., I. 19, 52 (254, r. 3).

This usage after a positive is cited first in the post-Augustan writers. Cases like C., Verr., v. 42, 129; L., xxii. 28, 13, do not belong here.

Omninō supervacua erat doctrīna, si nātūra sufficeret, Quint., ii. 8, 8 (254, r. 3). Perāctum erat bellum, si Pompeium Brundisii opprimere potuisset, Flor., ii. 13, 19; the war was (had been) finished, if he had been able to crush Pompey at Brundusium.

The Impf. Indic. is sometimes found in the Protasis:

Ipsam tibi epistolam mīsissem, nisi (v.l., sed) tam subitō frātris puer proficiscēbātur, C., Att., viii. 1, 2; *I should have sent you the letter itself, if my brother's servant was not starting so suddenly.*

3. (a) The Indicative is the regular construction in the Apodosis with verbs which signify Possibility or Power, Obligation or Necessity—so with the active and passive Periphrastic—vix, paene, scarcely, hardly, and the like. In many cases it is difficult to distinguish this usage from that of the Ideal (596, 2).

Consul esse qui potui, nisi eum vitae cursum tenuisse? C., Rep., i. 6, 10; *how could I have been consul, if I had not kept that course of life?* Antōnī gladiōs potuit contemnere, si sic omnia dixisset, Juv., x. 123; he might have despised Antony's swords, if he had thus said all (that he did say). Emendāturus, si licuisset, eram, Ov., Tr., i. 7, 40; *I should have removed the faults, if I had been free (to do it).* Pōns iter paene hostibus dedit (paene dedit = dabat = datūrus erat), si unus vir fuisset, L., iii. 10, 2; the bridge well nigh gave a passage to the enemy, had it not been for one man.

(b) With the Indic. the Possibility and the rest are stated absolutely; when the Subjv. is used the Possibility and the rest are conditioned as in any other Unreal sentence.

Compare quid facere potuissem, nisi tum consul fuissem, with consul esse qui potul, nisi eum vitae cursum tenuisse, C., Rep., i. 6, 10. Quī si fuisset meliore fortūnā, fortasse austērior et gravior esse potuisset, C., Pis., 29, 71.

4. In Orātiō Obliqua the Protasis is unchanged; the Apodosis is formed by the Periphrastic Pr. and Pf. Inf. (149), for the Active, futūrum (fore) ut, futūrum fuisse ut for passive and Supineless verbs.

A. Dicō (dixi), tē, si id crēderēs, errātūrum esse.
B. Dicō (dixi), tē, si id crēdidissēs, errātūrum fuisse.
A. Dicō (dixi), si id crēderēs, fore ut dēciperēris.
B. Dicō (dixi), si id crēdidissēs, futūrum fuisse ut dēciperēris.

A is very rare; A, theoretical. For the long form, B, the simple
Perfect Infinitive is found. Examples, see 659, n. In B, fuisset is omitted occasionally in later Latin; Tac., Ann., i. 33, etc.

5. (a) When the Apodosis of an Unreal Conditional is made to depend on a sentence which requires the Subjv., the Plupf. is turned into the Periphrastic Pf. Subjv.; the Impf. form is unchanged.

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Nón dubitó,} & \quad \text{quín, si id créderēs, errārēs,} \\
\text{I do not doubt,} & \quad \text{that, if you believed that, you would be going wrong.} \\
\text{Nón dubitābam,} & \quad \text{quín, si id crédidīssēs, errātūrus fūeris,} \\
\text{I did not doubt,} & \quad \text{that, if you had believed that, you would have gone wrong.}
\end{align*} \]

Honestum tāle est ut, vel si Ignōrārent id hominēs, esset landābile, Cf. C., Fin., ii. 15, 49; virtue is a thing to deserve praise, even if men did not know it. Ea rēs tantum tumultum āc fugam praebuit ut nisi castra Pūnica extrā urbem fuissent, effusura sē omnīs pavīda multītūdō fuerit, L., xxvi. 10, 7; that matter caused so much tumult and flight (= so wild a panic), that had not the Punic camp been outside the city the whole frightened multitude would have poured forth. Nec dubium erat quin, sī tam punci simul obīre omnia possent, terga datūrī hostēs fuerint, L., iv. 38, 5; there was no doubt that, if it had been possible for so small a number to manage everything at the same time, the enemy would have turned their backs. Dīc quidnam factūrus fūeris, sī eō tempore censor fuisset! L., ix. 33, 7; tell (me) what you would have done, if you had been censor at that time? See C., Pis., 7, 14.

(b) The Periphrastic Plupf. Subjv. occurs rarely, and then only in the Dependent Interrogative. The only examples cited are from Livy.

Subībat cōgitātiō animum, quōnam modō tolerābilis futūra Etrūria fuisset sī quid in ſamniō adversī ἐvēniisset, L., x. 45, 3.

(c) Potūrī (354, r. 1) commonly becomes potuerim, and fut with the Periphrastic passive in -dus becomes fuerim, after all tenses.

Haud dubium fuit quin, nisi ea mora intervēniisset, castra eō diē Pūnica capī potuērint, L., xxiv. 42, 3; there was no doubt that, had not that delay interfered, the Punic camp could have been taken on that day. Quae (rēs) suā sponte nefāria est ut etiam ēlēx nōn esset, māgnopere vitanda fuerit, C., Verr., i. 42, 108.

(d) The Passive Conditional is unchanged:

Id ille sī repudiāssēt, dubitātis quīn eī vis esset allātā? C., Sest., 29, 62; if he had rejected that, do you doubt that force would have been brought (to bear) on him?

The active form is rarely unchanged (L., ii. 33, 9). In the absence of the Periphrastic tense the Inf. with potuerim is often a sufficient substitute; see L., xxxii. 28, 6.

Note.—In Plautus and Terence, absque with the Abl. and esset (foret) is found a few times instead of nisi (sī nōn) with Nom., and esset (fuisset) in the sense if it were not (had not been) for.

Nam absque té esset, hodiē numquam ad sōlem occāsum vīverem, Pl., Men., 1022. Cf. Liv., ii. 10, 2 (r. 3, above).
INCOMPLETE CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

598. Omission of the Conditional Sign.—Occasionally the members of a Conditional sentence are put side by side without a Conditional sign.

An ille mihi (351) liber, cui mulier imperat? poscit, dandum est; vocat, vieniendum est; icit, abeundum; minātur, extimēscendum, C., Parad., 5, 2; or is he free (tell) me, to whom a woman gives orders? she asks, he must give; she calls, he must come; she turns out (of door), he must go; she threatens, he must be frightened. Unum cognorūs, omnīs nōrūs, Ter., Ph., 265; you know one, you know all. Dedissēs hunc animō pār corpus, fēcisset quod optābat, Plin., Ep., i. 12, 8; had you given him a body that was a match for his spirit, he would have accomplished what he desired.

599. Omission of the Verb of the Protasis.—When the verb of the Protasis is omitted, either the precise form or the general idea of the verb is to be supplied from the Apodosis.

Si quisquam (= si quisquam fuit), Cato sapiens fuit, Cf. C., Lael., 2, 9; if any one was wise, Cato was. Ėdūc tēcum omnēs tuōs; si minus, quam plūrimōs, C., Cat., i. 5, 10 (592, R.).

600. Total Omission of the Protasis.—1. The Protasis is often contained in a participle or involved in the context; for examples see 593, 2 and 3.

2. The Potential Subjunctive is sometimes mechanically explained by the omission of an indefinite Protasis (257, N. 2).

Nimiō plūs quam velim [Volscōrum] ingeniā sunt mōbilia, L., ii. 37, 4; the dispositions of the Volscians are (too) much more unstable than I should like. Tuam mihi dāri vellem  двигател, C., N.D., ii. 59, 147; I could wish to have your eloquence given me. Tam fēlix essēs quam fōrmosissima vellem, Ov., Am., i. 8, 27 (302). (Utinam essēs!)

601. Omission and Involution of the Apodosis.—The Apodosis is omitted in Wishes (261), and implied after verbs and phrases denoting Trial (460, 2). It is often involved in Ōratiō Obliqua, and sometimes consists in the general notion of Result, Ascertaintment, or the like.

Si vērum excutiās, faciēs nōn uxor āmātur, Juv., vi. 143; if you were to get out the truth (you would find that) it is the face, not the wife, that
is loved. (Iugurtha) timēbat īram (= nē frāscerētur) senātūs, nī pāruisset légātīs, S., Iug., 25, 7; Iugurtha was afraid of the anger of the senate (that the senate would get angry) in case he did not (should not have) obey(ed) the legates.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES OF COMPARISON.

602. The Apodosis is omitted in comparisons with ut si, velut si, āc si, quam si (rare), tamquam si, quasi, or simply velut and tamquam, as if.

The verb is to be supplied from the Protasis, as is common in correlative sentences. The Mood is the Subjunctive.

The tenses follow the rule of sequence, rather than the ordinary use of the conditional. In English, the translation implies the unreality of the comparison.

Nōlī timēre quasi [= quam timeās si] assem elenpantō dēs, QUINT., VI. 3, 59; don't be afraid, as if you were giving a penny to an elephant. Parvī primō ortū sic iacent tamquam [= iacent si] omnīnō sine animō sint, C., Fin., v. 15, 42; babies, when first born, lie (there), as if they had no mind at all. Hic est obstandum, mīlitēs, velut si ante Rōmānā moenia pūgnēmus, L., xxii. 41, 15; here (is where) we must oppose them, soldiers, as if we were fighting before the walls of Rome (velut obstēmus, si pū gnēmus, as we would oppose them, if we were to fight). Mē iuvat, velut ipse in parte labōris āc periculī fuerim, ad finem belli Punicī pervēnisse, L., xxxi. 1; I am delighted to have reached the end of the Punic war, as if I had shared in the toil and danger (of it). Tactus patrēs metus cēpit velut si iam ad portās hostis esset, L., xxii. 16, 2; a great fear took hold of the senators, as if the enemy were already at their gates. Déīōta (est) Ausonum gēns perinde āc si internecivō bellō certāsset, L., IX. 25, 9; the Ausonian race was bled out, just as if it had engaged in an interne cine war (war to the knife).

REMARKS.—1. Occasionally the sequence is violated out of regard to the Conditional:

Massiliēnsēs in ēō honōrē audīmus apud [Rōmānōs] esse āc si medium umbilicum Graeciae incolentērum, L., XXXVII. 54, 21; we hear that the people of Marseilles are in as high honour with the Romans as if they inhabited the mid-navel (= the heart) of Greece. Êius negōtium sīc velim suscipiēas, ut si esset rēs mea, C., Fam., ii. 14, 1; I wish you would undertake his business just as if it were my affair.

2. The principal clause often contains correlatives, as: ita, sic, perinde, próinde, similiter, nōn (haut) secus, etc.

NOTES.—1. Tamquam and quasi are also used in direct comparison with the Indic-
ative. Here the verbs with both clauses are apt to be the same, in which case the verb with quasi or tamquam is usually omitted in model prose.

Quasi póma ex arboribus, crūda sī sunt, vix évelluntur, sic vitam adulé-scentibus vis aufert, C., Cat.M., 19, 71.

2. Quasi is used to soften or apologise for a single word (= ut ita diciam).

Mors est quaedam quasi migratiō commutatiōque vitae, Cf. C., Tusc., i. 12, 27; death is as it were a shifting of life's quarters.

3. As in the ordinary Conditional sentence, so in the Comparative sentence, the Pro-tasis may be expressed by a particle:

Galli laetī ut explēratā victoriā ad castra Rōmānōrum pergunt, Cf. Caes., B.C., iii. 18, 8; the Gauls in their joy, as if (their victory had been fully ascertained, proceeded to the camp of the Romans. Antiochus sēcūrus dē bellō Rōmānō erat tamquam nōn trānsitiūris in Asiam Rōmānis, L., xxxvi. 41, 1; Antiochus was as unconcerned about the war with Rome as if the Romans did not intend to cross over into Asia Minor.

4. In Celsus, Quintilian, Juvenal, Pliny Min., and especially in Tacitus and Suetonius, we find tamquam used almost like quod (541), to indicate an assumed reason, in imitation of the similar Greek use of ὅσος with the participle, and occasionally where we might have expected the Acc. and Infinitive.

Pridem invīsus tamquam plus quam cīvilia agitāret, Tac., Ann., i. 12, 6; long mistook it as (in Tiberius' judgment) plotting high treason. Suspectus tamquam ipse suās incendīt aedes, Juv., iii. 222; suspected of having (as if he had) set his own house on fire. Vulgi opinīō est tamquam (comētēs) mutatiōnem rēgnī portendat, Tac. Ann., xiv. 22, 1; it is the popular belief that a comet portends a change in the kingdom.

Other particles, quasi, sicut, and ut, occur much more rarely and are cited mainly from Tactitus (quasi only in the Annals). Compare Suet., Tit., 5.

5. Ut sī is rare in early Latin, not being found at all in Plautus. It is found but once in Livy, but frequently in Cicero and later Latin. Velut sī is found first in Caesar. Velut for velut sī is found first in Livy. Ac sī is equivalent to quasi only in late Latin.

CONCESSIVE SENTENCES.

603. Concessive Sentences are introduced by:

1. The Conditional particles, etsi, etiamsi, tametsi (tamen-

etsi).

2. The generic relative, quamquam.

3. The compounds, quamvis, quantumvis.

4. The verb licet.

5. The Final particles, ut (nē).

6. Cum (quom).

These all answer generally to the notion although.

Nōtē.—Etsi (et + sī), even if; etiamsi, even now if; tametsi, yet even if; quamquam (quam + quam), to what extent sooner; quamvis, to what extent you choose; quantumvis, to what amount you choose; licet, it is left free (perhaps intrans. of linguō, I leave).

604. Etsi, etiamsi, and tametsi, take the Indicative or Sub-junctive, according to the general principles which regulate
the use of si, if. The Indicative is more common, especially with etsi.

De futūris rēbus etsi semper difficile est dīcere, tamen interdum con-
jectūrā possis accèdere, C., Fīnum., vi. 4, 1; although it is always difficult
to tell about the future, nevertheless you can sometimes come near it by
guessing. [Hamīcar] etsi flagrābāt bellandī cupiditāte, tamen pāci servī-
undum putāvit, Nep., xxii. 1, 3; although Hamilcar was on fire with the
desire of war, nevertheless he thought that he ought to subserve (to work
for) peace. Inops ille etiamsī referre grātiam nōn potest, habēre certē
potest, C., Off., ii. 20, 69; the needy man (spoken of), if he cannot return
a favour, can at least feel it. Mē vēra prō grātīs loquī, etsi meum inge-
nūm nōn monēret, necessitās cōgit, L., iii. 68, 9; even if my disposition
did not bid me, necessity compels me to speak what is true instead of
what is palatable.

RemarKs.—1. Si itself is often concessive (591, 2), and the addition
of et, etiam, and tamen serves merely to fix the idea.

2. Etiamsi is used oftener with the Subjv. than with the Indic.,
and seems to be found only in conditional sentences. On the other
hand, etsi is also used like quamquam (603, r. 2), in the sense “and
yet;” virtūtem si ēnām ēmisēris—etsi ēmittī nōn potest virtūs, C.,
Tusç., ii. 14, 32; so too, but rarely, tametsi. Etsi is a favorite word
with Cicero, but does not occur in Quintilian nor in Sallust, the lat-
ther of whom prefers tametsi. Tametsi is not found in the Augustan
poets nor in Tacitus, and belongs especially to familiar speech.

3. Tamen is often correlative even with tametsi.

605. Quamquam, to what extent soever, falls under the head
of generic relatives (254, r. 4), and, in the best authors, is
construed with the Indicative.

Medīci quamquam intellegunt saepe, tamen numquam aegrīs dicunt, illō
morbō ēōs esse morītūrōs, C., Div., ii. 25, 54; although physicians often
know, nevertheless they never tell their patients that they will die of
that (particular) disease.

RemarKs.—1. The Potential Subjv. (257, n. 3) is sometimes found
with quamquam: Quamquam exercitum quī in Volscīs erat māllet, nihil
recūsāvit, L., vi. 9, 6; although he might well have preferred the army
which was in the Volscian country, nevertheless he made no objection.

So especially with the Ideal Second Person.

2. Quamquam is often used like etsi, but more frequently, at the
beginning of sentences, in the same way as the English, and yet,
although, however, in order to limit the whole preceding sentence.

3. The Indic., with etsi and quamquam, is, of course, liable to attrac-
tion into the Subjv. in Órātiō Obliqua (508).
Note.—The Subjv. with *quamvis* (not due to attraction) is first cited from Cicero (perhaps *Tusc.*, v. 30, 83), NeRps (xxv. 13, 6), after which, following the development in all generic sentences in Latin, it becomes more and more common; thus, in post-Augustan Latin, Juvenal uses it exclusively, and Pliny Min. and Tacitus regularly.

606. *Quamvis* follows the analogy of *volō, I will*, with which it is compounded, and takes the Subjunctive (usually the principal tenses).

*Quamvis* and *quamlibet* (as conjunctions) belong to poetry and silver prose.

*Quamvis* sint sub aquā, sub aquā maledicere temptant, Ov., *M.*, vi. 376; although they be under the water, under the water they try to revile. *Quamvis* ille niger, *quamvis* tā candidus essēs, V., *Ec.*, ii. 16; although he was black, although you were fair. [Vitia mentis], *quamvis* exigua sint, in māius excēdunt, Sen., *E.M.*, 85, 12; mental ailments (= passions), no matter how slight they be, go on increasing. *Quamvis* sis molestus numquam tē esse cōnfidēbor malum, C., *Tusc.*, ii. 25, 61; although you be troublesome, I shall never confess that you are evil.

Notes.—1. The Indic. with *quamvis* is cited in prose first from C., Rab.Post., 2, 4; NeRps, i. 2, 3 (except in fragments of Varro and Vatinus); in poetry it appears first in Lucretius. Then it grows, so that in the post-Augustan period it is used just like *quamquam* with the Indic., though the Subjv. is also common:

Quamvis ingeniō nōn valet, arte valet, Ov., Am., i. 15, 14; although he does not tell by genius, he does tell by art.

2. The verb of *quamvis* is sometimes inflected: *Quam* volet Epicūrus iocētur, tamen numquam mē movēbit, C., *N.D.*, ii. 17, 46.

607. *Licet* retains its verbal nature, and, according to the Sequence of Tenses, takes only the Present and Perfect Subjunctive:

*Licet* iriōdeat si quī vult, C., Parad., i. 1, 8; let any one laugh who will. Ārdeat ipsa licet, tormentis gaudet amantis, Juv., vi. 209; though she herself is aglow, she rejoices in the tortures of her lover. Sim licet extrēmum, sicut sum, missus in orbem, Ov., *Tr.*, iv. 9, 9; although I be sent, as I have been, to the end of the world.

Notes.—1. Exceptions are extremely rare: Juv., xiii. 56.

2. *Quamvis* is sometimes combined with *licet*, as: *quamvis* licet insectēmur istōs—metuō nē sōli philosophi sint, C., *Tusc.*, iv. 24, 53.

3. Occasionally *licet* is inflected; e.g., H., *Epod.*, 15, 19; S., ii. 1, 59. From the time of Apuleius *licet* is construed with the Indicative.

608. *Ut* and *nē* are also used concessively for the sake of argument; this is common in Cicero, who often attaches to it sānē; the basis of this is the Imperative Subjunctive.

Ut désint virēs, tamen est laudandā voluntās, Ov., *Pont.*, iii. 4, 79;
granted that strength be lacking, nevertheless you must praise (my) good will. 

Nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, C., Tusc., ii. 5, 14; granted that pain be not the chief evil, an evil it certainly is.

Remarks.—1. Ut nōn can be used on the principle of the Specific Negative: Hic dīēs ultiīmus est; ut nōn sit, propē ab ultiīmo est, Sen., E.M., 15, 12; this is your last day; granted that it be not, it is near the last.

2. Examples with past tenses are rare: C., Mil., 17, 46; L., xxxviii. 46, 3, etc.

3. On ita—ut, see 262; on ut—ita, see 482, 4.

609. Concessive Sentence represented by a Participle or Predicative Attribute.—The Concessive sentence may be represented by a Participle or Predicative Attribute.

[Risus] interdum ita repente ērumpit, ut eum cupiēntēs tenēre nequeāmus, Cf. C., Or., ii. 58, 235; laughter between whiles (occasionally) breaks out so suddenly that we cannot keep it down, although we desire to do so. 

Mūltōrum tē ocūli et aureās nōn sentiēntem custōdiēnt, C., Cat., i. 2, 6; (of) many (the) eyes and ears will keep guard over you, though you perceive it not (without your perceiving if). 

Quis Aristidēm nōn mortuūm dēligīt? C., Fin., v. 22, 62; who does not love Aristides, (though) dead?

Notes.—1. Quamquam, quamvīs, and etsī are often combined with the participle. This, however, is rare in classical Latin, but becomes more common later. 

(Caesar), quamquam obsiđiōne Massiliae retardante, brevī tamen omnia subēgīt, Suet., Jul., 34.

2. With adjectives and adverbs this is much more common, so especially with quamvīs, which is used with a positive as a circumlocution for the superlative. With the superlative quamvīs is rare.

Etsī nōn iniquūm, certē triste senatūs consultum, L., xxv. 6, 2. Cum omnia per populum geruntur, quamvīs iūstum atque moderātum tamen ipsa aequābilitàs est iniqua, C., Rep., i. 27, 43.

RELATIVE SENTENCES.

610. The Latin language uses the relative construction far more than the English: so in the beginning of sentences, and in combination with Conjunctions and other Relatives.

Remarks.—1. The awkwardness, or impossibility, of a literal translation may generally be relieved by the substitution of a demonstrative with an appropriate conjunction, or the employment of an abstract noun:

Quae cum ita sint, now since these things are so (Ciceronian formula).

Futūra modo exspectant; quae quia certa esse nōn possunt, conficiēntur et angōre et metū, C., Fin., i. 18, 60; they only look forward to the future; and because that cannot be certain, they wear themselves out
with distress and fear. [Epicurus] nōn satis politus iis artibus quās qui tenent, ērudīti appellantur, C., Fin., i. 7, 26; Epicurus is not sufficiently polished by those accomplishments, from the possession of which people are called cultivated.

2. Notice especially quod in combination with si and its compounds ubi, quia, quoniam, ut (poetic and post-class.), utinam, nē, utinam nē, quī (rare), in which quod means and as for that, and is sometimes translated by and, but, therefore, whereas, sometimes not at all.

Quod nī fuisset incōgitāns ita eum exspectārem ut pār fuit, Ter., Ph., 155; whereas, had I not been heedless, I should be awaiting him in proper mood.

NOTES.—1. The use of the Relative to connect two independent clauses instead of a demonstrative, is very rare in Plautus, more common in Terence, but fully developed only in the classical period.

2. The Relative is the fertile source of many of the introductory particles of the compound sentence (quom, quia, quoniam, compounds of quam, ut, ubi, etc.), and is therefore treated last on account of the multiplicity of its uses.

611. Relative sentences are introduced by the Relative pronouns in all their forms: adjective, substantive, and adverbial. (See Tables 109 foll.)

REMARKS.—1. The Relative adverbs of Place, and their correlatives, may be used instead of a preposition with a Relative. Unde, whence, is frequently used of persons, but the others rarely; occasional examples are cited for ubi and quō, the others less frequently: ibi = in eō, etc.; ubi = in quō, etc.; inde = ex eō, etc.; unde = ex quō, etc.; eō = in eum, etc.; quō = in quem, etc.

Potest fieri ut is, unde tē audīsse dīcis, Irrātus dixerit, C., Or., ii. 70, 285; it may be that he, from whom you say you heard (it), said it in anger. Quō (= quibus) lūbeat nūbant, dum dōs nē flat comes, Pl., Aud., 491 (573).

2. The Relative is not to be confounded with the Dependent Interrogative sentence (469, r. 2).

Quae probat populus ego nescīō, Sen., E.M., 29, 10; the things that the people approves, I do not know (quid probet, what it is the people approves). Et quid ego tē velim, et tū quod quaeris, scīēs, Ter., Aud., 536; you shall know both what (it is) I want of you, and what (the thing which) you are asking (= the answer to your question).

612. Position of Relatives.—The Relative and Relative forms are put at the beginning of sentences and clauses. The preposition, however, generally, though not invariably, precedes its Relative (413).

613. Antecedent.—The word to which the Relative refers
is called the Antecedent, because it precedes in thought even when it does not in expression.

Remark.—The close connection between Relative and Antecedent is shown by the frequent use of one preposition in common (414, r. 1).

Concord.

614. The Relative agrees with its Antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person.

Is minimō eget mortālis, qui minimum cupid, Syrus, 286 (Fr.) (308). Uxor contenta est quae bona est unō virō, Pl., Merc., 812; a wife who is good is contented with one husband. Malum est consilium quod mutāri non potest, Syrus, 362 (Fr.); bad is the plan that cannot (let itself) be changed. Hoc ills nānō qui mē nōn intellegunt, Phaedr., 3, 138; I tell this tale for those who understand me not. Ego qui tō confirmō, ipse mē nōn possum, C., Fam., xiv. 4, 5; I who reassure you, cannot reassure myself.

Remarks.—1. The Relative agrees with the Person of the true Antecedent, even when a predicate intervenes; exceptions are very rare:

Tū es is, qui (mō) summis laudibus ad caelum extulisti, C., Fam., xiv. 4, 11; you are he that has(l) praised me to the skies.

The Latin rule is the English exception: Acts, xxi. 38; Luke, xvi. 15.

2. When the Relative refers to a sentence, id quod, that which, is commonly used (parenthetically). So also quae rēs, or simple quod, and, if reference is made to a single substantive, is qui or some similar form.

Si ā vōbis id quod nōn spērō deserar, tamen animō nōn dēficiam, C., Rosc. Am., 4, 10; if I should be deserted by you (which I do not expect), nevertheless I should not become faint-hearted. Nec audiendus [Theophrast] auditor, Stratō, is qui physicus appellātur, C., N.D., r. 13, 35.

3. The gender and number of the Relative may be determined:

(a) By the sense, and not by the form; that is, a collective noun may be followed by a Plural Relative, a neuter numeral by a masculine Relative, a possessive pronoun by a Relative in the person indicated by the possessive, etc.

Caesa sunt ad sex milia qui Pydnam perfugerant, L., xlv. 42, 7; there were slain up to six thousand who had fled to Pydna. Equitātum omnem praemittit, qui videant, Caes., B.G., r. 15; he sent all the cavalry ahead, who should see (that they might see, to see).

(b) By the predicate or the apposition, and not by the antecedent; so especially when the Relative is combined with the copula or with a copulative verb.

Thēbae, quod Bœtiae caput est, L., xlii. 44, 3; Thebes, which is the capital of Bœotia. Flūmen Scaldis, quod infüit in Mosam, Caes., B.G.,
v. 33, 3; the river Scheldt, which empties into the Maas. Íusta glória, qui est fructus virtútis, C., Pís., 24, 57; real glory, which is the fruit of virtue.

Exceptions are not unfrequent, especially when the predicative substantive in the Relative clause is a foreign word or a proper name.

Stellae quás Graeci cométas vocant, C., N.D., ii. 5, 14; the stars which the Greeks call comets. Est genus quoddam hominum quod Helótae vocátur, NEP., iv. 3, 6; there is a certain class of men called Helots.

4. The pronominal apposition may be taken up into the Relative and disappear:

Téstārum suffragís quod illí ostracismum vocant, NEP., v. 3, 1; by pot-sherd votes—a thing) which they call “ostracism.”

5. When the Relative refers to the combined antecedents of different gender, the strongest gender is preferred, according to 282:

Grandēs nātū mâtrēs et parvi līberī, quōrum utrumque ætās misericordiam vestrām requirit, C., Verr., v. 49, 129; aged matrons and infant children, whose age on either hand demands your compassion. Ótium atque divitiae, quae prīma mortālēs putant, S., C., 36, 4; leisure and money, which mortals reckon as the prime things.

Or, the nearest gender may be preferred:

Eae frūgēs atque fructus quōs terrā gignit, C., N.D., ii. 14, 37; those fruits of field and tree which earth bears.

6. Combined Persons follow the rule, 287.

Note.—A noteworthy peculiarity is found in early Latin, where a generic Relative sentence with qui is made the subject of an abstract substantive with est, and represented by a demonstrative in agreement with that substantive.

Istaec virtús est, quandō úsus, qui malum fert fortiter, Pl., Asín., 323; that’s manhood who (if one) bears evil bravely, when there’s need.

The parallel Greek construction suggests Greek influence.

615. Repetition of the Antecedent.—The Antecedent of the Relative is not seldom repeated in the Relative clause, with the Relative as its attributive.

(Caesar) intellēxit diem instāre, quō diē frumentum militibus mētiri oportēret, CAES., B.G., i. 16, 5; Caesar saw that the day was at hand, on which day it behoved to measure corn (corn was to be measured out) to the soldiers.

Note.—This usage belongs to the formal style of government and law. Caesar is very fond of it, especially with the word diēs. It is occasional in Plautus and Terence, and not uncommon in Cicero; but after Cicero it fades out, being found but rarely in Livy, and only here and there later.

616. Incorporation of the Antecedent.—1. The Antecedent substantive is often incorporated into the Relative
clause; sometimes there is a demonstrative antecedent, sometimes not.

In quem primum ãgressi sunt locum Tröia vocátur, L., i. 1, 3; the first place they landed at was called Troy. Quam quisque nōrit artem, in hāc se exercet, [C.], Tusc., i. 18, 41; what trade each man is master of, (in) that let him practise (himself), that let him ply.

Notes.—1. Incorporation, while much less frequent than Repetition, is still not unfrequently met with in Livy; after Livy it decays. No examples are cited from Sallust with a demonstrative antecedent, and but one from Caesar. No example is cited from Caesar without a demonstrative antecedent.

2. Instead of a principal clause, followed by a consecutive clause, the structure is sometimes reversed. What would have been the dependent clause becomes the principal clause, and an incorporated explanatory Relative takes the place of the demonstrative. This is confined to certain substantives, and is found a number of times in Cicero, but rarely elsewhere (Sall., Hor., Livy, Ovid, Sen., Tac., Pliny Min.).

Quã enim prûdentìa es, nihil tê fugiet (= eã prûdentìa es, ut nihil tê fugiat), C., Ênam., xi. 13, 1. Velis tantummodo; quae tua virtùs (est), expügnàbis, ii., s., r. 9, 54.

2. An appositional substantive, from which a Relative clause depends, is regularly incorporated into the Relative clause.

[Amãnu]s Syriam & Cilicià dividit, qui mōns erat hostium plènus, C., Att., v. 20, 3; Syria is divided from Cilicia by Amanus, a mountain which was full of enemies.

Note.—This usage is found first in Cicero. The normal English position is found first in Livy, but it becomes more common in later Latin.

Priscus, vir cùius prōvidentiam in rē pūlicā ante experta cīvitās erat, L., iv. 46, 10.

3. Adjectives, especially superlatives, are sometimes transferred from the substantive in the principal clause and made to agree with the Relative in the Relative clause.

[Themistoclēs] dē servīs suis quem habuit fidélissimum ad rēgem misit, NEp., ii. 4, 3; Themistocles sent the most faithful slave he had to the king. Nēminī crēdō, qui largē blandust dives pauperi, Pl., Aul., 196; I trust no rich man who is lavishly kind to a poor man.

617. Attraction of the Relative.—The Accusative of the Relative is occasionally attracted into the Ablative of the antecedent, rarely into any other case.

Hóc cōnfīrmāmus illō augurīō quō dīximus, C., Att., x. 8, 7; we confirm this by the augury which we mentioned.

Notes.—1. This attraction takes place chiefly when the verb of the Relative clause must be supplied from the principal sentence; that is, with auxiliary verbs like velle, solēre, iubēre; and after verbs of Saying and the like.
It is rare in early Latin, but common from Cicero on.

Quibus poterat sauciis ductis secum ad urbem pergut, L. iv. 39, 9; having taken with him all the wounded he could, he proceeded to the city.

2. Inverted Attraction.—So-called Inverted Attraction is found only in poetry, and then usually in the Acc., which may be considered as an object of thought or feeling. This Acc. stands usually for a Nom., sometimes, but only in Comedy, for the Gen. Dat. or AbL A strange usage is the Nom. where the Acc. would be expected. This may be norninativus pendens, a form of anacoluthon (697), and is found only in early Latin.

Urbem quam statuō, vestra est, V., A., i. 573; (as for) the city which I am rearing, (it) is yours. Istum quem quaecris, ego sum, Pl., Curc., 419; (as for) that man whom you are looking for, I am he. Ille qui mandavit eum exturbasti ex aedibus? Pl., Prin., 137. (“He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.”)

618. Correlative Use of the Relative.—The usual Correlative of qui is is, more rarely hic, ille.

Is minimō eget mortālis, qui minimum cupid, Syrus, 286 (Fr.) (308). Hec sapiēns, de quo loquor, C., Ac., ii. 23, 103 (305, 3). Illa dīēs veniet, mea quā lāgūbria pōnām, Ov., Tr., iv. 2, 73 (307, 4).

619. Absorption of the Correlative.—The Correlative, is, is often absorbed, especially when it would stand in the same case as the Relative. This is a kind of Incorporation.

Postume, non bene olet, qui bene semper olet, Mart., ii. 12, 4; Postumus, (he) smells not sweet, who always smells sweet. Quem arma nōn frēgerant vitia fīcērunt, Curt., vi. 2, 1; (him) whom arms had not crushed did vices overcome. Quem di dīligunt adulēscēns moritur, Pl., B., 516; (he) whom the gods love dies young. Xerxēs praemium pōroposuit qui [= ei qui] invēnisset novam voluptātem, C., Tusc., v. 7, 20; Xerxes offered a reward to him who should invent a new pleasure. Miseranda vita qui [= eōrum qui] sē metu quam a mārī mālunt, Nep., x. 9, 5; pitiable is the life of those who would prefer being feared to being loved. Discite sānāri per quem [= per eum, per quem] didicistis amāre, Ov., Rem. Am., 43 (401).

Difficult and rare are cases like:

Nunc redeō ad quae (for ad ea quae) mihī mandās, C., Att., v. 11, 6.

620. Position of the Correlative clause.—The Relative clause naturally follows its Correlative, but it often precedes; incorporation also is common.

Male sē rēs habet cum quod virtūte effici debet id temptātur pecūniā, C., Off., ii. 6, 22; it is a bad state of affairs when what ought to be accomplished by worth, is attempted by money. Quod videās accidere pueris hōc nōbis quoque mālusculis pueris ēvenit, Sen., E.M., 24, 13; what you see befall children (this) happens to us also, children of a larger growth. Quam quisque nōrit artem, in hāc sē exerceat, [C.], Tusc., i. 18, 41 (610, 1).
The Correlative absorbed:

Quod nōn dedit fortūna, nōn ēripit, Sen., E.M., 59, 18; what fortune has not given (does not give), she does not take away. Per quās nōs petitis saepe fugātis opēs, Ov., A.A., iii. 132; the means you take to win us often scare us off.

621. Indefinite Antecedent.—The Indefinite Antecedent is generally omitted.

Elige cui dicas: tū mihi sōla placēs, Ov., A.A., i. 42; choose some one to whom you may say: You alone please me.

Remark.—Such sentences are sometimes hardly to be distinguished from the Interrogative: [Conōn] nōn quaesīvit ubi ipse tūtō vīveret, Nep., ix. 2, 1; Conon did not seek a place to live in safety himself, might be either Relative or Deliberative (265).

TENSES IN RELATIVE SENTENCES.

622. Future and Future Perfect.—The Future and Future Perfect are used with greater exactness than in current English (242, 244).

Sit liber, dominus quī volet esse meus, Mart., ii. 32, 8; he must be free who wishes (shall wish) to be my master. Quī prior strinxeērit ferrum, ēius victūria erit, Liv. (244, r. 2).

623. Iterative Action.—Relative sentences follow the laws laid down for Iterative action (566, 567).

I. Contemporaneous action:

ōre trahit quaecumque potest, atque addit acervō, H., S., i. 1, 34; drags with its mouth whatever it can, and adds to the treasure (heap). Quā-cumque incēdēbat āgmen, lēgāti occurrēbant, L., xxxiv. 16, 6; in whatever direction the column advanced, ambassadors came to meet them.

II. Prior action:

[Terra] numquam sine ūsūrā reddit, quod accēpit, C., Cat. M., 15, 51; the earth never returns without interest what it has received (receives). Quod nōn dedit fortūna, nōn ēripit, Sen., E.M., 59, 18 (620). Nōn cēnat quotiēns nēmō vocāvit eum, Mart., v. 47, 2; he does not dine as often as (when) no one has invited (invites) him. Haerēbant in memoriā quaecumque audierat et viderat [Themistoclēs], C., Ac., ii. 1, 2 (567). Sequentur tē quōcumque pervēneris vitia, Sen., E.M., 28, 1; vices will follow you whithersoever you go. Quī timēre dēsierint, ōdisse incipient, Tac., Agr., 32 (567).

Remark.—On the Subjv. in Iterative Sentences, see 567, n.
MOODS IN RELATIVE SENTENCES.

624. The Relative clause, as such—that is, as the representative of an adjective—takes the Indicative mood.

Uxor quae bona est, Pl., Merc., 812; a wife who is good (a good wife).

Remark.—The Relative in this use often serves as a circumlocution for a substantive, with this difference: that the substantive expresses a permanent relation; the Relative clause, a transient relation: if qui docent = those who teach = the teachers (inasmuch as they are exercising the functions). On the Relative with Subjv. after an adj. clause, see 438, r.

625. Indefinite and Generic Relatives.—1. Quicumque, quisquis, and the like, being essentially Iterative Relatives, take the Indicative according to the principles of Iterative action (254, r. 4). So also simple Relatives when similarly used.

Quicumque incedebat ágmen, légati occurrabant, Liv., xxxiv. 16, 6 (623).

Remark.—According to 567, n., the Subjv. is used:

(1) In Óratiō Obliqua (Total or Partial):
Márti Gallī quae bellō céperint (Pf. Subjv.) dévovent (= sō datūrēs vovent), Cf. Caes., B. G., vi. 17, 3; the Gauls devote (promise to give) to Mars whatever they (shall) take in war (Ó. R., Quae céperimus, dabimus).

(2) By Attraction of Mood (Complementary Clauses):

(3) In the Ideal Second Person:
Bonus sēgniōr fīt ubi neglegēs, S., Iug., 31, 28 (566).

(4) By the spread of the Subjv. in post-classical Latin:
Qui unum ēius ōrdinis offendisset omnēs adversōs habēbat, L., xxxiii 46, 1 (567).

2. Qui = si quis, if any, has the Indicative when the Condition is Logical.


Remark.—When the Condition is Ideal, the Subjv. is necessary (596). In post-classical Latin the Subjv. is the rule with all conditionals.

626. Explanatory Relative.—Qui, with the Indicative (= is enim, for he), often approaches quod, in that.
Habeō senectūtī māgnam grātiam, quae mihi sērmonēs aviditātem
auxit, C., Cat. M. 14, 46; *I am very thankful to old age, which (for it, in that it) has increased me (= in me) the appetite for talk.*

**Remark.—** *Quō* with the Subjv. gives a ground, = *cum* is (586); *quī* with the Indic., *a fact*; and in many passages the causal sense seems to be inevitable:

*Insānit hic quidem, quī ipse male dicit sibi, PL., Men., 309;* cracked *is this man, who calls (= for calling) down curses on himself.* Errāverim fortasse quī mē aliquid putāvī, Plin., Ep., 1. 23, 2; *I may have erred in thinking myself to be something.*

**Notes.—** 1. This causal sense is heightened by *ut, utpote, as; quīppe, namely.*

*Ut quī is rare in early Latin, Caesar, and Cicero, and is not found at all in Terence and Sallust. Livy, however, is fond of it. The mood is everywhere the Subjunctive. Utqūte is found only here and there in Latin, and not at all in Terence, Caesar, Livy; but once in Plautus. The mood is the Subjv. until late Latin. Quīppe quī is the most common of the three, but does not occur in Caesar. In early Latin the mood is the Indic. (except PL., Pers., 699); also in Sallust. Cicero uses the Subjv.; Livy uses both moods; later the Subjv. is the rule until the time of Apuleius.*

2. Simple Explanatory *quī* has the Indic. most commonly in early Latin, and in general develops on the same line that *cum* follows.

**627.** The Subjunctive is employed in Relative clauses when it would be used in a simple sentence.

**Potential:** Habeō quae velim, C., Fin., 1. 8, 28; *I have what I should like.*

**Optative:** Quod faustum sit, rēgem cērāte, L., 1. 17, 10; *blessing be on your choice, make ye a king.*

**Remarks.—** 1. Especially to be noted is the Subjv. in restrictive phrases. Here the Relative often takes *quidem, sometimes modo.*

The early Latin shows only *quod sciam* (as if *dum aliquid sciam*), so far as *I may be permitted to know anything about it (= quantum scīo, as far as I know, for all I know), which is used throughout the language, and *quod quidem veniat in mentem* (Pl., Ep., 638). Cicero, however, shows a great variety. Quantum sciam is found first in Quintilian.

*Omnium orātōrum quōs quidem cēgnōverim acūtissimum iūdicō Sertōrium, C., Br., 48, 180; of all orators, so far as I know them, I consider Sertorius the most acute. Nullum ērnātum quī modo nōn obscūret subtrahendum putō, Quint., v. 14, 33; I think no ornament is to be withdrawn, provided that it do not cause obscurity.*

2. Restrictions involving *esse, posse, attinet,* are regularly in the Indicative. Cicero and Caesar, however, show a very few cases of the Subjv., especially with *possis.*

*Prōdīdiisti et tē et illum, quod quidem in tē fuit, Ter., Ad., 692; you have betrayed both her and yourself, so far as in you lay. Ego quod ad mē attinet, iūdicae, vici, C., Verr., ii. 1. 8, 21; I, judges, so far as pertains to me, have conquered.*
628. The Subjunctive is used in Relative clauses which form a part of the utterance or the view of another than the narrator, or of the narrator himself when indirectly quoted (539, r.). So especially in *Óratiô Obliqua* and Final Sentences.

Recte Graeci praecipiunt, non temptanda quae effici non possint, Quint., iv. 5, 17; right are the Greeks in teaching that those things are not to be attempted which cannot be accomplished. Apud Hypanim fluvium Aristotelis ait, béstiolás quásdam násči quae ūnum diem vivant, C., *Tusc.*, l. 39, 94 (650). Virtús facit ut eós diligámus in quibus ipsa inesse videátur, C., *Off.*, i. 17, 56; virtue makes us love those in whom she seems to reside. Póstulátur ab hominibus ut ab īs se abstíneant máximé vitiís, in quibus alterum reprehenderint, C., *Verr.*, iii. 2, 4; it is demanded of men that they refrain from those faults most of all as to which they have blamed another. Senátus cénxit ut íf quícumque Galliam próvinciam obtíneret, Haedús défenderet, Cæs., *B.C.*, i. 35; the senate decreed that whoever obtained Gaul as his province should defend the Haedui. Paetus omnés librós quós fráter suús reliquist set mihi dónāvit, C., *Att.*, ii. 1, 12; (this is Paetus’ statement; otherwise: quós fráter ēius (521) reliquit; compare C., *Att.*, i. 20, 7). Xeroxès praemium pròposuit qui [= ei qui] invénisset novam volúptātem, C., *Tusc.*, v. 7, 20 (619).

Remark.—Even in *Óratiô Obliqua* the Indic. is retained:  
(a) In explanations of the narrator:

*Nuntiatur Afraniô mágnos commeâtus qui iter habēbant ad Caesarem ad flūmen cónstitisse*, Cæs., *B.C.*, i. 51, 1; *it is (was) announced to Afranius that large supplies of provisions (which were on their way to Caesar) had halted at the river.*

In the historians this sometimes occurs where the Relative clause is an integral part of the sentence, especially in the Impf. and Pluperfect; partly for clearness, partly for liveliness. For shifting Indic. and Subjv., see l., xxvi. 1.

(b) In mere circumlocutions:

*Quis neget haec omnia quae vidēmus deárum potestāte administrāri?* 
*Cf. C., *Cat.*, iii. 9, 21; who would deny that this whole visible world is managed by the power of the gods? Prōvidendum est né quae dicuntur ab eō qui dicit dissentiant, Quint., iii. 8, 48; we must see to it that the speech be not out of keeping with the speaker.*

629. Relative sentences which depend on Infinitives and Subjunctives, and form an integral part of the thought, are put in the Subjunctive (Attraction of Mood).

*Pigri est ingenii contentum esse īs quae sint ab aliis inventa,* Quint., x.
2, 4; it is the mark of a slow genius to be content with what has been found out by others. Quis aut eum diligat quem metuat aut eum ā quō sē metui putet? C., Lael., 15, 53; who could love a man whom he fears, or by whom he deems himself feared? Nam quod emās possīs ētūre vocāre tuum, Mart., II. 20, 2; for what you buy may rightly call your own. Ab aliō exspectēs alterī quod fēcērīs, Syrūs, 2 (Fr.) (319). In virtūtē sunt multī ascēnūs, ut igitūr glōriā maximē excellat, quī virtūtē plūrimum præstet, C., Planc., 25, 60 (552). Si sōlos eōs dicerēs miserōs moriendum esset, nēminem eōrūm quī vīverent excipērēs; moriendum est enim omnibus, C., Tusc., 1. 5, 9; if you called only those wretched who had (have) to die, you would except none who lived (live); for all have to die.

Remark.—The Indic. is used:
(a) In mere circumlocutions; so, often in Consecutive Sentences:
Necesse est facere sūmptum quī quaserit lūcrum, Pl., As., 218 (535).
Efficitur ab ōrātōre, ut si qui audiunt ētā adficiantur ut ōrātōr velīt, Cf. C., Br., 49, 185; it is brought about by the orator that those who hear him (= his auditors) are affected as he wishes (them to be).
(b) Of individual facts:
Et quod vidēs perīsse perīditum dūcās, Cat., viii. 2; and what you see (definite thing, definite person) is lost for aye, for aye deem lost. (Quod videās, anybody, anything.)

630. Relative Sentences of Design.—Optative Relative sentences are put in the Subjunctive of Design, when qui = ut is.

Sunt multī qui ēripīunt aliīs quod aliīs largiuntur, C., Off., i. 44, 43; many are they who snatch from some to lavish on others. [Senex] serīt arborēs, quae alterī saeclō prōsīnt, Caecilius (C., Tusc., i. 44, 31) (545). Semper habē Pyladēn aliquem quī ēret Orestem, Ov., Rem. Am., 589 (545). [Māgnēsiam Themistoclī Artaxerxēs] urbem dōnārat, quae ef pānem praeberēt, Nēp., II. 10, 3 (545).

Notes.—1. The basis of this construction is the characteristic Subjv., and the conception seems Potential rather than Optative; but in many cases the characteristic force is no longer felt.
2. After mittere there are a few cases where the Impf. Indic. is used with much the same force as the Impf. Subjv., but the purpose is merely inferential from the continuance in the tense.
Inmittēbantur illī canēs, qui īnvestīgābant omnia, C., Verr., iv. 21, 47.
3. By attraction similar to that with quod (541, n. 3) and quom (585, n. 3), the Relative is sometimes found with an Inf. and diceret, where the Subjv. of the verb in the Inf., or the Indic. with a parenthetical ut dixit, is to be expected.
Litterās quās mē sībī misīsse diceret (= misisset, or miserat, ut dixit) recitāvit, C., Ph., ii. 4, 7.

631. Relative Sentences of Tendency.—Potential Relative sentences are put in the Subjunctive of Tendency, when qui = ut is.
The notion is generally that of Character and Adaptation, and we distinguish three varieties:

1. With a definite antecedent, when the character is emphasised; regularly after idônesus, suitable;aptus, fit; dignus, worthy; indignus, unworthy; after is, tâlis, eiusmodi, tam, tantus, and the like; after unus and sôlus.

Est innocentia affectî tâlis animi, quae noceat nêmini, C., Tusc., III. 5, 16; harmlessness (innocence) is that state of mind that does harm to no one (is innocuous to any one). Ille ego sim cuius laniet furiosa capillus, Ov., A.A., ii. 451; may I be the man whose hair she tears in her seasons of frenzy. Sôlus est, C. Caesar, cuîius in victorîa cercid ñemû, C., Dei., 12, 34; thou art the only one, Caesar, in whose victory no one has fallen. Quem mea Calliopê laserit unus egû, Ov., Tr., ii. 568; I am the only one that my Calliope (= my Muse) has hurt. (Acadêmici) mentem sôlam cënsêbant idôneam cui créderêtur, C., Ac., i. 8, 30; the Academics held that the mind alone was fit to be believed (trustworthy).

 Remarks.—1. Ut is not unfrequently found instead of qui after the correlatives.

2. Idônesus, dignus, etc., take also ut, and the Infinitive (552, r. 2).

2. With an indefinite antecedent; so especially after negatives of all kinds, and their equivalents, and in combinations of multi, quidam, alîi, nönnulli, etc., with est, sunt, exsistit, etc.

Est qui, sunt qui, there is, there are some who; nêmû est qui, there is none to; nihil est quod, there is nothing; habeô quod, I have to; reperiuntur qui, persons are found who (to) . . . ; quis est qui? who is there who (to) . . . ? est cûr, there is reason for, etc. So, also, fuit cum, there was a time when (580, r. 1).

Sunt qui discessum animi & corpore putent esse mortem, C., Tusc., i. 9, 18; there are some who (to) think that death is the departure of the soul from the body. Fuit qui suáderet appellationem menûsis Augustî in Septembrem transerendam, Swet., Aug., 100; there was a man who urged (= to urge) that the name of the month (of) August should be transferred to September. Multi fuérunt qui tranquillitatem expetentes & negotiis publicis se removerint, C., Off., i. 20, 69; there have been many who, in the search for quiet, have withdrawn themselves from public engagements. Omnînû nêmû ùllus rei fuit emptor cui defuerit hic vênditor, C., Ph., ii. 38, 97 (317, 1). Post mortem in morte nihil est quod metuam malî, Pl., Capt., 747; after death there is no ill in death for me to dread. Nec mea qui digitîs lumina condât erit, Ov., Her., io, 120; and there will be no one to close mine eyes with his fingers. Miserrîmus est
qui quom esse cupit quod edit (172, n.) non habet, Pl., Capt., 463; he is a poor wretch who, when he wants to eat, has not anything to eat (non habet quid edat would mean does not know what to eat). Quotus est quisque qui somnis paœrat, C., Div., ii. 60, 125; (how many men in the world), the fewest men in the world obey dreams.

Remarks.—1. The Indic. may be used in the statements of definite facts, and not of general characteristics:

Mult i sunt qui eripiant,  
There are many to snatch away.  
Many are they who snatch away.

Of course this happens only after affirmative sentences. The poets use the Indic. more freely than prose writers:

Sunt-qui (= quidam) quod sentiunt non audent (so MSS.) diceere, C., Off., i. 24, 84; some dare not say what they think. Sunt-quibus ingratis timidæ indulgentia servit, Ov., A.A., ii. 435; to some trembling indulgence plays the slave all thanklessly. Sunt qui (indefinite) non habeant, est-qui (definite) non curat habère, H., Ep., ii. 2, 182.

2. When a definite predicate is negated, the Indic. may stand on account of the definite statement, the Subjv. on account of the negative:

A. Nihil bonum est quod non eum qui id possidet meliorem faciat; or,
B. Nihil bonum est quod non eum qui id possidet meliorem faciat.

A. Nothing that does not make its owner better is good.
B. There is nothing good that does not make its owner better.

3. After comparatives with quam as an object clause.

Maiora in defectione deliquerant, quam quibus ignosci posset, L., xxvi. 12, 6; (in that revolt) they had been guilty of greater crimes than could be forgiven (had sinned past forgiveness). Nón longius hostēs aberant, quam quō telum adīc posset, Caes., B.G., ii. 21, 3; the enemy were not more than a javelin's throw distant.

2. Instead of quam ut, quam is not unfrequently found alone, especially after potius, but also after amplius, celerius, etc.; in which case the construction resembles that of antequam.

4. Parallel with a descriptive adjective with which it is connected by et or sed.

Exierant (āduo) adulescentēs et Drūsi máxime familiāres, et in quibus magnam spem maiōres collocarent, C., Or., i. 7, 25; two young men had come out (who were) intimates of Drusus and in whom their elders were putting great hopes.

632. Quin in Sentences of Character.—After negative clauses, usually with a demonstrative tam, ita, etc., quin is
often used (556) where we might expect qui nōn, and sometimes where we should expect quae nōn, or quod nōn.

Sunt certa vitia quae nēmō est quīn effugere cupiāt, C., Or., iii., 11, 41; there are certain faults which there is no one but (= everybody) desires to escape. Nil tam difficile est quin quaeerendo invēstigāri possiet (= possit), Ter., Heaut., 675 (552).

Remark.—That quīn was felt not as quī nōn, but rather as ut nōn, is shown by the fact that the demonstrative may be expressed:

Nōn cum quōquam arma contulī quīn is mihi succubuerit, Nep., xviii., 11, 5; I have never measured swords with any one that he has not (but he has) succumbed to me.

633. Relative in a Causative Sense.—When qui = cum is, as he, the Subjunctive is employed. (See 586, r. i.)

The particles ut, utpote, quīppe, as, are often used in conjunction with the Relative; for their range, see 626, n. 1.

(Csānius) fuit mirificā vigilantiā quī suō totō cōnsulātū somnum nōn vī-dērit, C., Fam., vii., 30, 1; Csānius has shown marvellous watchfulness, not to have seen (= taken a wink of) in his whole consulship. Ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, qui tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem invēneris! C., Arch., 10, 24; lucky youth! to have found a crier (= trumpeter) of your valor (in) Homer! Māior glōria in Scipióne, Quinctii recentior ut qui eō annō triumphāssēt, L., xxxv., 10, 5; Scipio's glory was greater, Quinctius' was fresher, as (was to be expected in) a man who (inasmuch as he) had triumphed in that year.

Remark.—On the use of the Indic. after quīppe, etc., see 626, n. 1. On the sequence of tenses, see 513, n. 3.

634. Relative in a Concessive or Adversative Sense.—Quī is sometimes used as equivalent to cum is in a Concessive or Adversative Sense.

Ego quī levīter Graecās litterās attigisset, tamen cum vēnissem Athenās complūrēs ibi diēs sum commorātus, C., Or., i., 18, 82; although I had dabbled but slightly in Greek, nevertheless, having come to Athens, I stayed there several days.

Note.—The Indic. is the rule for this construction in early Latin (580, n. 1).

635. Relative and Infinitive.—The Accusative and Infinitive may be used in Īrátiō Obliqua after a Relative, when the Relative is to be resolved into a Coördinating Conjunction and the Demonstrative.

(Philosophi cēnsent) Īnum quemque nostrum mundī esse partem, ex quō illud nātūrā consequī ut communēm utilitātem nostrae antepōnāmus, C.,
RELATIVE SENTENCES.

Fin., iii. 19, 64; philosophers hold that every one of us is a part of the universe, and that the natural consequence of this is for us to prefer the common welfare to our own.

Notes.—1. This usage is not cited earlier than Cicero, and seems to be found principally there, with sporadic examples from other authors.

2. Occasional examples are also found of the Inf. after etsi (Livy), quamquam (Tact.), in the sense and yet; cum interim (Livy), quia (Sen.), nisi (Tact.), si non (Livy); and after quem admodum, ut (Cic., Livy, Tact.), in comparative sentences.

636. Combination of Relative Sentences.—Relative Sentences are combined by means of Copulative Conjunctions only when they are actually coördinate.

When the second Relative would stand in the same case as the first, it is commonly omitted (a).

When it would stand in a different case (b), the Demonstrative is often substituted (c); or, if the case be the Nominative (d) or Accusative (e), the Relative may be omitted altogether.

(a) Dumnorix qui principatum obtinēbat āe plēbi acceptus erat (Caes., B.G., i. 3. 5),
Dumnorix, who held the chieftaincy, and (who) was acceptable to the commons;
(b) Dumnorix qui principatum obtinēbat cuique plēbs favēbat,
Dumnorix, who held the chieftaincy, and whom the commons favoured;
(c) Dumnorix qui principatum obtinēbat cuique plēbs favēbat,
Dumnorix, who held the chieftaincy, and whom the commons favoured;
(d) Dumnorix quem plēbs diligēbat et principatum obtinēbat,
Dumnorix, whom the commons loved, and (who) held the chieftaincy:
(e) Dumnorix qui principatum obtinēbat et plēbs diligēbat,
Dumnorix, who held the chieftaincy, and (whom) the commons loved.

Examples: (a) Caes., B.G., iv. 34, 4; (b) C., Lael., 23, 87; Tusc., i. 30, 72; (c) C., Br., 74, 258; Tusc., v. 13, 38; (e) C., Off., ii. 6, 21; L., x. 29, 3; (d) S., Jug., ior, 5; Ter., Ad., 85.

Notes.—1. The insertion of a demonstrative is almost confined to early Latin, Lucretius, and Cicero. Caesar and Sallust have no examples, and Livy very few. On the other hand, the use of a relative by zeugma (690) in connection with two or more verbs governing different cases is found at all periods.

2. (a) The Relative is not combined with adversative or illative conjunctions (but who, who therefore) except at the beginning of a sentence, when it represents a following demonstrative or anticipates it (690).

Qui fortis est, idem fidēns est; qui autem fidēns est, is nōn extimāscit,
C., Tusc., iii. 7, 14; he who is brave is confident, but he who is confident is not afraid.
(b) Sed qui, qui tamen, can be used in antithesis to adjectives.
Sôphrōn mimōrum quidem scriptor sed quem Platō probāvit, Quint., i. 10,
Sôphron, a writer of mimes, 'tis true, but (one) that Plato approved.
(c) Quò tamen may be added to explain a forgoing statement.
Causam tibi exposuimus Ephesi, quam tā tamen cōram facilius cōgnōscēs,
C., Fam., xiii. 55, 1.

3. Two or more Relative clauses may be connected with the same antecedent when the one serves to complete the idea of the principal clause, the other to modify it;
4. The Relative is often repeated by anaphora (682) for stylistic reasons. Compare C., Tusc., i. 25, 62; Planc., 33, 61; L., xxiii. 14, 3.

637. Relative Sentence represented by a Participle.—The Relative sentence is sometimes represented by a Participle, but generally the Participle expresses a closer connection than the mere explanatory Relative.

Omnēs aliud agentēs, aliud simulantēs perfidi (sunt), C., Off., iii. 14, 60; all who are driving at one thing and pretending another are treacherous. [Pisistratus] Homērī librōs confusōs anteā sic disposuisse dicitur ut nunc habēmus, C., Or., iii. 34, 137; Pisistratus is said to have arranged the books of Homer, which were (whereas they were) in confusion before, as we have them now.

COMPARATIVE SENTENCES.

638. A peculiar phase of the Relative sentence is the Comparative, which is introduced in English by as or than, in Latin by a great variety of relative forms:

(a) By correlatives; (b) by atque or ac; (c) by quam.

639. Moods in Comparative Sentences.—The mood of the Dependent clause is the Indicative, unless the Subjunctive is required by the laws of oblique relation, or by the conditional idea (602).

Remark.—On potius quam with the Subjv., see below, 644, r. 3.

640. The dependent clause often borrows its verb from the leading clause. Compare 602.

Ignoratiō furtūrōrum malōrum utilior est quam scientia, C., Div., ii. 9, 23 (296). Serviō mōribus isdem erant quibus dominus, Cf. C., Verr., iii. 25, 62; the servants had the same character as the master.

641. When the dependent clause (or standard of comparison) borrows its verb from the leading clause, the dependent clause is treated as a part of the leading clause; and if the first or leading clause stands in the Accusative with the Infinitive, the second or dependent clause must have the Accusative likewise.

Ita sentiō Latinam linguam locupletiōrem esse quam Graecam, C., Fin., i. 3, 10; it is my opinion that the Latin language is richer than the
Greek. Ego Gaium Caesarem non eadem de re publica sentire quae me scio, C., Pis., 32, 79; I know that Gaius Caesar has not the same political views that I (have).

I. Correlative Comparative Sentences.

642. Correlative Sentences of Comparison are introduced by Adjective and Adverbal Correlatives:

1. Adjective correlatives:

- tot, totidem
- quantus
- qualis
- idem

(s) as many
(s) as great
such
the same

2. Adverbial correlatives:

- quam
- quantopere
- quotiens
- quidam

(s) as much
(s) as much
as often
as long

Ut, uti, sicut, tamquam (rare), quasi (rare)

so (as) = as

Quot homines, tot sententiae, (as) many men, (so) many minds, Ter., Ph., 454. Frumentum tantum fuit quanti iste aestimavit, C., Verr., iii. 84, 194; corn was worth as much as he valued it. Plurique habere amicum talem volunt, quales ipsi esse non possunt, C., Lael., 22, 82; most people wish to have a friend of a character such as they themselves cannot possess. Cimön incidunt in eandem invidiam quam pater suus, Nep., v. 3, 1 (310). Nihil est tam populare quam bonitas, C., Lig., 12, 37; nothing is so winning as kindness. Sic de ambitione quomodo de amica queruntur, Sen., E.M., 22, 10; they complain of ambition as they do of a sweetheart. Tamdiu requiescō quamdiu ad te scribo, C., Att., ix. 4, 1; I rest as long as I am writing to you. Optō ut ita cuique eveniat, ut de re publica quisque mereátur, C., Ph., ii. 46, 119; I wish each one's fortune to be such as he deserves of the state.

3. The Correlative is sometimes omitted.

Homē, nōn quam isti sunt, gloriosus, L., xxxv. 49, 7; a man, not (so) vainglorious as they are. Discēs quamdiu volēs, C., Off., i. 1, 2; you shall learn (as long) as you wish.

Remarks.—I. Instead of idem qui, idem ut is sometimes found.

Disputationem expónimus eisdem ferē verbis ut āctum disputatúmque
COMPARATIVE SENTENCES.

est, C., Tusc. ii. 3, 9; we are setting forth the discussion in very much the same words in which it was actually carried on.

On idem with atque, æc, et, see 643; on idem with Dat., see 359, n. 6; on idem with cum, see 310, r. 2.

2. (a) The more—the more, may be translated by quō (quisque)—eō, and the like, with the comparatives; but usually by ut (quisque), quam—ita, tam, etc., with the superlative, especially when the subj. is indefinite.

Tantō brevius omne quantō fēlicius tempus, Pliny, Ep., viii. 14, 10; time is the shorter, the happier it is. Quam citissimē cōnficiēs, tam māximē expediet, Cato, Agr., 64, 2; the quicker the better. Ut quisque sibi plūrimum cōnfidit, ita māximē excellit, C., Lael., 9, 30; the more a man trusts himself, the more he excels.

(b) When the predicate is the same, one member often coalesces with the other: Optimum quidque rārissimum est, C., Fin., ii. 25, 81 (318, 2), = ut quidque optimum est, ita rārissimum.

3. Ut—ita is often used adversatively (482, 4). On ita—ut, in asseverations, see 262.

4. Ut and pro eō ut are frequently used in a limiting or causal sense, so far as, inasmuch as; pro eō ut temporum difficultās tūlit (C., Verr., iii. 54, 126), so far as the hard times permitted; ut tum rēs erant, as things were then; ut temporibus illīs (C., Verr., iii. 54, 125), for those times; ut erat furiōsus (C., Rosc. Am., 12, 33), stark mad as he was; ut Siculi (C., Tusc., i. 8, 15), as (is, was, to be expected of) Sicilians.

Vir ut inter Aetolīs fācundus, L., xxxii. 33, 9; a man of eloquence for an Aetolian. Ut sunt hūmāna, nihil est perpetuom datum, Pl., Cist., 194; as the world wags, nothing is given for good and all.

5. On quam, quantus, and the Superlative, see 303.

Notice in this connection quam qui, ut qui, and the like, with the Superlative (usually māximē):

Tam sum amicus ref publicae quam qui māximē (= est), C., Fam., v. 2, 6; I am as devoted a friend to the state as he who is most (= as any man). Proelium, ut quod māximē umquam, commissum est, L., vii. 33, 5.

Domus celebrātur ita, ut cum māximē, C., Q. F., ii. 4, 6.

6. The Correlative forms do not always correspond exactly.

Subeunda dimicātiō totiēns, quot conflūrāti superessent, L., ii. 13, 2.

II. Comparative Sentences with ATQUE (ÆC).

643. Adjectives and Adverbs of Likeness and Unlikeness may take atque or æc.

Virtūs eadem in homine æc deō est, C., Leg., i. 8, 25; virtue is the same in man as in god. Date operam nē simili utāmur fortūnā atque ūsi sumus, Ter., Ph., 30; do your endeavour that we have not (ill)-luck like that we had before. Dissimulātiō est cum alia dicuntur æc sentiēs, C.,
Or., ii. 67, 269; dissimulation is when other things are said than what you mean (something is said other than what you mean). Similiter (602, r. 2) facias sc si me rogess cur tō duōbus contuear oculis, et non alterō coniueam, C., N.D., iii. 3, 8; you are acting (like) as if you were to ask me why I am looking at you with two eyes, and not blinking with one. Non dixi secus sc sentiebam, C., Or., ii. 6, 24; I did not speak otherwise than I thought.

Notes.—1. The expression is commonly explained by an ellipsis: Aliter dixi at- que [aliter] sentiebam, I spoke one way and yet I was thinking another way.

So we find: Timeō nē alius crēdam atque alius nūntiēs, Ter., Hec., 844; I fear that I believe one thing, and you are telling another.

2. Instead of atque, et is sometimes used; this is not common, but the greater proportion of cases occurs in the classical period: Solet enim alius sentire et loqui, C., Fam., viii. 1, 3; for he has a way of thinking one thing and saying another.

3. These words are principally: aequos, pār, pariter, idem, īuxtā (from the classical period on), perinde, proxime, prō eō; alius, aliter, secus (usually with a negative), contra, contrārius, similis, dissimilis, simul; and rarely item, tālis, totidem, proximē, and a few others. Plautus uses thus some words which involve a similar meaning, as dēmūtāre (M.G., 1130). Compare also M.G., 763; B., 725.

4. Alius and secus have quam occasionally at all periods. On the other hand, nōn alius and other negative combinations seldom have atque, commonly quam or nisi. After negative forms of alius Cicero has regularly nisi, occasionally praeter.

Philosophia quid est alius (= nihil est alius) nisi dōnum deōrum? C., Tusc., i. 26, 61; philosophy—what else is it but the gift of the gods?

III. Comparative Sentences with QUAM.

644. Comparative Sentences with quam follow the comparative degree or comparative expressions.

The Verb of the dependent clause is commonly to be supplied from the leading clause, according to 640.

In Comparative Sentences quam takes the same case after it as before it.

Melior tūtiorque est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria, L., xxx. 30, 19 (307, r. 1). Potius amicum quam dictum perdidī, Quint., vi. 3, 20; I preferred to lose my friend rather than my joke. Velim existimēs nēminem cuiquam càriōrem umquam fuisses quam tē mihi, C., Fam., i. 9, 24 (546, r. 1).

Remarks.—1. When the second member is a subj., and the first member an oblique case, the second member must be put in the Nom., with the proper form of the verb esse, unless the oblique case be an Accusative:

Vicinus tuus equum meliōrem habet quam tuus est, Cf. C., Inv., i. 31, 52 (596). Ego hominem callidiōrem vidī nēminem quam Phormiōnem, Ter., Ph., 591; I have seen no shrewder man than Phormio (= quam Phormiō est). Tibi, multō maiōri quam Africānus fuit, mē nōn multō minōrem quam Laelium adiūntum esse patere, Cf. C., Fam., v. 7, 3.
2. On *quam prō*, and *quam qui*, see 298. On the double comparative, see 290.

3. (a) When two clauses are compared by *potius*, *rather*, *prius*, *before*, *citius*, *quicker*, *sooner*, the second clause is put in the Pr. or Impf. Subjv. (512), with or (in Cicero) without *ut*.

Dépungi *potius quam serviás*, C., *Att.*, vii. 7, 7 (577, n. 6). (Dixīrunt)

sē miliēns moriturōs potius quam ut tantum dēdecoris admittī patiantur,

L., iv. 2, 8; they said that they would rather die a thousand times than

(to) suffer such a disgrace to slip in. *Moriturōs sē affirmābant citius

quam in aliēnōs mōrēs verterentur*, L., xxiv. 3, 12; they declared that

they had rather die, than let themselves be changed to foreign ways.

(b) If the leading clause is in the Inf., the dependent clause may

be in the Inf. likewise, and this is the regular construction in classical

Latin when the Inf. follows a verb of Will and Desire; Cicero uses

the Inf. regularly, Caesar generally, though examples of the simple

Subjv. are not uncommon in both; Livy is very fond of the Subjv.,

especially with *ut*, which is cited first from him.

Se ab omnibus désertōs potius quam abs tē défensōs esse mālunt, C., *Div.

in Caecl., 6, 21; they prefer to be deserted by all rather than defended

by you.

Notes.—1. Instead of *tam—quam*, *so—as*, the Roman prefers the combinations

*nōn minus quam—nōn magis quam* (by Llotos).

(a) *Nōn minus quam* means *no less than = quite as much*:

*Patria hominibus nōn minus quam liberī cāra esse dēbet*, (Cf. C.,) *Fam.*, iv.

5, 2; country ought to be no less dear to men than children (= quite as dear as).

The meaning *as little as* is cited only from *Ter.*, *Hec.*, 647: *nōn tibi illud factum

minus placet quam mihī*, where *not less than = quite as much as = as little as.*

(b) *Nōn magis quam* means *quite as little, or quite as much*:

*Animus nōn magis est sānus quam corpus*, Cf. C., *Tuscl.*, iii. 5, 10; the mind

is no more sound than the body = as little sound as the body. (Or it might mean: The

mind is no more sound than the body = the body is quite as sound as the mind.)

So with other comparatives.

Fabius nōn in armīs praeestantior fuit quam in toga, Cf. C., *Cat.*.m., 4, 11;

Fabius was not more distinguished in war than in peace (no less distinguished in peace

than in war, quite as distinguished in peace as in war).

2. After a negative comparative, *atque* is occasionally found for *quam* in Plautus,

Terence, Catullus, Vergil; much more often in Horace (nine times in the

Satires, twice in the *Epodes*), who uses it also after a positive.

*Nōn Apollinis magis vērum atque hōc respōsumet*, Ter., *And.*, 698. *Illī


**THE ABRIDGED SENTENCE.**

645. The compound sentence may be reduced to a simple sentence, by substituting an Infinitive or a Participle for the dependent clause.
THE INFINITIVE AND INFINITIVE FORMS.

646. The practical uses of the Infinitive and its kindred forms, as equivalents of dependent clauses, have already been considered:

Infinitive after Verbs of Creation: 423.
Gerund and Gerundive: 425-433.
Supine: 434-436.
Infinitive in Object Sentences: 526-531.
Infinitive in Complementary Final Sentences: 532.
Infinitive in Relative Sentences: 635.

Note.—Under the head of the Abridged Sentence will be treated the Historical Infinitive and Ὄρατιο Ὀβλικά: the Historical Infinitive, because it is a compendious Imperfect: Ὄρατιο Ὀβλικά, because it foreshortens, if it does not actually abridge, and effaces the finer distinctions of Ὄρατιο Ῥέκτα.

HISTORICAL INFINITIVE.

647. The Infinitive of the Present is sometimes used by the historians to give a rapid sequence of events, with the subject in the Nominative; generally, several Infinitives in succession.

(Verrēs) minūtēr Diodōrē, vociferārī palmam, lacrimās interdum vix tenēre, C., Verr., iv. 18, 39; Verres threatened (was for threatening) Diodorus, bawled out before everybody, sometimes could hardly restrain his tears.

Notes.—1. The ancient assumption of an ellipsis of coepit, began (QUINT., IX. 3, 58), serves to show the conception, although it does not explain the construction, which has not yet received a convincing explanation. A curious parallel is de with Infinitive in French. The Final Infinitive (to be) for, may help the conception, as it sometimes does the translation. It takes the place of the Imperfect, is used chiefly in rapid passages, and gives the outline of the thought, and not the details; it has regularly the sequence of a Past tense.

2. The Historical Infinitive is sometimes found after cum, ubi, etc. See S., Iug., 98, 2; L., iii. 37, 6; Tac., Ann., ii. 4, 4; H., iii. 31; Ann., iii. 26, 2. No examples are cited from Cicero and Caesar; this usage is characteristic of Tacitus.

ỖРАТИΟ ὈΒΛΙΚΑ.

648. The thoughts of the narrator, or the exact words of a person, as reported by the narrator, are called Ὄρατιο Ῥέκτα, or Direct Discourse.

Indirect Discourse, or Ὄρατιο Ὀβλικά, reports not the exact words spoken, but the general impression produced.

Remarks.—1. Under the general head of Ὄρατιο Ὀβλικά are em-
braced also those clauses which imply Indirect Quotation (Partial Obliquity). See 508.

2. Inquam, quoth I, is used in citing the Œratiō Recta; aīō, I say, generally in Œratiō Obliqua. Inquam never precedes the Œratiō Obliqua, but is always parenthetic; aīō may or may not be parenthetic. Œratiō Recta may also be cited by a parenthetic "ut ait," "ut aient," rarely ait, (as) he says, (as) they say. The subject of inquit often precedes the quotation, but when it is mentioned in the parenthesis it is almost always put after the verb.

Tum Cotta: rūmōribus mēcum, inquit, pūgnās, C., N.B., III. 5, 13 (484). Aliquot somnia vērā, inquit Ennius, C., Div., II. 62, 127; "some dreams are true," quoth Ennius.

3. The lacking forms of inquam are supplied by forms of dicere.

649. Œratiō Obliqua differs from Œratiō Recta, partly in the use of the Moods and Tenses, partly in the use of the pronouns.

Notes.—1. It must be remembered that as a rule the Roman thought immediately in Œ. O., and did not think first in Œ. R, and then transfer to Œ. O.; also that Œ. O. is necessarily less accurate in its conception than Œ. R., and hence it is not always possible to construct the Œ. R. from the Œ. O. with perfect certainty. What is ideal to the speaker may become unreal to the narrator, from his knowledge of the result, and hence, when accuracy is aimed at, the narrator takes the point of view of the speaker, and in the last resort passes over to Œ. Recta.

2. Œ. Obliqua often comes in without any formal notice, and the governing verb has often to be supplied from the context, sometimes from a preceding negative.

(Regulus) sententiam nē dicet recusāvit; (saying that) quam diū iūre iūrandō hostium tenerētur, nōn esse sē senātōrem, C., Off., III. 27, 100.
(Idem Regulus) reddī captivōs negāvit esse utile; (saying that) illōs enim adulēscēntēs esse, sē iam confectum senectūte, ib.

3. Sometimes, after a long stretch of Œ. Obliqua, the writer suddenly shifts to the Œ. Recta. Examples: C., Tusc., II. 25, 61; L., II. 7, 9, etc.

Moods in Œratiō Obliqua.

650. In Œratiō Obliqua the principal clauses (except Interrogatives and Imperatives) are put in the Infinitive, the subordinate clauses in the Subjunctive.

Œratiō Recta: Apud Hypanim fluvium, inquit Aristotelēs,
Œratiō Obliqua: Apud Hypanim fluvium Aristotelēs ait
Œ. R.: bēstiolae quaedam nāscuntur,
Œ. O.: bēstiolās nāscadī nāscī,
Œ. R.: quae ēnum diem vivunt,
Œ. O.: quae ēnum diem vivant, C., Tusc., I. 39, 94.

Œ. R.—On the river Bog, says Aristotle, little creatures are born, that live (but) one day.

Œ. O.—Aristotle says that on the river Bog, § one day.

Sōcratēs dicerē solēbat:
Œ. R. Omnēs in ēō quod sciunt satis sunt eloquentēs,
Œ. O. Omnēs in ēō quod scirent satis esse eloquentēs, C., Or., I. 14, 63.
Ó. R. Socrates used to say: "All men are eloquent enough in what they understand."

Ó. O. Socrates used to say that all men were eloquent enough in what they understood.

Remark.—When the Principal Clause, or Apodosis, is in the Indic., the Inf. is used according to the rule for Verbs of Saying and Thinking. When the Principal Clause, or Apodosis, is in the Subjv., as in the Ideal and Unreal Conditions, special rules are necessary (656).

Otherwise, Subjv. in Ó. R. continues to be Subjv. in Ó. O.

Note.—In Caesar, B.C., III. 73, 6, where a principal clause is apparently put in the Subjv., instead of dētrimentum in bonum verteret, read (fore ut) ... vēteret, with Vossius, Dübner, Perrin, Hoffmann. Nep., ii. 7, 6, is disputed.

651. Interrogative sentences are put in the Subjunctive, according to 467; inasmuch as the verb of Saying involves the verb of Asking.

Ariovistus respondit sē prius in Galliam vēnisse quam populum Rōmānum: quid sībī vellet cūr in suās possessionēs ventret, Caes., B.G., i. 44, 7; Ariovistus replied that he had come to Gaul before the Roman people; what did he (Caesar) mean by coming into his possessions? (Quid tībī vēs?)

Remarks.—1. Indicative Rhetorical Questions (464), being substantially statements, are transferred from the Indic. of Ó. R. to the Acc. and Inf. of Ó. O. when they are in the First and Third Persons. The Second Person goes into the Subjunctive.

Ó. R. Num possum? Can I? [No.] Ó. O. Num posse?

Caes., B.G., i. 14; Could he?

Quid est turpius? What is baser? [Nothing.] Quid esse turpius?

Caes., B.G., v. 28, 6; What was baser?

Quō sē repulsōs ab Rōmānis itūrōs? L., xxxiv. xi, 6; whither should they go, if repelled by the Romans? (Quō ibimus?) Cui nōn appārēre ab cō quī prior arma intulisset iniūriām ortam (esse)? L., xxxii. ro, 6; to whom is it not evident that the wrong began with him, who had been the first to wage war? (Cui nōn appāret?)

Examples are not found in early Latin, are rare in classical period, but are especially common in Livy.

Si bonum dūcērent, quid prō noxiō damnāssent? L., xxvii. 34, 13; if they thought him a good man, why had they condemned him as guilty? (Si bonum dūcitis, quid prō noxiō damnāstis?)

The Question in the Second Person often veils an Imperative. Here from Livy on the Subjv. is the rule.

Nec cēssābant Sabīnī instāre rogittantēs quid terent tempus, L., iii. 61, 13. (Ó. R., Quid teritis?)
Exceptions are rare; Subjv. with Third Person, Caes., B.G., i. 32, 3; Inf. with Second Person, L., vi. 39, 10.

2. In Subjv. Rhetorical Questions the Subjv. is either retained or transferred to the Infinitive. The Deliberative Subjv. is always retained.

Quis sibi persuādēret sine certā rē Ambiorigem ad eiusmodi consilium dēscendisse? Caes., B.G., v. 29, 5; who could persuade himself that Ambiorix had proceeded to an extreme measure like that, without (having made) a sure thing (of it)? (Quis sibi persuādēat?)

The Inf. form would be the Future: quem sibi persuāsīrūm? (659), and is not to be distinguished from the Fut. Indicative.

652. Imperative sentences are put in the Subjunctive, sometimes with, usually without, ut; the Negative is, of course, nē (never ut nē).

Redditūr responsūm: nondum tempus pūgnār esse; castrīs sē tenērent, L., ii. 45, 8; there was returned for answer, that it was not yet time to fight, that they must keep within the camp. (ō. R., castrīs vōs tenēte.) (Vercingetorīx) cohortātus est: nē perturbārentur incommodō, Caes., B.G., vii. 29, 1; Vercingetorīx comforted them (by saying) that they must not allow themselves to be disconcerted by the disaster. (ō. R., nōlīte perturbārī.)

Remarks.—1. Ut can be used according to 546, after verbs of Will and Desire and their equivalents.

Pythiā respondit ut moenibus lignēs sē mūnīrent, Nep., ii. 2, 6; the Pythia answered that they must defend themselves with walls of wood.

2. Verbs of Will and Desire, being also verba dicendi, frequently have an ut clause followed by an Acc. with the Inf., the second clause adding a statement to the request.

Ubī ōrābant ut sībī auxiliūm ferret; ad auxiliūm spēnque reliquī temporis satis futūrum, Caes., B.G., iv. 16, 5.

Tenses in Orātiō Obliqua.

653. The Tenses of the Infinitive follow the laws already laid down (530):

The Present Infinitive expresses contemporaneous action;
The Perfect Infinitive expresses prior action;
The Future Infinitive expresses future action.

Remark.—The Impf. Indic., as expressing prior continuance, becomes the Pf. Inf. in ō. o., and hence loses its note of continuance.

654. The Tenses of the Subjunctive follow the laws of
sequence (510). The choice is regulated by the point of view of the Reporter, or the point of view of the Speaker.

Note.—By assuming the point of view of the speaker, greater liveliness as well as greater accuracy is imparted to the discourse. This form is technically called *Repræsentatión*. In Conditional Sentences *Repræsentatión* often serves to prevent ambiguity. The point of view not unfrequently shifts from reporter to speaker, sometimes in the same sentence; this has the effect of giving additional emphasis to the primary verb, and is therefore common in commands and in favourable alternatives.

**Point of View of the Reporter:**

Lēgātiōni Ariovistus respondit: sibi mūrum vidērī quid in suē Gallīā quam bellō victisset, Caesārī negotiī esset, Caes., B.G., l. 34, 4; to the embassy Ariovistus replied, that it seemed strange to him (he wondered) what business Caesar had in his Gaul, which he had conquered in war.

**Point of View of the Speaker:**

[Lēgātīs Helvetiōrum] Caesar respondit: cōnsuēsse deōs immortālēs, quō gravius homines ex commūtātione rērum doleant, quōs prō scelere eōrum ulciscī velint, his secundōrēs interdum rēs concēdere, Caes., B.G., l. 14, 5; to the envoys of the Helvetians Caesar replied, that the gods were (are) wont, that men might (may) suffer the more severely from change in their fortunes, to grant occasional increase of prosperity to those whom they wished (wish) to punish for their crime. (A long passage is L., xxviii. 32.)

**Point of View shifted:**

Ad haec Mārcius respondit: Si quid ab senātū peterē vellent, ab armīs discēdant, S., C., 34, 1; thereto Mārcius replied: If they wished to ask anything of the senate, they must lay down their arms.

Proinde aut cēderent (undesired alternative) animō atque virtūte gentil per eōs diēs totiēns ab sē victae, aut itinerīs finem spērent (desired alternative) campum interiacentem Tiberī &c moenibus Rōmānis, L., xxii. 30, 11; therefore they should either yield in spirit and courage to a nation which during those days they had so often conquered, or they must hope as the end of their march the plain that lies between the Tiber and the walls of Rome.

655. Object, Causal, Temporal, and Relative Clauses follow the general laws for Subordinate Clauses in Ōrātiō Obliqua.

For examples of Object Clauses, see 525; for Causal, see 541; for Temporal, see 561–564, 569–577; for Relative, see 628.

Remarks.—1. Coördinate Relative Clauses are put in the Acc. and Infinitive (635).
2. Relative Clauses are put in the Indicative: (a) In mere circumlocutions. (b) In explanations of the narrator (628, R.).

3. Dum, with the Indic., is often retained as a mere circumlocution:

Dic, hospes, Spartae nōs tē hic vidīssē iacentis, dum sānctīs patriae lēgitus obsequīmīr, C., Tusc., i. 42, 101; tell Sparta, stranger, that thou hast seen us lying here obeying (in obedience to) our country's hallowed laws.

So also sometimes cum; see C., Lael., 3, 12.

656. Conditional Sentences in Ērātīō Obliqua, Total and Partial.

1. The Protasis follows the rule.

2. The Indicative Apodosis follows the rule, but Present, Imperfect, and Perfect Subjunctive are turned into the Future Infinitive or its periphrases.

The Pluperfect Subjunctive is transferred to the Perfect Infinitive of the Active Periphrastic Conjugation.

Passive and Supineless Verbs take the circumlocution with futūrum fuisse ut . . . 248, N. 3.

Remark.—Posse needs no Fut. (248, R.), and potuisse no Periphrastic Pf. Inf., so that these forms are often used to lighten the construction.

3. Identical Forms.—In the transfer of Conditions to Ō. O., the difference between many forms disappears. For instance,

I. 1. Si id crēdis, errābis.  
2. Si id crēdēs, errābis. } Dicō tē, si id crēdās, errātūrum esse.  
3. Si id crēdās, errēs.

II. 1. Si id crēdis, errābis.  
2. Si id crēdēs, errābis.  
3. Si id crēdās, errēs.  
4. Si id crēderēs, errēres. } Dīxī tē, si id crēderēs, errātūrum esse.

III. 1. Si id crēdidērēs, errābis.  
2. Si id crēdidērēs, errēs.  
3. Si id crēdidērēs, errāverēs.  
4. Si id crēdidērēs, errārēs. } Dīxī tē, si id crēdidērēs, errātūrum esse.

Notes.—1. In No. I. the difference is not vital, though exactness is lost.

2. (a) In No. II. the ambiguity lies practically between 2 and 3; 'inasmuch as Repræsentātiō is usually employed for the Logical Condition, and the Periphrastic Pf. Inf. is employed in the Unreal, wherever it is possible. The difference between an Unfulfilled Present and an Unfulfilled Past would naturally vanish to the narrator, to whom both are Past.

Ariovistus respondit: si quid ipsī ē Caesare opus esset, sēē ad illum ventūrum fuisse: si quid ille sē velīt, illum ad sē venire oportēre, Caes., B. G., i.
419

34.2; Arriovistus answered, that if he had wanted anything of Caesar he would have come to him; if he (Caesar) wanted anything of him, he ought to come to him (Arriovistus). O. R.: si quid mihi & Caesare opus esset, ego ad illum venisset; si quid ille mē vult, illum ad mē venire oportet.

Patentur sē virtūtis causā, nisi ea voluptātem faceret, nē manum quidem versūrōs fuisse, C., Fin., v. 31, 93; they confess that for virtus’s own sake, if it did not cause pleasure, they would not even turn a hand. O. R.: nisi ea voluptātem faceret nē manum quidem verterēmus.

(b) Occasionally in the Logical Condition the Fut. Indic. is changed to the Fut. Periphrastic Subjv., thus: si adsēnsūrus esset, etiam opinātūrum is an O. O. quotation for si...adsentētur, opinābitur in C., Ac., ii. 21, 67.

3. No. III., like No. II., is used chiefly of the future. But in 3 the periphrases with fore (futūrum esse) are commonly employed for the active and the Pf. participle, withfore for the passive. In 4 the same fading out of the difference between Unfulfilled Present and Past occurs as in II.

657. Logical Conditions in Ὄρατο Obliqua.

1. Ad haec Arriovistus respondit: si ipse populō Rōmānō nōn praescriberet quamadmodum suō iūre uteorētūr, nōn oportēre sēsē a populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impediōri, Caes., B.G., i. 36, 2; to this Arriovistus made answer: If he did not prescribe to the Roman people how to exercise their right, he ought not to be hindered by the Roman people in the exercise of his right. (O. R.: si ego nōn praescribō, nōn oportet mē impediōri.)

2. Si bonum dūcerent, quid prō noxiō damnāsset? Si noxium comperissent, quid alterum (consulātum) crēderent? L., xxvii. 34, 18; if they thought him a good man, why had they condemned him as guilty; if, on the other hand, they had found him guilty, why did they intrust him with a second consulship? (O. R.: si—dūcitis, quid damnāsitis? si—comperistis, quid crēditis?)

3. Titurius clāmitābat, suam sententiam in utramque partem esse tūtam; si nihil esset (O. R.: si nihil erit) dārius, nūlō periculō ad proximam legiōnem perventūrōs (O. R.: pervenētīs); si Gallia omnis cum Germānīs cōnsentīret (O. R.: si cōnsentīt) ēnam esse (O. R.: est) in celeritāte posītām salūtēm, Caes., B.G., v. 29, 6; Titurius kept crying out that his resolution was safe in either case: if there were (should be) no especial pressure, they would get to the next legion without danger; if all Gaul was in league with the Germans, their only safety lay in speed.

4. Eum omnium labōrum finem fore existimābant si hostem Hībērō interclāudere potuissent, Caes., B.C., i. 68, 3; they thought that would be the end of all (their) toils, if they could cut off the enemy from the Ebro. (O. R.: is labōrum finis erit (or fuerit) si hostem interclāudere potuerimus.

5. [HI] Iugurthae nōn mediocrem animum pollicitandō accendēbant si Micipsa rēx occidisset, fore utī sālus imperi Numidiae potērēt, S., Jug., 8, 1; these persons kindled no little courage in Iugurtha’s heart) by promising over and over that if King Micipsa fell, he alone should possess the rule over Numidia. (O. R.: si Micipsa occiderit, tū sōlus imperi potiēris.)
6. [Fidēs data est] si Iugurtham vivom aut necātum sībi trādidisset fore ut illi senātus inpūnitātem et sua omnia concēdēret, S., Iug., 61, 5; his word was pledged that if he delivered to him Jugurtha, alive or dead, the senate would grant him impunitē, and all that was his. (Ō. R.: sī mīhi trādideris, tībī senātus tua omnia concēdēt.)

7. Nōn multō ante urbem captam exaudīta vox est... futūrum esse, nisi prōvīsum esset, ut Rōma caperētur, C., Div., i. 45, 101; not long before the taking of the city, a voice was heard (saying), that unless precautions were adopted, Rome would be taken. (Ō. R.: nisi prōvīsum erit, Rōma cāpiētur.)

8. Arioūstus respondit sī quid ille sē velit illum ad sē venīre oportēre, Caes., B.G., i. 34, 2 (650, 3, N. 2).

9. Arioūstus respondit nisi dēcēdat [Caesar] sēsē illum prō hoste habitūrum; quod sī eum interfēcerit, multis sēsē nōbilibus principibusque populī Rōmānī grātum esse factūrum, Caes., B.G., i. 44, 12; Arioūstus replied, that unless Caesar withdrew, he should regard him as an enemy, and in case he killed him, he would do a favour to many men of the highest position among the Roman people. (Ō. R.: nisi dēcēdas tē prō hoste habēbō... sī tē interfēcerō grātum fēcērō; 244, r. 4.)

Remark.—Posse is used as has been stated (656, 2, r.).

Negārun dirimī bellum posse nisi Messēnīs Achaei Pylum redderent, L., xxvii. 30, 13; they said that the war could not be stopped unless the Achaens restored Pylos to the Messenians. (Ō. R.: bellum dirimī nōn poset (poterit) nisi Pylum reddent.)

Docent, sī turris concidisset, nōn posse militēs contaminērī quin spē praedae in urbem irrumperent, Caes., B.C., ii. 12, 4; they show that if the tower fell, the soldiers could not be kept from bursting into the city in the hope of booty. (Ō. R.: sī considerit, nōn possunt (poterunt) contaminērī.)

658. Ideal Conditions in ὸράτιο Obliqua.

1. Ait sē sī úrātur “Quam hōc suāve” dictūrum, C., Fin., ii. 27, 88; he declares that if he were to be burnt he would say, “How sweet this is.” (Ō. R.: sī úrar, dicam, same form as Logical.)

2. Voluptātem sī ipsa prō sē loquātur concēssūram arbitror Dignitāti, C., Fin., iii. i, 1; I think that if Pleasure were to speak for herself, she would yield (the palm) to Virtue. The context shows that the condition is Ideal, not Logical. Si loquātur, concēdēt. Compare 596, r. 1.

659. Unreal Conditions in ὸράτιο Obliqua.

1. Titurius clāmitābat Eburōnēs, sī [Caesar] adesset, ad castra ventūrōs [nōn] esse, Caes., B.G., v. 29, 2; Titurius kept crying out that if Caesar were there, the Eburones would not be coming to the camp. (Ō. R.: sī Caesar adesset, Eburōnēs nōn venirent.) On the rareness of
this form, see 599, r. 4; and even this passage has been emended into
ventūros sēsē (for esse).

2. [Appārēbat] sī diūtius vīxisset, Hamilcare duce Poenōs arma Italiae
inlātūros fuisse, L., xxi. 2, 2; it was evident that if he had lived longer,
the Punics had have carried their arms into Italy under Hamilcar’s
conduct.

3. Nisi eō ipsō tempore nūntīl dē Caesaris victōriā essent allātī existimā-
bant plērique futūrum fuisse ut (oppidum) amitterētur, Caes., B.C., iii.
101, 3; had not news of Caesar’s victory been brought at that very time,
most persons thought the city would have been lost. (O. R.: nisi nūntīl
allātī essent, oppidum āmissum esset.)

Nunc Sīri persuādebit multōs præstantēs virōs tanta esse cōnātōs
(= cōnātūros fuisse) nisi animō cernerent (597, r. 1) postéritātem ad sē perti-
nēre, C., Cat.M., 23, 82; no one will persuade me that (so) many eminent men had
made such mighty endeavours, had they not seen with their minds’ (eye) that posterity
belonged to them. Agricola solēbat narrāre sē prīmā in iuventa studium
philosophiāe acrius haussisse (O. R.: hauserat), sī prūdentia mātris coercu-
isset, Cf. Tac., Agr., 4, 5; Agricola used to relate that in his earliest youth he would
have drunk in more eagerly the study of philosophy, had not his mother’s prudence
restrained him.

So with potuiisse:

(Pompēlium) plērique existimant sī acrius insequī voluiisset bellum eō die
potuiisse finire, Caes., B.C., iii. 51, 3; most people think that if Pompey had (but)
determined to follow up more energetically, he could have finished the war on that
day. (O. R.: sī voluiisset, potuit, 597, r. 3.) Namenque illā multītūdine sī sāna mēns
esset (597, r. 1) Graeciae, supplīciun Persās dare potuiisse, Nep., xvii. 5, 2; for
with that number, if Greece had had (had been in her) sound mind, the Persians
might have paid the penalty (due). (O. R.: sī sāna mēns esset Graeciae, suppli-
cium Persās dare potuērunt.)

Pronouns in Ērātiō Obliqua.

660. 1. The Reflexive is used according to the principles
laid down in 520 ff.

2. The person addressed is usually ille; less often is.

Ariovistus respondit nisi dēcedat [Caesar] sēsē illum prō hoste habitū-
rum: quod sī eum interfecerit, multīs sēsē nōbilibus princīpibusque populi
Rōmānī grātum esse factūrum, Caes., B.G., i. 44, 12 (657, 9).

Of course, this does not exclude the ordinary demonstrative use.

3. Hīc and īstē are commonly changed into ille or is, nunc
is changed into tum and tunc, except when already contrasted
with tunc, when it is retained (S., Iug., 109, 3; i ii, 1).

Diodōrus [respondit] illud argentum sē paucīs illīs diēbus mīsisset Lily-
baeum, C., Verr., iv. 18, 39 (398, r. 4).
4. Nōs is used when the narrator's party is referred to; compare Caes., B.G., i. 44, below.

5. Ipse seems to be used sometimes in Ö. Ö. with reference to the principal subject, as contrasted with the person addressed. Usually, however, ipse would have occurred in the Ö. Ö. as well.

Ariovistus respondit: Si ipse populō Rōmānō nōn praescriberet, quemadmodum suō iūre uterētur, nōn oportēre sēsē ā populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impediri, Caes., B.G., i. 36, 2 (657).

661. Specimen of the conversion of Öratiō Obliqua into Öratiō Recta.

Öratiō Obliqua.

1. Ariovistus respondit:

Transīsse Rhēnum sēsē nōn suā sponte sed rogātum et arcessītum ā Gallis; nōn sine māgnā spē māgnisque praemīs domum propinquōsque reliquisse; sēdēs habēre in Galliā ab īpis concēssās, obsidēs ipsōrum voluntāte datōs; stipendium capere iūre bellī, quod victōres victīs impōnere consūerint. Nōn sēsē Gallis sed Gallōs sībī bellum intulīssē; omnēs Galliae civitātēs ad sē oppūgnandum vēnīsse et contra sē castra habuisses; ēās omnēs copyas ā sē unō proelīō pulśas āc superātī esse. Si iterum experīrī velīnt, sē iterum parātum esse dēcertāre; sī pāce īūi velīnt, iniquum esse de stipendiō recūsāre, quod suā voluntāte ad īd tempus pependerint. Amīcitiam populī Rōmāni sībī ornāmentō et praesidiō, nōn dētrīmentō esse oportēre idque sē ēā spē petitīs. Sī per populum Rōmānum stipendium remittētur et dēditicīi subtrahantur, nōn minus libenter sēsē recūsāturum populī Rōmāni amīcitiam quam appetērīt. Quod multitūdinem Germandōrum in Galliām trādūcēt, id sē suī mūniendi, nōn Galliae impūgnandae causā facere; ēius rei tēstīmonīō esse quod nisī rogātus nōn vēnerit et quod bellum nōn intulerit sed dēfenderit.

Caes., B.G., i. 44.

Öratiō Recta.

Transī Rhēnum nōn meāsponte sed rogātus et arcessītus ā Gallis; nōn sine māgnā spē māgnisque praemīs domum propinquōsque reliquisse; sēdēs habēre in Galliā ab īpis concēssās, obsidēs ipsōrum voluntāte datōs; stipendium capere iūre bellī, quod victōres victīs impōnere consūerunt. Nōn ego Gallīs sed Gallī mihi bellum intulīrunt; omnēs Galliae civitātēs ad mē oppūgnandum vēnērunt et contra mē castra habuērunt; cae omnēs copyas ā mē unō proelīō pulśas āc superātās sunt. Sī iterum experīrī volūnt, iterum parātum sum dēcertāre, sī pāce īūi volūnt, iniquum est de stipendiō recūsāre, quod suā voluntāte ad hōc tempus pependerunt. Amīcitiam populī Rōmāni mihi ornāmentō et praesidiō, nōn dētrīmentō esse oportēre idque ēā spē petīi. Sī per populum Rōmānum stipendium remittētur et dēditicīi subtrahantur, nōn minūs libenter recūsābō populī Rōmāni amīcitiam quam appetī. Quod multitūdinem Germandōrum in Galliām trādūcēm, id mei mūniendi, nōn Galliae impūgnandae causā faciō; ēius rei tēstīmonīō est quod nisī rogātus nōn vēnē et quod bellum nōn intulī sed dēfenderī.

* Allusion to the preceding speech, otherwise trāducē.
2. His Caesar ita respondit:

_Eò sìbì minus dubitationis darì quod eàs rès quàs lègàti Helvèttìi commemòrassent memorìà tenèret atque eò gravìus ferè quò minus mèritò populì Römànni acçìdissent; qui sì alìcèius iniùriàe sìbì cònsceius fuìsset nòn fuìssì diffìcile cavèrè_; sed eò déceptum quòd neque commìssum à sè intelìgèret quàrè tìmèret neque sìne causà tìmëndum putàret. Quòd sì vèterìs contumèliàe oblìvìsèi velìt, num etìam récentìum iniùriàrum, quòd eò invitò iter per pròvinciàm per vím tempìtassent, quòd Aedùus, quòd Ambàrròs, quòd Allobrogàs vexàssent memorìàm dépònère posse? Quòd suà vèctorìà tam insolènter glorìàrentur, quòdque tam diù sè împùnë tulìsse iniùriàs admiùrentur eòdem pertinëre. Cònsuèse ënim déòs immòrtàlès quò gravìus homìnìs ex commìttìtìone rérum doleant, quòs prò scèlere eùrum ulcìsèi velìnt, hís secùndìrùs intèrdum rès ët diìturniòrem impùnitùtèm concèderè. Cum ea ëtà sint, tamen sì obsìdes ab ìs sìbì dentur, utì ea quae policeantur factùròs intèlegat, et sì Aeduìs dè iniùriìs quàs ipsìs socìsìque eùrum intùlerìnt, ìtem sì Allobrogìbus sàsfìsìcantì, sè sè cum ìs pàcem esse factùrum.

CAES., B.G., I. 14.

3. Sulla règì patèfécit:

Quòd policeantur, senàtum et populùm Ròmnànum, quòniam amplus armìs valuëssent, nòn in gràtiàm habìtùròs; facìündum alìquid, quòd illùròm magìs quam suà rètresìs videàtìre; ìd ìdeò ìn pròmptù esse, quòniam Iugurtìae cópiam habèret, quem sì Ròmnànis tràdïdisseì, fore ut illì plùrimum débèròtìre; amìcìtiam, ìtisì, ìnìdiiìe paròmì, quam nunc petèrìt, tunc ëltrò adventùrìam.

S., Iug., X11.

_Quòd pollicèris, senàtus et populùm Ròmnànum quòniam amplus armìs valuërunt, nòn in gràtiàm habèbunt; facìündum alìquid, quòd illùròm magìs quam trà suà rètresìs videàtìre; ìd ìdeò ìn pròmptù est, quòniam Iugurtìae cópiam habè, quem sì Ròmnànìs tràdïderìs tìbì plùrimum débèbìtìre; amìcìtiam, ìtisì, ìnìdiiìe paròmì, quam nunc petèrìt, tunc ëltrò adventùrt._
INVOLVED ÖRÅTIÖ OBLÍQUA. ATTRACTION OF MOOD.

662. Öratiö Obliqua proper depends on some verb of Thinking or Saying, expressed or understood. In a more general sense the term Ò. Obliqua is used of all complementary clauses that belong to ideal relations. The principle is the same in both sets of sentences, for in the one, as in the other, the Infinitive takes its dependencies in the Subjunctive, on account of the close relation between the Ideal mood and the Substantive Idea of the verb. Hence the favourite combination of the Infinitive and the Ideal Second person:

Difficile est amicitiam manere si a virtute defeiceris, C., Lael., ii, 37; it is hard for friendship to abide if you (one) have fallen away from virtue. Proprium húmāni ingenii est ödisse quem laeseris, Tac., Agr., 42, 4; it is (peculiar to) human nature to hate whom you have injured. (But ödisti quem laesisti.)

The so-called attraction of mood, by which clauses originally Indicative become Subjunctive in dependence on Subjunctives, is another phase of the same general principle.
663. 1. All clauses which depend on Infinitives and Subjunctives, and form an integral part of the thought, are put in the Subjunctive (Subjunctive by Attraction).

Recordatio nostrii amicitiae sic fruar ut beate vixisse videar quia cum Scipione vixerim, C., Lael., 4, 15: I enjoy the remembrance of our friendship so much that I seem to have lived happily because I lived with Scipio. Vereor ne dum minuere velim laborem augeam, C., Leg., i, 4, 12; I fear lest while I am wishing to lessen the toil I may increase it (dum minuere volo, augeo). Istō bonō utāre dum adsit, cum absit, ne requiās, C., Cat.M., io, 33 (483, 2, a). Quārē fēbat ut omnium oculōs quotissumque in publicum prōdisset ad sē converteret, Nep., vii. 3, 5 (567; quotissumque prōderat convertēbat). Nescire quid antiquam nātus sīs acciderit, id est semper esse puerum, C., Or., 34, 120; not to know what happened before you were born, (that) is to be always a boy. Fraus fidem in parvis sībī praestruit ut cum opera pretium sit, cum mercēdē māgnā fallat, L., xxviii. 42, 7; fraud lays itself a foundation of credit in small things in order that when it is worth while it may make a great profit by cheating. [Arāneolae] rōte texunt ut sī quid inhaeserit cōnāciant, C., N.D., ii. 48, 123 (567; sī quid inhaesit cōnāciant). Abeunti sī quid popōscerit concēderea mōrīs, Tac., G., 21, 4; to the departing (guest) it is customary to grant anything that he asks (sī quid popōscit concēdunt).

Notes.—1. Dum not unfrequently resists the Attraction both in prose and poetry: Tantum nē noceās dum vis prōdesse vīdētō, Ov., Tr., i, 1, 101 (548).
2. On the retention of the Indic. In Relative clauses, see 628, n.

2. Partial Oblinquity.—(a) From this it is easy to see how the Subjunctive came to be used in a Generic or Iterative sense after Tenses of Continuance. Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative may all involve the Notion of Habit, Will, Inclination, Endeavour, and the complementary clauses would follow the sense rather than the form. For examples, see 567, n.
(b) So also is explained the use of the Subjunctive in Causal Sentences, and especially in Conditional Sentences, where the Apodosis is embodied in the leading verb.


The idea of o. o. is shown in the tense:

Sī per Metellum licetum esset mātres veniēbant (= ventūræ erant), C., Verr., v. 49, 129. [Dictātor] ad hostem dūcit nullō locō nisi necessitās cōgeret fortūnae sē commissūrus, L., xxii. 12, 2 (438, n.).
Participles are used in Latin even more extensively than in English, to express a great variety of subordinate relations, such as Time and Circumstance, Cause and Occasion, Condition and Concession. The classification cannot always be exact, as one kind blends with another.

Remarks.—1. It is sometimes convenient to translate a Participial Sentence by a coordinate clause, but the Participle itself is never coordinate, and such clauses are never equivalents. (410, r. 2.)

Mānius Gallum caesum torque spoliavit, L., vi. 42, 5; Manlius slew the Gaul and stripped him of his neckchain (after slaying the Gaul stripped him of his neckchain, having slain, etc.). (Miltiades) capitis absolutus, pecūniā multātus est, Nep., i. 7, 6; Miltiades (though) acquitted of a capital charge, was mulcted in (a sum of) money (was acquitted, but mulcted).

2. A common translation of the Participle is an abstract substantive; see 325, r. 3; 437, n. 2.

Nec terra mūtāta mūrēs, L., xxxvii. 54, 18; nor hath the change of land changed the character. Teucer Ulixēn reum facit Aiacis occīsit, Quint., iv. 2, 13; Teucer indict Ulysses for the murder of Ajax. Inter haece parāta atque décrēta, S., 43, 3.

3. On the Participle after verbs of Perception and Representation, see 536.

Participles may represent Time When.

Alexander moriēns ānulum suum dederat Perdiccaēs, Nep., xviii. 2, 1; Alexander (when he was) dying, had given his ring to Perdiccas. Dionysius tyrannus Syracūsēs expulsus Corinthī puerōs docebat, C., Tusc., iii. 12, 27; Dionysius the tyrant, (after he had been) exiled from Syracuse (after his exile from Syracuse), taught (a) boys' (school) at Corinth.

Ablative Absolute.

(Solōn et Pisistratus) Serviō Tulliō rēgnante viguērunt, C., Br., 10, 39; Solon and Pisistratus flourished when Servius Tullius was king (in the reign of Servius Tullius). Sōle ortō Volsci sē circumvāllātōs vidērunt, Cf. L., iv. 9, 13; when the sun was risen (after sunrise), the Volscians saw that they were surrounded by lines of intrenchment.

Notes.—1. On the Abl. Abs. of the simple Participle, see 410, n. 4.

2. Suetonius uses the Abl. Abs. as well as the simple Participle with ante (prius) quam: (Tiberius) excēssum Augustī nōn prius palam fēcit quam Agrippā iuvene interēmptō, Tib., 22; see also Iul., 58.
PARTICIPIAL SENTENCES.

666. Participles may represent Cause Why.

Areopagita damnaverunt puerum coturnicum oculos eruentem, Cf. Quint., v. 9, 13; the court of Mars’ Hill condemned a boy for plucking out (because he plucked out) the eyes of quails. Atheniens Alcibiadem corruptum a rege Persarum capere noluisse Cymen arguabant, Cf. Nep., vii. 7, 2; the Athenians charged Alcibiades with having been unwilling to take Cyme (because he had been) bribed by the King of Persia.

Ablative Absolute.

(Romanis veteris) regnaverunt omnes volabant libertatis dulcedine nondum experta, L., i. 17, 3; the old Romans all wished to have a king over them (because they had) not yet tried the sweetness of liberty.

NOTE.—An apparent cause is given by ut, as, velut, as for instance tamquam, (so) as, quasi, as if, see 602, n. 3.

In this usage Cicero and Caesar are very careful, employing only quasi, ut. Livy Introduces tamquam, utpote, velut, and the tendency grows until it reaches its culmination in Tacitus.

667: Participles may represent Condition and Concession.

Sì latet ars pródest, affert deprésa pudorem, Ov., A. A., ii. 313 (593, 2). [Rius] interdum ita repente erumpit ut eum cupiés tenère nequámus, Cf. C., Or., ii. 58, 235 (609). (Miltiades) capitis absolutus, pecúnia multátus est, Nep., i. 7, 6 (664, R. 1).

Ablative Absolute.

Máximás virtútés iacere omnés necesse est voluptáte dominante, C., Fin., ii. 35, 117 (593, 2).

NOTE.—On the combination of quamquam, quamvis, and etsi with the Participle, see 609, n. 1; nisi also is not uncommon; tamen is sometimes added in the principal clause.

668. Participles may represent Relative Clauses (637).

Omnés aliud agentès, aliud simulantes, perfidí (sunt), C., Off., iii. 14, 60 (637). [Pisistratus] Homeri libros confusos anteá sic disposuisse dicitur ut nunc habémus, C., Or., iii. 34, 137 (637).

REMARK.—So-called, qui dicitur, vocátor, quem vocant; above-mentioned, quem anteá, suprā diximus.

669. Future Participle (Active).—The Future Participle is a verbal adjective, denoting Capability and Tendency, chiefly employed in the older language with sum, I am, as a periphrastic tense. In later Latin it is used freely, just as the Present and Perfect Participles, to express subordinate relations.

Peculiar is the free use of it in Sentences of Design, and especially
noticeable the compactness gained by the employment of it in Conditional Relations.

670. In later Latin, the Future Participle (active) is used to represent subordinate relations (438, N.):

1. Time When.

(Tiberius) trāiectūrus (= cum trāiectūrus esset) Rhēnum commeātum nōn trānsmissit, Suet., Tib., 18; when Tiberius was about to cross the Rhine, he did not send over the provisions.

2. Cause Why.

Deridiculo fuit senex foedissimae adūlātiōnis tantum infāmiā usūrus, Tac., Ann., iii. 57, 3; a butt of ridicule was the old man, as infamy was the only gain he would make by his foul fawning. Antiochus sēcumūrus dē bellō Rŏmānō erat tamquam nōn trānsitūris in Asiam Rŏmānis, L., xxxvi. 41, 1 (602, N. 3).

3. Purpose (usually after a verb of Motion).

(Marobodunus) misit lēgātōs ad Tiberium cūrāturūs auxiliā, Tac., Ann. ii. 46 (438, N.). Cōnsul Lārisam est profectus, ibi dē summā bellī cōnsultāturūs, L., xxxvi. i4, 5.

Note.—The Pr. Participle is sometimes used in a similar sense, but the Purpose is only an inference:

Lēgātī vēnērunt nūntiantēs Asiae quoque cīvitātēs sollicitārī, L., xxxi. 2, 1; envoy came with the announcement that the states of Asia also were tampered with.


(1) Protasis.

Dēdīturūs sē Hannibalī fuisse accersendum Rŏmānōrum praesidium? L., xxiii. 44, 2; if they had been ready to surrender to Hannibal, would they have had to send for a Roman garrison? (= sī dēditūri fuissent, Ō. R.: sī dēditūri fuerunt.)

(2) Apodosis.

Quatiunt arma, ruptūrī imperium nī dūcantur, Tac., II., iii. 19, 3; they clash their arms, ready to break orders, if they be not led forward. Librum misī exigentī tībī, missūrus etsī nōn exēgissēs, Plin., Ep., iii. 13, 1; I have sent you the book, as you exacted it, although I should have sent it even if you had not exacted it.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

671. The Latin language allows greater freedom in the arrangement of words than the English. This freedom is, of course, due to its greater wealth of inflections.
Two elements enter into the composition of a Latin Sentence, governing to some extent its arrangement: Grammar and Rhetoric.

672. 1. Grammatical arrangement has for its object clearness. It shows the ideas in the order of development in the mind of the speaker. By Grammatical arrangement the sentence grows under the view.

2. Rhetorical arrangement has for its objects Emphasis and Rhythm. It presents a sentence already developed in such a way that the attention is directed to certain parts of it especially.

(a) Emphasis is produced:
1. By reversing the ordinary position.
2. By approximation of similars or opposites.
3. By separation.

In all sentences Beginning and End are emphatic points. In long sentences the Means as well as the Extremes are the points of emphasis.

(b) Rhythm.—Much depends on the rhythmical order of words, for which the treatises of the ancients are to be consulted. Especially avoided are poetic rhythms. So, for example, the Dactyl and Spondee, or close of an Hexameter at the end of a period.

673. Two further principles seem to underlie the arrangement of Latin sentences: (a) that of the ascending construction; (b) that of the descending construction. In the ascending construction, which is more common, the principal word is placed last, and the subordinate ones, in the order of their importance, precede. In the descending construction the reverse is the process. The descending construction is regular in definitions.

674. Rule I.—The most simple arrangement of a sentence is as follows:

1. The Subject and its Modifiers.
2. The Predicate and its Modifiers.


Rhetorical positions:

Potentēs sequitur invidia, Quint., iv. 1, 14 (477, n. 4). Nobis non satis-
facit ipse Dēmosthenēs, Cf. C., Or., 29, 104 (552, r. i). Disceptiptus (erat) populus cēnsū, ópezimībus, aetātibus, C., Leg., iii. 19, 44 (397). Intrā moena sunt hostēs, S., C., 52, 35 (477).

Remark.—The modifiers of the predicate stand in the order of their importance. The following arrangement is common:
1. Place, Time, Cause, or Means. 2. Indirect Object. 3. Direct Object. 4. Adverb. 5. Verb.

Note.—The postponement of the subject is rare and always for definite reasons in the classical period; later it becomes a mannerism, especially in the elder Pliny; to a less degree in Nēpos and Livy.

675. Rule II.—Interrogative Sentences begin with the interrogative, subordinate clauses with the leading particle or relative.


Rhetorical position:

676. Rule III.—An Adjective usually precedes, but often follows, the word to which it belongs; a dependent Genitive usually follows the governing word; so too does a word in Apposition.

Saepe māgna índolēs virūtūs priāquam rēi publicae prōdesse potuisset exstincta est, C., Ph., v. 17, 47 (577). Sēnsum oculōrum praecipit animus, Quint., vi. 2, 6 (540).

Rhetorical position:
[İsocratēs] queritur plūs honōris corporum quam animōrum virtūtibus dāri, Quint., iii. 8, 9 (542, r.). [Ager], cum multōs annōs quiēvit, überiōrēs efferre frūgēs solet, C., Br., 4, 16 (567). Verēmur nē parum hīc liber mellis et absinthii multum habēre videātur, Quint., iii. 1, 5 (550).

Remarks.—i. The demonstrative pronouns regularly precede; the possessives regularly follow.

Verēmur nē hīc liber absinthii multum habēre videātur, Quint., iii. i, 5 (550). Torquātus filium suum necārī iūssit, S., C., 52, 30 (540).
Rhetorical position:

Recordāre tempus illud, cum pater Cūriō maerēns iacēbat in lectō, C., Ph., ii. 18, 45 (580). Osculātur tigrim suus cūstōs, Sen., E.M., 85, 41 (309, 2).

2. Ordinals regularly follow, Cardinals regularly precede the substantive.

3. Many expressions have become fixed formulae: so titles, proper names, and the like; see 288.

Facinus est vincīre cīvem Rōmānum, C., Verr., v. 66, 170 (535).

4. The titles rex, imperātor, etc., frequently precede the proper name with which they are in apposition.

5. New modifiers of either element may be inserted, prefixed, or added:


Notes.—1. The tendency in Latin was to reverse the Indo-Germanic rule by which an attributive adjective and a dependent Genitive preceded the governing word. But in early Latin the adjective still holds its place more often before its substantive, while the Genitive has already succumbed for the most part to the tendency. In the classical period the adjective is more often used after its substantive. But neither position can be strictly called rhetorical. The same is true of the possessive pronoun.

2. The original force of a following adjective or Genitive was restrictive or appositional, while, when it preceded, it formed a close compound with its substantive; thus, bonus homō, a good man (one idea); homō bonus, a man (one idea) who is good (another idea). In classical Latin this distinction is no longer inevitable, though it is often essential.

677. Rule IV.—Adverbs are commonly put next to their verb (before it when it ends a sentence), and immediately before their adjective or adverb.

Zēnōnem cum Athēnis esse audiēbam frequenter ..., C., N.D., i. 21, 59 (585). Caedī discipulōs minimō velim, Quint., i. 3, 13 (257). Vix cūquam persuādēbatis Graecia omni cēssūros (Rōmānōs), L., xxxiii. 32, 3 (546, r. 1). [Rūsus] interdum ita repente érumpit ut cum cupientēs tenēre nequeāmus, C., Or., ii. 58, 235 (609).

Rhetorical positions:


Remarks.—1. Ferē, paene, prope, usually follow:

Nēmō ferē saltat sobrius nisi forte insānit, C., Mur., 6, 13 (591, r. 4).

2. Negatives always precede, see 448.
Note.—The separation of adverbs from their adjectives is rare, except in the case of tam and quam, which Plautus, Terence, Cicero, and later authors often separate, e.g., by a preposition: tam ab tenui exitio. Hyperbaton with other adverbs is rare.

678. Rule V.—Prepositions regularly precede their case (413).

Ā rectā conscientiā trāversum unguem nōn oportet discēdere, C., Att., xiii. 20, 4 (328, 1).

Remarks.—1. On versus, tenus, and the postposition of cum in combination with the personal pronouns and the relative, see 413, r. 1.

2. Monosyllabic prepositions are not unfrequently put between the adjective and substantive: māgnā cum cūrā. See 413, r. 2.

Less frequently they are placed between the Gen. and substantive; except when the relative is employed.

3. Dissyllabic prepositions are sometimes put after their case (Anastrophe), especially after a relative or demonstrative: most frequently contrā, inter, propter. So also adverbs. See 413, r. 1.

4. The preposition may be separated from its case by a Gen. or an adverb (413, r. 3): ad Appi Claudi senectūtem accēdēbat etiam ut caecus esset, C., Cat. M., 6, 16 (553, 4).

5. Monosyllabic prepositions, such as cum, ex, dē, post, sometimes append the enclitics -que, -ve, -ne, as, exque īs, and from them. Usually, however, the enclitics join the dependent substantive: in patriamque rediit, and returned to his country. See 413, n. 3.

On the position of per, see 413, n. 2.


Enim commonly takes the second, seldom the third place; nam and namque are regularly prepositive. See 498, n. 1.

Ergō in the syllogism precedes, elsewhere follows; igitur is commonly second or third; itaque regularly first. See 502, n. 2; 500, r.

Tamen is first, but may follow an emphatic word. See 490.

Etiam usually precedes, quoque always follows. See 478, 479.

Quidem and dēnūm (at length) follow the word to which they belong.

680. Rule VII.—A word that belongs to more than one word regularly stands before them all, or after them all, sometimes after the first (291).

Ariovistus respondit multīs sēsē nōbilibus principibusque populi Rōmānī grātum esse factūrum, Caes., B. G., i. 44, 12 (657, 9). [Isocrates] queritur plús honōris corporum quam animōrum virtūtibus daret, Quint., ii. 8, 9 (542, r.). Longum est mūlōrum persequi utilitātēs et asinōrum, C., N. D., ii. 64, 159 (254, r. 1).
681. Rule VIII.—Words of kindred or opposite meaning are often put side by side for the sake of complement or contrast.

Manus manum lavat, one hand washes the other. [Catō] mīrārī sē āiēbat quod nōn ridēret haruspex, haruspicem cum vīdisset, C., Div., ii. 24, 51 (567). Emit morte immortalītātem, Quint., ix. 3, 71 (404).

682. Rule IX.—Contrasted Pairs.—When pairs are contrasted, the second is put in the same order as the first, but often in inverse order. The employment of the same order is called Anaphora (repetition). The inverse order is called Chiasmus, or crosswise position, and gives alternate stress. The principle is of wide application, not merely in the simple sentence but also in the period.

Same order (Anaphora).

Fortūna (1) vestra (2) facit ut Irae (1) meae (2) temperem, L., xxxvi. 35, 3 (553, l). Mālō tē sapiēns (1) hostis (2) metuat quam stultī (1) cūvēs (2) laudent, L., xxii. 39, 20 (546, r. 2).

Inverse order (Chiasmus).

Ante vīdēmus (1) fulgōrem (2) quam sōnum (2) audiāmus (1), Sen., N. Q., ii. 12, 6 (577). Parvī sunt forīs (1) arma (2) nisi est cōnsilium (2) domi (1), C., Off., i. 22, 76 (411, r. 2).

Remark.—Chiasmus is from the Greek letter X (chi):

1. Forīs
2. arma
3. cōnsilium
4. domi

683. Poetical Peculiarities.—In the poets we find many varieties of arrangement of substantive and adjective, designed to draw especial attention to the idea or to colour the verse. These occur chiefly in the Hexameter and Pentameter, but to a lesser degree also in other measures. Thus the substantive and adjective are put either at the end of each hemistich, or at the beginning of each hemistich, or one is at the end of the first and the other at the beginning of the second.


ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

684. A period is a compound sentence with one or more subordinate clauses, in which sentence the meaning is kept suspended to the close.
685. Latin periods may be divided into two classes:
1. Responsive or Apodotic, in which a Protasis has an Apodosis.
2. Intercalary or Enthetic, in which the various items are inserted in their proper place between Subject and Predicate.

Ut saepe hominis aegrit morbō gravi, cum aestum febrisque iactantur, sī aquam gelidam biberunt, prīmō relevārī videntur, deinde multō gravius vehementiusque afflictantur: sic hīc morbus, quī est in rē públicā, relevātūs istius poenā, vehementius, reliquis vivis, ingrāvēscet, C., Cat., i. 13, 31 (Apodotic).

Catuvoleus, rēx dīmidiae partis Eburōnum, quī ūnā cum Ambiorīge cōnsilium inierat, actāe iam cōnfectus, cum labōrem aut bellī aut fugae ferre nōn possēt, omnibus precibus dētōstās Amboriōgem, quī ēius cōnsilīī auctor fuissest, taxō, ĉūius māagna in Gallīă Germāniāque cōpia est, sē exanimāvit, Caes., B. G., vi. 31, 5 (Enthetic).

686. Nägelsbach's careful study of the subject has led to the following results. The simplest period is composed of one subordinate (a) and one principal (A) clause; the principal varieties are: (1) a : A, where the principal clause follows the subordinate; (2) A (a) A, where the subordinate clause is inserted within the principal clause; (3) A | a, where the principal clause precedes the subordinate clause; (4) a (A) a, where the principal clause is inserted within the subordinate clause. When two subordinate clauses (a, b), independent of each other, are used, the forms are: (5) a : A | b; (6) a : A (b) a; (7) A (a) A | b; (8) A (a) A (b) A; (9) a : (b : A). If the dependent clauses are of different degree (a, a, A), that is, one depending upon the other, some fifteen additional forms are allowable.

Some examples are:


687. Periods are also divided into Historical and Oratorical. The former are, as a rule, simple. The most common form is a : A, i.e., where a subordinate clause is followed by a leading clause: Id ubi dixisset hastam in hostium finēs emittēbat, L., i. 42, 13. Another common period, developed and much liked by Livy, and later by Tacitus, was α : a : A, consisting of (1) a participial clause; (2) a clause introduced by a conjunction; (3) the principal clause. Cf. Tac., Ann.,
π. 69, 3, δετέντος ὕβι ... ακεπτὶ πλῆβεμ πρὸτυρβατ. Historians, having much occasion for description, are also prone to use the descending period, i.e., the form in which the principal clause precedes. So especially NEPOS. LIVY likes also to use two independent subordinate clauses asyndetically.

The Oratorical periods are much more diverse and complicated, owing to the greater variety of effects at which they aim. We find, however, the ascending structure, where the emphasis is continually ascending until it culminates at the end, more common. See an excellent example in C., Imp., 5, 11:

\[ \text{Vós cum régem inultum esse patiēmini qui légātum populi Rōmānī consūlārem vinculīs āc verberībus atque omnī supplīciō EXCRUCIĀTUM NECĀVIT?} \]

**FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC.**

688. Ellipsis is the omission of some integral part of the thought, such as the substantive of the adjective (204, n. 1), the copula of the predicate (209), the verb of the adverb.

\[ \text{Unde domō? V., A., VIII. i14 (391, r, 2).} \]

**Remark.**—When the ellipsis is indefinite, do not attempt to supply it. The figure is still much abused by commentators in the explanation of grammatical phenomena.

689. Brachylogy (breviloquentia) is a failure to repeat an element which is often to be supplied in a more or less modified form.

\[ \text{Tam félix essēs quam fōrmōsisima (=es) vellem, Ov., Am., i. 8, 27 (302).} \]

690. Zeugma or Syllēpsis is a junction of two words under the same regimen, or with the same modifier, although the common factor strictly applies but to one.

\[ \text{Manūs āc supplicēs vōcēs ad Tiberium tendēns, Tac., Ann., ii. 29, 2; stretching out hands and (uttering) suppliant cries to Tiberius.} \]

691. Aposiopēsis is a rhetorical breaking off before the close of the sentence, as in the famous Vergilian Quōs ego.............

692. Pleonasm is the use of superfluous words.

693. Enallage is a shift from one form to another: vōs ā Calliopē precor, V., A., ix. 525.
Hypallage is an interchange in the relations of words: dare clásibus austrós, V., A., III. 61.

694. Oxymoron is the use of words apparently contradictory of each other: cum tacent clámant, C., Cat., I. 8, 21 (582).

695. Synedoché is the use of the part for the whole, or the reverse: tectum for domum, puppis for návis, mucró for gladius, etc.

696. Hypérbaton, Trajection, is a violent displacement of words. Lýdia dic per omnēs tē deōs ārō, H., O., I. 8, 1 (413, N. 2).

697. Anacoluthon, or want of sequence, occurs when the scheme of a sentence is changed in its course.

698. Hendiadys (ἐν δια δισεί) consists in giving an analysis instead of a complex, in putting two substantives connected by a copulative conjunction, instead of one substantive and an adjective or attributive genitive.

Vulgus et multitudō, the common herd. Via et ratiō (C., Verr., I. 16, 47), scientific method. Vi et armis, by force of arms.

So two verbs may be translated by an adverb and a verb: fundi fugārique, to be utterly routed.

699. Constrüctiō Praegnāns. So-called constrüctiō praegnāns is nothing but an extended application of the accusative of the Inner Object (Object Effected). The result is involved, not distinctly stated.

Exitium inritat, Cf. Tac., Ann., XIII. 1, 1; he provokes destruction (ad exitium inritat).

700. Litotēs, or Understatement, is the use of an expression by which more is meant than meets the ear. This is especially common with the Negative.

Nōn indecorō pulvere sordidī, H., O., II. 1, 22 (449, R. 2).
PRINCIPAL RULES OF SYNTAX.

1. The Verb agrees with its subject in number and person (211).
2. The Adjective agrees with its subject in gender, number, and case (211).
3. The common Predicate of two or more subjects is put in the Plural (285); when the genders are different, it takes the strongest gender or the nearest (286); when the persons are different, it takes the first in preference to the second, the second in preference to the third (287).
4. The common Attribute of two or more substantives agrees with the nearest, rarely with the most important (290).
5. The Predicate substantive agrees with its subject in case (211).
6. The Appositive agrees with its subject in case; if possible, also in number and person (321).
7. The Relative agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person (614).
8. Disproportion is indicated by the comparative with quam prō, quam ut, quam quī (298).
9. In comparing two qualities, use either magis quam with the positive, or a double comparative (299).
10. Superlatives denoting order and sequence are often used partitively and then usually precede their substantive (291, r. 2).
11. The Genitive forms mei, tui, sui, nostrī, vestī, are used mainly as objective genitives; nostrūm and vestrūm as partitive (304, 2).
12. The Reflexive is used regularly when reference is made to the grammatical subject; frequently when reference is made to the actual subject (309).
13. The Reflexive is used of the principal subject, when reference is made to the thought or will of that subject; hence, in Infinitive clauses, or Indirect Questions, in Sentences of Design, and in Ērātiō Obliqua (521).
14. The Possessive Pronoun is used instead of the Possessive or Subjective Genitive in the First and Second Persons (362, 364).
15. The Appositive to a possessive pronoun is in the Genitive (321, r. 2).
16. With words of Inclination and Disinclination, Knowledge and Ignorance, Order and Position, Time and Season, the adjective is usually employed for the adverb (325, r. 6).
17. The Indicative, not the Subjunctive, is used in expressions of Possibility, Power, Obligation, and Necessity (254, r. 1).
18. The Potential of the Present or Future is the Present or Perfect Subjunctive (257); the Potential of the Past is the Imperfect Subjunctive (258).

19. The Optative Subjunctive may be used to express a Wish (260), an Asseveration (262), a Command (263), or a Concession (264).

20. The First Imperative looks forward to immediate, the Second to contingent, fulfilment (268).

21. The Negative of the Imperative is regularly nōli with the Infinitive; sometimes nē with the Perfect Subjunctive (270, n. 2), or cavē with the Subjunctive (271) is also used.

22. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, may be treated as a neuter subject (422), object (423), or predicate (424).

23. The Infinitive is used as the object of verbs of Will, Power, Duty, Habit, Inclination, Resolve, Continuance, End, etc. (423).

24. The Accusative and Infinitive is used as the object of verbs of Will and Desire (532).

25. The Accusative and Infinitive is used as the object of verbs of Emotion (533).

26. The Accusative and Infinitive is used in Exclamation (534).

27. After verbs of Saying, Showing, Believing, and Perceiving, the Present Infinitive expresses action contemporary with that of the governing verb, the Perfect, action prior to it, the Future, action future to it (530).

28. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive is used chiefly after substantives and adjectives that require a complement (428).

29. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used mainly in post-classical Latin after words of Fitness and Function; also after words of Capacity and Adaptation, and to express Design (429).

30. The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after verbs of Giving and Taking, Sending and Leaving, etc., to indicate Design (430).

31. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used to denote Means and Cause, rarely Manner (431).

32. The Supine in -um is used chiefly after verbs of Motion to express Design (435).

33. The Supine in -ā is used chiefly with adjectives to indicate Respect (436).

34. The Present Participle denotes continuance, the Perfect, completion, at the time of the leading verb (282).

35. The Future Participle is used in post-Ciceronian Latin to express Design (438, n.).
36. The Participle is used after verbs of Perception and Representation to express the actual condition of the object (536).

37. The Perfect Participle passive is used after verbs of Causation and Desire, to denote impatience of anything except entire fulfilment (587).

38. The subject of a finite verb is in the Nominative (203).

39. Verbs of Seeming, Becoming, with the passive of verbs of Making, Choosing, Showing, Thinking, and Calling, take two Nominatives, one of the subject, one of the predicate (206).

40. With passive verbs of Saying, Showing, Believing, and Perceiving, the Accusative subject of the Infinitive becomes the Nominative subject of the leading verb (528).

41. The Appositional Genitive is used after *vö̂x*, nomen, verbum, res, etc. (361, 1).

42. The Epexegetical Genitive (or Genitive of Explanation) is used after genus, vitium, culpa, etc. (361, 2).

43. The Possessive Genitive is used of the Third Person to denote possession (362).

44. The Subjective Genitive is used of the subject of the action indicated by the substantive (363, 1); the Objective Genitive of the object of that action (363, 2).

45. Essential or permanent qualities are put in the Genitive, always with an adjective (365); external and transient qualities in the Ablative, always with an adjective (400). See No. 82.

46. The Genitives of Quality and Possession may be used as predicates (366).

47. The Partitive Genitive stands for the whole to which a part belongs (367).

48. Adjectives of Fulness and Want, of Knowledge and Ignorance, of Desire and Disgust, of Participation and Power, may take the Genitive (374). Also some present participles used as adjectives, and in later Latin some verbals in -āx (375).

49. Verbs of Reminding, Remembering, and Forgetting take usually the Genitive (376); but sometimes the Accusative, especially of things (376, r.).

50. Impersonal verbs of Emotion take the Accusative of the Person Who Feels, and the Genitive of the Exciting Cause (371).

51. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Condemning, and Acquitting, take the Genitive of the Charge (378).

52. Verbs of Rating and Buying take the Genitive of the General, the Ablative of the Particular Value (379, 404). See No. 87.
53. Interest and Refer take the Genitive of the Person, rarely of the Thing concerned (381).

54. The Indirect Object is put in the Dative (345).

55. Verbs of Advantage and Disadvantage, Bidding and Forbidding, Pleasure and Displeasure, Yielding and Resisting, take the Dative (346).

56. Many intransitive verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, sub, and super may take a Dative; transitive verbs also an Accusative besides (347).

57. Verbs of Giving and Putting take a Dative and Accusative, or an Accusative and Ablative (348).

58. The Dative is used with esse to denote possession (349).

59. The Dative is used of the Person Interested in the action (350).

60. The Ethical Dative is used of the personal pronouns only (351).

61. The Dative of Reference is used of the Person to whom a statement is referred (352).

62. The Dative of Agent is used with the Perfect passive, the Gerund, and the Gerundive (354).

63. The Dative may denote the Object For Which in combination with the Person To Whom (355).

64. Adjectives of Friendliness, Fulness, Likeness, Nearness, with their opposites, take the Dative (359).

65. Active transitive verbs take the Accusative case (330).

66. Many intransitive verbs, mostly those of Motion, compounded with ad, ante, circum, con, in, inter, ob, per, praeter, sub, subter, super, and trans, take the Accusative; transitive verbs thus compounded may have two Accusatives (331).

67. Intransitive verbs may take an Accusative of similar form or meaning (333, 2).

68. The Accusative may express Extent in Degree, Space, or Time (334–6).

69. Names of Towns and Small Islands are put in the Accusative of Place Whither; so also domus and rūs (337). See No. 74 and 92.

70. Verbs meaning to Inquire, Require, Teach, and Conceal, take two Accusatives, one of the Person, one of the Thing (339).

71. Verbs of Naming, Making, Taking, Choosing, and Showing, take two Accusatives of the same Person or Thing (340).

72. The subject of the Infinitive is regularly in the Accusative (420).

73. The Accusative may be used in Exclamations (343).

74. Place Where is denoted by the Ablative, usually with in (385);
Place Whence by the Ablative, usually with ex, de, or ab (390). Names of Towns and Small Islands omit the prepositions (386, 391). See No. 69 and 92.

75. Attendance is denoted by the Ablative with cum (392).
76. Time When or Within Which is denoted by the Ablative (393).
77. Origin or Descent is denoted by the Ablative with or without ex and de (395).
78. Material is denoted by the Ablative with ex (396).
79. The Point of View or Respect is denoted by the Ablative (397).
80. Comparatives without quam are followed by the Ablative (398).
81. Manner is denoted by the Ablative regularly with an adjective or cum (399).
82. External and transient qualities are denoted by the Ablative, always with an adjective (400); essential and permanent qualities by the Genitive, always with an adjective (365). See No. 45.
83. Cause, Means, and Instrument, are denoted by the Ablative (401, 408).
84. The Agent is denoted by the Ablative with & (ab) (401).
85. The Standard of Measurement is denoted by the Ablative (402).
86. Measure of Difference is put in the Ablative (403).
87. Definite Price is put in the Ablative (404); General Price in the Genitive (379). See No. 52.
88. Verbs of Depriving and Filling, of Plenty and Want, take the Ablative (405).
89. The Ablative is used with opus and usus (406).
90. Utor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor take the Ablative (407).
91. The Ablative, combined with a participle, serves to modify the verbal predicate of a sentence: Ablative Absolute (409).
92. Names of Towns and Small Islands of the First and Second Declensions are put in the Locative of the Place Where (411). See No. 69 and 74.
93. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (439).
94. A question for information merely is introduced by -ne (454).
95. A question that expects the answer yes is introduced by nonne (455).
96. A question that expects the answer no is introduced by num (456).
97. The Deliberative Question is in the Subjunctive (265).
98. The Indirect Question is in the Subjunctive (467).
99. **Sequence of Tenses.** Principal tenses are ordinarily followed by Principal tenses, Historical by Historical (509).

100. After a Future or Future Perfect, the Future relation is expressed by the Present, the Future Perfect by the Perfect Subjunctive (514). After other tenses the Future relation is expressed by the Active Periphrastic Present and Imperfect Subjunctive (515).

101. In Oratio Obliqua all subordinate tenses follow the general law of sequence (516).

102. *Quod, the fact that, in that,* is used with the Indicative to introduce explanatory clauses after Verbs of Adding and Dropping, Doing and Happening, and demonstratives (525).

103. *Quod, quia, quoniam,* and *quando* take the Indicative in Direct Discourse, the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse, to express Cause (540, 541).

104. *Quod* is used after verbs of Emotion with the Indicative in Direct, the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse, to give the Ground (542).

105. Final Sentences have the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive with ut or ne (545).

106. Complementary Final Clauses are used after verbs of Will and Desire (546).

107. Positive verbs of Preventing, Refusing, Forbidding, and Bewaring, may take ne with the Subjunctive (548).

108. Verbs of Preventing and Refusing may take quominus with the Subjunctive (549). See No. 112.

109. Verbs of Fear are followed by ne or ut (ne non) and all tenses of the Subjunctive (550).

110. Consecutive Sentences have the Subjunctive with ut and ut non (552).

111. Verbs of Effecting have the Subjunctive with ut and ne, or ut non (553).

112. Negatived or Questioned verbs of Preventing, Hindering, *etc.,* of Doubt and Uncertainty, may be followed by the Subjunctive with quin (555). See No. 108.

113. A Consecutive Clause with ut is often used to give the contents or character of a preceding substantive, adjective, or pronoun (557).

114. Ut, ut primum, cum, cum primum, ubi, ubi primum, simulac, simul atque, and postquam take the Perfect Indicative, in the sense of *as soon as,* but the Imperfect of Overlapping Action, and the Pluperfect when a definite interval is given (561, 562, 563).

115. When two actions are repeated contemporaneously, both are put in the Indicative in tenses of continuance (566).
116. When one action is repeated before another, the antecedent action is put in the Perfect, Pluperfect, or Future Perfect, the subsequent in the Present, Imperfect, or Future, according to the relation (567).

117. *Dum, donec, quoad, quamdiu, so long as, while, take the Indicative of all tenses* (569).

118. *Dum, while, while yet, takes the Present Indicative after all tenses* (570).

119. *Dum, donec, quoad, until, take the Present, Historical Present, Historical Perfect, and Future Perfect Indicative* (571).

120. *Dum, donec, quoad, until, take the Subjunctive when Suspense or Design is involved* (572).

121. *Dum, modē, and dummodē, if only, provided only, take the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive in Conditional Wishes* (573).

122. *Antequam and priusquam take the Indicative Present, Perfect, and Future Perfect when the limit is stated as a fact; the Subjunctive when the action is expected, contingent, designed, or subordinate* (574, 577).

123. Temporal *cum, when, is used with all tenses of the Indicative to designate merely temporal relations* (580).

124. Historical *cum, when, is used with the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive to give the temporal circumstances under which an action took place* (585).

125. Causal and Concessive *cum, when, whereas, although, are used with all tenses of the Subjunctive* (586, 587).

126. The Logical Condition has usually some form of the Indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis (595).

127. The Ideal Condition has usually the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, less often the Imperfect or Pluperfect, in both clauses (596).

128. The Unreal Condition has the Imperfect Subjunctive of opposition to present, the Pluperfect of opposition to past fact (597).

129. *Ut si, ac si, quasi, quam si, tamquam, tamquam si, velut, and velut si, introduce a comparison in the Subjunctive. The tense follows the rule of sequence* (602).

130. Concessive clauses may be introduced by *etsi, etiamsi, tametsi, with the Indicative or Subjunctive* (604); by *quamquam, with the Indicative* (605); by *quamvis, with the Subjunctive* (606).

131. Indefinite and generic relatives usually have the Indicative (625); so explanatory *qui, when equivalent to quod* (626).

132. The Subjunctive is used in Relative Clauses that form a part
of the utterance of another; so in Örätio Obliqua and Final Clauses (628).

133. Relative sentences that depend on Infinitives or Subjunctives, and form an integral part of the thought, are put in the Subjunctive by Attraction (629).

134. Relative sentences are put in the Subjunctive of Design when qui = ut (final) is (630).

135. Relative sentences are put in the Subjunctive of Tendency when qui = ut (consecutive) is; so after dignus, indignus, idoneus, aptus, etc.; after an indefinite antecedent; after comparatives with quam (631).

136. Comparative sentences after words of Likeness and Unlikeliness may be introduced by atque or ac (643).

137. Comparative sentences after comparatives are introduced by quam (644).

138. In Örätio Obliqua, Principal Clauses are put in the Infinitive, except Interrogatives and Imperatives, which are put in the Subjunctive; Subordinate clauses are put in the Subjunctive (650, 651, 652).
PROSODY.

701. PROSODY treats of Quantity and Versification.

REMARKS.—1. Prosody originally meant Accent. Latin Accent is regulated by Quantity, and as classical Latin versification is also quantitative, Prosody is loosely used of both quantity and versification.

2. In the earliest Latin the Accent was not regulated by Quantity, but was on the initial syllable (15, x.). This often resulted in

(a) The disappearance of the vowel (8, 2) in the antepenult or pro-antepenult; this occurs especially in Greek words, but also in some common Latin words: Poludeucēs, Polideucēs, Polluscēs, Pollux; balineion, balineum, balineum, bath; máximus, greatest, for magisimos; optumus, best, for opitumus, etc.

(b) The shortening of a long penult (8). This was still going on in the time of Plautus, and occurs here and there in the poets: anchora, anchor, from ankūra; so pēierō, I swear falsely, for periūrō; chorea, dance, from choreia, etc.

(c) The weakening (8) of the antepenult, sometimes also of the penult, both in Greek words and Latin: Massilia from Massalia; beni- and mali- for bene and male in composition; -hibēō for habeō in composition; and a few others, as -cīdō for caedō in composition, etc.

QUANTITY.

702. RULE I.—A syllable is said to be long by nature when it contains a long vowel or diphthong: ē, vae, légēs, saevae.

REMARKS.—1. (a) A vowel before -gm, -gn, -nf, -ns is long by nature;

(b) A vowel before -nt, -nd is short by nature.

EXCEPTIONS:

(a) Egnatius, Theognis, and some Greek words in -egma, as phlegma, phlegm; but pēgma.

(b) Cōntīō (for coventīō), assembly; iēntāculum, iēntātiō, breakfast; nūntius, messenger; quintus, fifth; and Greek substantives in -ūs, -ūntis, -ōn, -ōntis; Charōndas, Epaminondas; also nūndinae (noven-d-), market day; nōndum, not yet; prēndō, I seize; quīndecim, fifteen; vēndō, I sell; ūndecim, eleven; vindēmia, vintage.

2. Inchoative verbs have vowel before -sc long by nature: discō, I learn.

3. Noteworthy are the following: quārtus, fourth; quīnque, five, and its derivatives; vigintī, twenty; mille, thousand, and its derivatives.
QUANTITY.

4. In verbs the quantity of the Present Stem is generally retained throughout before two consonants (except -ns).

Except dieō, I say; Supine, dictum; ducō, I lead; Supine, ductum; and their derivatives, like dictō, etc.

5. Noteworthy are the following: ago, I drive, ēgī, ēctum; emo, I buy, ēmī, ēmpum; frangō, I break, frēgī, frēctum; fungō, I perform, fūctus; iubeō, I order, iūssī, iūssum; iungō, I join, iūnxī, iūntum; lego, I read, lēgī, lēctum; pangō, I fix, pāctum; regō, I govern, rēgī, rēctum; sanctō, I sanction, sānctī, sāntum, sāntētum; struō, I pile up, strūxi, strūctum; tangō, I touch, tāctum; tegō, I cover, tēxi, tēctum; trahō, I draw, trāxi, trāctum; ungō, I anoint, ūnxī, ūntum; vincō, I conquer, vīxi, victum.

6. In verbs, a vowel resulting from syncope is long before ss, st (131). Also, perhaps, Ī before s and t in syncopated Pf. forms of ērē and petēre.

NOTE.—On the method of distinguishing long vowels on inscriptions, see 13, 1, N.

703. RULE II.—A syllable is said to be long by position (12, 2) when a short vowel is followed by two or more consonants, or a double consonant: ars, collum, castra.

REMARKS.—ī. The consonants may be divided between two words: per mare, in terris; but when all the consonants are in the second word, the preceding short syllable commonly remains short, except in the Thesis (729) of a verse, when it is lengthened: praemīā scribāe.

2. Every vowel sound followed by ī consonant (j) is long (except in the compounds of iugum, yoke). This is due sometimes to natural length of the vowel, sometimes to compensation: Gāius from Gāvius, pēierō for periūrō; but bīngus, two-horse.

NOTE.—In compounds of iacēre, to throw, the ī is often omitted, and the preceding vowel lengthened by compensation; so cōnicēre; a short vowel with the ī omitted is not found until Ovid’s time.

3. Final s, preceded by a short vowel, is dropped before a consonant in the older poetry; often too in Lucretius.

In somnīs vidit priu(s) quàm sam (= eam) dīscere cóepit.—ENNIUS.

NOTE.—In comic poetry, a short final syllable in s blends with est, and sometimes with es: opust (= opus est); simili’s (= similis es).

704. RULE III.—A syllable ending in a short vowel before a mute, followed by l or r, is common (13): tenē-bræ, darkness. In early Latin it is regularly short, so, too, when the mute and liquid begin a word.

REMARKS.—ī. The syllable must end in a short vowel: nāvi-fragus, ship-wrecking; melli-fluus, flowing with honey; but in ab-rumpō the a is long by position.
2. In Greek words \( m \) and \( n \) are included under this rule: \( Tē\-cmēssa, \) 
\( Cŷ\-cnus. \)

**Exception.**—Derivative substantives in \( ábrum, ácrum, átrum \) from verbs; as \( fīabra, blasts. \) \( Zmarāgdos, \) Mart., V. 11,1, cannot be paralleled.

705. **Rule IV.**—Every diphthong, and every vowel derived from a diphthong, or contracted from other vowels, is long (14): \( saevos, cruel; conclūdō, I shut up \) (from \( claudō \)); \( inīquos, unfair \) (from \( aequos \)); \( cōgō, I drive together \) (from \( coigo = con + ago \)).

**Exception.**—Prae in composition is shortened before a vowel until the time of Statius; \( praē-ustus, burnt at the point \) (V., A., vii. 524).

706. **Rule V.**—One simple vowel before another vowel-sound, or \( h \), makes a short syllable: \( dēus, God; pūer, boy; nihil, nothing. \)

**Exceptions:**
1. \( ă \) in the old Gen. of the First Declension: \( aurā. \)
2. \( ă \) in -\( ē \) of the Fifth Declension, when a vowel precedes: \( diē, \) but \( fīdēī \) (63, N. 1).
3. \( a \) and \( e \) before \( i \) in proper names in -\( ius \): Gāi, Pompēi.
4. \( i \) in the Gen. form -\( īus \) (76, r. 2). Alterius is often shortened, perhaps even in prose: \( ũnius, ēllius, nūllius, tōtius, \) are found in poetry. In \( alius \) the \( i \) is never shortened (\( alius \) for \( allius \)).
5. \( i \) in \( fīō \) is long, except before \( er : fīō, \) but \( fīeret \) and \( fīerī. \)
6. \( ēheu, Dīāna, ēhē, dīus (= dīvus). \)
7. Many Greek words: \( ēr, Menelāus, múmēum, Mēdēa. \)
8. In early Latin many words retain the original length of the vowel: \( ās, rēf; \) all forms of \( fīō; clūō; fūī \) and its forms; \( plūīt, lūīt, \) \( adnūī, etc. \) Most of the shortened forms also occur, and are more common.

**Quantity of Final Syllables.**

**A. POLYSYLLABLES.**

707. **Rule VI.**—In words of more than one syllable, final \( a, e, \) and \( y \) are short; \( i, o, \) and \( u \) are long.

1. \( a \) is short: \( terrā, earth; dōnā, gifts; capitā, heads. \)

**Exceptions:**
1. Abl. of the First Declension: \( terrā. \)
2. Voc. of words in \( ās (Aēnēā), \) and Greek Nom. in \( ā (Ελεκτρά). \)
3. Impv. of First Conjugation: \( amā. \)
4. Most uninflected words: *trīgintā*, *iūxtā*, but *itā*, *quiā*, *eiā*. With *putā*, *for instance*, compare *cavē* below.

2. *e* is short.

Exceptions:
1. Abl. of the Fifth Declension: *diē*.
2. Impv. of Second Conjugation: *monē* (but see Note).
3. Most adverbs of Second Declension: *rēctē*; but *bēnē*, *malē*, *Infernē* (*Lucr.*), *māxumē* (*Plaut.*), *probē* (*Plaut.*), *supernē* (*Lucr.*, *Hor.*), *temerē* (*Plaut.*, *Ter.*).
4. Greek words in *ē* (*η*): *Tempē*, *melē*.
5. *Que* is thought to be not unfrequently long in the Thesis of early Saturnians; so in the hexameter of the classical period if a second *que* follows in the Arsis.

Note.—Observe that in *Plautus* and *Terence* any dissyllabic Iambic impv. may have the last *ē* shortened; principally *cavē*, *habē*, *iubē*, *manē*, *monē*, *movē*, *tacē*, *tenē*, *valē*, *vidē*. See 716. Later poets also shorten sometimes when the penult is long; *salve* (*Mart.*).

3. *y* is always short, except in contracted forms: *misyē* (*Dative misyē = misyi*).

4. *i* is long: *domini*, *vigintī*, *audī*.

Exceptions:
1. Greek Dat. *si*: *Trōasi*.
2. Greek Nom., as *sināpī*; Voc., as *Parī*; Dat. Sing. (rarely), as *Minōidi*.
3. *quasi, nisi, cui* (when a dissyllable).
4. *i* is common in *mīhī*, *tibī*, *sibī*, *ibī*, *ubī*.

Observe the compounds: *ibīdem*, *ibīque*, *ubīque*, *ubīnam*, *ubīvis*, *ubīcunque*, *nēcubī*, *utīnam*, *utīque*, *sīcūti*; (but *utī*).

5. *o* is long: *bonō*, *tūtō*.

Exceptions:
1. Common in *homō*; in the Augustan times in *leō* and many proper names; as *Scipīō*; in the post-Augustan times in many common substantives: *virgō*. *Nōmō* is found first in *Ovid*, *mentīō* in *Horace*.
2. Frequently short in Iambic words in early Latin, especially in verbs, many of which remained common in the Augustan times, as *volō*, *vetō*, *sciō*, *petō*, *putō*, *etc.*; so less often *nesciō*, *dēsīō*, *obsecrō*, *dīxerō*, *ōderō*. From *Seneca* on, the Gerund may be shortened: *amandō*.
3. *o* is usually short in *modō*, *citō*, *octō*, *ego*, *ilicō*, *immō*, *duō*, *ambō* (post-classical); and in many other words in later poetry.

6. *u* is always long: *cornū*, *frūctū*, *auditū*. 
708. Rule VII.—All final syllables that end in a simple consonant other than s are short.

Exceptions:
1. allec, lien, and many Greek substantives.
2. The adverbs and oblique cases of illic, illuc, istic, istuc, can hardly be considered exceptions, as -c is for -ce, and is merely enclitic.
4. istic, petitist, and their compounds.
5. Final -at, -et, -it, were originally long, and as such often occur in early Latin, and occasionally before a pause in the classical poets.

709. Rule VIII.—Of final syllables in s: as, es, os, are long; is, us, ys, short.

1. as is long: Aenēas, servās, amās.

Exceptions:
3. anās, anātīs.

2. es is long: rēgēs, diēs, monēs.

Exceptions:
1. Nom. and Voc. Sing., Third Declension, when the Gen. has ētis, ītis, idis: segēs, milēs, obsēs; but abīēs, ariēs, pariēs.
2. Compounds of ēs, be (long syllable in Plautus): adēs, potēs.
3. penēs (Preposition).
4. Greek words in ēs (ēs): Nom. Pl., as Arcadēs; Voc., as Dēmosthenēs; Neuter, as cacoēthēs.
5. Iambic verbal forms in Second Person Sing. in early Latin.

3. os is long: deōs, nepōs.

Exceptions:
1. Compōs, impōs, exōs; and as the Nom. ending in the Second Declension.
2. Greek words in ōs (ōs): melōs.

4. is is short: canīs, legīs.

Exceptions:
3. In the Nom. of sundry Proper Names, increasing long in the Genitive: Quīrīs, Quīrītīs.
5. In the verbal forms from *vis, sis, fis, and velis* : *nō-lis, mā-lis, ad-sis, cale-fis*.


7. Pulvis, cinis, sanguis, occasionally in early Latin.

5. *us* is short : *servūs, currūs*.

Exceptions:
2. Nom. Third Declension, when the Gen. has a long *u* : *virtūs, virtūtis; incīs, incūdis; tellūs, tellūris*.
3. In Greek words with *ū* (*ouS*) : *tripūs, Sapphūs*; but *Oedipūs* and *polypūs*.
4. Occasionally the Dat. and Abl. Pl. of the Third Declension, the First Person Pl. active of verbs, seem to be long in early Latin.

6. *ys* is short : *chlamyūs*.

**B. MONOSYLLABLES.**

710. Rule IX.—All monosyllables that end in a vowel are long : ā, dā, mē, dē, hī, sī, ō, dō, tū.

Except the enclitics : -quē, -vē, -nē, -cē, -tē, -psē, ptē.

711. Rule X.—Declined or conjugated monosyllables that end in a consonant follow the rules given : dās, fīs, scīs, dāt, fīet, īs, īd, quīs, hīs, quīs, quōs.

hic, *this one*, is sometimes short; dīc and dūc have the quantity of their verbs; es, *be*, is short in classical Latin, long in early Latin.

712. Rule XI.—Monosyllabic Nominatives of substantives and adjectives are long when they end in a consonant, even if the stem-syllable be short : ōs, mōs, vēr, sōl, fōr, plūs; lār (läris), pēs (pēdis), bōs (bōvis), pār (pāris).

Exceptions:

vir and lac, os (ossis), mel;
Also cor, vas (vadis), fel. Also quot, tot.

713. Rule XII.—Monosyllabic particles that end in a consonant are short : ān, cīs, īn, nēc, pēr, tēr.

Excepting ēn and nōn and quīn;
And also crīs and cūr and sin;
Also the Adverbs in c : hīc, hūc, hāc, sīc; and āc (atque).
Quantity of Stem-Syllables.

714. Rule XIII.—The quantity of stem-syllables, when not determined by the general rules, is fixed by the usage of the poets (long or short by authority).

Remarks.—1. The changes of quantity in the formation of tense-stems have been set forth in the conjugation of the verb (153, 2).

2. The occasional differences in the quantity of the stem-syllables which spring from the same radical can only be explained by reference to the history of each word, and cannot be given here. Some examples are:

| páciscor, | páx, pácis. | sédéō, | sédēs. |
| mácer, | mácerō. | fídēs, | fídō (feido). |
| légō, | léx, légis. | dúx, dúcis, | dúcō (doucō). |
| régō, | rēx, rēgis. | vōcō, | vōx. |
| tégo, | tēgula. | lūcerna, | lūceō (louceō). |
| ācer, | ācerbus. | suspicōr, | suspiciō. |
| mōlēs, | mōlestus. | mōveō, | mōbilis (= movbilis). |

Quantity in Compounds.

715. Rule XIV.—Compounds generally keep the quantity of their constituent parts: (cēdō) ante-cēdō, dē-cēdō, prō-cēdō; (caedō), occīdō; (cādō), occīdō.

Remarks.—1. Of the inseparable prefixes, dī, sē, and vē are long, rē short: dīduōc, sēduōc, vēcōrs, rēduōc; dī, in disertus, is shortened for dis, and in dirimo, dīr stands for dis.

2. Nē is short, except in nēdum, nēmō (ne-hemō), nēquam, nēquāquam, nēquitia, nēve.

3. Rē comes from red, which in the forms redd, recē, repp, rell, rett, occurs principally in poetry before many consonantal verb forms; but this doubling varies at different periods, and is found throughout only in reddō. Rē by compensation for the loss of the d is found, occasionally, principally in Perfect stems and in dactylic poetry, especially in rēicere, rēligīō (also rēlligīō and rēligīō), rēduōc (once in Plaut.).

4. Prō is shortened before vowels, and in many words before consonants, especially before f: prōvōs, prōhibēō, prōīnte, prōfugīō, prōfugus, prōfundus, prōfiteōr, prōfārī, prōfānus, prōfāiscor, prōcella, prōcul, prōnepōs. The older language shortens less frequently than the later. In Greek words prō (πρό) is generally short: prōphēta; but prōlogus.

5. The second part of the compound is sometimes shortened: dēierō,
(from iūrō), cognitus, agnitus (from nōtus). Notice the quantity in the compounds of -dicus: fātīdicus, vēridicus (dīcō), and innūba, prōnūba (nūbē).

6. Mechanical rules, more minute than those given above, might be multiplied indefinitely, but they are all open to so many exceptions as to be of little practical value. A correct pronunciation of Latin cannot be acquired except by constant practice, under the direction of a competent teacher, or by a diligent study of the Latin poets, and consequently of Latin versification.

Peculiarities of Quantity in Early Latin.

716. The Iambic (734) Law. Any combination of short and long, having an accent on the short, or immediately preceding or following an accented syllable, may be scanned as a Pyrrhic. This applies to
(a) Iambic words, especially imperatives, as: rogō, vidē, manē;
(b) Words beginning with an Iambus, when the second syllable is long by position, and the third syllable is accented, as: senēctūtem, volūntātis;
(c) Two monosyllables closely connected, or a monosyllable closely connected with a following long initial syllable, as: quis hic est, ut acceptī. The monosyllable may have become so by elision.
(d) Trochaic words following a short accented syllable, as: quid istuc.
(e) Cretic words, but more often in anapaestic measure, or at the beginning of a hemistich, as vēnerānt.

Notes.—1. Before quidem a monosyllable is shortened: tā quidem.
2. A combination like volūptās mea is looked upon as a single word.
3. Authorities are not agreed as to the shortening: in polysyllabic words, when the second syllable is long by nature and the third syllable accented; in trisyllables which have become Iambic by elision; in Cretics at Trochaic and Iambic close; in polysyllables like simillumae.

717. Personal pronouns and similar words of common occurrence forming Trochees (734) may shorten the initial syllable when followed by a long syllable or its equivalent, even in the oblique cases: īle mē, ōmnium mē, unde tībī.

Notes.—1. The words involved are ille, illic, īste, istic, ipse, equis, omnis, nempē, inde, unde, quippe, īmmo, and a few others that are disputed, such as some disyllabic imperatives like mitte, reddie, and monosyllables followed by -que, -ne, -ve, and the like.
2. Nempē, inde, unde, quippe, ille, īste, may perhaps suffer syncope and be scanned as monosyllables.
3. Nempē never forms a whole foot. Proin, dein, exin are used only before consonants: proinde only before vowels; deinde usually before vowels, rarely before consonants.
4. Trochees also come under the operation of the Iambic Law when they follow a short accented syllable.
718. Poetry often preserves the older forms of language, and perpetuates peculiarities of pronunciation, both of which are too frequently set down to poetic license.

719. 1. **Elision.**—When one word ends with a vowel and another begins with a vowel, or h, the first vowel is *elided*. Elision is not a total omission, but rather a hurried half-pronunciation, similar to Grace notes in music.

\[ \text{ē fēlix ūn(a) ant(e) aliās Priamēla virgō.} \text{—Verg.} \]

2. **Ectlilipsis.**—In like manner m final (a faint nasal sound) is elided with its short vowel before a vowel or h.

\[ \text{Mōnstr(um), horrend(um), inform(e) ingēns cui lūmen adēmptum.} \text{—Verg.} \]

**Exception.**—After a vowel or m final, the word est, is, drops its e and joins the preceding syllable (*Aphäresis*).

\[ \text{Si rīxast ubi tū pulsās ego vāpulō tantum.} \text{—Juv.} \]

\[ \text{Aeternās quōniam poenās in morte timendumst.} \text{—Lucr.} \]

720. **Hiatus.**—Hiatus is the meeting of two vowels in separate syllables, which meeting produces an almost continuous opening (yawning) of the vocal tube. In the body of a word this hiatus, or yawning, is avoided sometimes by contraction, often by shortening the first vowel (13).

**Remarks.**—1. The Hiatus is sometimes allowed: a, in the Thesis (729), chiefly when the first vowel is long; b, in an Arsis (729), or resolved Thesis, when a long vowel is shortened (Semi-hiatus); c, before a pause, chiefly in the principal Caesura (750); d, in early Latin, in the principal Caesura, before a change of speakers, and occasionally elsewhere.

\[ \text{(a) Stant et īnīperī (h) et castaneae (h) hīrsūtāe.} \text{—Verg.} \]

\[ \text{(b) Ėrēdimus? an quī (h) amant ipsī sībī somnīa fīngunt?} \text{—Verg.} \]

\[ \text{(c) Prōmissam ēripūl generō. (h) Arma impīa sūmpsi.} \text{—Verg.} \]

\[ \text{(d) A. Abī. B. Quīd abeam? A. St! abī (h). B. Abeam (h)? A. Abī.} \text{—Plaut.} \]

2. Monosyllabic interjections are not elided.

3. On the elision of e in -ne? see 456, r. 2.

721. **Diastolē.**—Many final syllables, which were originally long, are restored to their rights by the weight of the Thesis.
FIGURES OF PROSODY.

Uxör, heus uxor, quamquam tú õráta's mihi.—Plaut.
Dummodó mórata récte veniát dótátast satis.—Plaut.
Perruptité Acheronta Hérculeus labor.—Hor.

Sometimes, however, Diastolé arises from the necessities of the verse (as in proper names), or is owing to a pause (Punctuation).

Nec quàs Priamidés in. aquósís vallibus Ídæa.—Ov.
Désine plúra puér—et quàd nunc instat agámus.—Verg.
Pectoribús inhiáns spírantia cónsulit exta.—Verg.

Note.—The extent to which diastolé is allowable is a matter of dispute, especially in early Latin.
On quà, see 707, 2, Ex. 5.

722. Systolé.—Long syllables which had begun to shorten in prose, are shortened (Systolé).

Obstupul sitéuntque comae vóx faucibus haesit.—Verg.
É terrá mágn(um) alterús spectáre labórēm.—Lucr.
Únús ad certam fórmam prímórdia rérum.—Lucr.
Núllus addictus iúrāre in verba magistrī.—Hor.

Note.—The short penult of the Pt. in sitéunt, dedéunt, was probably original (DEDRO in inscriptions). See 131, 4, b, 5 and 6.

723. Hardening.—The vowels i and u assert their half-consonant nature (Hardening): abí été (abí été), genvá (génuá), tenvitá (ténuliá).

Flúviórum réx Êridanus campósque per omnēs.—Verg.
Nam quàe ténvía sunt hiscendist nulla potestás.—Lucr.

724. Dialysis.—The consonants i and v assert their half-vowel nature: dissólóó (dissolvó), Gáúús (Gáius, from Gávius).

Adulterstur et columba múlúá.—Hor.
Stámina nónullí dissoluenda déó.—Tib.

725. Syncopé.—Short vowels are dropped between consonants, as often in prose: calfació for calefació.

Templórum positor templórum sáncte repositor.—Ov.
Quiddam mágnun addéns ámbum mē surpité (= surripité) morti.—Hor.

726. Tmesis.—Compound words are separated into their parts.

Quō mē cunque (= quōcumque mē) rapit tempestás dēferor hospes.—Hor.

Note.—The earlier poets carry Tmesis much further, in unwise emulation of the Greek. Celebrated is: Saxó cere comminuit brum.—Ennius.
727. *Synizesis.*—Vowels are connected by a slur, as often in the living language: deinde, deinceps.

*Quid faciam roger anae rogem? quid deinde rogabē?*—Ov.

So even when h intervenes, as dehinc:

Eurum ad sē Zephyrumque vocat, dehinc tālia sātur.—Verg.

**Remark.**—Synizesis (settling together) is also called Synaerēsis (taking together), as opposed to Dieraeresis (5); but Synaerēsis properly means contraction, as in cōgō (for coagō), and nēmō (for nehemō). Synaloepha is a general term embracing all methods of avoiding Hiatus.

**Note.**—1. Synizesis is very common in early Latin, especially in pronominal forms: mī (mihi), meōs, and its forms, dissyllabic forms like eō, eum, etc.

728. *Synapheia.*—A line ends in a short vowel, which is elided before the initial vowel of a following line, or a word is divided between two lines, i.e., the two lines are joined together.

*Sors exitūra et nōs in aetern(um)*

Exilium impositūra cumbae.—Hor., O., ii. 3, 27.

Gallicum Rhēn(um), horribile aequor, últimōsque Britannōs.—Cat., ii. ii.

**VERSIFICATION.**

729. *Rhythm.*—Rhythm means harmonious movement. In language, Rhythm is marked by the stress of voice (*Accent*). The accented part is called the Thesis;* the unaccented, the Arsis. The Rhythmical Accent is called the Ictus (*blow, beat*).

**Remark.**—Besides the dominant Ictus, there is a subordinate or secondary Ictus, just as there is a dominant and a secondary Accent in words.

730. *Metre.*—Rhythm, when represented in language, is embodied in Metre (*Measure*). A Metre is a system of syllables standing in a determined order.

*Thesis and Arsis are Greek terms, meaning the putting down and the raising of the foot in marching. The Roman Grammarians, misunderstanding the Greek, applied the terms to the lowering and raising of the voice, and thus reversed the significations. Modern scholars up to recent times followed the Roman habit, but at present the tendency is to use the terms in their original signification, as above.*
731. Unit of Measure.—The Unit of Measure is the short syllable, (☉), and is called Mora, Tempus (Time).

The value in music is $\frac{1}{4}$.  
The long (--) is the double of the short.  
The value in music is $\frac{1}{2}$.

Remark.—An irrational syllable is one which is not an exact multiple of the standard unit. Feet containing such quantities are called irrational.

732. Resolution and Contraction.—In some verses, two short syllables may be used instead of a long (Resolution), or a long instead of two short (Contraction).

Resolution ☉☉ $\rightarrow$ Contraction, ☉☉ ☉☉  

733. Feet.—As elements of musical strains, Metres are called Bars. As elements of verses, they are called Feet.  
As musical strains are composed of equal bars, so verses are composed of equal feet, marked as in music, thus $|$.  

Remark.—Theoretically, the number of metres is unrestricted; practically, only those metres are important that serve to embody the principal rhythms.

734. Names of the Feet.—The feet in use are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feet of Three Times</th>
<th></th>
<th>Feet of Four Times</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trochee,</td>
<td>☉☉</td>
<td>Dactyl,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iambus,</td>
<td>☉☉</td>
<td>Anapaest,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tribrach,</td>
<td>☉☉☉</td>
<td>Spondee,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☉☉☉☉</td>
<td>Proceleusmaticus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lēgit.</td>
<td>☉☉</td>
<td>lēgīmūs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lēgunt.</td>
<td>☉☉☉</td>
<td>lēgērent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lēgītē.</td>
<td>☉☉☉☉</td>
<td>lēgl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>☉☉☉☉</td>
<td>relegitūr.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Feet of Five Times.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Feet</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cretic</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>légérunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Paeon</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>légérîtis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Paeon</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>légimum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bacchus</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>légëbant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antibacchus</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>légistis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Feet of Six Times.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Feet</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Íonicus à mäiore</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>collégimum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Íonicus à minore</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>rélégëbant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choriambus</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>colligërunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditrochee</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>colliguntur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diambus</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>légëmin.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Remarks.**—1. Other feet are put down in Latin Grammars, but they do not occur in Latin verse, if in any, such as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Feet</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pyrrhic</td>
<td>- -</td>
<td>légët.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Epitrite</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>rélégërunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Epitrite</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>êligëbant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Epitrite</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>sélégërunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Epitrite</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>légëntibus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antispast</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>légëbäris.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dispondees</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>sélégërunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Paeon</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>légëtöte.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Paeon</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>légëtöte.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molossus</td>
<td>- - - - - -</td>
<td>légërunt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. For Irrational Feet see 743 and 744.

### 735. Ascending and Descending Rhythms.

Rhythms are divided into ascending and descending. If the Thesis follows, the Rhythm is called ascending; if it precedes, descending. So the Trochee has a descending, the Iambus an ascending, rhythm.

### 736. Names of Rhythms.

Rhythms are commonly called after their principal metrical representative. So the Trochaic Rhythm, the Anapaestic Rhythm, the Iambic Rhythm, the Dactylic Rhythm, the Ionic Rhythm.

### 737. Classes of Rhythms.

In Latin, the musical element
of versification is subordinate, and the principles of Greek rhythm have but a limited application.

The Greek classes are based on the relation of Thesis to Arsis.

I. Equal Class, in which the Thesis is equal to the Arsis (γένος ἵσος). This may be called the Dactylico-Anapaestic class.

II. Unequal Class, in which the Thesis is double of the Arsis (γένος διπλάσιον). This may be called the Trochaico-Iambic class.

III. Quinquepartite or Paeanian Class (Five-eighths class), of which the Cretic and Bacchus are the chief representatives (γένος ήμιόλιον).

738. Rhythmical Series.—A Rhythmical Series is an uninterrupted succession of rhythmical feet, and takes its name from the number of feet that compose it.

Dipody = two feet. 
Tripody = three feet. 
Tetrapody = four feet. 

Pentapody = five feet. 
Hexapody = six feet.

Remarks.—1. The Dipody is the ordinary unit of measure (-meter) in Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapaestic verse. In these rhythms a monometer contains two feet, a dimeter four, a trimeter six, a tetramer eight.

2. The single foot is the ordinary unit of measure (-meter) in Dactylic verse. Thus, a verse of one Dactyl is called a Monometer; of two, a Dimeter; of three, a Trimeter; of four, a Tetramer; of five, a Pentamer; of six, a Hexameter.

3. There are limits to the extension of series. Four feet (in Greek, five) is the limit of the Dactylic and Anapaestic, six of the Trochaic and Iambic series. All beyond these are compounds.

739. The Anacrusic Scheme.—Ancient Metric discussed the colon, whether in Ascending or Descending Rhythm, according to the feet of which it was composed. Most modern critics, since the time of Bentley, regard the first Arsis in an ascending rhythm as taking the place of an upward beat in music (called by Hermann Anacrúsis; i.e., upward stroke, signal-beat), whereby all rhythms become descending.

In this way the Iambus is regarded as an Anacrusic Trochee, the Anapaest as an Anacrusic Dactyl, the Ionicus a minore as an Anacrusic Ionicus a majore. The sign of the Anacrúsis is:

740. Equality of the Feet.—Every rhythmical series is composed of equal parts. To restore this equality, when it is violated by language, there are four methods:

1. Syllaba Anceps. 
2. Catalëxis. 
3. Protraction. 
741. Syllaba Anceps.—The final syllable of an independent series or verse may be short or long indifferently. It may be short when the metre demands a long; long when the metre demands a short. Such a syllable is called a Syllaba Anceps.

742. Catalexis and Pause.—A complete series is called Acatalectic; an incomplete series is called Catalectic. A series or verse is said to be Catalectic in syllabam, in dissyllabum, in trisyllabum, according to the number of syllables in the catalectic foot.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Trimeter dactylicus catalécticus in syllabam.} & \quad \begin{array}{c|c|c}
\hline
a & b & c \\
\hline
\end{array} \\
\text{Trimeter dactylicus catalécticus in dissyllabum.} & \quad \begin{array}{c|c|c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array}
\end{align*}
\]

The time is made up by Pause.

The omission of one mora is marked \( \wedge \); of two \( \wedge \).

743. Protraction and Syncope.—Protraction (\( \text{rov}^n \)) consists in drawing out a long syllable beyond its normal quantity. It occurs in the body of a verse, and serves to make up for the omission of one or more Arses, which omission is called Syncope.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(triseme long);} & \quad \begin{array}{c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array} \\
\text{(tetraseme long).} & \quad \begin{array}{c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array}
\end{align*}
\]

744. Correption.—Correption is the shortening of a syllable to suit the measure.

1. So a long syllable sometimes takes the place of a short, and is marked \( \gt \); similarly, two short syllables often seem to take the place of one, and may be marked \( \wedge \).

2. When a Dactyl is used as a substitute for a Trochee, the approximate value is often \( 1 \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + 1 = 3 \) \( \text{\text{\#\#\#}} \); which may be indicated by \( \sim \sim \) (cyclic Dactyl).

The following line illustrates all the points mentioned:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Nullam} & \quad \begin{array}{c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array} \\
\text{Váre sa-} & \quad \begin{array}{c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array} \\
\text{crá} & \quad \begin{array}{c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array} \\
\text{vite pri-} & \quad \begin{array}{c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array} \\
\text{us} & \quad \begin{array}{c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array} \\
\text{séveris} & \quad \begin{array}{c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array} \\
\text{arbo} & \quad \begin{array}{c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array} \\
\text{rem.} & \quad \begin{array}{c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array} \\
\text{HOR.} & \quad \begin{array}{c}
\hline
\hline
\end{array}
\end{align*}
\]

(a) Irrational trochee (irrational long). (b) Cyclic dactyl. (c) Syncope and Protraction (triseme long). (d) Syllaba anceps. (e) Catalexis.
VERSIFICATION.

REMARK.—Under this head, notice the frequent use of the irrational long in Anacrusis.

745. Verse.—A Simple Rhythm is one that consists of a simple series; a Compound Rhythm is one that consists of two or more series.

A Verse is a simple or compound rhythmical series, which forms a distinct and separate unit. The end of a verse is marked

1. By closing with a full word. Two verses cannot divide a word between them, except very rarely by Synapheia (728).
2. By the Syllaba Anceps, which can stand unconditionally.
3. By the Hiatus, i. e., the verse may end with a vowel, though the next verse begin with one. Occasionally such verses are joined by Synapheia (V., A., i. 332–3, 448–9; II. 745–6).

746. Methods of Combining Verses.—The same verse may be repeated throughout without recurring groups (Stichic Composition); such as the Septenarius and Octonarius, the Trochaic Septenarius, the Heroic Hexameter, the Iambic Senarius (Trimeter). Or the same verse or different verses may be grouped in pairs (distichs), triplets (tristichs), fours (tetristichs). Beyond these simple stanzas Latin versification seldom ventured.

Larger groups of series are called Systems.

Larger groups of verses are called Strophes, a name sometimes attached to the Horatian stanzas.

747. Cantica and Diverbia.—In the Drama there is a broad division between that part of the play which was simply spoken, and is called Diverbium, comprising the scenes in the Iambic Senarius, and that part which was either sung or recited to a musical accompaniment called Canticum. The Canticum is subdivided into: (1) Those scenes which were merely recited to the accompaniment of the flute, and were written in Trochaic and Iambic Septenarii and Iambic Octonarii; and (2) those parts which were written in varying measures (mutatis modis cantica) and sung. The latter division is also called "Cantica in the narrow sense," and may be divided into monologues, dialogues, etc. The greatest variety of measures is found in the monologues.

748. Union of Language with Rhythm.—When embodied
in language, rhythm has to deal with rhythmical groups already in existence. Every full word is a rhythmical group with its accent, is a metrical group with its long or short syllables, is a word-foot. Ictus sometimes conflicts with accent; the unity of the verse-foot breaks up the unity of the word-foot.

749. Conflict of Ictus and Accent.—In ordinary Latin verse, at least according to modern pronunciation, the Ictus overrides the Accent; this conflict seems, however, to have been avoided in the second half of the Dactylic Hexameter, and the Ictus made to coincide with the Accent.

Note.—The extent to which this conflict was felt by the Romans themselves is a matter of uncertainty, but it seems likely that the dominant accent of a word was not so sharp as in modern pronunciation, and consequently the conflict would not be serious.

750. Conflict of Word-foot and Verse-foot.—The conflict of word-foot and verse-foot gives rise to Caesura. Caesura means an incision produced by the end of a word in the middle of a verse-foot, and is marked †.

This incision serves as a pause, partly to rest the voice for a more vigorous effort, partly to prevent monotony by distributing the masses of the verse.

Remarks.—1. So in the Heroic Hexameter the great Caesura falls before the middle of the verse, to give the voice strength for the first Arsis of the second half.

\[\text{Una salús} \ \text{victís} \ \text{fúllam} \ \text{spëráre} \ \text{salútēm}.\]—Verg.

It does not occur at the middle, as in that case the verse would become monotonous.

2. In many treatises any incision in a verse is called a Caesura.

751. Varieties of Caesura.—Caesurae have different names to show their position in the foot, as follows:

Sémilernāria, after the third half foot, i.e., in the second foot.
Sémiquināria, after the fifth half foot, i.e., in the third foot.
Sémisepēnāria, after the seventh half foot, i.e., in the fourth foot.
Séminoventāria, after the ninth half foot, i.e., in the fifth foot.

Remark.—These Caesurae are frequently called after their Greek names, thus: trihemimeral, penthemimeral, hepthemimeral, etc.
752. Masculine and Feminine Caesurae.—In trisyllabic metres, when the end of the word within the verse-foot falls on a Thesis, it is called a Masculine Caesura; when on an Arsis, a Feminine Caesura.

\[ \text{Una sa} | \text{lus} \overset{a}{\uparrow} \text{vi} | \text{ctis} \overset{b}{\uparrow} \text{nul} | \text{lam} \overset{c}{\uparrow} \text{spē} | \text{rare} \overset{d}{\uparrow} \text{sa} | \text{lūtem}. \]

\( a, b, c, \) are Masculine Caesurae; \( d, \) a Feminine Caesura.

Especially noteworthy is the Feminine Caesura of the third foot in the Hexameter, called the Third Trochee (783, R. 2).

753. Diaeresis.—When verse-foot and word-foot coincide, Diaeresis arises, marked \|.

\[ \text{Ite domum saturae} \overset{\|}{\uparrow} \text{venit} \| \text{Hesperus} \| \text{Ite capellae}. \text{-VERG.} \]

Remarks.—1. Diaeresis, like Caesura, serves to distribute the masses of the verse and prevent monotony. What is Caesura in an ascending rhythm becomes Diaeresis as soon as the rhythm is treated ana-crustically.

\[ \text{Suls} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{et} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{ipsa} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{Rōma} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{virī} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{ribus} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{ruit}. \text{Iambic Trimeter.} \]

\[ \text{Su} : \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{is et} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{ipsa} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{Rōma} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{virī} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{bus} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{ru} \overset{|}{\uparrow} \text{it}. \text{Troch. Trimeter Catal., with Anaecrusis.} \]

2. Diaeresis at the end of the fourth foot of a Hexameter is called Bucolic Caesura, and has a special effect (783, R. 3).

754. Recitation.—When the word-foot runs over into the next verse-foot, a more energetic recitation is required, in order to preserve the sense, and hence the multiplication of Caesurae lends vigour to the verse.

Remark.—The ordinary mode of scanning, or singing out the elements of a verse, without reference to signification, cannot be too strongly condemned, as,

\[ \text{Una sa, lusvic, tisnul, lamspe, raresa, lutem!} \]

Numerus Italicus.

755. The oldest remains of Italian poetry are found in some fragments of ritualistic and sacred songs, and seem to have had no regard to quantity. No definite theory can be formed of this so-called Numerus Italicus in which they were composed, but they seem to have been in series of four Theses, usually united in pairs or triplets, but sometimes separate. An example is the prayer to Mars, from Cato, Agr., 141.

\[ \text{Mārș pāter tē pēcor | quāeque úti siēs | vōlēns prōpitiās} \]
\[ \text{Mīhi dōmō | fāmiliaeque nōstraē, etc.} \]
Saturnian Verse.

756. The Saturnian verse is an old Italian rhythm which occurs in the earlier monuments of Latin literature. It divides itself into two parts, with three Theses in each; but the exact metrical composition has been a matter of much dispute, the remains not being sufficient to admit of any dogmatism. The two principal theories are:

1. The Quantitative Theory.—The Saturnian is a six-foot verse with Anacrusis, and a Caesura after the third Arsis, or more rarely after the third Thesis.

Dábunt malúm Metéllí | Naévió poétæ.
Cornélíus Lúcuf | Scípiô Barbátus.
Quoíus fórma vírútēi | parísumá fúit.
Eórum sectántm sequántur | múlti mortálēs.

Notes.—1. The Thesis is formed by a long or two shorts; the Arsis by a short, a long, or two shorts (not immediately before the Caesura). The Arsis may be wholly suppressed, most often the second Arsis of the second hemistich. Short syllables under the Ictus may be scanned long. Hiatus occurs everywhere, but usually in Caesura.

2. This theory is held by many scholars, but with various modifications. Thus, some do not accept the lengthening of the short syllables, others would scan by protraction four feet in each half verse, etc.

Dábunt malúm Metéllí | Naévió poétæ, etc.

2. The Accentual Theory.—The Saturnian verse falls into two halves, the first of which has three Theses, the second usually three, sometimes two, in which case there is usually Anacrusis in the second hemistich. Quantity is not considered.

Dábunt málum Metéllí | Naévió poétæ.
Quoíus fórma vírútēi | parísumá fúit.

Notes.—1. Two accented syllables are regularly divided by a single unaccented syllable, except that between the second and third there are always two. Hiatus allowed only at Caesura.

2. A modification of this theory would scan

Dábunt málum Metéllí | Naévió poétæ.

3. Very recently a modification of the Accentual Theory has been proposed, which has much in its favor:

(a) The accent must fall on the beginning of each line, though it may be a secondary accent; the first hemistich has three, the second has but two Theses.

(b) The first hemistich has normally seven syllables, the second six; but an extra short syllable may be admitted where it would be wholly or partially suppressed in current pronunciation.

(c) After the first two feet there is an alternation between words accented on the first and those accented on the second syllable.

(d) A final short vowel is elided, otherwise semi-hiatus is the rule; but there may be full Hiatus at the Caesura.

Dábunt málum Metéllí | Naévió poétæ.
Prīm(a) incédit Cérēris | Prosérpina φύer.
Iambic Rhythms.

757. The Iambic Rhythm is an ascending rhythm, in which the Thesis is double of the Arsis. It is represented

By the Iambus: \( \text{\textcircled{-}} \);  
By the Tribrach: \( \text{\textcircled{\text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet}}}} \);  
By the Spondee: \( \text{\textcircled{\text{\textbullet}}} \);  
By the Dactyl: \( \text{\textcircled{\text{\textbullet}}} \);  
By the Anapaest: \( \text{\textcircled{\text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet}}}} \); and  
By the Proceleusmaticus: \( \text{\textcircled{\text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet}}}}} \).

Remark.—The Spondee, Dactyl, Anapaest, and Proceleusmaticus are all irrational, and are consequently marked on the schemes thus: \( > - \), \( > \text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet}} \), \( \text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet}} - \), \( \text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet}}} \); see 744.

758. Iambic Octōnārius (Tetrameter Acatalectic).

Iūss(i) ādarārī prāndium | amī-  
c(a) exspectat mē, scīō, Pl.,  
Men., 599.  
Hic finis est iāmbe salvē † vīndi-  
cis doctor mali, Servius.  

Anacrustic Scheme:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{\textcircled{-}} & : \text{\textcircled{(>)}} | - > | \text{\textcircled{(>)}} | - > | \text{\textcircled{(>)}} | - > | \text{\textcircled{\textbullet\text{\textbullet}}} | - ^{\wedge} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Note.—This verse is predominantly a comic verse, occurring most frequently in Terence, who shows five hundred lines, while Plautus shows but three hundred. The substitutions are the same as in the Senarius (761, n. 1). There are two varieties:

(a) That which is divided into two equal halves by Diaeresis at the end of the fourth foot. In this case the fourth foot as well as the eighth has all the privileges of the final foot of the Senarius (Hiatus, Syllaba Ancepe), and conforms also to its rules, so that the line is practically a distich of two Quaternarii; but Hiatus after the fourth foot is denied for Terence.

(b) That which is divided into two unequal halves by a Caesura after the fifth Arsis. Here the rules of the final foot apply only to the eighth, and the fourth may be a Spondee. The principle which governs the choice of words after the semiquānāria in the Senarius applies here after the dividing Caesura. The Hiatus comes under the general rules. From the earliest period there is a tendency to keep the even feet pure. This variety is preferred by Terence to the former. Examples of the two forms are:

ō Trōia, ō patria, ō Pergamum, ō Priame, peristi senex, Plaut.  
Is porrō mō autem verberāt † incursat pūgnīs calcibus, Plaut.  
Facili(ë) omnēs quom valēmus rēcta | cōnsilia aegrōtīs damus, Ter.

759. Iambic Septēnārius (Tetrameter Catalectic).

Remītte pallium mihi | meum quod  
involāstī, Cat.  
\( \text{\textcircled{\text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet}}}}} - \text{\textcircled{\text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet}}} - \text{\textbullet\text{\textbullet}}} \).
Anacrustic Scheme:
\[
> : \ x(x) | - > | (x) | - > | (x) | - > | (x) | - > | - > | - \\
\]

Notes.—1. This verse is confined principally to Plautus and Terence; it is to be regarded as a compound of Dimeter + Dimeter Catalectic: hence regular Diaeresis after the fourth foot, which is treated as a final foot. The same rules, in regard to the various word-foot allowable, apply here as in the case of the Senarius (761, no. 6). Substitutions are allowable in every foot except in the fourth, when followed by a Diaeresis.

With Syllaba Aniceps:
Sic abduxeris celabitur \( \mid \) itidem ut celata adhibe est, Plaut.

With Iliatus:
Sed si tibi viginti minae \( \mid \) argent\( i \) pr\( o \)seruntur, Plaut.

2. Exceptionally in Plautus, more often in Terence, the line is cut by Cesura after the fifth Arsis. In this case the fourth foot has no exceptional laws except that if the seventh foot is not pure the fourth should be, though this is not absolutely necessary.

760. The Iambic Sénarius (a Stichic measure). This is an imitation of the Iambic Trimeter of the Greeks, but differs from it in that it is a line of six separate feet and not of three dipodies. In the early Latin there is no distinction between the odd and even feet, such as prevails in the Greek Trimeter, but the same substitutions were allowable in the one as in the other. This distinction is regained in Horace and Seneca, who follow the Greek treatment closely, and with whom the line may be with some degree of justice called the Iambic Trimeter, but it is very doubtful whether the Roman felt the Iambic Trimeter as did the Greek. In both Senarius and Trimeter the last foot is always pure.

761. The Early Use (Senarius).

Any substitution is allowed in any foot except the last.

Quamvis sermōnēs | possunt longī
táxier, PL., Trin., 797.  > < | > - | > < | > - | > < | o -

Quī scire possī | aūt ingenium
nōscere, TER., And., 53.  > < | o - | > < | o o | > < | o -

S(ī) uxōris | propert amōrem | nō-lit dācere, TER., And., 155.  > < | > - | o o < | > - | > < | o -

Di fortūnābunt | vōstra consili(a),
Īta volō, PL., Trin., 576.  > < | > - | > < | o - | o o o | o -

El r(ē) operam dare téffuerat ali-quant(ō) aequius, PL., Trin.,

119.  > o o | > o o | > o o | o o o | > o | o -

Notes.—1. In the Iambic measure two shorts at the end of a polysyllabic word cannot stand in either Thesis or Arsis; hence such feet as genēra, ma | terīa, would not be allowable. But a Dactyl is sometimes found in the first foot (TER., Eum., 348). The two shorts of a Thesis cannot be divided between two words, when the second word is a polysyllable with the accent on the second syllable; hence fingít amōrem is
fanity. The two shorts of an Arsis should not be divided between two words if the first short ends a word; but there are sundry exceptions; especially the case where two words are closely connected, as, for instance, a preposition and its case; propter amērem.

2. The most frequent Cæsura is the sēmiqūnāria. Next comes the sēmistertiēnāria, which is usually accompanied by the sēmiternāria or by Diaeresis after second foot. Examples above.

3. Elision is more frequent in the Iambic Senarius than in the Dactylic Hexameter, and occurs especially before the first and fifth Theses; also not unfrequently in the fourth foot. The proportion of elision varies between Terence (four elisions in every three verses) and Horace (one in five stichic verses, and one in seven in distichs).

4. Semi-hiatus (720), also called Graecūnis or Lēgitimus, is very common both in Thesis and Arsis; Hiatus is also admitted at a change of speaker; whether it is admissible before proper names, foreign words, and in the principal Cæsura, is still a matter of dispute.

5. If the line is divided by the sēmiqūnāria Cæsura, and the fifth foot is formed by a single word, the second half of the third foot, together with the fourth, may be formed by a single word only when that is a Cretic or a Fourth Pæon; as, filius bonān fādē (Pl., Oed., 670). Thus dēpīnxī verbīs probē would not be allowable for verbīs dēpīnxī probē (Pl., Iōn., 1114).

6. To close the line with two Iambic feet was not allowable, except as follows: (1) When the line ends with a word of four syllables or more. (2) When the line ends with a Cretic. (3) When the line ends with an Iambic word preceded by an anapaest or Fourth Pæon. (4) When a change of person precedes the sixth foot. (5) When elision occurs in the fifth or sixth foot.

762. The Later Use (Trimeter).

Suís et ipsa † Rōma viribus ruit 0 0 0 0 0 0
Heu mé per urbem † nām pudet > 0 0 0 0
tantī malī
Dērīpere lūnam † vōcibus possīm > 0 0 0 0
meīs
İnflāmis Helenae † Cāstor offēnus > 0 0 0 0
vicem
Optāt quītēm † Pēlopis infīdī pater > 0 0 0 0
Alētībus atque † cānibus hōmici-
d(am) Hēctorem
Vectābor humerts † tūnc eg(o) ini-
mīcis eques
Pavīdūmque lepor(em) et † āde-
nam laqueō gruem, Hor.

Anacrustic Scheme:

\[ \text{Notes} - 1. \text{The Iambic Trimeter, when kept pure, has a rapid aggressive movement. Hence, it is thus used in lampoons and invectives. It admits the Spondees in the odd places (first, third, fifth foot); the Tribrach in any but the last, though in Horace it is excluded from the fifth foot; the Dactyl in the first and third. The Anapaest is rare. The Procenemium occurs only in Seneca and Terentianus. When carefully handled, the closing part of the verse is kept light, so as to preserve the character. The} \]
fifth foot is pure in CATULLUS, but is almost always a Spondees in SENECA and PETRONIUS.

2. Dieresis at the middle of the verse is avoided. Short particles, which adhere closely to the following word, do not constitute exceptions.

Labörisa nec cœhors Ulxel, HOR.

Adulterētur et columba miluō, HOR.

In like manner explain—

Refertque tanta grex amicus übera, HOR.

3. The Caesura is usually the semiquinaria, but the semisextënaria is found also, but either with the semiquinaria or with Dieresis after the second foot.

4. The Sénârius pærus, composed wholly of Iambi, is found first in CATULLUS (iv. and xxix.) ; also in HORACE (Epod., xvi.), VERGIL (Cat., 3, 4, 8), and the Priâpœa.

5. Of course, in the Anacrustic Scheme, the Caesura of the ordinary scheme becomes Dieresis.

Le : vis cre | pante | lympha | dēsī | lit pe | de.

763. Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.

Meā renidet in domō lacānar

Rēgūmque pueris nēc satelles Ōrci, HOR.

Anacrustic Scheme : \( \uparrow : \_\_\_ | \rightarrow | \_\_\_ | \_\_\_ | \_\_\_ | \_\_\_ (with Syncopē).

NOTES.—This occurs in HORACE (O., 1. 4; II. 18). No resolutions are found except in the second line quoted, where pueris may be dissyllabic (27), and the Spondees alone is used for the Iambus, mainly in the third foot. The Caesura is always semiquinaria.

764. Trimeter Iambicus Claudus (Choliambus); Scazon

(= Hobbler) Hippōnactēus.

Misēr Catulle désinās inépttre, CAT.

Fulsēre quondam candidi tibi sóles, CAT.

Dominās parantur ista; serviunt vōbis, MART.

Anacrustic Scheme : \( \uparrow : \_\_\_ | \rightarrow | \_\_\_ | \_\_\_ | \_\_\_ (with Syncopē). Trochaic Trimeter with Anacrusis, Syncopē, and Protraction.

NOTES.—1. In the Choliambus the rhythm is reversed at the close, by putting a Trochee or Spondees in the sixth foot. The lighter the first part of the verse, the greater the surprise. It is intended to express comic anger, resentment, disappointment.

2. This metre, introduced into Rome by MATTIUS, was used frequently by CATULLUS and MARTIAL. PERSIUS also has it in his Prologue.

3. The Dactyl is occasional in the first and third feet, the Tribrach occurs very rarely in the first, more often in the third and fourth, frequently in the second. The Spondees is found in the first and third feet; the Anapaest only in the first.

4. The Caesura is usually semiquinaria, sometimes semisextënaria, which is regularly supported by Dieresis after the second foot.

765. Iambic Quaternārius (Dimeter).

Inārsit aestuōsis

Imbrēs niveaque cóparat

Vidēre properantēs domum

Ast égo vicissim rīserō, HOR.
Anacrustic Scheme:

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{\textgreater} \quad \textless \\
\textless \quad \textless \\
\textless \\
\textless \\
\end{array} \]

**Note.**—This verse is constructed according to the principles which govern the Senarius and Octonarius. It is rare in systems until the time of Seneca, and is usually employed as a Clausula in connection with Octonarii and Septenarii (Plautus, Terence), Senarii (Horace), or Dactylic Hexameter (Horace).

766. *Iambic Ternarius (Dimeter Catalectic).*

\[ \text{Id réperfi i(am) exemplum} \quad \begin{array}{c}
\text{\textless} \\
\text{\textless} \\
\text{\textless} \\
\text{\textless} \\
\end{array} \]

**Note.**—This verse is found mainly in Plautus and Terence, and used as a Clausula to Bacchic Tetrameters (Plautus), Iambic Septenarii (Plautus); but twice in Terence (And., 485; Hec., 731). It is found in systems first in Petronius.

767. The *Iambic Tripody Catalectic* and the *Dipody Acatalectic* are found here and there.

Inóps amátor, Trin., 256. *Bonu(s) sit bonís, B.; 660.*

**Trochaic Rhythms.**

768. The *Trochaic Rhythm* is a descending rhythm, in which the Thesis is double of the Arsis. It is represented,

- By the Trochee: \( \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \);
- By the Tribrach: \( \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \);
- By the Spondee: \( \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \);
- By the Anapaest: \( \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \);
- By the Dactyl: \( \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \).
- By the Proceleusmaticus: \( \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \).

**Remark.**—The Spondee, Anapaest, Dactyl, and Proceleusmaticus are all irrational and are accordingly measured \( \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \), \( \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \) or \( \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \).

769. *Trochaic Octonarius (Tetrameter Acatalectic).*

**Scheme:**

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \\
\text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \\
\text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \\
\end{array} \]

Párce iam cameoéna vásti ‖ párce iam sacró furóři.—SERVIUS.

Dáte viam quē fugere liceat, ‖ fácite, tótæ pláteae pateant, PL., Aul., 407.

**Note.**—This verse belongs to the cantica of early Comedy. It is properly a compound of two Quaternarii. Hence Hiatus and Syllaba Anceps are admitted in the Diaeresis. A fourth or sixth Thesis, formed by the last syllable of a word forming or ending in a Spondee or Anapaest, was avoided, as was also a monosyllabic close. The Substitutions were allowed in all feet except the eighth, where the Tribrach is rare.

770. *Trochaic Septenarius (Tetrameter Catalectic).*

**Scheme:**

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \\
\text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \\
\text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \text{\textless} \\
\end{array} \]

Crás amet qui númerum amāvit quoque amāvit crás amet.—Pervig. Ven.
Tú m(ē) aūris mági qu(ām) honōris sérvāvisti grātiā.—Ennius.
Vāpulār(ē) ego tē vehementer iūbeō: nē mē territēs.—Plaut.

Notes.—1. This is usually divided by a Diāeresis after the fourth Arsīs into two halves, with the license of a closing verse before the Diāeresis; this is often supported by Diāeresis after the second foot. Not unfrequently the line is divided by Cesura after the fourth Thesis, which may in this case be Anceps or have Hiatus, though not in Terence; but other critics refuse to admit such a division, and prefer Diāeresi after the fifth foot. The substitutions are allowable in any foot except the seventh, which is regularly kept pure, though occasionally in early Latin a Tripodrach or a Dactyl occurs even here. But the Dactyl is rare in the fourth foot.
2. Thc rule for the words allowable after the semiquināria Cesura in the Senarius (761, n. 5) apply here after the Diāeresis, with the necessary modifications; that is, the second hemistich cannot be formed by a word occupying the fifth and the Thesis of the sixth foot, followed by a word occupying the two succeeding half feet, unless the first word is a Cretic or a Fourth Pecon.
3. In regard to the close the same rules apply as in the case of the Iambic Senarius (761, n. 6); in regard to the fourth and sixth Theses the rules are the same as for the Octonarius (769, n.).
4. The strict Septenarius of the later poets keeps the odd feet pure, and rigidly observes the Diāeresi.

771. Trochaic Tetrameter Claudus.

Hunc Cerōs, cibi ministra, frūgibus suis pórcet, Varro.

\[ \text{\&\&}\]

Note.—This verse is found only in the Menippean Satyres of Varro, and is formed, like the Iambic Senarius Claudus, by reversing the last two quantities.

772. Trochaic Quaternārius with Anacrūsis.

Si frāctus illābātur orbis, Hor. \[ \text{\&\&} \- \&\& \]

Note.—This occurs only in the Alcaic Strophe of Horace.

773. Trochaic Ternārius (Dimeter Catalectic).

Réspice vērō Thespriō, Pl., Ep., 3. \[ \text{\&\&}\] \&\& \- \&\& \- \&\&
Nón ebur nequ(e) aūreum, Hor. \[ \text{\&\&}\] \&\& \- \&\& \- \&\&

Note.—An uncommon measure, confined mainly to early poetry and to Horace; it is used as a Clausula between Tetrameters (Plautus) and Iambic Senarrii Catalectic (Horace), or in series. The third foot was kept pure; also the others in the strict measure.

774. The Trochaic Tripod Acatalectic (Ithyphallic).

Qu(om) ásus est ut pūdeat, Plaut., \[ \text{\&\&}\] \&\& \- \&\& \- \&\&

Note.—This is rare, and appears only in early Latin and as a Clausula, usually with Cretics. Substitutions were allowable in cycry foot.
775. *Trochaic Tripody Catalectic.*

Éheu, qu(am) égo malís | pérdidí modís,

Pl., Ps., 259.

Note.—This is found occasionally in early Latin; usually two at a time, otherwise as a Clausula. When the first word is a Cretic the line may end in two Iambi.

776. *Trochaic Dipody (Monometer).*

Nímis inépta's, Pl., Rud., 681. 

Note.—This is found occasionally as a Clausula with Cretic Tetrameters.

Anapaestic Rhythms.

777. The Anapaestic Rhythm is an ascending rhythm, in which the Thesis is to the Arsis as 2 to 2. It is represented,

By the Anapaest: ⾳¬_<

By the Spondee: ⾳<

By the Dactyl: ⾳<;

By the Proceleusmaticus: ⾳¬.<

Notes.—1. The Anapaestic measure is not uncommon in the Cantica of Plautus; but it is the metre most subject to license of all the early metres. Notice especially the operation of the Iambic Law (716, 717); the common occurrence of Synizesis, of Diazest, and less often of Syncopé, etc.

2. Strict Anapaestic lines after the model of the Greek are found only in Varro, Seneca, and later authors.

778. *Anapaestic Octōnārius (Tetrameter Acatalectic), and Anapaestic Septēnārius (Tetrameter Catalectic).*

Hostibiis victis, civibus salvis | re plā-

cidā, pācibus pērfectīs, Pers., 753.

Septūmās ess(e) aedīs ā portā † | ub(i)

il(e) hábitat lēnō quoī iūsset, Ps., 597.

Ait illam miseram, crūciār(i) et lacru-
mántem s(e) affictāre, Pl., M.G., 1032.

Erit ét tib(i) ēxoptāt(um) ōbtinget | bo-
n(um) hab(e) ānimum nē formidā, Pl., M.G., 1011.

Notes.—1. These have regularly the Diaeresis after the fourth foot, dividing the line into Quaternarii. Before the Diaeresis, the licenses of a closing foot (Hiatus and Syllaba Anceps) are occasionally found.

2. In the Septenarius the seventh Thesis may be resolved, but the resolution of the eighth in the Octonarius is avoided.

779. *Anapaestic Trimeter Catalectic.*

Perspicīō nihil mēām vōs grātiām fācere,

Pl., Curc., 155.

Note.—This verse is very rare, and is denied by some critics; it has the same treatment as the Septenarius.
780. **Anapaestic Quaternarius (Dimeter Acatalectic).**

Venient annis | saecla seris
---|---
Quibus Oceanus | vincula rerum
Laxet et ingens | pateat tellus
Tethysque novos | detegat orbis
Nec sit terris | ultima Thulæ.—Sen. Trag.

**Note.**—This verse avoids resolution of the fourth Thesis: Syllaba Auccps and Hiatus are rare.

781. **Anapaestic Dimeter Catalectic (Paroemiac).**

Volucer pede corpore pulcher
Linguæ catus ore canorus
Verum memorare magis quam
Functum laudare decet.—Auson.

**Notes.**—1. This verse is not common except as the close of a system of Anapaestic Acatalectic Dimeters. It allows in early Latin resolution of the third Thesis.

2. Latin Anapaests, as found in later writers, are mere metrical imitations of the Greek Anapaests, and do not correspond to their original in contents. The Greek Anapaest was an anacrustic dactylic measure or march (in ¾ time). Hence the use of Pause to bring out the four bars.

Paroemiacus: Anacrustic Scheme.

Volucerd pede corpore pulcher
Quibus Oceanus vincula rerum

The Arses of the last feet are supplied by the Anacrusis of the following verse.

782. **Anapaestic Dipody (Monometer Acatalectic).**

Omné paratūmst, Pl., Min., 365

**Note.**—This verse is found in anapaestic systems between Anapaestic Dimeters.

### Dactylic Rhythms.

783. The Dactylic Rhythm is a descending rhythm, in which the Thesis is equal to the Arsis (2 = 2).

The Dactylic Rhythm is represented by the Dactyl: $\sim\sim$. Often, also, by the Spondee: $\sim\sim$

784. **Dactylic (Heroic) Hexameter.**—The Heroic Hexameter is composed of two Dactylic tripodies, the second of which ends in a Spondee. Spondees may be substituted for the Dactyl in the first four feet; in the fifth foot, only when a special effect is to be produced. Such verses are called Spondaic. The longest Hexameter contains five Dactyls and one Spondee (or Trochee)—in all, seventeen syllables; the shortest in use, five Spondees and one Dactyl—in all, thirteen sylla-
bles. This variety in the length of the verse, combined with the great number of cæsural pauses, gives the Hexameter peculiar advantages for continuous composition.

Scheme: \[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c|c}
\text{Ut fugiunt aquilas} & + & \text{timidissima} & | & \text{turba columbae} & \text{OV.}
\hline
\text{At turba terribili} & + & \text{sonitu} & + & \text{procul} & | & \text{aere canor} & \text{VERG.}
\hline
\text{Quadrupedante putrem} & + & \text{sonitu} & + & \text{quatit} & | & \text{ungula campus} & \text{VERG.}
\hline
\text{Cum medió celeres} & + & \text{revolant} & | & \text{ex aequore mergi} & \text{VERG.}
\hline
\text{Vastius insurgens} & + & \text{decimae} & | & \text{ruit} & | & \text{impetus undae} & \text{OV.}
\hline
\text{Et rebot rauccum} & + & \text{regió} & + & \text{cita} & | & \text{barbara} & | \text{bombum. LUCR.}
\hline
\text{Muta metu terram} & + & \text{genibus} & + & \text{summissa petebat} & \text{LUCR.}
\hline
\text{Inter cunctantés} & + & \text{eccidit} & + & \text{moribunda ministros} & \text{VERG.}
\hline
\text{Ne turbata volent} & + & \text{rapidis} & + & \text{fádibria ventis} & \text{VERG.}
\hline
\text{Versau(e) in obnixos} & + & \text{urgentur} & | & \text{cornua vásto} & \text{VERG.}
\hline
\text{Prócessit longë} & + & \text{flammantia} & | & \text{moenia mundi} & \text{LUCR.}
\hline
\text{Portam vi multá} & + & \text{conversó} & | & \text{cardine torquet} & \text{VERG.}
\hline
\text{Tect(um) august(um) ingéns} & + & \text{centum sublime columnis} & \text{VERG.}
\hline
\text{Olli respondit r Ex Albai Longaí Ennius.}
\end{array}
\]

15. \text{Ant lèvès ocreá} & + & \text{lentó} & + & \text{dúcunt argentó} & \text{VERG.}
\hline
16. \text{Sunt apud Infernós} & + & \text{tot milia formósarum} & \text{PROP.}
\hline
17. \text{Aèriaeque Alps} & + & \text{et núbifer} & | & \text{Appenninos. OV.}
\hline
18. \text{Próebuit viridi-} & + & \text{qu(e) in litore} & | & \text{cónspicitur-sus} & \text{VERG.}
\hline
19. \text{Parturiunt montés} & + & \text{násefur} & + & \text{ridiculus-mus. HOR. 10 + 6 = 16} & 8
\hline
20. \text{Náscere, praéque diem et veniens age} & | & \text{Lucifer, alnum. VERG.}
\hline
21. \text{Insignem piétate} & + & \text{virum} & + & \text{tot adire laborés. VERG.}
\hline
22. \text{Et nigrae violae} & + & \text{sunt} & + & \text{et vaccinia} & | & \text{nigra. VERG.}
\hline
23. \text{Sparsi} & + & \text{hastis} & + & \text{longis} & + & \text{campus splendet et horret, EN.}
\hline
24. \text{Quamvis sint sub aqua} & + & \text{sub aqua} & + & \text{maledícere tentant} & \text{OV.}
\hline
25. \text{Me m(8) adsum qui fec(1) in me convertite ferrum} & \text{VERG.}
\hline
26. \text{Discissos nūdōs lanišbant dentibus artús. VERG.}
\hline
\text{No Dactyl.}
\end{array}
\]

{No Dactyl.}

Notes.—1. The two reining ictuses are the first and fourth, and the pauses arc so arranged as to give special prominence to them—the first by the pause at the end of the preceding verse, the fourth by pauses within the verse, both before and after the Thesis.

2. The principal Cæsura is the sēmiquināria or penthemimal, i.e., after the Thesis of the third foot, or Masculine Cæsura of the third foot; the next is the sēmisepulnāria or heptihemimal, after the Thesis of the fourth foot; but usually supplemented by the sēmternāria in the Thesis of the second or by one after the second Trochee; then the Feminine Cæsura of the third foot, the so-called Third Trochee, which is less used among the Romans than among the Greeks. As Latin poetry is largely rhetorical, and the Cæsura is of more importance for recitation than for singing, the Roman poets are very exact in the observation of these pauses.
In verses with several Cæsura, the semisextussyllabaria outranks the semiquardia, if it precedes a period, and the latter does not, or if it is perfect and the latter is imperfect (i.e., formed by tnesis or by elision); it also as a masculine Cæsura outranks the Third Trochee as a feminine. In other cases there may be doubt as to the principal Cæsura.

3. The Diæresis which is most carefully avoided is the one after the third foot, especially if that foot ends in a Spondee, and the verse is thereby split in half.

Examples are found occasionally, and if the regular Cæsura precedes, the verse is not positively faulty.

**His lacrimis vitam + damus | — et miseræscimus ulûræ. — Verg.**

It is abominable when no other Cæsura proper is combined with it.

**Pœnt | pervortentës | omnia | circumcursant. — Ennius.**

On the other hand the Diæresis at the end of the fourth foot divides the verse into proportionate parts (sixteen and eight morae, or two to one), and gives a graceful trochaic movement to the hexameter. This is called the Bacolic Cæsura, and while common in Greek, is not so in Latin even in bucolic poetry. Juvenal, however, is fond of it, showing one in every fifteen verses.

**Ite domum saturae | venit Hesperus | ite capellae. — Verg.**

4. Verses without Cæsura are very rare; a few are found in Ennius (see No. 23) and Lucilius. Horace uses one designedly in A.P., 262.

5. Elision is found most often in Vergil (one case in every two verses) and least often in Lucan (leaving out Ennius and Claudian). Catullus, Juvenal, Horace, Ovid stand about midway between these two extremes. It is very rare in the Thesis of the first foot, and is found oftnest in the following order: the Thesis of the second foot, the Aoris of the fourth, the Aoris of the first, the Thesis of the third.

6. Simple Hiatus is very rare in lines composed wholly of Latin words, except at the principal Cæsura; it is found after a final short syllable (excluding -mu) but twice (V., Ec., ii. 53; A., i. 405); after a long monosyllable (omitting Interjections o and i) but once (V., A., iv. 235). But before the principal Cæsura, or if the line contains a Greek word, examples are not very uncommon. Vergil has altogether about forty cases; Horace shows two cases (S., i. 1, 108; Epod., 13, 3); Catullus two in the Hexameter of the Elegiac Distich (66, 11; 107, 1); Propertius one (iii. 7, 49).

7. Of Semi-hiatus Vergil shows some ten examples at the close of the Dactyl, but all Greek words except A., i. 21; Ec., 3, 79; there are occasional examples elsewhere, as in Propertius, Horace, etc. There are also several examples of Semi-hiatus after a monosyllable in the first short of the Dactyl, as: Cat., xvii. 7; V., A., vi. 507; Hor., S., i. 9, 88. Hiatus after nam occurs in Hor., S., ii. 2, 28.

8. Vergil is fond of Díastóê, showing fifty-seven cases, all except three (A., iii. 464, 702; xii. 648) of syllables ending in a consonant; Horace, in Satires and Epistles, has eleven, once only of a vowel (S., ii. 3, 22); Catullus, three; Propertius, three; Tibullus, four; Martial (in the Distich), two; Vergil also lengthens que sixteen times, but only when que is repeated in the verse, and before two consonants or a double consonant (except A., iii. 91); Ovid exercises no such care.

9. A short syllable formed by a final short vowel remains short before two consonants, of which the second is not a liquid (mainly sc, sp, st), especially in the fifth foot, less often in the first. Lucilius, Lucretius, and Ennius have numerous examples of this; Vergil but one case (A., xi. 309), except before z; Horace has eight cases in the Satires; Propertius six; Tibullus two cases, one before smaragdos.

10. A Hexameter should close (a) with a dissyllable preceded by a polysyllable of at least three syllables, or (b) with a trisyllable preceded by a word of at least two syllables. The preposition is proclitic to its case. Exceptions to this rule are common in early Latin, but decrease later. Thus Ennius shows fourteenth per cent. of exceptional lines. In later times artistic reasons sometimes caused the employment even of a monosyllable at the end (see exx. 18, 19).

11. Spondaic lines are exceptional in Ennius and Lucretius, more common in
CATULLUS, rare in VERGIL, OVID, HORACE, never in TIBULLUS. The stricter poets required that in this case the fourth foot should be a Dactyl, and then the two last feet were usually a single word. Entirely Spondaic lines are found in ENNIUS (three cases, as Ann., i. 66, m.) and CAT. (i16, 3).

12. ENNIUS shows three peculiar cases of the resolution of the Thesis in the Dactyl, Ann., 267; Sat., 53 and 59.

13. Hypermetrical verses running into the next by Synapheia are rare; e.g., LUCR., v. 246; CAT., 64, 203; 115, 5. VERGIL has twenty cases, usually involving quo or ve, but twice -m (A., vii. 160; G., i., 293); three other cases are doubtful. HORACE has two cases (in the SATIRES), OVID three, VALERIUS FLACCUS one. HORACE has also four cases of two verses united by tmesis of a compound word.

14. Pure dactylic lines are rare; the most usual forms of the first four feet of the stichic measure are these: dsss, 15 per cent.; dssd, 11.8 per cent.; ddss, 11 per cent.; sdds, 10 per cent. The most uncommon are ssdd, 1.9 per cent.; ssdd, 2 per cent. The proportion of Spondees to Dactyl in the first four feet varies from 65.8 per cent. of Spondees in CATULLUS to 45.2 per cent. in OVID. The following statements are from Drobisch: (a) Excepting ENNIUS, CICERO, and SILIUS ITALICUS, Latin poets have more Dactyls than Spondees in the first foot. (b) Excepting LUCRETIUS, more Spondees in the second. (c) Excepting VALERIUS FLACCUS, more Spondees in the third. (d) Without exception, more Spondees in the fourth.

15. Much of the beauty of the Hexameter depends on the selection and arrangement of the words, considered asmetrical elements. The examples given above have been chosen with especial reference to the picturesqueness of the verse. Mono-syllables at the end of the Hexameter denote surprise; anapaestic words, rapid movement, and the like. Again, the Hexameter may be lowered to a conversational tone by large masses of Spondees, and free handling of the Caesura. Compare the Hexameters of HORACE in the ODES with those in the SATIRES.

785. Elegiac Pentameter (Catalectic Trimeter repeated).

The Elegiac Pentameter consists of two Catalectic Trimeters or Penthelimers, the first of which admits Spondees, the second does not. There is a fixed Diæresis in the middle of the verse, as marked above, which is commonly supplemented by the semitermária Caesura. The Pentameter derives its name from the old measurement: — o o, — o o, — o — o, — o —; and the name is a convenient one, because the verse consists of 2½ + 2½ Dactyls. The Elegiac Distich is used in sentimental, amatory, epigrammatic poetry.

The musical measurement of the Pentameter is as follows:

\[ \text{At dolor in lacrimas | verterat omne merum, Tib.} \]
\[ \text{Mé legat et lecto | carneae doctus amet, Ov.} \]
\[ \text{At nunc barbaris | grandis habere nihil, Ov.} \]
\[ \text{Concessum nullâ | legé redíbit iter, Prop.} \]

This shows why neither Syllaba Anceps nor Hiatus is allowed at the Diæresis, and explains the preference for length by nature at that point.
The Elegiac Pentameter occurs only as a Clausula to the Heroic Hexameter, with which it forms the Elegiac Distich. Consequently the sense should not run into the following Hexameter (exceptions rare):

Saep(e) ego tentāvī curās dépelle re víno
At dolor in lae crīmās || ver terat omne merum, Tib.
Ingenium quondam fuerat pretiōsius aurō
At nunc barbarīs || grandis habēre nihil, Ov.
Pār erat inferior versus : rīsisse Cupīdō
Dicītur atque ūnum || surripisse pedem, Ov.
Saep(e) ego cum domīnae dulcēs & līmine dūrō
Āgnōscō vöcēs || haec negat esse domī, Tib.

Notes.—1. In the first two feet of the Pentameter, which alone can suffer variation, the forms are as follows: ds, 46 per cent.; dd, 24.5 per cent.; ss, 16 per cent.; sd, 13.5 per cent. Catullus, however, has ss, 34.5 per cent.

2. Ellision is rare, especially in the second hemistich. When it occurs it is generally in the first Arsis or second Thesis, and usually affects a short vowel or -m. Catullus shows the greatest proportion of examples, Ovid the smallest. Except in Catullus and Lygdamus there are fewer cases of Ellision in the Pentameter than in the Hexameter.

3. Ellision and Distolē in the Diacesis are rare. Catullus especially, and Propertius occasionally, have Ellision. Propertius and Martial show each two cases of Distolē (Prop., II. 8, 8; II. 24, 4; Mart., IX. 101, 4; XIV. 77, 2).

4. A final short vowel before two consonants, one of which is a liquid or s, is lengthened twice in Tibullus, and remains short once in Propertius (Tib., I. 5, 28; I. 6, 34; Prop., IV. 4, 48).

5. Dialysis occurs in compounds of solvō and solvō; as, Cat., 66, 74; Tib., I. 7, 2, etc.

6. In the strict handling of the Pentameter by Ovid, the rule was that it should close with a dissyllable. So in his Amores, Ovid shows no example of any other ending; and in his Tristia the proportion is one in one hundred and forty lines. In earlier times, however, there was no especial avoidance of polysyllabic endings, though more are found in Catullus than in any other author. Peculiar is Propertius, who, while almost equalling Catullus in his disregard of the law of the dissyllabic ending in the first book, equals the Tristia of Ovid in the observance of it in his fourth. With dissyllabic ending the prevailing forms of the second Hemistich are — , — , — , — , and — , — , — , — , but Tibullus and Ovid, and in less degree Catullus, employ quite often — , — , — , and — , — , — .

786. Dactylic Tetrameter Acat. (metrum Alcmānium).

Nūnc decet aūt virīdī nitīdum caput
Pālīda mōrs aequō pulsát pede
Vītae sūmmā brevīs spem nōs vetat
This verse occurs mainly in combination with an Ithyphallic to form the Greater Archilochian verse; occasionally in stichic composition in Seneca; also in Ter., And., 625.

787. Dactylic Tetrameter Cat. in Dissyllabum (Archilochium).

Aūt Ephesōn bimarīsve Corīnthī
Ō fortēs peīōraque pāsī
Mēnsōrēm cohibēnt Archyta, Hor
NOTE.—This line, which only occurs in the Alcmanian System, may also be looked upon as an Acatalectic Tetrameter with a spondaic close.

788. Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic in Syllabam (Lesser Archilochian).

Pulvis et umbra sumus, Hor.

Note.—This line occurs mainly in the first three Archilochian Strophes.

789. Dactylic Dimeter Catalectic in Dissyllabum (Adônic).

Terrarit urbem, Hor.

Note.—Though generally measured thus, this verse is properly logaoedic, and will recur under that head (792). It occurs mainly in the Sapphic stanza, and at the close of series of Sapphic Hendecasyllabics in Seneca.

Logaoedic Rhythms.

790. The Logaoedic Rhythm is a peculiar form of the Trochaic rhythm, in which the Arsis has a stronger secondary ictus than the ordinary Trochee.

Instead of the Trochee, the cyclic Dactyl or the irrational Trochee may be employed. This cyclic Dactyl is represented in morae by $1\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $1$; in music, by $\frac{3}{16}$, $\frac{1}{16}$, $\frac{1}{8}$.

When Dactyls are employed, the Trochee preceding is called a Basis, or Tread, commonly marked $\times$. If the basis is double, the second is almost always irrational in Latin poetry. Instead of the Trochee, an Iambus is sometimes prefixed. Anacrusis and Syncopé are also found.

Remarks.—1. Logaoedic comes from λόγος, prose, and ἀοιδή, song, perhaps because the rhythms seem to vary as in prose.
2. Dactyls are usually, but not necessarily, employed.

No Dactyl.

791. Alcaic Enneasyllabic.

Sì fractus illabâtur orbis, Hor.

Note.—The Anacrusis should be long. Horace shows no exceptions in the fourth book and very few in the first three. The regular Cæsura is the sêmiquinâria.

One Dactyl.

792. Adônic.

Terrarit urbem, Hor.

Note.—Elision is not allowed in this verse. As far as its formation is concerned, it should consist either of a dissyllable + a trisyllable, or the reverse. Proclitics and enclitics go with their principals.
793. Aristophanic (Choriambic).
Lydia dic per omnes, Hor.  
\[ \text{\textsuperscript{CV}} | \text{\textsuperscript{CV}} | \text{\textsuperscript{C}} | \text{\textsuperscript{C}} \]

Note.—This verse occurs mainly in the lesser Sapphic Strophe of Horace.

One Dactyl, with Basis.

794. Pherecratean.
Nigris aequora ventis, Hor.  
\[ \text{\textsuperscript{C}} > | \text{\textsuperscript{CV}} | \text{\textsuperscript{C}} | \text{\textsuperscript{C}} \]

Note.—This verse occurs in the fourth Asclepiadæan Strophe of Horace; also in Catullus (xvii.) and the Priapæa. No Elision is allowed by Horace, and there is no regular Caesura.

795. Glyconic.
Émbrábitur insolēns, Hor.  
\[ \text{\textsuperscript{C}} > | \text{\textsuperscript{CV}} | \text{\textsuperscript{C}} | \text{\textsuperscript{C}} \]

Note.—This occurs in the second, third, and fourth Asclepiadæan strophes of Horace; also in Catullus (xvii.) and the Priapæa. There is generally the semiter-naria Caesura; occasionally instead of it a Second Trochee. Elision of long syllables is very rare in Horace; Elision of a short before the long of the Dactyl more often. Horace also shows occasional liberties, such as Diastolē (O., iii. 24, 5), Dialysis (O., i. 23, 4), and lines ending with monosyllables (O., i. 3, 19; i. 19, 13; iv. 1, 33).

796. Phalaecæan (Hendecasyllabic).
Passer mortuus est meæ puellæ.  
\[ \text{\textsuperscript{C}} \]  
Arida modo pumicæ(s) expolitum  
\[ \text{\textsuperscript{C}} > | \text{\textsuperscript{CV}} | \text{\textsuperscript{C}} | \text{\textsuperscript{C}} \]
Tuæ Lésbia sint satís supérque. Cat. : —

Notes.—1. This verse, introduced into Latin by Laevius, was used very often by Catullus, Martial, Pliny Minor, Petronius, and Statius, as well as in the Priapæa and elsewhere.

2. In Greek the Basis was not unfrequently an Iambns. So, too, in Catullus, but the tendency in Latin was to make it a Spondee; thus, in the Priapæa, Petronius, and Martial it is always so, while Statius has but one case of a Trochee, and Ausonius but one of an Iambns.

3. The principal Caesura is the semiquinaria; but Catullus uses also almost as frequently Diacisis after the second foot. Occasionally there is a Diacisis after the third foot, supplemented by a Second Trochee Caesura.

4. Elision is very common in Catullus; in the Priapæa, Martial, and later it is very rare, if we exclude Apherēsis from consideration. Hardening (723) is occasional, and Catullus shows a few cases of Semihiatns. A monosyllabic ending is very rare, with the exception of es and est.

5. Catullus, in 55, apparently shows a mixture of regular Phalaecæans and spurious Phalaecæans in which the Dactyl is supplanted by a Spondee. The poem is still under discussion.

One Dactyl, with Double Basis.

797. Sapphic (Hendecasyllabic).
Audiēt civés f acussé séerrum, Hor.  
\[ \text{\textsuperscript{CV}} | \text{\textsuperscript{CV}} | \text{\textsuperscript{C}} | \text{\textsuperscript{C}} \]

Notes.—1. In the Greek measure, often retained in Catullus, the Dactyl is measured \( -\text{\textsuperscript{C}} \); in Horace, owing to a strong Caesura after the long it is regularly \( -\text{\textsuperscript{C}} \).
Further, Catullus, like the Greeks, employed occasionally a Trochee in the second foot; Horace made it a rule to employ only a Spondee there.

2. The regular Caesura in Latin is the semiquinaria; but the Third Trochee (784, n. 2) is found not unfrequently in Catullus and Horace, but not later. The usage of Horace is peculiar in this respect: In the first and second books there are seven cases in two hundred and eighty-five verses; in the third none at all; in the fourth twenty-two in one hundred and five verses; in the Carmen Seculare nineteen in fifty-seven verses.

3. Elision is very common in Catullus, but occurs in Horace only in about one verse in ten. Later usage tends to restrict Elision. Licenses are extremely rare in the classical period. So Horace shows one example of Diastole (O., ii. 6, 14). Mono-syllabic endings are not common, but the word is usually attached closely with what precedes. The last syllable is regularly long.

4. Seneca shows some peculiarities: occasionally a Dactyl in the second foot, or a Spondee in the third; occasionally also Dialysis.

**One Dactyl with Double Basis and Anacrusis.**

798. Alcaic (Greater) Hendecasyllabic.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Vidés ut alta | stét nive candidáum} & \quad \mathbf{\cap} \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{\cap} \mathbf{x} \\
\text{Sórácte néc iam | sustineánt onús, Hor.} & \quad \mathbf{\cap} \mathbf{\cap} \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{\cap} \mathbf{\cap} \mathbf{x}
\end{align*}
\]

Notes. — 1. The second Basis is always a Spondee; the few exceptions having been emended. The Anacrusis is regularly long; Horace shows no exception in the fourth book and very few in the first three. The last syllable may be long or short.

2. The regular Caesura is a Diacesis after the second foot; Horace shows but two exceptions in six hundred and thirty-four verses (O., i. 37, 14; iv. 14, 17). A few others show imperfect Caesura, as O., i. 16, 21; i. 37, 5; ii. 17, 21.

3. In regard to Elision, the facts are the same as in the case of the Sapphic.

4. Licenses are not common: Diastolé occurs in II., O., iii. 5, 17; Hardening (723) occurs in II., O., iii. 4, 41; iii. 6, 6. Thesim is not unfrequent in forms of quicumque (II., O., i. 9, 14; i. 16, 2; i. 27, 14).

**Two Dactyls.**

799. Alcaic (Lesser) or Decasyllabic.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Vértère funeribus triumphós, Hor.} & \quad \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{\cap} \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{\cap} \mathbf{x} \quad \mathbf{\cap} \mathbf{x}
\end{align*}
\]

Note. — The Caesura is regularly the semitermínaria, occasionally the Second Trochee. Elision occurs a little less often in this measure than in the Hendecasyllabic. The last syllable is usually long. Diastolé occurs in II., O., ii. 13, 16.

In all these, the Dactyl has a diminished value. More questionable is the logaeóid character of the Greater Archilochian:

800. Archilochian (Greater) = Dactylic Tetrameter and Trochaic Tripody.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Sólvtur ácris hiéms grátá vice | vérís ét Favóni, Hor.}
\end{align*}
\]
If measured logaoedically, the two shorts of the Dactyl must be reduced in value to one \( \sim = \circ \), and the logaoedic scheme is

\[ \sim > | \sim > | \sim > | \sim > | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | - \wedge \]

Logaoedic tetrapody + Logaoedic tetrapody with Syncopé.

Note.—Diérésis is always found after the fourth foot, which is always Dactylic. The principal Césura is the sémiqûnâria. In the third foot a Spondee is preferred, whereas the Greek model has more often the Dactyl.

801. Choriambic Rhythms.—When a logaoedic series is syncopated, apparent choriambi arise. What is \( \sim \sim \) seems to be \( \sim \sim \sim \). Genuine choriambi do not exist in Latin, except, perhaps, in the single line Pl., Men., 110.

802. Asclépiadéan (Lesser).

This verse is formed by a Catalectic Phercrapean followed by a Catalectic Aristophanic.

\[ \text{Máecénás atavis} \| \text{édite régibus,} \times \]
\[ \text{Hor.} \]
\[ \sim > | \sim \sim | \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | - \wedge \]

Notes.—1. There should be Diérésis, complete or incomplete (i.e., weakened by Elision), between the two halves. Only two exceptions are cited (H., O., ii. 12, 25; iv. 8, 17). The Césura is regularly the sémîlternâria in Horace, less often the Second Trochee.

2. Elision occurs about as often as in the Elegiac Pentameter. It occurs most often in the first Dactyl and in the stichic measure. The final syllable may be short or long; but a monosyllable is rare. Licenses are likewise rare, as Diastolé (H., O., i. 3, 30).

803. Asclépiadéan (Greater).

\[ \text{Nállam Váre sacrá} \| \text{víte priús} \| \text{sêveris árborem,} \text{Hor.} \]
\[ \times \]
\[ \sim > | \sim \sim | \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | - \wedge \]

Note.—This verse differs from the preceding by having a Catalectic Adonic (792) inserted between the two halves. Diérésis always separates the parts in Horace. The rules of Elision are the same as in the preceding verse.

804. Sapphic (Greater).

\[ \text{Té deós órō Sybarín} \| \text{cûr properâs amândō,} \text{Hor.} \]
\[ \times \]
\[ \sim \sim | \sim | \sim > | \sim \sim | \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | - \wedge \]

Note.—This verse differs from the lesser Sapphic by the insertion of a catalectic Adonic. It is found only in Horace (O., i. 8). Diérésis always occurs after the fourth foot, and there is also a sémiqûnâria Césura.
805. Priapean (Glyconic + Pherecratean).

Hunc lúcum tibi dédicó | consecrōque Priápe, CAT.

\[ \times > \mid \times \times \mid \times \times \mid \times \times \mid \times \times \mid \times \times \mid \times \times \mid \times \times \]

Note.—Diaeresis always follows the Glyconic, but neither Hiatus nor Syllaba Anceps is allowable. The verse occurs in CAT. 17 and Priap. 85.

Cretic and Bacchic Rhythms.

806. These passionate rhythms are found not unfrequently in Plautus and occasionally elsewhere. They both belong to the Quinquepartite or Five-Eighths class.

The distribution of the Créticus is \(3 + 2\) morae.

The metrical value of the Créticus is \(\text{-}\text{-}\) (Amphimacer).

For it may be substituted the First Pæon, \(\text{-}\text{-}\text{-}\text{-}\), or the Fourth Pæon, \(\text{\text{-}\text{-}\text{-}\text{-}\text{-}}\).

Note.—Double resolution in the same foot is not allowable, and there is rarely more than one resolution in a verse. Instead of the middle short an irrational long is sometimes found.

807. Tetrameter Acataleptic.

\[ \times \times \mid \times \times \mid \times \times \mid \times \times \]

Ex bonis péssum(t) et frauduléntíssumí, PL., Capt., 235.

Note.—Resolution is not allowed at the end nor in the second foot immediately before a Cæsura. The Arsis immediately preceding (i.e., of the second and fourth foot) is regularly pure.

808. Tetrameter Cataleptic.

\[ \times \times \mid \times \times \mid \times \times \mid \times \times \]

Dá mi(hi) hoc mél meúm sí m(e) amás s(t)aúdés, PL., Trin., 244.

Note.—The existence of such lines is disputed, but the balance of authority seems to be in favor of recognising them.

809. Dimeter Acataleptic.

Nosce sált(em) húnc quis ést, PL., Ps., 262.

\[ \times \times \mid \times \times \]

Note.—This verse is found usually at the close of a Cretic system, or with Trochaic Septernarii. It follows the same rules as the Tetrameter, that is, the last long is not resolved and the second Arsis is kept pure.

810. Acataleptic Cretic Trimeters are rare and not always certain.

Compare PL., Trin., 267, 269, 271; Ps., 1119; Most., 338; Catalectic Trimeters and Dimeters are even more uncertain. Compare PL., Trin., 275; Truc., 121.

811. The Bacchius has the following measure: \(\times \times \), \(= 1 + 2 + 2 + 1\) morae (\(\text{\text{-}\text{-}\text{-}\text{-}}\)), or if the descending form \(\times \times \times\) be regarded as the normal one \(2 + 2 + 1\) morae (\(\text{\text{-}\text{-}\text{-}\text{-}}\)).
VERSIFICATION.

For the long two shorts are sometimes substituted. On the other hand, an irrational long may be used for the short, and occasionally two shorts are also thus used.

812. Bacchic Tetrameter.

Quibus nēc locūst āllu' nēc spēs parātā
Misericōrdīōr nūlla mēst fēminārūm

Note.—In this verse there is usually a Cæsura after either the second or third Iambus; rarely Diaeresis after the second Bacchius. The Arsis is kept pure in the second and fourth feet if the following long closes a word. Not more than one dissyllabic Arsis is allowable. Usually there is only one resolved Thesis, very rarely two, never more than three.

813. Dimeter Acatalectic.

Ad āetāt(em) agūndām, Pl., Trin., 232.

Note.—This is rare except at the close of a Bacchic series, to form the transition to another rhythm.

814. Bacchic Hexameter occurs in nine lines in a monologue in Pl., Am., 633-642. Hypermetric combination into systems is found in Pl., Men., 571 ff, and Varro, Sat., p. 195 (r.).

Ionic Rhythm.

815. The Ionic Rhythm is represented by Iōnicus ā māiōre For the Iōnicus ā māiōre may be substituted the Ditrochaeus - - - . This is called Anáclasisis (breaking-up).

The verse is commonly anacrustic, so that it begins with the thesis - - - . Such verses are called Iōnicī ā minōre.

The second long has a strong secondary ictus.

In the early Latin, beginning with Ennius, the verse was used with much license. Resolution of the long syllables was common as well as the use of irrational long, and the contraction of two short syllables into a long. Horace alone shows the pure Ionic.

The Iōnicus is an excited measure, and serves to express the frenzy of distress as well as the madness of triumph.

816. Tetrameter Catalectic Ionic ā māiōre (Sōtadēan).

This measure, introduced by Ennius, was used with great freedom by the earlier poets; but a stricter handling is found in later Latin poets, as Petronius, Martial, etc.
Nām quam varia sīnt genera
poēmatōrum, Baebī,
Quāmque longē discinct(a) ali(a)
āb alis, sic nōsce.—Accius.
Later Latin:
The most common scheme is the pure Ionic with Anacrasis, especially in the third foot. Irrational longs are not used, and there is rarely more than one resolution, as: \(\ldots\). Mōllēs veterēs Dēliaēf manū recsī tēr corripuī terribilēm manū bipēnumem.
—Prop.

817. A combination of the Ionic \(\text{a māiōre}\) into systems is found in Lævius, who has a system of ten followed by a system of nine. Some traces of similar arrangement have been observed in the Satires of Varro.

818. Tetrameter Catalectic Ionic \(\text{a minōre}\) (Galliambic).

This verse was introduced by Varro in his \(\text{Menippēan Satires}\), and appears also in Catullus, 63, and in some fragments of Maecenas.

In Catullus the two short syllables may be contracted (ten times in the first foot, six times in the third), and the long may be resolved, but not twice in the same Dimeter (except 63), and very rarely in the first foot of the second Dimeter (once in 91), but almost regularly in the penultimate long. Diaeresis between the two Dimeters is regular. Anacrasis is found in the majority of the lines; regularly in the first Dimeter (except 18, 54, 75).

The frequent resolutions and conversions give this verse a peculiarly wild character.

Ordinary Scheme:
Without Anacrasis: \(\ldots\)
With Anacrasis: \(\ldots\).
Anacrustic Scheme:
Without Anacrasis: \(\ldots\)
With Anacrasis: \(\ldots\).
Et eār(um) omni(a) adīrem furi-
būnda latibulā
Quō nōs decent cītātis celerāre tri-
pudiīs
Itaqu(e) út domum Cybēbēs teti-
gēre lassulaē

Itaqu(e) út domum Cybēbēs teti-
gēre lassulaē
Super álta vectus Áttis celerí rate
mariá
Iam iám dolet quod égl iam iám
que paenitét.—Cat.

819. Dimeter Catalectic Ionic à minóre (Anacreontic).

This verse is found first in LAEVIVUS, then in SENECA, PETRONIUS, and later. Anacolasis is regular in the first foot. The long syllable may be resolved, or the two shorts at the beginning may be contracted. The verse may end in a Syllaba Anceps.

Vener(em) ígitur álrum(um) adórãns
Seu fém(a) èsve más est
It(a) ut álba Nóctilúcast.

Note.—Owing to the similarity of the verse to the Iambic Quaternarius Catalectic it is also called the Hemiambic.

Compound Verses.

820. Iambelegus (Iambic Dimeter and Dactylic Trimeter Cat.).

This verse occurs only in the second Archilochian Strophe of HOrACE, and is often scanned as two verses:

Tú vína Tórquató mové || cónsule présá meó.—HOR.

821. Elegiambus (Dactylic Trimeter Cat. and Iambic Dimeter).

This verse occurs only in the third Archilochian Strophe of HOrACE, and is often scanned as two verses:

Désinet ímparíbus || certáre súbstótús pudórr.—HOR.

822. Versus Reiziánus (Iambic Dimeter and Anapaestic Tripody Catalectic).

Redi, quó fugis nunc? ténē tenē. || Quid stólídē clámās?
Qui(a) ěd trís vīrōs i(am) ego déferam || Nómen tūōm. Qu(aim) óbrem?

Note.—From the time of REIZ, after whom this verse has been named, it has been the subject of a great deal of discussion. In regard to the first part of the verse there
VERSIFICATION.

is considerable unanimity, in regard to the second opinions differ. Some regard it as an Iambic Dimeter Catalectic Syncopated \( \square \square \) ; others as an Iambic Tripody Catalectic \( \square \square \square \). SPENGEL regards it as a Hypercatalectic Anapaestic Monometer, and he has been followed with a variation in the nomenclature in the above scheme. Leo regards it as Logaeodic. The most recent view (KLOTZ) regards it as sometimes Logaeodic, and sometimes Anapaestic.

823. 1. PLAUTUS shows several verses compounded of a Cretic Dimeter and a Catalectic Trochaic Tripody. These verses are usually, but not always, separated by Diaeresis. Examples: Ps., 1285, 1287.

2. Some authorities consider verses like PL., Most., 693, Rud., 209, compounded of a Cretic Dimeter and a Clausula. Others regard them as Catalectic Cretic Tetrameters.

The Cantica of Early Latin.

824. The construction of the Cantica (in the narrow sense) of PLAUTUS and TERENCE is still a matter of dispute. Three opinions have been advanced. One looks at them as antistrophic, following the scheme A.B.B.; others hold that the scheme is A.B.A. The third view is that with some exceptions the Cantica are irregular compositions, without a fixed principle of response.

In TERENCE, Trochaic Octonarii are always followed by Trochaic Septenarii, and very frequently the Trochaic Septenarii are followed by Iambic Octonarii. In PLAUTUS there are long series of Cretic and Bacchic verses, and sometimes these alternate, without, however, any regular scheme, with other verses.


The Cantica of Later Latin.

825. 1. The Cantica of SENECA are composed mostly in Anapaestic Dimeters, closed frequently, though not necessarily, by a Monometer. A Dactyl is common in the first and third feet. The Spondee is likewise very common, a favourite close being \( - \square - \). The Diaeresis between the Dimeters is regular. Examples: Herc. Fur., 125–203. In Ag., 310–407, Dimeters and Monometers alternate.

2. Iambic Dimeters, occasionally alternating with Trimeters, but usually stichic, are found occasionally; as Med., 771–786.
3. Peculiar to Seneca is the use of a large variety of Logaeidie measures in his Cantica. So we find not unfrequently the following in stichic repetition: Lesser Aselepiadeans, Glyconics, Sapphie Hendecasyllabics, Adonics, and other imitations of Horatian measures; but there are few traces of antistrophic arrangement.

**Lyric Metres of Horace.**

826. In the schemes that follow, the Roman numerals refer to periods, the Arabic to the number of feet or bars, the dots indicate the end of a line.

I. **Asclepiadean** Strophe No. 1. Lesser Aselepiadean Verse (802) repeated in tetrastichs.

\[\begin{align*}
\times & | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | - \wedge | 3 \\
\times & | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | - \wedge | 3 \\
\times & | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | - \wedge | 3 \\
\times & | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | - \wedge | 3 \\
\end{align*}\]

O., i. 1; iii. 30; iv. 8.

II. **Asclepiadean** Strophe No. 2. Glyconics (795) and Lesser Aselepiadean (802) alternating, and so forming tetrastichs.

\[\begin{align*}
\times & | \sim \sim | - \sim | - \wedge | 4 \\
\times & | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | - \wedge | 3 \\
\times & | \sim \sim | - \sim | - \wedge | 4 \\
\times & | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | - \wedge | 3 \\
\end{align*}\]

O., i. 3, 13, 19, 36; iii. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; iv. 1, 3.

III. **Asclepiadean** Strophe No. 3. Three Lesser Aselepiadean Verses (802) followed by a Glyconic (795).

\[\begin{align*}
\times & | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | - \wedge | 3 \\
\times & | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | - \wedge | 3 \\
\times & | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | - \wedge | 3 \\
\times & | \sim \sim | - \sim | - \wedge | 4 \\
\end{align*}\]

O., i. 6, 15, 24, 33; ii. 12; iii. 10, 16; iv. 5, 12.
IV. Asclèpiadèan Strophe No. 4. Two Lesser Asclepiadean Verses (802), a Pherecratean (794), and a Glyconic (795).

I. $\rightarrow | \sim \sim | \sim | \sim | - - | - \wedge | I$. 3

II. $\rightarrow | \sim \sim | \sim | \sim | - - | - \wedge | II$. 3

O., I. 5, 14, 21, 23; III. 7, 13; IV. 13.

V. Asclèpiadèan Strophe No. 5. Greater Asclepiadean (803), repeated in fours.

I. $\rightarrow | \sim \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | - - | - \wedge | I$. 2

O., I. 11, 18; IV. 10.

VI. Sapphic Strophe. Three Lesser Sapphics (797), and an Adonic (792), which is merely a Clausula. In the Sapphic Horace regularly breaks the Dactyl.

O., I. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; II. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; III. 8, II, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; IV. 2, 6, 11; Carmen Saeculare.

Note.—In Greek the third and fourth verses run together to form a single verse. In Latin this is rare; one case is found in Catullus, xi. 11, and three in Horace, O., i. 2, 19; 25, 11; ii. 16, 7; but the occurrence of Hiatus between the two lines in Horace (O., i. 2, 47; ii. 7; xii. 31; 22, 15, etc.) may be considered as indicating that the verses were conceived as separate. Elision and Hiatus are also occasionally found in the lines. Elision, second and third: Cat., xi, 22; H., O., ii. 2, 18; xvi, 34; iv. 2, 22; third and fourth: Cat., xi, 19; H., O., iv. 2, 23; C.S., 47. Hiatus, first and second: H., O., i. 2, 41; xii, 25; ii. 16, 5; iii. xi, 29; 27, 33; second and third: H., O., i. 2, 6; ii, 2; 25, 18; 30, 6; ii. 2, 6; 4, 6; iii. xi, 50; 27, 10.
VERSIFICATION.

VII. Lesser Sapphic Strophe. Aristophanic (793), and Greater Sapphic (804). Two pairs are combined into a tetrastich.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
\text{Line} & \text{Syllables} \\
\hline
1 & -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ & 4 \\
2 & -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ & 4 \\
\end{array}
\]

O., 1. 8.

VIII. Alcaic Strophe. Two Alcaic verses of eleven syllables (798), a Trochaic Quaternarius with Anacrusis (772), and one Alcaic verse of ten (799).

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
\text{Line} & \text{Syllables} \\
\hline
1 & -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ & 5 \\
2 & -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ & 5 \\
\end{array}
\]

O., 1. 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, 15, 17.

Note.—Elision between the verses is much more rare than in the Sapphic strophe; it occurs but twice: O., II. 3, 27; III. 29, 35. Hiatus, on the other hand, is very common.

IX. Archilochian Strophe No. 1. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), and a Lesser Archilochian (788), two pairs to a tetrastich.

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
\text{Line} & \text{Syllables} \\
\hline
1 & -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ & 3 \\
2 & -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ & 3 \\
\end{array}
\]

O., IV. 7.

X. Archilochian Strophe No. 2. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), and an Iambelagus (820).

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}
\text{Line} & \text{Syllables} \\
\hline
1 & -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ & 3 \\
2 & -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ | -\circ & 3 \\
\end{array}
\]

Epod., 13.
XI. Archilochian Strophe No. 3. An Iambic Trimeter (762), followed by an Elegibampus (821).

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Epod., 11.}
\end{array}
\]

XII. Archilochian Strophe No. 4. A Greater Archilochian (800), and a Trimeter Iambic Catalectic (763). Two pairs combined to form a tetrastich.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Epod., 1. 4.}
\end{array}
\]

This verse may be considered as Logaeedic, thus (800):

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Epod., 12.}
\end{array}
\]

Note.—The Tetrameter may be considered acatalectic with a Spondee in the fourth place (787, N.).

XIII. Alcmanian Strophe. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), followed by a Catalectic Dactylic Tetrameter (787).

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Epod., 1-10.}
\end{array}
\]

XIV. Iambic Trimeter repeated (762).

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Epod., 17.}
\end{array}
\]

XV. Iambic Strophe. Iambic Trimeter (762), and Dimeter (765).

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Epod., 1-10.}
\end{array}
\]
XVI. *Pythiambic* Strophe No. 1. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), or Versus Pythius, and an Iambic Dimeter (765).

\[\text{(Pythiambic Strophe No. 1)}\]

\[\text{Epod., 14, 15.}\]

XVII. *Pythiambic* Strophe No. 2. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), and an Iambic Trimeter (760).

\[\text{(Pythiambic Strophe No. 2)}\]

\[\text{Epod., 16.}\]

XVIII. *Trochaic* Strophe. A Catalectic Trochaic Dimeter (772), and a Catalectic Iambic Trimeter (763). Two pairs make a tetra-stich.

\[\text{(Trochaic Strophe)}\]

\[\text{O., ii. 18.}\]

XIX. The *Ionic* System is found once in Horace; it consists of ten Iōnici a minōre feet, variously arranged by metrists. Some regard the system as composed of ten Tetrameters followed by a Dimeter. Others, with more probability, divide into two Dimeters followed by two Trimeters. The scheme may be made a māiōre by Anacrusis.

**Iōnicus a minōre scheme:**

| Miserārum(e)st neque amōri | \[\text{I. 2}\] |
| dare lūdum neque dulcī | \[\text{2}\] |
| mala vinō laver(e) aut examināri | \[\text{II. 3}\] |
| metuentēs patruae verbera linguae | \[\text{3}\] |

**Iōnicus a māiōre scheme:**

\[\text{O., iii. 12.}\]
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827. *Index of Horatian Odes and Metres.*

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Carmen Saeculare vi. Epod. 1–10 xv.
APPENDIX.

ROMAN CALENDAR.

The names of the Roman months were originally adjectives. The substantive mēnis, month, may or may not be expressed: (mēnis) Iānuārius, Februārius, and so on. Before Augustus, the months July and August were called, not Iūlius and Augustus, but Quīntilis and Sextilis.

The Romans counted backward from three points in the month, Calends (Kalendae), Nones (Nōnae), and Ides (Īdūs), to which the names of the months are added as adjectives: Kalendae Iānuāriae, Nōnae Februāriae, Īdūs Mārtiae. The Calends are the first day, the Nones the fifth, the Ides the thirteenth. In March, May, July, and October the Nones and Ides are two days later. Or thus:

In March, July, October, May,  
The Ides are on the fifteenth day,  
The Nones the seventh; but all besides  
Have two days less for Nones and Ides.

In counting backward ("come next Calends, next Nones, next Ides") the Romans used for "the day before" prīdiē with the Acc.: prīdiē Kalendās Iānuāriās, Dec. 31; prīdiē Nōnae Iān. = Jan. 4; prīdiē Īdūs Iān. = Jan. 12.

The longer intervals are expressed by ante diem tertium, quārtum, etc., before the Accusative, so that ante diem tertium Kal. Iān. means "two days before the Calends of January;" ante diem quārtum, or a. d. iv., or iv. Kal. Iān., "three days before," and so on. This remarkable combination is treated as one word, so that it can be used with the prepositions ex and in: ex ante diem iii. Nōnae Iūniās usque ad prīdiē Kal. Septembrēs, from June 3 to August 31; differre aliquid in ante diem xv. Kal. Nov., to postpone a matter to the 18th of October.

LEAP YEAR.—In leap year the intercalary day was counted between a. d. vi. Kal. Mārt. and a. d. vii. Kal. Mārt. It was called a. d. bis sextum Kal. Mārt., so that a. d. vii. Kal. Mārt. corresponded to our February 28, just as in the ordinary year.

To turn Roman Dates into English.

For Nones and Ides.—I. Add one to the date of the Nones and Ides, and subtract the given number.
For Calends.—II. Add two to the days of the preceding month, and subtract the given number.


Year.—To obtain the year B.C., subtract the given date from 754 (753 B.C. being the assumed date of the founding of Rome, anno urbis conditae). To obtain the year A.D., subtract 753.

Thus: Cicero was born 648, a. u. c. = 106 B.C.
Augustus died 767, a. u. c. = 14 A.D.

Note.—Before the reform of the Calendar by Julius Cæsar in B.C. 46, the year consisted of 355 days, divided into twelve months, of which March, May, Quintilis (July), and October had 31 days, February 28, the remainder 29. To rectify the Calendar, every second year, at the discretion of the Pontifices, a month of varying length, called mēnis intercalāris, was inserted after the 23d of February.

**ROMAN SYSTEMS OF MEASUREMENT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Long Measure</th>
<th>Square Measure</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 digiti</td>
<td>i palmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 palmi</td>
<td>i pes (11.65 in.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 palmi,</td>
<td>i cubitus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1½ pedēs</td>
<td>i gradus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2½ pedēs</td>
<td>i passus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 gradūs,</td>
<td>i stadium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 pedēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i25 passus</td>
<td>i mille passuum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 stadia</td>
<td>(mile)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i00 pedēs,</td>
<td>i scripulum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quadrāti</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 scripula</td>
<td>i clima</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 climata</td>
<td>i actus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 āctus</td>
<td>i iūgerum (acre)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The iūgerum contains 28,800 sq. ft. Rom.;
Eng. acre = 43,560 sq. ft.

**DRY MEASURE.**

| 1½ cyathī          | i acētābulum                         |
| 2 acētābula        | i quārtārius                         |
| 2 quārtārii        | i hēmina                             |
| 2 hēmina                | i sextārius                          |
| 8 sextārii          | i sēmodiūs                           |
| 2 sēmodiūs          | i modiūs (peck)                      |

**LIQUID MEASURE.**

| i½ cyathī          | i acētābulum                         |
| 2 acētābula        | i quārtārius                         |
| 2 quārtārii        | i hēmina                             |
| 2 hēmina           | i sextārius                          |
| 6 sextārii         | i congii                             |
| 4 congii           | i ūrna                               |
| 2 ūrnae            | i amphora                            |
| 20 amphora         | i culleus                            |

**ROMAN WEIGHTS.**

| 3 siliqueae        | i obolus                             |
| 2 obolī            | i scripulum                           |
| 2 scripula         | i drachma                             |
| 2 drachmae         | i sicilicus                           |
| 2 sicilīci        | i sēmūncia                            |
| 2 sēmūnciae        | i ūncia                              |
| 12 ūnciae          | i libra (pound)                       |
Notes.—1. The multiples of the uncia were: sèscúncia (1/16), sextāns (1/2), quadrāns (1/4), triëns (1/3), quincūnx (5/6), sēmis (1/2), septūnāx (7/8), bēs (1), dodrāns (9/8), dextāns (10), deūnx (11).

2. The libra was also called as (see below), which latter is taken as the unit in all measures, and the foregoing divisions applied to it. Hence, by substituting as for iugerum, we have deūnx as 1/4 of a iugerum, dextāns as 1/3, etc.

**ROMAN MONEY.**

The unit was originally the as (which was about a pound of copper), with its fractional divisions. This gradually depreciated, until, after the second Punic war, the unit had become a sèstertius, which was nominally 2½ assēs.

\[
\begin{align*}
2\frac{1}{2} \text{ assēs} & = 1 \text{ sèstertius} \quad (\text{about 25 denārīi = 1 aureus (nummus).} \\
& = 4 \text{ cts.}) \\
1000 \text{ sèstertii} & = 1 \text{ sèstertium} \\
2 \text{ sèstertii} & = 1 \text{ quinārius.} \\
2 \text{ quinārii} & = 1 \text{ dēnārius.}
\end{align*}
\]

**NOTE.**—Sèstertium (which may be a fossilised Gen. Pl. = sèstertiōrum) was modified by distributives (rarely by cardinals), thus: bīna sèstertia, 2000 sestertii. But in multiples of a million (decīēns centēna mīlia sèstertium, i.e., sèstertiōrum), centēna mīlia was regularly omitted, and sèstertium declined as a neuter singular. HS stands as well for sèstertius as sèstertium; and the meaning is regulated by the form of the numeral; thus HS viginti (XX) = 20 sèstertii; HS vicēna (XX) = 20 sèstertia, i.e., 20,000 sestertii.

**ROMAN NAMES.**

The Roman usually had three names; a nōmen, indicating the gēns, a cōgnōmen, indicating the familia in the gēns, and the praenōmen, indicating the individual in the familia.

The nōmina all end in ius. The cōgnōmina have various forms, in accordance with their derivation. For example: Q. Mūcius Scaevola (from scaevos, left hand).

The praenōmina are as follows, with their abbreviations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aulus</th>
<th>Lūcius</th>
<th>L.</th>
<th>Quintus, Q.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appius</td>
<td>Mārcus</td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>Servius, Ser.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gāius</td>
<td>Mānius</td>
<td>M'</td>
<td>Sextus, Sex.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Decimus</td>
<td>Numerīcius</td>
<td>Num.</td>
<td>Titus, T.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaesō</td>
<td>Pūblius</td>
<td>P.</td>
<td>Tiberius, Ti., Tib.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**NOTES.**—1. Adoption from one gēns into another was indicated by the termination -iānus. From the fourth century A.D. a second cōgnōmen was also called an āgnōmen.

2. Daughters had no peculiar praenōmina, but were called by the name of the gēns in which they were born. If there were two, they were distinguished as māior and minor; if more than two, by the numerals tertia, quártā, etc.
### INDEX OF VERBS.

[The References are to the Sections.]

| Ab-dō | ere | -didī | -ditum | 151, r. |
| Ab-igō | (ago) | ere | -ēgī | -āctum | 160, r. |
| Ab-iciō | (Iaciō) | ere | -īcēi | -iectum | 160, 3. |
| Ab-luō | ere | -lūi | -lūtum | 162. |
| Ab-nuō | ere | -nuī | -(nuitūrus) | 162. |
| Ab-oleō | ēre | ēvī | ītum | 137, b. |
| Ab-oleōscō | -ere | -ōlevī | -olītum | 140. |
| Ab-ripīō | (Rapiō) | -ere | -ripūi | -rep- tum | 160, 2. |
| Abs-condō | (dō) | ere | -dī | -didī | ītum | 151, r. |
| Ab-sistō | -ere | -stitī | 154, r. |
| Ab-sum | -esse | ab-fūi | ā-fūi | 117. |
| Ac-cendō | -ere | -cendī | -cēnsum | 160, 2. |
| Ac-cīdō | (cadō) | ere | -cīdī | 165, a. |
| Ac-cipō | (capō) | ere | -cēpī | -cep- tum | 160, 3. |
| Ac-colō | (colō) | ere | -colūi | -cultum | 152, 3. |
| Ac-cumbō | ere | -cubūi | -cubitum | 144. |
| Ac-currō | ere | ac-currī | -cursum | 155, 184, iii. |
| Acēō | ēre | acūi | to be sour. |
| Acēscō | ēre | acūi | to get sour. |
| Ac-quinō | (quaerō) | ere | -quisīvī | -quisītum | 137, c. |
| Acuō | ere | acūi | acūtum | 162. |
| Ad-dō | -ere | -didī | -ditum | 151, r. |
| Ad-imō | (emo) | ere | -ēmī | -emptum | 160, r. |
| Ad-īpīscor | I | ad-emptus sum | 165. |
| Ad-iusvō | āre | -iūvī | -iūtum | 158. |
| Ad-ōlēscō | ere | -ōlevī | -ultum | 140. |
| Ad-ōrior | -orīrī | -ortus sum | 166. |
| Ad-scīscō | ere | -scīvī | -scītum | 140. |
| Ad-sistō | -ere | -stitī | 154, r. |
| Ad-spiciō | ere | -spexī | -spectum | 150, r. |
| Ad-stō | -stāre | -stitī | 151, 2. |
| Ad-sum | ad-esse | ad-fuī | (af-fuī) | 117. |
| Ad-vesperāscō | ere | āvī | 140. |
| Aegrōscō | ere | to fall sick. |
| Af-fērō | -ferre | at-tuli | al-lūtum | 171. |
| Af-flīgō | ere | -flīxī | -flīctum | 147, 2. |
| Ag-credior | -credī | -gressus | 165. |
| Agnosco | ere | agnōvī | a-gnītum | (agnōtūrus) | 140. |
| Ago | ere | ēgī | āctum | 160, r. |
| Alīo | 175, r. |
| Albeō | ēre | to be white. |
| Algeō | ēre | alsi | 147, r. |
| Al-liciō | ere | -lexī | -lectum | 150, r. |
| Al-lixo | ere | -luī | -lūtum | 162. |
| Alō | ere | alūi | al(ī)tum | 142, 3. |
| Amb-igō | (ago) | ere | 172, r. |
| Amb-īō | (ēō) | īre | īvī (ī) | ītum | 169, 2, r. i. |
| Amiciō | īre | (amicīuī) | amictum | 142, 4, 161. |
| Amplector | ī | amplexus | 165. |
| Angō | ere | anxi | 149, b. |
| An-nuō | ere | annul (annūtum) | 162. |
| Ante-cellō | ere | 154. |
| Ante-stō | -stāre | -steti | 151, 2. |
| A-perīō | -īre | aperūi | apertum | 142, 4. |
| Apisciō | ī | aptus sum | 165. |
| Ap-petō | ere | īvī | ītum | 147, c. |
| Ap-plicō | āre | -plicūi | -plicitum | 152, 2. |
| Ap-pōnō | ere | -posūi | -positum | 139, l. |
| Arceō | ēre | arcul | { arctus, |
| Arcessō | (accersō) | ere | arcessīvī | -ītum | 137, e. |
| Ardeo | ēre | ārī | ārsum | 147, r. |
| Arēscō | ere | ārui | to become dry. |
| Argō | ere | argui | (argūtūrus) | 162. |
| Ar-ripīō | (Rapiō) | ere | uī | -reptum | 146. |
| A-scendō | (scandō) | ere | ī | scēnsum | 160, 2. |
| Ā-spiciō | ere | ā-spexī | ā-spectum | 150, r. |
| As-sentior | īrī | assēnsus sum | 166. |
| As-sideō | (sedēō) | ēre | -sōdī | -sessum | 159. |
| Assuecō | ere | -suēvī | -suētum | 140. |
| At-tendō | ere | -tendī | -tentum | 155. |
INDEX OF VERBS.

at-texō, ere, -textu, -textum, 152, 3.
at-tineō (teneō),  ere, uti, -tentum, 153, 1. a.
at-tingō (tangō), ere,attiγĭ, attac-tum, 155.
at-tollō, ere, to raise up.
audeō,  ēre, ausus sum, 167.
audiō,  ēre, ivī, itum. See 127.
auferrō, -fere, abstuli, ablātum, 171.
ageō, ēre, auxī, auctum, 147, 1. avē, 175, 4.
Balbūtīo, īre, to stutter.
batuō, ere, uī, 162.
bibō, ere, bibī, (bibitum), 154, 2.
Cado, ere, cecidī, caṣum, 153.
cacētīō, īre, to be blind.
caedo, ere, cecidī, caesium, 153.
calefaciō, ere, -fēcī, -factum, 160, 3; 173, n. 2.
calēscō, ere, calui, to get warm.
calēco, ēre, uī, to be skilled.
calveō,  ēre, to be old.
candeō,  ēre, uī, to shine.
cānēo,  ēre, to be gray.
canō, ere, ceceinī, cantum, 153.
capēssō,  ēre, ivī, itum, 137, c.
capiō, ere, cepī, captum, 126; 160, 3.
carpō, ere, carpsi, carpitum, 147, 2.
caveō, ēre, cāvī, cantum, 159.
cedo, 175, 6.
cēdo, ere, cēssī, cēssum, 147, 2.
cēnātus, 167, n. 1.
cēnsēo,  ēre, uī, cēnsum, 135, 1.a.
cernō, ere, crēvi, (crētum), 139.
ciēō  cliēre, cīvī, cītum, 137, b.
ciō  ēre, cingō,  ēre, cīnxī, cinctum, 149, b.
circum-dō, -dare, -dedi, -datum, 151, i.
circum-sistō, ere, stetī, 154, 1.
circum-stō, stāre, stetti, 151, 2.
claudō, ere, clausī, clausum, 147, 2.
clēpō, ere, (clēpī), cleptum, 147, 2.
co-alēscō, ere, -alui, (-alitum), 140, 145.
co-arguō, ere, uī, 162.
co-emō, ere, -ēmī, -ēm(p) tum, 160, 1.
coepī, coepisse, 175, 5, a.
INDEX OF VERBS.

cön-fiteor (fateor), ēri, -fessus, 164.
con-fīgō, ere, -flexi, -flexum, 147, 2.
con-fringō (frangō), ere, -frēgī, -frāctum, 160, 2.
con-grūō, ere, congruī, 162.
con-icīō (iaciō), ere, -iēci, -iectum, 160, 3.

cōnūrātus, 167, n. 1.
co-nīveō, ere, connīxi, 147, 1.
con-quīrō (quaerō), ere, -quīsīvī, -quisītum, 137, c.
con-serō, ere, -serui, -sertum, 152, 3.
con-serō, ere, -sēvi, -situm, 138.
con-siderātus, 167, n. 1.
con-sidō, ere, consēdi, -sessum, 160, 1.
con-sistō, ere, -stiti, -stitum, 154, 1.
con-spergō, ere, -spersi, -spersum, 147, 2.
con-spiciō, ere, -spexi, -spectum, 150, 1.
con-stituō (status), ere, uī, -stitūtum, 162.
con-stō, -stāre, -stātī, (constātus), 151, 2.
con-suēscō, ere, -suēvī, suētum, 140, 175, 5.
con-sulō, ere, consului, -sultum, 142, 3.
con-temnō, ere, -tem(p)si, -tem(p) tum, 149, c.
con-tendō, ere, -tendi, -tentum, 155.
con-textō,ere,-textui,-textum,152,3.
con-tineō (teneō), ere, uī, -tentum, 135, i. a.
con-tingō (tangō), ere, contigī, contāctum, 155.
convalēscō, ere, -valui, -valitum, 145.
coquō, ere, coxi, coctum, 147, 2, 168, 1.
co-ripio (rapio), ere, -ripui, -reptum, 146.
co-ruō, ere, corrui, 162.
crēbrēscō, ere, crēbruī, to get frequent.
crē-dō, ere, -didi, -ditum, 151, 1.
crepō, āre, crepuī, crepitum, 142, 2.
crēscō, ere, crēvī, crētum, 140.
cubō, āre, cubuī, cubitum, 142, 2.
cūdō, ere, cūdī, cūsūm, 160, 1.
cupiō, ere, cuprīvī, cupitūm, 141.
currō, ere, cūcurre, cursūm, 155.

de-cerno, ere, -crēvī, -crētum, 139.
de-cerpō (carpō), ere, sī, tum, 147, 2.
dē-dō, dēdēre, dēdīdī, dēditum, 151, 1.
dē-fendō, ere, -fendi, -fēnsum, 160, 2.
dē-fetīscor, 1, to be worn out.
dē-gō (ago), ere, 160, 1.
dēleō. See Paradigm, 123, 124.
dē-libuō, uēre, uī, ātum, 162.
dē-ligō, ere, -lēgī, -lēctum, 160, 1.
dē-mō (emo), eredēmpsi, dēmp tum, 147, 2.
dēpellō, ere, dēpulī, dēpulsūm, 155.
dē-primō (premō), ererpressi, pressum, 147, 2.
depsō, ere, depuī, depstum, 142, 3.
dē-seendō (scandō), ere, -seendi, -scēnsum, 160, 2.
dē-serō, ere, -serui, -sertum, 142, 3.
dē-sinō, eredēsīvī, dēsītum, 139.
dē-sipīō (sapiō), -ere, 141.
dē-sistō, ere, -stiti, -stitum, 154, 1.
dē-spiciō, ere, -spexi, -spectum, 150, 1.
dē-suēscō, -ere, -ēvī, -ētum, 140.
dē-sum, -esse, -fuī, 117.
dē-tendō, ere, -tendi, -tentum, 155.
dē-tineō (teneō), ere, -uī, -tentum, 135, i. a.
dē-vertor, -ī, 167.
dicō, ere, dīxi, dictum, 147, 2.
dīf-ferō, -ferre, distuli, dilātum, 171.
dīg-nōscō (nōscō), ere,-gnōvī, 140.
dī-ligō, ere,-lexī,-lēctum, 147, 2.
dī-micō, āre, āvī, ātum, 142, 2.
dī-rigō, ere,-rēxi,-rēctum, 147, 2.
dīr-imō (emo), ere, -ēmī, -ēmptum, 160, 1.
discō, ere, didici, 156.
dis-cerpō, āre,-crepuī (avī), 142, 2.
dis-cumbō, ere,-cubuī,-cubitum, 144.
dis-pēscō, ere, -pēscuī, to divide, 145.
dis-sidēō (sedeo), ēre,-sedī, 159.
INDEX OF VERBS.

497

di-stinguō, ere, -stinxī, -stinctum, 149, b.
di-stō, -stāre, 151, 2.
ditāscō, ere, to grow rich.
dividō, ere, divisiō, divisum, 147, 2.
dō, dare, dedi, datum, 151, 1.
doceō, ēre, docui, doctum, 155, 1, a.
domō, ēre, ēi, utrum, 143, 2.
doeceō, ere, dūxī, ductum, 147, 2.
dulcēscō, ere, to grow sweet.
dūrescō, ēre, dūrui, to grow hard.

Edō, ēre, ēdi, ēsum, 160, 1, 172.
edō (dō), ēdere, ēdīdī, ēditum, 151, 1.
ed-dormiscō, -ere, -ivī, -itum, 140.
ef-ferō, -ferre, extuli, ēlītum, 171.
egēgo, ēre, egul, ēsum, 142.
elīcio, ēre, -licuī, -licītum, 160, 1.
eligō (legō), ēre, -legī, -lēctum, 147, 1.
el-mico, āre, ui (ātūrus), 142, 2.
emineō, ēre, ui, to stand out.
esmo, ēre, ēmi, ēmptum, 160, 1.
emungō, ēre, ēmunxi, ēmunctum, 149, 6.
ē-necō, āre, (ēnecāvī), ēnectum, 142, 2.
eō, īre, īvi, ītum, 169, 2.
evādō, ēre, ēvāsi, ēvāsum, 147, 2.
evānēscō, ēre, ēvānui, 145.
ex-ārdēscō, ēre, exārσl, exārsum, 147, 1.
ex-cellō, ēre, ui (excelsus), 144.
excitus, 137.
ex-cludō (claudō), ēre, -si, -sum, 147, 2.
ex-currō, ere, ex(cu)currī, -currum, 155.
ex-imō, ēre, ēmi, -emptum, 160, 1.
ex-olēscō, ēre, -olēvi, -olētum, 140.
ex-pellō, ēre, -puli, -pulsum, 155.
expergiscor, i, experrückōtum sum, 165.
ex-perior, īri, -pertus sum, 166.
ex-pleō, ēre, ēvi, ētum, 124, 137, 5.
ex-plicō, āre, ui (āvi), ītum (ātum), 142.
ex-plōdō (plaudō), ēre, -si, -sum, 147, 2.
exseerōtus, 167, n. 2.
ex-stinguō, ēre, -stinxī, -stinctum, 149, b.
ex-sistō, ēre, -stītī, -stītum, 154, 1.
ex-stō, āre (exstātūrus), 151, 2.
ex-tendō, eri, -sum (-tum), 155.
ex-tollō, ēre, 155.
ex-uō, ēre, -ui, -ātum, 162.

Facessō, ere, īvi (-i), ītum, 137, 3.
facciō, ere, feci, factum, 160, 3.
fasciō, īre, farsi, farātum, 150, 2.
fāri, 175, 3.
fatesor, ēri, fasus sum, 164.
fatiscō, ere, to fall apart.
fatiscor, i (fessus, adj.).

faveō, ēre, fāvi, fātum, 159.
ferō, īre, to strike.
ferō, ferre, tuli, lātum, 171.
ferveō, īre, fervi (ferbui), 159.
fūdō, ēre, fūsus sum, 167.
fīgō, ēre, fīxī, fīxum, 147, 2.
fīndō, ēre, fīdī, fīssum, 160, 3.
fingō, ēre, fīnxī, fīctum, 149, 9.
fīō, fēri, fāctus sum, 173.
flectō, ēre, flexi, flexum, 148.
fleō, ēre, ēvi, ētum, 137, 6.
fligō, ēre, fīxi, fīctum, 147, 2.

fōreō, ēre, ui, to bloom.
fluō, ēre, fluxī (fluxus, adj.), 147, 2.

fodiō, ēre, fōdī, fōssum, 160, 3.
forem, 116.
foveō, ēre, fōvi, fōtum, 159.
frangō, ēre, frēgī, frāctum, 160, 2.
fremō, ere, ui, 142, 3.

frondō (eo), ere (ui), frēsum, frēsum, 144.
fricō, āre, ui, frictum (ātum), 142, 2.
frigeō, ēre (frīxi), 147, 1.
frīgō, ere, frīxi, frīctum, 147, 2.
frondeō, ēre, ui, to be leafy.
fruor, 1, frūctus (frūtus) sum, 165.
fugīō, ere, fugī, fugitum, 160, 3.
fucicō, īre, fūsi, fūsum, 150, 2.
fulgeō, ēre, fulsi, 147, 1.
fungus, 1, fūnctus sum, 165.

fūgiō, ēre, fūgi, fugitum, 160, 3.
fulicō, īre, fūsi, fūsum, 150, 2.

furo, ēre, fūsi, fūsum, 160, 2.

fundō, ēre, fūdī, fūsum, 160, 2.

fungor, 1, fūnctus sum, 165.

(furō, def.), furere, to rave.

Ganniō,  īre, to yelp.

gaudēō, ēre, gāvīsus sum, 167.
gemō,  ēre, ui, 142, 3.
gerō, ēre, gessi, gestum, 147, 2.
gignō,  ēre, genui, genitum, 148.
glisco,  ēre, to swell.

gradior,  ī, gressum, 165,
INDEX OF VERBS.

Haereō, ēre, haēsī, (haesum), 147, 1.

hauriō, īre, hausī, haustum (hausūrus, haustūrus), 150, 2.

havē, 175, 4.

hisco, ēre, to yawn.

horreō, ēre, ui, to stand on end

hortor, āri, ātus sum, 128.

Iaceō, ēre, iacui, to lie.

iaciō, ēre, iēci, iactum, 160, 3.

icō, ēre, iēci, iectum, 160, 1.

1-gnōscō, ēre, -gnōvī, -gnōtum, 140.

il-liōciō, ēre, -lexī, -lectum, 150, 1.

il-ūdō (LAEDO), ēre, -lisī, -lisum, 147, 2.

imbuō, ēre, uī, ātum, 162.

imitātus, 167, n. 2.

immineō, ēre, to overhang.

im-pingō (PANGO), ēre, pēgī, pāctum, 160, 2.

in-calēscō, ēre, -calūi, 145.


incessō, ēre, īvī (ī), 137, 4.

in-ciō (CADO), ēre, -cidī, -cāsum, 152.

in-ciō (CAEDO), ēre, -cidī, cīsum, 153.

in-cipiō (CAPO), ēre, -cēpī, -cep-tum, 160, 3.

in-crepō, āre, uī, ātum, 142, 2.

in-cumbō, ēre, -cubui, -cubītum, 144.

in-cutiō (QUATIO), ēre, -cussī, -cussum, 147, 2.

ind-iguō (IGEO), ēre, uī, to want.

ind-ipsōcīr, ē, indeptus sum, 165.

in-dō, ēre, -didī, -ditum, 151, 1.

indulgeō, ēre, indulī (indulītum), 147, 1.

in-dūo, ēre, -duī, -dūtum, 162.

in-epīciō, ēre, to be silly.

in-fligō, ēre, -flīxi, -flēctum, 147, 2.

ingeniāscō, ēre, ingeniū, 145.

inguō, ēre, uī.  See congruo, 162.

in-nōtēscō, ēre, nōtūi, 145.

in-olēscō, ēre, -olēvi, 140.

inquam, 175, 2.

in-sideō (SEDÉO), ēre, -sēdī, -sesum, 159.

in-sistō, ēre, -stiti, 154, 1.

in-spiciō, ēre, -spexī, -spectum, 150, 1.

inter-ficiō, ēre, -feci, -fectum, 160, 3; 173, n. 2.

In-stō, āre, -stiti (instātūrus), 151, 2.

In-sum, -esse, -fui, 117.

intel-legō, ēre, -lēxi, -lēctum, 147, 2.

inter-imō (EMO), ēre, -emī, -emptum, 160, 1.

inter-pungō, ēre, -punxi, -punctum, 155.

inter-stō, āre, -stēli, 151, 2.

inter-sum, -esse, -fui, 117.

inverterāscō, ēre, -āvī, 140.

in-vādō, ēre, invāsī, -vāsum, 147, 2.

frāscor, ē, frātus sum, to get angry.

iubeō, ēre, iūsī, iūsum, 147, 1.

iungō, ēre, iūnīxī, iūnictum, 149, 9.

īurātus, 167, n. 1.

iuvō, āre, iūvī, iūtum (iuvātūrus), 158.

Labor, ī, lāpsus sum, 165.

lacessō, ēre, lacesūvi, -ītum, 137, c.

lacīo, 150.

laedō, ēre, laesī, laesum, 147, 4.

lambō, ēre, i, 160, 2.

languō, ēre, I, to be languid.

largior, ĕri, ātus sum, 166.

lateō, ēre, uī, to lie hid.

lavō, āre (erē), lāvī, ātum, lōtum, lavātum, 158.

legō, ēre, lēgī, lēctum, 160, 1.

libet, libēre, libuit (libiment est), it pleased.

licēor, ēri, ātus sum, 164.

licet, licēre, licuit (licitum est), īi is permitted.

lingō, ēre, linxi, linctum, 149, b.

linō, ēre, lēvi (līvī), ķītum, 139.

linquō, ēre, liquī, 160, 2.

liqueō, ēre, liviā, to be clear.

liveō, ēre, to be livid.

loquir, ī, locūtus sum, 128, 2; 165.

lūceō, ēre, lūxi, 147, 1.

lūdo, ēre, lūsī, lūsūm, 147, 2.

lūgeō, ēre, lūxi, 147, 1.

{lūtum, to wash.

luō, ēre, uī, ātum, to atone for, 162.

Maereō, ēre, to grieve.

mālo, mālle, mālui, 142, 3; 174.

mandō, ēre, mandi, mānsum, 160, 2.

maneō, ēre, mānsī, mānsum, 147, 1.

mānsumscō, -ere, ēvi, -ētum, 140.
INDEX OF VERBS.

medeor, ĕri, to heal.
meminĭ, 175, 5, b.
mentior, ĕri, itus, 128, 2; 166.
mereor, ĕri, meritus sum, 164.
morgō, ere, mersĭ, mersum, 147, 2.
mētior, ēri, mēnsus sum, 166.
metō, ere, messui (rare), messum, 142, 3.
metuō, ere, ui, 163.
mīcē, ĕre, ui, 142, 2.
mīngō, ere, mīnxi, mictum, 149, a.
mīnuō, ere, mīnui, minĭtum, 162.
mīscēo, ĕre, ui, mixtum (mīustum).
miseroreor, ĕri, miseritus (misertus) sum, 164.
mittō, ere, mīsĭ, missum, 147, 2.
molō, ere, molui, molitum, 142, 3.
moneō, ĕre, ui, itum, 131.
mordeō, ĕre, momordĭ, morsum, 152.
morior, morĭ, mortuus sum (moritūrus), 165.
moveō, ĕre, mōvĭ, mōtum, 159.
mulceō, ĕre, mulsi, mulsum, 147, 1.
mulgeō, ĕre, mulsĭ, mulsum (ctum), 157, 1.
mungō, ere, munxi, munetum, 160.

Nancluscor, i, nactus (nanctus), 165.
nāscor, ĕ, nātus sum (nāscītūrus), 165.

necō, ĕre, āvī, ātum, 142, 2.
nectō, ere, nexeī (nexui), nexum, 148.
neg-legō, ere, -lēxi, -lēctum, 147, 2.
necopīnātus, 167, n. 2.
nēō, nēre, nēvi, nētum, 137, b.
nēqueō, ĕre, 170.
ningō, ere, ninxi, 149, b.
niteō, ĕre, ui, to shine.
nitor, ĕre, nīxus (nīsus) sum, 165.
nōlo, nōlle, nōlui, 142, 3; 174.
noccēo, ĕre, ui (nocītūrus), to be hurtful.
nōscō, ere, nōvī, nōtum, 140; 175, 5, d.
nōtēscō, ere, nōtui, 145.
nūbō, ere, nūpsĭ, nūptum, 147, 2.

Ob-dō, ere, -didī, -ditum, 151, 1.
ob-dormīscō, ere, -dormīvī, -dormĭtum, 140.
oblivīscor, i, oblītus sum, 165.

Ob-sideō (seđeō), ĕre, -sēdi, -ses-
sum, 159.
ob-sistō, ere, -stitī, -stitum, 154, 1.
ob-olēscō, ere, -olēvī, -olētum, 140.
ob-stō, stāre, stĭt (obstātūrus), 151, 2.
obtineō (teneō), ĕre, -tinui, -ten-
tum, 155, 1, a.
oc-cidō (cadō), ere, -cidi, -cāsum, 153.
oc-cidō (caedo), ere, -cidi, -cĭsum, 153.
oc-cinō (canō), ere, -cīnui, 142, 3; 153.
oc-cipīō (capīō), ere, -cēpĭ, -cēptum, 160, 3.
occulō, ere, occului, occultum, 142, 3.
ōdi, def., 175, 5, a.
of-fendo, ere,-fendi,-fēnsum,160,2.
of-ferō, -ferre, obtuli, oblātum, 171.
oleō, ĕre, ui, to smell.
operīō, ĕre, operui, opertum, 142, 4.
opīnātus, 167, n. 2.
opperior, ĕri, oppertus (or itus), 166.
orī, ĕri, oritus sum (orītūrus), 166.
ose-tendo, ere, -tendi, -tēnsum (-tentus), 155.

Paciscor, i, pactus sum, 165, 167, n. 2.
palleō, -ĕre, -ui, to be pale.
pandō, ere, pandi, passum (pān-
sum), 160, 2.
pangō, ere { pepīgi, 155, } pāc-
pangō, ere { panxi, 149, b, } tum.
pareō, ere, pepercī (parsī), pars-
sūrus, 153.
pariō, ere, peperi, partum (pari-
tūrus), 157.
partior, ĕri, ītus, 166.
pāscō, ere, pāvī, pāstum, 140.
pate-facio, ere, -fēci, -factum, 173, n. 2.
pateō, ĕre, ui, to be open.
Patiō, ĕri, itus, 165.
Paveō, ĕre, pāvī, 159.
Pectō, ere, pexĭ, pexum, 148.
pellicēō, -licere, -lexĭ, -lectum, (licui), 150, 1.
INDEX OF VERBS.

pellō, ere, pepuli, pulsum, 155.
pendō, ēre, pependī, 152.
pendō, ere, pependi, pēnsum, 155.
per-cellō, ere, perculī, perculsum, 144.

dīcō (dīcō), ēre, -dīcī, -dīsum, 135, i, a.
dītum, 137, k. i; 151, i.

per-dō, ēre, -dīdī, -ditum, 169, 2, k. i; 151, i.

per-ēdō, īre, ītum, 169, 2, b. i.

per-ficīō, ēre, -fēci, -fectum, 160, 3.

prae-cello, ēre, -frēgī, -frāctum, 160, 2.

pergō (rego), ere, perrēxī, perrēctum, 147, 2.

per-petior (fātior), ī, perpassus sum, 165.

per-spiciō, ēre, -spexī, -spectum, 150, i.

per-stō, ītum, 137, c.

piget, pigīre, pigītum est, it irks.

pingō, ere, pinxi, pictum, 149, a.

pīnsō, ēre, uī (āi), pīnsītum (pīstum, pīnsum), 142, 3.

plancō, ēre, planxi, planctum, 149, b.

plaudō, ēre, plausī, plausum, 147, 2.

plectō, ēre, (plexī), plexum, 148.

plector, ĵ, to be punished.

-plēgō, 137, b.

plīgō, āre, uī (āvī), ītum (ātum), 142, 2.

plūō, ēre, pluīt, pluīvit, 162.

polleō, ēre, to be potent.

pollīceor, īrī, ītus sum, 164.

pos, ēre, posuī, positum, 139.

posseō, ēre, popōscē, 150.

pos-sideō (sideō), ēre, -sēdī, -sesum, 159.

potius, 167, n. 1.

potīō, āre, āvī, pōtum, pōtātum, 130, 4, c.

prae-cellō, ēre, -celluī, 144.

prae-cinō, ēre, -cūniū, 142, 3.

prae-curro, ēre, -cucarrī, -cursum, 155.

praesideō (sideō), ēre, -sēdī, 159

praesum, -esse, -suī, 117.

praestō, -stāre, -stītī (-stātūrus), 151, 2.

prandeō, ēre, prandī, prānsum, 159.

prehendō, ēre, prehendī, prehēnsum, 160, 2.

premō, ēre, pressī, pressum, 147, 2.

prōd-igo (ago), ēre, -ēgī, 160, i.

prō-dō, ēre, -dīdī, -ditum, 151, i.

pro-ficīscor, ĵ, profectus sum, 163.

pro-fītōr (fātōr), īrī, -fessus sum, 164.

prōmovō (emo), ēre, prōmpsi, prōmpsum, 147, 2.

prōsum, prōdesse, prōfuī, 118.

prō-tendō (tendo), ēre, -tendi, -tentum, tēnsum, 155.

psallō, ēre, ĵ, 160, 2.

pudet, ēre, puduit, puditum est, it shames.

pucrāsco, ēre, to become a boy.

pungō, ēre, pugugī, punctum, 155.

pūniōr, īrī, itus sum, 166.

Quaerō, ēre, quaesīvī, quaesītum, 137, c.

quaesō, 175, 6.

quatiō, ēre, (quassī), quassum, 147, 2.

queō, quīre, 170.

queror, quēri, questus sum, 167.

quiēscō, ēre, quiēvi, quiētum, 140.

Rādo, ēre, rāsī, rāsum, 147, 2.

rapiō, ēre, rapui, raptum, 146.

raucō, ēre, rausi, rausum, 150, 2.

recēnso (cēnso), ēre, -cēnui, -cēnsum (cēnsītum), 135, i, a.

recidō, ēre, recidī, recēsum, 153.

recōridēscō, ēre, -crūdī, to get raw again.

recumbō, ēre, -cubui, 144.

red-argō, ēre, -argui, 162.

red-dō, ēre, -didī, -ditum, 151, i.

red-igo (ago), ēre, -ēgī, -actus, 160, i.

red-imō, -ēre, 160, i.

red-fellō (fallo), ēre, refelli, 155.

red-ferō, -ferre, -tuli, -lātum, 171.

rego, ēre, réxi, réctum, 147, 2.

re-linguō, ēre, -liquī, -līctum, 160, 2.

reminisceor, ĵ, to recollect.
INDEX OF VERBS.

501

renideō, ire, to glitter.
reor, rēri, ratus sum, 164.
re-pellō, ere, repulli, pulsum, 155.
re-perīō, ire, repperī, repertum, 157, 161.
re-pō, ere, rēpsi, rēptum, 147, 2.
re-sipīscō, ere, -sipīvi (sipuī), 140.
re-sistō, ere, -stitī, -stitum, 154, 1.
re-spondeō, ere, -spondī, -spōnum, 152.
re-stō, stāre, -stit, 151, 2.
re-stinguō, ere, -stīnxi, -stinctum, 149, b.
re-lineō (Teneō), ere, uī, -tentum, 135, 1, a.
re-vertor, 1, revertī, reversum, 160, 1; 167.
re-vivīscō, ere, vīxī, victum, to revive.
rideō, ēre, rīsi, rīsum, 147, 1.
rigēo, ēre, uī, to be stiff.
rōdō, ere, rōsī, rōsum, 147, 2.
rubeō, ēre, uī, to be red.
rudō, ere, rudīvī, ītum, 137, c.
rumpō, ēre, rūpī, ruptum, 160, 2.
rūō, ere, rūi, rūtum (ruiturus), 162.
Saepiō, īre, saepti, saeptum, 150, 2.
saliō, īre, (salliī), saltum, 142, 4.
sallō, ēre, (salli), salsum, 160, 2.
salvē, def., 175, 4.
sanciō, īre, sānxi, sanctum, 150, 2.
sapiō, ēre (sapiī), sapuī, 141.
sarcīo, īre, sarśi, sartum, 150, 2.
satis-dō, -dare, -dedi, -datum, 151, 1.
scaβō, ere, scăβī, to scratch, 160, 1.
sclapō, ēre, scalpsī, sculptum, 147, 2.
scondō, īre, condī, condīsum, 160, 2.
scaτiō, īre, to gush forth.
scindō, ēre, scidī, scissum, 160, 3.
sciscō, ēre, scīvi, scītum, 140.
scribō, īre, scripsī, scriptum, 147, 2.
sculpō, īre, sculptūs, sculptum, 147, 2.
secō, āre, secui, secātūrus, 142, 2.
sedeō, ēre, sēdi, sessum, 159.
sēligō (LEGO), īre, -lēgi, -lēctum, 160, 1.
sentiō, īre, sēnsī, sēnsum, 150, 2.
sepeliō, īre, ivī, sepultum, 137, a.
sequor, ĭ, secūtus sum, 165.
sērō, īre, 143, 3.
sērō, īre, sēvi, satum, 138.
serpō, īre, serpsi, serptum, 147, 2.
sidō, īre, sidī, 160, 1.
sileō, īre, uī, to be silent.
sīnō, īre, sīvi, situm, 139.
sistō, īre, (stītī), statum, 154, 1.
sītīō, īre, ivī, to thirst.
soldō, īre, solitus sum, 167.
solvō, īre, solvi, solūtum, 160, 1.
sōnō, āre, sonui, sonitum, 142, 2.
sōnātūrus, 143.
sorbeō, īre (sorp-sī), sorbuī, 142, 1.
sordeo, īre, uī, to be dirty.
sortiō, īri, sortītus sum, 166.
spargō, īre, sparśi, sparsum, 147, 2.
spernō, īre, sprēvī, sprētum, 139.
-spicio, 150, 1.
splendeō, īre, uī, to shine.
spondeō, īre, sponpondi, spōnum, 152.
spuō, īre, spūi, spūtum, 162.
squaleō, īre, to be rough, foul.
statuō, īre, statui, statūtum, 163.
sterneō, īre, stravi, strātum, 139.
stermuō, īre, stermuī, 162.
stertō, īre, stertuli, 142, 3.
-stinguō, īre, 149, b.
sto, stāre, steti, statum, 151, 2.
strepō, īre, strepuī, strepitum, 142, 3.
strideo, īre (ere), stridi, 159.
stringō, īre, strīnxi, strictum, 149, a.
struō, īre, strūxi, strūctum, 147, 2.
studeō, īre, uī, to be zealous.
stupeō, īre, uī, to be astounded.
suādeo, īre, suāsī, suāsum, 147, 1.
supō, īre, supiī, superum, 160, 1.
sup-igō (ago), īre, -ēgi, -āctum, 160, 1.
suc-cēdō (Cedō), īre, -cēssi, -cēs- sum, 147.
suc-cenṣeō, īre, uī, -cēnsum, 135, 1, a.
suc-currō, īre, -currī, -cursum, 155.
suēscō, īre, suēvī, suētum, 140.
suferō, -ferre, sus-tinui, 171, n. 2.
su-ficiō (Faciō), īre, -fēcī, -fēctum, 160, 3.
suf-fodiō, ere, -fodi, -fossum, 160, 3.
sug-gerō, ere, -gessī, -gestum, 147, 2.
sūgō, ere, sūxi, sūctum, 147, 2.
sūmō (emo), ere, sūmpsi, sūptum, 147, 2.
suō, ere, suī, sūtum, 162.
superbiō, ire, to be haughty.
super-stō, -stāre, -steti, 151, 2.
super-sum, -esse, -fui, 117.
sup-pono, ere, -posui, -positum, 139, 1.
surgō (nego), ere, surrēxi, surrēctum, 147, 2.
surripio, ere, ui (surtui), -reptum, 146.

Taedet, pertaesum est, it tires.
tangō, ere, tetigi, tāctum, 155.
tegō, ere, tēxi, tēctum, 147, 2.
temnō, ere, 149, c.
tendō, ere, tendendi, tēnsum (-tum), 155.
teneō, ēre, tenuī, (tentum), 135, 1a.
tergeō, ēre, tersi, tersum, 147, 1.
terō, ere, trīvi, trītum, 137, c.
texō, ēre, texui, textum, 142, 3.
timeō, ēre, ui, to fear.
ting(u)o, ēre, tinxī, tinctum, 149, b.
tollō, ēre, sustuli, sublātum, 155.
tondeō, ēre, totondī, tonsum, 152.
tonō, ēre, ui, 142, 2.
torpeō, ēre, ui, to be torpid.
torqueō, ēre, torsī, tortum, 147, 1.
torreo, ēre, torrui, tōstum, 135, 1a.
trā-dō, ere, -didi, -ditum, 151, 1.
traho, ere, trāxi, trāctum, 147, 2.
tremō, ere, ui, to tremble.
tribuo, ere, ui, tribūtum, 162.
trūdō, ere, trūsi, trūsum, 147, 2.
tueor, ēri (tuitus) tūtātus sum, 164.
tumeō, ēre, ui, to swell.
tundō, ere, tutudi, tūnsum, tūsum, 155.
turgeō, ēre, tursī, 147, 1.

Ulciscor, ī, ultus sum, 165.
ungsō, ere, ūnxī, ūntum 149, b.
urgeō, ēre, ursī, 147, 1.
ūrō, ere, ūssi, ūstum, 147, 2.
ūtor, ī, ūsus sum, 165.

Vādō, ere, 147, 2.
valē, 175, 4.
vehō, ere, vexī, vectum, 147, 2; 165.
vellō, ere, vellī (vulsī), vulsum, 160, 2.
vēn-dō, ere, -didi, -ditum, 151, 1; 169, 2, r. 1.
vēn-eō, īre, ivī (īī), 169, 2, r. 1.
venīō, īre, vēni, ventum, 161.
vēnum-dō, -dare, -dedi, -datum, 151, 1.
vereor, ēri, veritus sum, 164.
verrō, ere, verrī, versum, 160, 1.
vertō, ere, vertī, versum, 160, 1.
vescor, ī, 165.
vesperāscō, ere, āvī, 140.
vētō, āre, vetui, vetitum, 142, 2.
video, ēre, vidī, visum, 159.
vīeō, ēre, ētum, to plait. See 137, b.
vigeō, ēre, ui, to flourish.
vincio, īre, vincī, vincum, 150, 2.
vincō, ere, vīci, victum, 160, 2.
vīsō, ere, visī, 160, 1.
vīvō, ere, vīxi, victum, 147, 2.
volvō, velle, voluī, 142, 3; 174.
volvō, ere, volvī, volūtum, 160, 1.
vomō, ere, vomuī, vomitum, 142, 3.
voveō, ēre, vōvī, vōtum, 159.
GENERAL INDEX.

ABBREVIATIONS.—Abl., ablative; Abs., absolute; Acc., accusative; act., active; adj., adjective; adv., adverb; attrib., attributive, attribution; app., appositive, apposition; Comp., comparison, comparative; constr., construction; cop., copula, copulative; cpd., compound, compounded; Dat., dative; decl., declension; def., definite; dem., demonstrative; fem., feminine; Fut., future; Fut. Pl., future perfect; Gen., genitive; Ger., gerund, gerundive; Impf., imperfect; Impv., imperative; Indef., indefinite; Indic., indicative; Inf., infinitive; interrogr., interrogative; Loc., locative; masc., masculine; neg., negative; neut., neuter; Nom., nominative; obj., object; Part., partitive; part., participle; pass., passive; Pl., plural; poss., possessive, possession; pred., predicate; prep., preposition; pron., pronoun; rel., relative; Sg., singular; subj., subject; Subjv., subjunctive; subst., substantive; Sup., supine; vb., verb; Voc., vocative.

A—Sound of, 3; weakening of, 8.1; length of final, 707.1. See ab.
ab (ā)—In composition, 9.4; varies with ā as prep., 9.4; syntax of as prep., 417.1; position of, 413.1; Dat. after vbs. cpd. with, 347.5; gives Point of Reference, 335.1; with Abl. takes place of second Acc., 339.2; with Abl. of Separation, 390; with Abl. of Point of View, ib. 2.6; with Towns, 391.1; with Abl. of Origin, 395; with Abl. of Respect, 397.1; with Abl. of Agent, 401; to express Cause, 408.3; with Abl. Ger., 433.
abdicāre—with sth and Abl., 390.3.
abesse—with Acc. of Extent, or ā and Abl., 335.3; with Dat., 349.4; with Abl. of Measure, 403.1; of Place, 390, n.3; tantum abest ut,—ut, 552.1.
abhinc—with Acc., 336.3.
abhorreō—with Abl. of Place, 390.3.
ability—adjs. of, with Inf., 423.1.c.
abire—with Abl. of Place, 390.3.
ablative—defined, 23, 6; 1st decl. Sg. in ād, Pl. in ās, 29.4; Pl. in ābus, 29.4; 2d decl. Sg. in ōd, 33, n.3; Pl. in ēs, 33, n.5; 3d decl. Sg. in ē, ē, 37.4; mute stems with ī, ō; sporadic cases in ō, ō, n.2; vowel stems in i, 57.2; adjs. used as subs. in i, 57.2, n.2; 4th decl. in usbus, ē, 51.1; adj. in d, 75.3; Pl. in is (for ēs) and ābus, 75, n.6; adjs. of three endings in e, 79, n.1; adjs. and parts. in i and e, 82; adj. in e and i, 83; Comp. of part., 89, n.1; forms advs., 91.2.

With act. vb. cannot be subj. of pass., 217, n.1; with vbs. Involving comparison, 296, n.1; prepositional uses instead, ib. n.3; with āb of Disproportion, 238; for inner obj., 333, 2, n.4; with abesse and distāre, 335, n.2; of Point of Reference, ib. n.; with Acc. after vbs. of Giving and Putting, 348; with preps. instead of Part. Gen., 372, n.2. Scheme of Syntax, 394; of Place where, 385; of Towns, 388; of Place whence, 390; with vbs. of Abstaining, 390, 3; with Adj., 390.3; of Towns, 391; preps. with Towns, ib. n.1; of Attendance, 392; of Time, 393; preps., 394; of Origin, 395; preps., ib. n.2; of Material, 396; of Respect, 397; with words of Eminence, ib. n.2; with Comp., 398, 296, and nn.1.2; of Manner, 399; of Quality, 402, and n.1; with cum of unnatural productions, ib. n.2; of Instrument, 401; of Agent, 314, and n.2, 401 and nn.1.2; with special vbs., 401, nn.1.7; of Standard, 402; of Difference, 403; of Price, 404; with vbs. of Plenty and Want, 405; with opus and āsus, 406; with utor, fruor, etc., 407; of Cause, 408 and nn.2-6; of Ger., 431; of Ger. with preps., 433; of Sup., 436.
ablative absolute—concord with two subs., 386, n.3; syntax of, 409, 10; with Interrog., 469, n.; of part., 665, n.2.
GENERAL INDEX. 505

adfatim—very, 439, N.3.
adferre—with ut, 553, 1.
adhaerèscere—with Dat., etc., 347, B.2.
adhortāri—with ut, 546, N.1.
adhs—strengthens Comp., 301; as yet, still, 478, N.1.
adici—with quod, 552, N.1.
adigere—with ut, 553, 1.
adipisc—for ut, 553, 1.
adire—with Acc. or ad, 331, R.3.
adivāre—with ut, 553, 1.

ADJECTIVE—16, 2; and subst., ib. R.1, N.1; decl. of, 17; defined, 72; 1st and 2d decl., 73; Gen. and Voc., 73; stems in ro, 74; with Nom. wanting, 74, R.2; Pronominal, 76; 3d decl., 77; two endings, 78; stems in ri, 78, 2; in ăli and ări, 78, R.; one ending, 80; case peculiarities, 83; abundantia, 84; varying decl., 84, 2; defective and indeclinable, 85; comparison of, 86; correlative, 109; formation of, 182.

As subst., 204, N.1, 4; agreement of pred., 211; exceptions, ib. N.2; attrib. agrees in Gender, 286; neut. with fem., ib. 3; concord of, 289; with two subsjs., 290; position, 290, N.2, 2; 291; meaning varies with position, ib. R.1; 676; superlatives of Order and Sequence, 291, 1, R.2; numerals, 292—296; comparatives, 296—301; superlatives, 302, 303; of Inclination, Knowledge, etc., in pred., 325, N.6; verbal with Acc., 330, N.3; neut. in Cognate Acc., 333, 1; of Extent in Degree, 334 and N.1; or Time, 336, N.1; with Gen. of Quality, 365, R.2; of 3d decl. as pred., 366, N.2; with Abl. of Separation, 390, 3; with Abl. of Attendance, 392, N.1; with Abl. of Quality, 400; in Abl. Abs., 410, N.4, 5; with Inf., 421, N.1, c; with Inf. for Gen. of Gen., 428, N.3; with Abl. Ger., 431, N.1; with Abl. Sup., 436, N.2; neut. with ut, 553, 4, and N.2.
adligāri—with sē and Gen., 378, R.1.
admirāri—with Inf., 533, R.1.
admodum—very, 439, N.3; with quam and Indic., 467, N.; yes, 471, 1. 

admonēre—with two Accs., 341, N.2; with ut, 546, N.1. 

Adonic—measure, 789, 792. 
adorīri—with Inf., 423, B.2. 
adorning—vbs. of, with Abl., 401, N.1. 
adstringere—with sē and Gen., 378, R.1. 
adulēscēns—437, N.1. 
advantage—vbs. of, with Dat., 346. 

ADVERB—defined, 16, 5, and R.3; discussion of, 91, 92; from Acc., 91, 1; from Abl., ib. 2; from Loc., ib. 3; uncertain, ib. 4; by terminations, 92, 1—5; syntactical and miscellaneous, 92, 6; comparison of, 93; numeral, 98; pron., 110; with Dat., 359, N.7; with Part. Gen., 372, N.3; general use of, 439; position of, 440; for rel. with prep., 611, R.1; position of, 677. 
adversāri—with Dat., 346, R.2. 
adversative—sentences, 483—491; particles, 483; sum, 580, N.1 and 2, 587; qui, 634. 
adversus—gives obj. toward which, 359, R.2; as adv., 415; as prep., 416.2. 
advertere—animum, with Acc., 342. 
ae—pronunciation of, 4 and N.; weakening of, 8, 1. 
aedūs—omitted, with Gen., 365, R.3. 
aequālis—with Gen. or Dat., 359, R.1. 
aequāre—with Dat., 346, N.3. 
aequum—with est instead of sit, 254, R.1. 
aeque—with Abl., 296, N.1; aeque after Comp., 398, N.1; with atque, 643, N.3; aeque—aequē, 482, 3. 
aes—decl. of, 47, 6. 
aestimāre—with Gen., 379; with Abl., 380, R.1; with Abl. and ex, 402, R.2. 
aetās—in Abl. of Time, 393, N.5; id aetātis, 336, N.2. 
aeternum—as adv., 336, R.1. 
afficere—with Abl. of Means, 401, N.3. 
affinis—with Dat. or Acc., 359, R.1; with Gen., 374, N.2. 
affirmāre—with Inf., 527, R.2. 
age—with P1., 211, R.2; with Impv., 269; 
age verō, 487, N.3; id ago, with ut, 546, N.1. 
agency—suffixes for, 181, 1. 
agent—in Abl. with ab, 214, 401; in Abl., 214, R.2; in Dat., 215, 354, 355; and Instrument, 401, R.1. 
aggridi—with Inf., 423, R.2. 
aīo—175, 1; supplied from negō, 447, R.; introduces Ō.R., 648, R.2; with Inf., 527, R.2. 
ālāris—and ălārius, 84, 2. 
Alcaico—measure, 791, 799. 
Almanian—measure, 786. 
ali—forms indef. prons., 111, 1. 
aliēnus—poss. of alius, 108; with Gen. or Dat., 359, R.1 and N.2. 
aliquandō—aliquando, 482, N.1. 
aliquum—with ante, 403, N.4.
aliquis and aliqui—107; with Pl. vrb., 211,n.2; syntax of, 314; with numerals, 314,n.2; for quis and qui, 107,n.1, and 315,n.1; with two negs., 315,n.1; per aliquem stāre, with né, quōminus, 548,n.1.

alius—decl. of, 76, 108; reciprocal alius alium, 221, r.1; with Abl., 319; for alter, ceterī, ib. n.1; besides, ib. n.2; alia as Acc. of Respect, 338, 2; alter with Abl. of Measure, 403,n.3; alius atque alius, 477, n.9; aliās—aliās, 482, 1; tum—aliās, aliās—plērumque, interdum—aliās, ib. n.2; aliō—aliō, alibi—alibi, ib. 2; alter—alter, ib. 3; aliter strengths sīn, 592; followed by quam, nisi, prāeter, 643,n.4; with atque, 643,n.3.
alīcī—decl. of, 68,12.

alphabet—1. Sounds of letters, ib. rr. 1–3; names of letters, ib. n.
alter—decl. of, 76, 108; for secundus, 96,5; alter alterum, reciprocal, 221, r.1; and alius, 319.
alterutri—decl. of, 76, 108.

altitudō—with Acc. of Extent, 335,n.1.
alitus—with Acc. of Extent, 335,r.1.
amāre—122; amābō, with Impv., 269;
amāns, 437,n.1; with Gen., 375,n.2.

amb—in composition, 9,4.

ambire—conj. of, 169,3,n.1.
amābō—decl. of, 73,r.,95,108; and uterque, 392.
amicus—with Gen. or Dat., 359,r.1.
amplius—with quam omitted, 296,r.4.
an—in disjunctive questions, 457,1; in phrases, ib. 2; strengthened by ne, ib. 1,n.2; as a simple interrog. particle, ib. 1,n.3; in second part of a disjunctive question, 488; anē, ib.; and aut, ib. n.4; annōn and necne, 459; for num or ne in indirect question, 460,1,n.1; or 497.
anacoluthon—697.

Anacreontic—measure, 819.
anacrasis—and anacrustic scheme, 739

anapaestic—foot, 734; rhythm, 736; varieties of, 777–782; substitutes for, 777.
anaphora—485,n.2; 636,n.4; 682.
angī—with Acc. and Inf., 533,r.1.
angiportus—decl. of, 68,5.
animadvertere—with Inf., 527,r.1.

animals—as instruments or agents, 214, n.2.

animus—with ut, 546,n.2; animum advertere, with Acc., 342; animī as Loc., 374,n.7; in animō esse, with Inf., 422, n.5.

Aniō—decl. of, 41,4.

annuere—with Dat., etc., 347,r.2.
ante—in composition, 9,4; vbs. cpd. will take Acc or Dat., 331, 347; with Abl. of Standard or Acc. of Extent, 403,n.4; position of, 413, r.1 and n.3; as adv., 415; as prep., 416,3; with Acc. Ger., 432 and n.1; with part., 437,n.2.
antēquam—see antequam.
antecedent—action, 561–567; definite, 613; repetition of, 615; incorporation of, 616; indefinite, 621; def. or indef. with Indic. or Subjv., 631,1, and 2.
antecedere—with Dat., etc., 347,r.2.
antecellere—with Dat., etc., 347,r.2; with Abl. of Respect, 367,n.2.
antēre—with Dat., etc., 347,r.2.
antepenult.—11.

anterior—87,8.
aorist—forms on so, sim, 131,4, b; definition, 224; Pure Pf. as Aor., 236,n.; Hist. Pf., 239; Flupf., 241,n.1; Pf. as Potential of Past, 258,n.2.
aposiosis—589; omission of, 601; in comparative sentences, 602; in Indic. in Unreal Conditions, 597,r.3; after vrb. requiring Subjv., ib. r.5.
aposiosis—691.

appārēre—as cop. vb., 206,n.1; with Nom. and Inf., 528,n.2; with ut, 553,4.
appellāre—with two Accs., 340; with two Noms., 206.

apportion—vbs. of, with Dat. of Ger., 439,2.

apposition—320; concord in, 321; exceptions, ib. rr., nn.; Partitive, 322, 323; Restrictive, 322; Distributive, 323; whole and part, ib. n.2; to sentence, 324; predicate, 325; Gen. of, 361; to names of Towns, 386,r.1; to Loc., 411, n.3; pron. incorporated, 614, r.4; subst. incorporated, 616,2.
apropriquāre—with Dat., 346, r.2.
apprication—suffix of, 182,6.
aptus—constr. 552,r.2; with quī and Subjv., 631,1.
apud—416,4.
arbitrāri—with Inf., 527.n.2.
arbitrāri—as Abl. of Cause, 408.n.1.
arbor—decl. of, 45.n.
arcēre—with Abl. of Separation, 390.2.n.2.
Archilochoan—measure, 788, 800.
arcus—decl. of, 68.5.
ārdēre—with Inf., 423.2.n.2; ārdēns, to express cause, 408.n.2.
ārdor—with ut, 546.n.2.
arguerē—with Gen., 378.m.1; with Inf., 528.n.1.
Aristophanic—measure, 793.
arrangement—of words, 671–683; of clauses, 684–687; grammatical or rhetorical, 672; ascending and descending, 673; of simple sentences, 674; of interrog. sentences, 675; of adj. and Gen., 676; of advs., 677; of props., 678; of particles, 679; of attributes, 680; of opposites, 681; of pairs, 682; anaphoric and chiasmic, 682; poetic, 683; periods, 685; historical and oratorical, 687.
ārriđēre—with Dat., etc., 347.r.2.
artisan—suffixes for, 181.3.
āς—decl. of, 48.n.
Asclepiadean—measure, 802, 803.
asking—vbs. of, with two Aces., 339 and r.1,n.1; with Inf. or ut, 546 and n.3.
aspergerē—with Dat. and Acc., or Acc. and Abl., 348.n.1.
aspicere—with Inf., 527.r.1; aspectī, 436.n.1.
aspirates—6,2.B.
assentīri—with Dat., 346.n.2; 347.n.2.
assequi—with ut, 553.1.
-asserē—as Inf. ending, 131.4,b.4.
asseverations—in Subjv., 262; in Fut. Indic., ib. n.; with nisi, 591,b.2.
assidēre—with Dat., etc., 347.r.2.
assemblations—of vowels, 8,4; of consonants, 9,1,2,3; of props., 9,4; of Voc., 211,n.3.
assequāfacere—with Abl. or Dat, 401.n.2; with Inf., 423.2.n.2.
assequēscere—with Abl. or Dat., 401.n.2; with Inf., 423.2,n.2.
āstū—in Abl. of Manner, 399.n.1.
asyndeton—after demonstrative, 307, r.4; in coordination, 473.n., 474.n., 483, n., 492,n.
at—use of, 488 and nn.; ast, 488.1.n.
atquē—for quam, 296,n.4; syntax of, 477 and notes; adds a third member, 481,n.; with adjs. of Likeness, etc., 643:
for quam after neg. Comp., 644.n.2.
atquī—489; atquin, ib. n.1.
antiquitātēs—vbs. of, with Inf., 392; with cum, ib. n.1; instrumental, ib. n.2.
attinet—with Inf., 422.n.4; restrictions with, 627.n.2.
attraction—in Gender, 211,r.5; in mood, 508,4, 629; of vb. of Saying into Subjv., 541,n.3, 585,n.3, 630,n.3; of Rel., 617; inverse, 617,n.2; of mood in general, 662, 663.
attribute—atque; concord of adj., 289; with two or more subs., 290; position of, 291; superlatives of Order and Sequence, 291,1,r.2; pred., 325; various peculiarities of, ib. m.; omitted with cognate Acc., 333.2,n.1; with Abl. of Time, 393,r.5; omitted with Abl. of Manner, 399,n.1; with Inf., 421,n.2; with part., 437,n.
an—pronunciation of, 4; weakening of, 8,1.
auctorem—esse, with Dat., 346.n.5; with Inf., 527.n.2; with ut, 546.n.1.
auctoritātēs—with ut, 546.n.1; auctoritātēs as Abl. of Cause, 408,n.1.
audēre—with Inf., 423.2.n.2.
audīre—like Gr. ἀκούει, 206,n.2; audiēns, with Dat., 346.n.5; with cum and Subjv., 580,r.2; with Inf. and part., 527,n.1, and n.1; with rel. and Indic., 467,n.; audītū, 436.n.1.
auscultāre—with Dat., 346.n.2.
aut—distinguished from an, 438.n.4; use of, 493 and notes; aut—aut with Pl., 285,n.1: subdivides a neg., 445.
autem—position of, 413,n.3, 484,r.; syntax of, 494; in lively questions, ib. n.1; strengthens sed, 485,n.3, 592.
auxiliārī—with Dat., 346.n.2.
auxiliāris—and auxiliārīus, 84.2.
auxiliary—vbs. with Inf., 280,1,b.
avēre—with Inf., 423.2.n.2.
āversus—with Dat., 359,n.5.

Baccar—68,12.
Baccic—foot, 734; measures, 811–814.
baleum—68,3.
becoming—vbs. of, with two Noms., 206.
beginning—vbs. of, with Inf., 423, and n.2.
believing—vbs. of, with Acc. and Inf., 526 and 527; with Nom., 528.
bellāre—with Dat., 346.n.6.
bellum—in Abl. of Time, 394.R; bellī
as Loc., 411.n.2.
belonging—suffixes for, 182,5.
benevolus—compared, 874.
beseeking—vbs. of, with ut, 546.
bewaring—vbs. of, with nē, 548.
bibere—with dare, 421.N.1.b.
bidding—vbs. of, with Dat., 346.
bilīus—and bilīgis, 84.1.
bimātris—85.1.
bīnī—for duo, 346.R.2.
bonus—comparison, 90; cauli bonō, 356.
R.1; bene, as adv. of Degree, 439.N.2, and 3.
books—omit in with Abl., 387.
bs—decl. of, 52.7.
brachylogy—689.
breathings—8,2.A.
buying—vbs. of, with Gen. or Abl., 379, 380.
C—sound of, 1.N.1; name of, 1.N.1.
cadere—with Abl. of Separation, 390,2.N.2.
calling—vbs. of, with two Accs., 346; with two Noms., 206.
calx—decl. of, 70.D.
campī—as Loc., 411.r.2.
cantica—defined, 747; in early Latin, 824; in later Latin, 825.
capability—adjs. of, with Inf., 421,N.1.c.
capacity—adjs. of, with Dat. Ger., 429.2; suffixes for, 182.2.
capi—with Gen. of Charge, 378.N.1.
capital—decl. of, 78,R.
caput—decl. of, 53.8; est with Inf., 422, N.2.
cardinal numbers—94; Gen. Pl. of, 95.
R.2; collective Sg. of, ib.; duo and ambo, 292; with singuli, 295; for Distributive, 295,N.; position of, 676.R.2.
carēre—with Abl., 405; with Gen., 363, N.2.
carō—decl. of, 41.4; gender of, 43.1.
cārus—with Abl. of Price, 404,N.2.
cases—defined, 23; strong and weak, recti and obliqui, 24; case-forms, 25; endings, 25.2.
cassis—decl. of, 68,12.
cāsta—as Abl. of Manner, 399,N.1.
catalexis—742.
causā—with Gen., 373; with poss. pron., ib. R.2; with Gen. Ger., 423,R.2; causa, in phrases with ut, 546,N.2; causam vincere, 333,R.2.
causal sentences—coordinate, 498; particles, 498; syntax of subordinate, 533–542; general division, 538, 539; with quod, etc., and Indic., 540; with quod, etc., and Subjv., 541; with quia, ib. N.1; rejected reason, ib. N.2; with quandōque, ib. N.5; with vbs. of Emotion, 542; si for quod, ib. N.1; with cum, 580,NN.1 and 2, 586; with tamquam, etc., 541,N.4, 602,N.4; relative, 634; clauses in O.O., 655.
causation—vbs. of, with part., 537; with ut, 533,3; pass. with ut, ib. 3.
causative verbs—formation of, 101.4.
cause—Abl. of, 408; various expressions for, ib. NN.; preventing, ib. N.4; external, ib. N.6; represented by part., 666, 670,2.
cavēre—with Subjv. for Impv., 271,2; with Dat., 346,N.2; constructions with, 548,NN.1 and 3.
ce—appended to iste, 104,3,N.2; to ille, ib. N.3.
cēdere—with Dat., 346,R.2; with Abl. of Separation, 390,2.N.2.
cedo—defective, 175,6.
cēlāre—with two Accs., or dē, 339 and R.1 and 3,N.1.
cele—append to iste, 104,3,N.2; to ille, ib. N.3.
cēndere—with Dat., 346,R.2; with Abl. of Separation, 390,2,N.2.
cēndo—defective, 175.6.
cēlāre—with two Accs., or dē, 339 and R.1 and 3,N.1.
celer—comparison of, 87,1, and n.
cēnēare—with Inf., 527,R.2; with ut, 546.
N.1; cēnēō, yes, 471,2.
centimannus—defective, 85.2.
cernere—with Inf., 527,R.1.
certāre—with Dat., 346,N.6; rem certa
re, 333,2.N.
certus—strengthens quidam, 313.R.3; with Gen., 374, N.9; certē, certō, yes, 471,1; certē, strengthens at, 498,N.2; certius (quam), with Inf., 422,N.8;
certum est, with Inf., 423,2,N.2; certior est facere, with Inf., 527,4,N.2.
cessare—with Inf., 423,2,N.2.
(ceterus)—Nom. masc. wanting, 74,R.2, 85,1; use of ceterum, 491; cetera used participates, 291,R.2; alius instead, 319, N.1: as Acc. of Respect, 338,2.
charge—in Gen. with Judicial verbs, 376; with nōmine, ib. R.2; in Abl., ib. R.3.
chiasmus—682 and n.
choosing—vbs. of, with two Noms., 206; with two Acss., 340; End with Dat. or ad, ib. R.2; vbs. of, with Final Dat., 356,N.2.
choriambic—feet, 734; rhythms, 801.
cingit—with Acc., 338,N.2.
circus—position of, 413,R.1; as adv., 415; as prep., 416,5; with Acc. Ger., 432 and n.1.
circiter—as prep., 416,6.
circum—in composition, 9,4; vbs. cpl. with, take Acc., 331; never repeated, ib. R.2; as adv., 415; as prep., 416,5.
circundare—with Dat. and Acc., or Acc. and Abl., 348,R.1.
circumfundere—with Acc. and Dat., or Acc. and Abl., 348, R.1.
circumspice—with direct question, 467, N.
circumstantial cum—585-588.
cis—as prep., 416,7.
citerior—87,2 and 7.
citius quam—constr. after, 644,R.3.
citāra—as adv., 415; as prep., 416,7.
civitas—concord of, in pred., 211,R.6.
clam—as adv., 415; as prep., 416,8.
clanculum—as prep., 416,8.
clisus—decl. of, 67,2.
clothing—vbs. of, with Acc. of Respect, 338,N.2; with Abl. of Means, 401,N.1.
cluere—with Nom. and Inf., 528,N.1.
coepi—175,5,a, and n.; with Inf., 423, N.3.
cogere—with Inf., 423,2,N.2; with ut, 553,2; conclude, with Inf., 546,R.1, 553,2,N.
cogitāre—with Inf., 423,2,N.2.
cogitatio—in phrases with ut, 557,R.
Cognate Accusative—333,2; similar phrases, ib. n.; with second Acc., 341; with prohibēre, iubere, ib. n.2.
cognātus—with Gen. or Dat., 359,R.1.
cognitio—in phrases with ut, 557,R.
cognōmen esse—with Dat., 349,R.5.
cognoscere—with Inf., 527,R.1; cognitu as Sup., 436,N.1.
coincidence—constr. with, 513,N.3.
colligere—with Inf., 527,R.2.
collucere—with in and Abl., 385,R.1; with in and Acc., ib. N.2.
colus—decl. of, 61,N.5.
comitāri—with Dat., 346,N.2.
comitius—as Abl. of Time, 393,R.5.
commiserari—with Acc., 377,N.2.
committere—with Acc. Ger., 430,N.1; with ut, 548,N.1.
commovere—with ut, 553,2; commotus, to express cause, 408,N.2.
commune—as subst., 211,R.4; in phrases with ut, 557,R.; commune, with Gen. or Dat., 359,R.1.
comparative—in ior, 86; in entior, 87,4,5; lacking, 87,9; with quam or Abl., 296 and n.; omission of quam, ib. R.4; age with nātus, ib. n.5; with opinione, ib. n.6; of Disproportion, 296; omission of ut after quam, ib. R.2; restriction of, 300; strengthened, 301; doubled, ib.; with Part. Gen., 372 and n.2; with Abl. of Respect, 398 and n.; with Abl. of Measure, 403,N.1; with Abl. Ger., 431, N.2; with quam qui, 631,3.
comparative sentences—638-644; division of, 638; moods in, 639; vb. omitted in, 640; in dependent clauses, 641; correlations in, 642; the more—the more, ib. R.2; with atque, 643; with quam, 644.
comparison—of adjectives, 86; peculiarities, 87; by magis and maxime, ib.6; by plus and plurimum, ib. 6,N.2; defective, 87,2,7,9; of participles, 88,89; of advs., 93; irregular, 90; standard of, omitted, 297; of qualities, 299; conditional sentences of, 602.
compelling—vbs. of, with ut, 553,2.
compensatory lengthening—9,6,a.
comperce—with Inf. for Impv., 271,2,N.2.
comperire—with Gen., 378,R.1; with Inf., 527,R.1.
compescere—with Inf. for Impv., 271,2,N.2.
complēre—with Gen., 383,1.
complexus—as a Present, 282,N.
compos—with Gen., 374,N.3.
composition—of words, 193-200; divisions, 193; of substantia, 194-198; of vbs., 199, 200.
compounds—attrib., 197,1; dependent, "ib. 2; poss., 198; quantity in, 715.

con—see cum.

conāri—with Inf., 423,2.n.2.

conātus—defective, 68,5.

concedere—used personally in pass., 217, n.2; with Dat., 346, r.2; with Inf., 423,2, n.2; 532, n.1; with Acc. Ger., 430, n.1; with ut, 548, n.1.

conceiv—if, etc., 604; with quamquam, 605; with quamvis, etc., 606; with licet, 607; with ut, 608; representatives of, 609.

conclūdere—with Inf., 527,r.2.

concord—210; pred. with subj., 211; violations of, ib. 1n.1-6, nn.1-3; of subj, and pred. multiplied, 285-287; of app., 321; neut. for persons, 323, n.2; of rel., 614.

concupiēns—with Gen., 375,n.2.

concurrere—with Dat., 346,n.6.

condect—with Inf., 422,n.4.

condemning—vbs. of, with Gen., 378; with other constrs., ib. r.2; with Abl., ib. r.3; enforced destination, ib. r.4.

condicī—in phrases with ut, 546,n.2.

condition—suffixes for, 181,8; indicated by a question, 453,n.3; represented by part., 667,670,4.

conditional cum—583.

conditional sentences—589-603; division of, 589; sign, 590; negatives, 591; two excluding, 592; equivalents of Pro-tasis, 593; classification of, 594. Logical, 595; in O.O., ib. r.1; with Subject, ib. rr. 2,3; sive—sive, ib. r.4; sīquidem, ib. r.5; similis, ib. r.6; phrases, ib.n.1; range of tenses, ib.n.2. Ideal, 596; for unreal, ib.r.1; shift to unreal, ib.r.2; after non possum, ib.r.3; in O.O., ib.r.5. Unreal, 597; Impf. of Past, ib.r.1; Indic. in Apodosis, ib.rr.2,3; in O.O., ib. r.4; after a vb. requiring Subject, ib. r.5; absque, ib.n.1. Incomplete, 598-601; omission of sign, 598; of vb. of Prot., 599; of Prot., 600; of Apod., 601; of Comparison, 602; in O.O. general consideration, 656; Logical, 657; Ideal, 658; Unreal, 659; Pf. Inf. and potuisse, ib.n.

condūcīt—with Dat., 346,r.2; with Gen., 379; with Acc. Ger., 430,n.1.

condici—with Inf., 533,r.1; with tu, 553,3.

condīdere—with Dat., 346,r.2 and n.2; with Abl., 401,n.6; with Inf., 527,r.2.

confirmare—with Inf., 527,r.2.

congruere—with Dat., etc., 347,n.2.

conjugation—defined, 17; systems of, 120: first, 122; second, 123; irregular second, 124; third, 125; third in 50, 126; fourth, 127; deponents, 128; periphrastic, 129; notes on; 130,131; change in, 136.

conjunction—defined, 16,7, and n.3.

coniungere—with Dat. or cum, 359,n.3.

consecutive sentences—exceptional sequence in, 513; syntax of, 551-558; general division, 551; Pure, 552; tantum abest ut, ib. r.1; with dignus, etc., ib. r.2; with idea of Design, ib. r.3; ut non, without, ib. r.4; Complementary, 553; vbs. of Effecting, 553; vbs. of Causing, ib. 1; of Compelling, etc., ib. 2: Happening, etc., ib. 3; impersonals, ib.4; vbs. of Hindering, 554-556; quin with vbs. of Preventing, 555,1; with vbs. of Doubt, ib. 2; quin = ut non, 556; non dubitō quin, ib. 1n.1,2; Explanatory ut, 557; Explanatory question, 558; relative sentences, 631; with def. antecedent, ib. 1; with indef. antecedent, ib. 2; with Comp., ib. 3; with adv., ib. 4; with quin, 632; Indic. for Subject, ib. 2n.1,2.

consentāneum—with Inf., 422,n.3.

consentīre—with Dat., etc., 347,r.2.

consequi—and consequens, with ut, 553,1 and 4.

consider—with in and Abl., 385,r.1.

consilium—in Abl. of Cause, 408,n.1; in phrases, with Inf., 422,n.2, and 428,n.2; with dare and ut, 546,nn.1 and 2.

consistere—with Abl. of Material, 396, n.1.

consonante—6; double, ib.3; sounds of, 7; phonetic variations in, 9; combinations of, 10,n.1.

consors—with Gen., 374,n.2.

conspicāri—with Inf., 527,r.1.

conspicere—with Inf., 527,r.1.

constāre—with Dat., etc., 347,n.2; with Gen., 379; with Abl. of Material, 396,n.1; with Nom. and Inf., 528,n.2.

constituere—with in and Abl., 385,r.1; with Inf., 423,2,n.2; with ut, 546,n.1.

constructio—ad sensum, 211,n.1,n.3; praegnans, 699.
conseēscere—with Inf., 423,2.n.2; consuētus, with Inf., 421, n.1.c.

consuētudīn—in Abl. of Manner, 399, n.1; in phrases, with Inf., 422, n.2, or ut, 557, r.

consulere—with two Accs., 339 and n.1; with Dat., 346, r.2 and n.2; boni consulere, 360, n.2.

contemporaneous action—536–573; in Extent, 569, 570; in Limit, 571–573.

contendere—with Dat., 346, n.6; with Inf., 423,2,n.2; with ut, 546, n.1.

continēri—with Abl. of Material, 396, n.1; contentus, with Abl., 401, n.6.

contingit—with ut, 553,3; contingit, with Dat., 346,n.2; sequence after, 513, n.2; attraction of pred. after, 535, r.3.

continuance—vbs. of, with Inf., 423, and n.2.

contrā—position of, 413, r.1; as adv., 415; as prep., 418,9; with atque, 643, n.3.

contracting—vbs. of, with Acc. Ger., 430.

contraction—of shorts, 732.

contrārius—with Gen. or Dat., 359, r.1; with atque, 643, n.3.

contrasts—with hic—ille, 307,rr.1,2; with ipse, 311, r.1; with aliquis, 314; alter—alter, etc., 323.

convenire—Indic. for Subjv., 254, r.1; with Dat., 346, n.2, 347, r.2.

convicting—vbs. of, with Gen., 378; other constr., ib. r.2.

coördination—defined, 472; without conjunction, 472, r.; syntax of, 473–503; copulative, 474–482; adversative, 483–491; disjunctive, 492–497; causal and illative, 498–503.

cōpia—with Inf., 428, n.2.

cōpula—with pred., 205; itself a pred., ib. n.; omitted, 209; agrees with pred., 211, n.1, ex. c.

copulative—vbs., 206; with Nom. and Inf., ib. r.3. Particles, 474; omitted, ib. n., 481. Sentences, 474–482; use of neg. to connect, 480.

cor—decl. of, 53,3; cordī est, with Inf., 422, n.5.

cōrūram—as adv., 415; as prep., 417,3.

cornus—decl. of, 68,5.

corpus—decl. of, 48.

correlatives—109–111; pronominal adjs., 109; advs., 110; cpdsls., 111; coördinating particles, as tum—tum, aliās—aliās, etc., 482; of Rel., 618; absorption of, 619, 621; position of, 620; in comparative sentences, 642; omitted, 642,3.

correction—744.

cōs—defective, 70,D.

countries—in Acc., with prep., 337, r.1; without, ib. n.1; in Abl., 391, n.

crassitūdō—with Acc. of Extent, 335, n.1.

crassus—with Acc. of Extent, 335, n.1.

crāstini—as Loc., 411, n.1.

créāre—with two Accs., 340; with two Noms., 206.

creation—vbs. of, with Inf., 280,1,b.

créādere—personal in pass., 217,n.1; with Dat., 346, r.2; with Inf., 527, r.2; créādi-
tur, with Inf., 528, r.2.

crētic—foot, 734; substitutions for, 806; rhythms, 806–810.

crucīāri—with Inf., 533, r.1.

culīus—as poss. pron., 106,n.4.

culpa—with Epexegetical Gen., 361,2.

cum—and quom, 7; in composition, 9,4; with subst. to form cpd. subj., 285,n.2; vbs. cpd. with take Acc., or Dat., 331, 347; with Abl. of Attendance, 392, and n.1; to indicate Time, 394, n.2; with Abl. of Manner, 399; with unnatural productions, 400, r.2; position of, 413, r.1; with Abl. Ger., 433; as prep., 417,4; with eō and quod, 525,2,n.2; (primum), as soon as, 561–563; Causal, 564,n.2; with Iterative action, 566, 567; with Subjv., ib. n.; derivation of, 578; general view of, 579; Temporal, 580; fuit cum, ib. r.1; meminī cum, ib. r.2; with Lapses of Time, ib. r.3; in early Latin, ib. n.1; Inverse, 581; Explicative, 582; Conditional, 583, 590,n.3; Iterative, 584; with Subjv., ib. r.; Circumstantial, 585–588; Historical, 585; Causal, 586; Concessive and Adversative, 587; cum nōn = without, ib. r.2; cum—tum, 588; mood, ib. 2; cum interim, with Inf., 535, n.2; with Indic. retained in O.O., 655, r.3.

—cumque—makes general relatives, 111,2.

cūnca—Acc. of Respect, 338,2; may omit in with Abl. of Place, 388.

cunctāri—with Inf., 423,2,n.2.

cupere—with Pf. Inf., 280,2,n.N.; with Dat., 346,n.2; cupientē est, 353, n.2; with Inf., 423,2,n.2; 538, n.4; cupiēnsa, with Gen., 375, n.2.

cupidās—with ut, 546,n.2.

cupidus—with Gen., 374,n.5.

cupressus—decl. of, 68,5.
cu̇ra—with ut, 546, N.2; cu̇rae est, with Inf., 422, N.5.

cu̇rē—with Inf., 423, N.2; with Acc. Ger., 430, N.1; with part., 537, N.2; with ut, 546, N.1; cu̇ra ut for Imper., 271, I, and 2, N.2.
curiculum—as Abl. of Manner, 399, N.1.

dactylic—foot, 734; substitutions, 783; rhythm, 736; rhythms, 783-789.
damnās—indeclinable, 85, C.
daps—defective, 70, D.
dare—Pr. dedrot, 131, 6; Pr. danunt, 133, IV, N.2; with ad or Dat., 345, N.2; with Final Dat., 356, R.2; operam, with Dat. Ger., 429, N.1, or ut, 546, N.1; with Acc. Ger., 430, N.1; nēptum, etc., 435, N.1; with Pr. part., 537, N.2; permit, with ut, 553, 2.
dative—defined, 23, 3; 1st decl. in ī, ā, ēbus, ēs, ēs, 29, N.3, 4; 3d decl. in ēi, e, 37, 2; 4th decl. in ubus, uēi, ū, 31, R., and n.2; 5th decl., uncommon, 63, n.1, in ē, 1, ib. n.2; in Greek subs., 66, n.2; in adj. in īl, ā, ēbus, is (for ēs), 75, N.2, 6; in I of pron. adj., 76, 2; with act. vb. unchanged in pass. 217, 346, n.1; gives End with vbs. of Taking, etc., 340, n.2; with ēl and vae, 343, 1, N.2; of Indirect Obj., 344, with trans. vbs., 345; with vbs. of Taking Away, ib. n.1, and prō, ib. n.2; with intrans. vbs., 346; with cpd. vbs., 347; with vbs. cpd. with de, ex, ab, ib. n.5; and Acc. with vbs. of Giving and Putting, 348; of Possessor, 349; of Personal Interest, 350; Ethical, 351; of Reference, 352, 353; with participles, 353; of Agent, 215, 354; Doublo, 356; with subs., 357; Local, 358; with adj., 359; of cpds. of de, dis, 390, 2, N.5; of Ger., 429.
dē—with Abl. for second Acc., 339, N.2, 3, vbs. cpd. with take Dat., 347, n.5; with Abl. of Separation, 390, 1, and 2; to indicate Time, 394, n.2; with Abl. of Origin, 395, and n.2; with Abl. of Respect, 397, n.1; with Abl. of Cause, 408, N.3; position of, 413, R.1; as prep., 416, 5; with Abl. Ger., 433; with part., 437, N.2; dē eō quod, 525, N.2.
dēbere—Indic. for Subjv., 254, n.1; Impf. as tense of Disappointment, ib. n.2; with Pf. Inf., 280, 2, b, and n.3; with Inf., 423, N.2.
decēre—with Pf. Inf., 280, 2, b, R.1; with Dat., 346, N.3; with Abl. of Respect, 397, N.2.
dēceernere—with Inf., 423, N.2, and 546, n.1; with ut, 546, N.1.
declem—defined, 17; varieties of, 27; rules for, 28; 1st, 29; 30; 2d, 31-33; stems in -ro and -ero, 32; 3d, 35-60; stems of, 35; formation of Nom. Sg., 36; liquid stems, 39-46; sibilant, 47-49; mute, 50-55; vowel, 56-59; 4th, 61, 62; 5th, 63, 64; vary between 5th and 3d, 63, n.2; of Greek subs., 65; adj. of 1st and 2d, 73; of pron. adj., 76; parts., 80.
dēcorus—with Abl., 397, N.2.
decrecing—vbs. of, with Dat. Ger., 429, 2.
dēdecet—with Inf., 422, N.4.
dēferre—with Gen. of Charge, 375, R.1.
dēfessus—with Inf., 421, N.1, c.
dēfīgere—with Abl., 346, N.3.
dēfigere—with in and Abl., 385, N.1.
degree—adv. of, modify other advs., 459, n.2.
dēicere—with Abl., 390, 2, N.3.
dēictāri—with Acc., 346, N.3.
deliberative questions—285; Subjv. in O.O., 651, R.2.
dēliberātum—est—with Inf., 423, 2, N.2.
dēlicium—decl. of, 68, 3.
dēligere—with two Acss., 340; with two Noms., 206.
demanding—vbs. of, with ut, 546.
dēmergere—with in and Abl., 385, R.1.
dēmīsīri—with Inf., 533, N.1.
dēmōnstrāre—with Inf., 527, R.2.
demonstratives—104; attracted in Gender, 211, N.5, and N.3; syntax of, 305-307; hic, 305; iste, 306; ille, 307; hic—ille, ib. n.1, 2; advs. similarly used, ib. n.3; strengthened by quidem, ib. n.4; reflexive of, 521, n.5; followed by quod, 525, 2; continue a rel. clause, 636, N.1; position of, 676, R.1.
dēmovēre—with Abl., 390, N.2, 3.
denominative—179, 2, and x; Pf. of vbs., 134, v.; formation of vbs., 192.
dense growths—suffixes for, 181, 11.
dentals—6, 1; suffixes with, 186.
dépelle—the—with Abl, 390, N.3.
depONENT—113; conjugation, 128; list of, 163-166; semi-, 167; how used, 220.
déprecārī—with nē, 548, N.1.
déprehendī—with Gen. of Charge, 378, R.1.
dēprivātum—vbs. of, with Abl., 405, N.
derivative words—173, 2.
descent—suffixes for, 182, 11.
dēsiderāre—with Inf., 423, N.2.
desiderative verbs—formation of, 191, 3.
dēsīnere—with Inf., 423, N.2.
desire—adjs. of, with Gen., 374; vbs. of, with Inf., 231, c.; 423, NN.2, 4; sequence after, 515, N.3; with Acc. and Inf., 532; with ut, ib. N.1-4; with part., 537, N.1; with complementary final clause, 546.
dēsīstere—with Abl., 390, N.3.
dēspērāre—with Dat., 346, R.2; with Inf., 527, N.2.
determinative pronouns—103; syntax of, 308.
dēsterrēre—with Inf., 423, N.2; with nē, 548, N.1; with quōminus, 549, N.1.
dēsturbāre—with Abl., 390, N.3.
dēus—decl. of, 74, N.1; Comp. of, 87, 1; ib. 2 and 7.
dēxurēs—5, 753.
dialysis—724.
diastole—721.
daica—defective, 70, D.
dicere—with two Noms. in pass., 206; omission of, 208, N.5; dixerat as Aor., 241, N.1; dicat, dixerit alīquis, 257, 2; with Acc. and Inf., 527, N.1; with Nom. and Inf., 528, and N.1; dicetur and dictum est, ib. R.2; not confined to 3d person, ib. N.4; with ut, 546, N.1; dic, with Indic. question, 457, N.; dictū, in Sup., 436, N.
[diciō]—defective, 70, D.
dīā—as Loc., 91, 3; as Abl. of Time, 393, R.5; dīā, by day, 91, 2.
difference—measure of, 403; vbs. of, with Abl., ib. N.1.
dificile—comparison of, 87, 3; with est for Subjv., 254, N.1; with Inf., 421, N.1.
dificility—adjs. of, with Abl. Sup., 436, N.2.
diffudere—with Dat., 346, R.2, and N.2; not Abl., 401, N.6.
digērārī—with Abl. of Respect, 397, N.2.
dignus—with Gen., 374, N.10; with Abl. of Respect, 397, N.2; constr. after, 552, R.3; qui or ut, with Subjv., 631, 1, and R.2.
diluvium—heteroclite, 68, 6.
diminitive—suffixes for, 181, 12, 182, 12; vbs., 192, 2.
diphthongs—4 and N.; length of, 14; quantity of, 705.
dis—in composition, 9, 4.
disagreement—vbs. of, with Dat., 346, N.6.
discere—pass. of docēre, 339, N.4; with Inf., 527, R.1.
discruicīrī—with Inf., 533, R.1.
disgust—adjs. of, with Gen., 374.
distinction—adjs. of, for advs., 325, N.6.
disjunctive—particles, 492; sentences, 492-497; particles omitted, 492, N.; questions, 452; forms of, 458; indirect, 460, 2.
displeasure—vbs. of, with Dat., 346; adjs. of, with Abl. Sup., 436, N.2.
displācēre—with Dat., 346, N.2; displace, with Inf., 422, N.4.
disproportion—by quam prō, quī, ut, etc., 296; by positive, with preps., ib. est; omission of ut after quam, ib. N.2.
dispudēt—with Gen., 377, N.1; with Inf., 422, N.4.
dissimilation—of Consonants, 3, 5.
dissimilis—Comp. of, 87, 3.
dissimulāre—with Inf., 527, R.2.
distaedet—with Gen., 377, N.1.
distāre—with Acc., or et and Abl., 335, R.2; with Dat., 346, N.6; with Abl. of Measure, 403, N.1.
distributives—97; with pluralia tantum, ib. R.3; for cardinals, ib. N.1, 295, N.; syntax of, 296; in apposition, 323.
divertiūm—747.
dives—Comp. of, 87, 10.
divinam rem facere—with Abl. of Means, 401, N.4.
docēre—with two Accs., or dē, 339, and R.1; with ab, ib. R.2; doctus, ib. R.2, and N.4; discere as pass., ib. N.4; constr. after, 423, N.6.
doing—vbs. of, take obj. clause, 523, and 525, 1, and N.4.
dolēre—with Inf., 533, R.1; dolet, with Dat., 346, N.1; with Dat. and Inf., 533, R.1.
dolū—as Abl. of Manner, 399, N.1.
domus—decl., 61, R.2, 68, 5; Acc. as Limit of Motion, 337; Abl. of Separation, 390, 2; domī, 411, N.2; with Gen. of poss. pron., 411, R.4.
INDEX.

dōnāre—with Dat. and Acc., or Acc. and Abl., 348, n.1.
dōne—derivation, 568 and r.; of complete coextension, with Indic., 569; until, with Indic., 571; reverse, ib. n.6; with Subjv., 572; to express subordination, ib. r.
dōnicum—range of, 571, n.4.
dōnique—range of, 571, n.4.
doubt—vbs. of, with quīn, 555, 2.
dropping—vbs. of, with quod clause, 525, 1; with ut, ib. n.4.
dubitāre—an, 457, 2; with Inf., 423, 2, n.2; nōn dubitō, with quīn, 555, 2, r.1; with Interrog., ib. r.2; with Inf., ib. r.3, and n.
dubium—with an and Subjv., 457, 2.
dūcere—with pred. Nom., or phrase, 206, n.1; with Final Dat., 356, r.2; with Gen. of Price, 379; pérnīx dūcere, 380, 1, n.2; deem, with Acc. and Inf., 527, r.2; lead, with ut, 553, 2.
dum—enclitic, with Impv., 269; with Pr. Indic., 229, r.; force of, 568, r.; of complete coextension, 569; of partial coextension, 570; until, with Indic., 571; with Subjv., 572; to express subordination, ib. r.; provided that, 573; with modo, ib.; with Pr. for participle, 570, n.1 and 2; causal, ib.; retained, with Indic. in O.O., 665, r.3, 663, 1, n.1.
dummodo—provided that, 573.
duo—decl. of, 73, r., 95, and ambō, eterque, 292.
dūrītia—heteroclite, 68, 2.
duty—vbs. of, with Inf., 423 and n.2.

e—sound of, 3; weakening of, 8,1; length of final, 707, 2; 5 and ex in comp., 9,4.

ease—adj. of, with Abl. Sup., 436, n.2.
ebur—decl. of, 44, 5.

écastor—strengthens atque, 477, n.2.
ecce—with Acc. and Nom., 343, 1, n.2.
ecquis—106 and n.5.
eclipsis—719, 2.
edere—conjugation of, 172, n.
edècere—with Inf., 527, r.2; with ut, 546, n.1.
edècere—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.

éffecting—vbs. of, have Final Sequence, 543, r.1, and n.2; constr. of, 553.
efferere—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.
efficere—with Inf. and Subjv., 553, 1 and 3; with Inf., 527, r.2, 553, 2, n.
egēnus—Comp. of, 87, 5; with Gen. or Abl., 405, n.3.
egère—with Gen. or Acc., 333, 1, 405, n.2.
ego—decl. of, 100; Gen. Pl. nostrum, nostri, 100, r.2, 304, 2 and 3; poss. pron. instead, ib. 2, n.2; nōs in O.O., 680, 4.
égredi—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.
egregi—adv. of Degree, 439, n.2.
ei—with Dat. in exclamations, 343, 1, n.2.
eis—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.
elābi—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.

Elegiambique—821.
elision—719, 1; in Iam. Sen., 759, n.3; in Dac. Hex., 784, n.5; in Pent., 786, n.2; in Sapph., 797, n.3; in Asclepiadean, 802, n.2.
elipsis—688; see Omission.
em—with Acc. of Exclamation, 343, 1, n.2.
emere—with Gen., 379; bene emere, 380, 2, r.
eminence—words of, with Abl., 397, n.2.
émittere—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.
emotion—vbs. of, with Acc., 330, r. and n. 2, 333, 1, n.1; vbs. of, with Abl. of Cause, 408; with Acc. and Inf., 533; in Nom. of Part., 536, n.2; Causal sentences after, 542 and r.; perplexing, with indirect question or si, 542, n.1.
emphasis—in arrangement, 672, 2, 4.
én—in exclamations, 343, 1, n.2.
enallage—693.
enclitics—effect of, on pronunciation, 15, r.1.
endeavour—vbs. of, with ut, 546, 1.
ending—vbs. of, with Inf., 423, 2 and n.2.
endings—of cases, 26, 2, 27.
endowing—vbs. of, with Abl. of Means, 401, n.1.
enim—position of, 413, n.3, 484, r., 498, n.1; yes for, 471, r.; strengthens sed, 485, n.3, 488; asseverative, 498, n.2; combinations of, ib. n.6; after quia, ib. n.7.

enimerō—strengthens sed, 485, n.3.
eniti—with Inf., 423, 2, n.2.
enumerations—in Abl. without in, 387.
enpanorthosis—484, r.1.
enphasis—of vowels, 8,3; of consonants, 9, 7.
epicene substantives—21, 3.
epulum—heteroclite, 68, 3.
erō—use of, 416, 10; with Acc. Ger., 432, n.1. 
ergò—with Gen., 373; as adv., 399, n.1; with Gen. Ger., 428, r.2; usage of, 502 and n.1; position of, ib. n.2; combinations of, ib. n.3.

ēripere—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.

ērudire—with Abl. or ɖ, 339, r.2 and n.3; with in or Abl., 401, n.1.

esse—conjunction of, 116; early forms, ib. nn.; cpds., 117; as copula. 205; esse pró, in numeró, etc., 206, r. 1; omitted, 209 and nn., 250, 2, r.2 and c; with Fut. part., to form periphrastic, 247; cpd. tenses with ful, etc., ib. r.1; forem for essem, ib. n.1, 250, n.2, 251, n.2; with Pr. part., 247, n.2; futûrum esse ut, 248; other forms, ib. nn.; in eō est ut, 249; with Pf. part., 250; variations, ib. nn., n.; with Gen., 251, 1; with Final Dat., 356, r.2; with Double Dat., ib. r.3; with Gen., 379; with in and Acc., 385, n.3; with Abl., 401, n.7; with Gen. Ger., 428, r.2; with Dat. Ger., 429, 1; futûrus as adj., 437, n.; esse quod, 525, 1, n.2; est, it is the case, with ut, 553, 3; fuit cum, with Subjv., 580, r.1; restrictions with, 627, n.2; sunt qui, with Subjv., 631, 2.

eseda—heterocite, 68, 1.

et—in numerals, 96, 4, 97, 4; et—et, with Pl., 285, n.; usage of, 475; = et tamen, ib. n.1; for etiam, ib. n.2, 482, 5, n.2; omitted, 461, 2, n. and 3; with adj. of Likeness and Unlikeness, 643, n.2.

etenum—use of, 498 and nn.

Ethical Dative—351.

etiam—strengthens comparative, 301; syntax of, 478 and nn.; yes, 471, 1; and quoque, 479 r. and n.1; with tum, 478, n.1; after sed, vérum, 482, 5, and n.1.

etiamse—603 and n.; syntax of, 604 and rr.

etsi—603; with Indic. or Subjv., 604; and yet, ib. r.2; with part., 609, n.1, 667, n.; with adj. or adv., ib. n.2; with Inf., 635, n.2.

evädere—with two Noms., 206.

evénit—with Dat., 346, r.2; with ut, 553, 3.

event—suffixes for, 181, 2.

évertere—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.

ex—in comp., 9, 4; vbs. cpd. with, take Dat., 347, r.5; with Abl. of Separation, 390, 1 and 2; with Towns, 391, r.1; with Abl. of Origin, 395 and n.2; with Abl. of Material, 396; with Abl. of Respect, 397, n.1; with Abl. of Measure, 402, n.2; with Abl. of Cause, 403, r.3, 413, r.1; use as prep., 417, 6; with Abl. Ger., 433; ex eō quod, 525, 2, n.2.

exadversus—use of, 416, 2.

excédere—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.

excellere—with Dat., 347, r.4; with Abl. of Respect, 397, n.2; with Abl. of Measure, 403, n.1.

exceptó—with quod, 525, 2, n.2.

exclamations—in Acc., 343, 1; in Gen., 333, 3; in Acc. and Inf., 534; exclamatory questions, 558.

exclúdere—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.

excluding—vbs. of, with Abl., 390, 2.

exemplum—in phrases with ut, 546, n.2.

exigere—with ordinal, 294; with two Accs., 330 and n.1.

exíre—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.

existimáre—with Gen., 379; with ex and Abl., 402, r.2; with Nom. and Inf., 528, n.1; with Acc. and Inf., 527, r.2.

exlác—defective, 85, 2.

exóráre—with ut, 553, 2.

exórráre—with Inf., 432, 2, n.2.

expédit—with Dat., 346, r.2.

expellere—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.

expers—with Gen., 374, n.2; with Abl., 390, 3, n.1.

expetere—with Pf. Inf. pass., 280, 2, c, n.

explére—with Gen., 383, 1, n.2; explé-nunt, 133, iv, n.2.

explicative cum—580, NN.1, 2, 582.

exproféré—with in and Acc., 385, n.2.

exposcrere—with two Accs., 339 and n.1.

exprimere—with ut, 553, 1.

expugnáre—with ut, 553, 1.

exsequiá—with fre, 333, 2, n.

exsisteré—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.

exsolvère—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.

exspectáre—-constr. of, 572.

exspectátioné—as Abl. of Respect, 398, n.1.

exspé—defective, 85, 2.

extension—in Degree, 334; in Space, 335; in Time, 336; Acc. of, as subj. of pass., 335, n.3.

exterior—Comp. of, 87, 2 and 7.

extorquère—with ut, 553, 1.

extrá—as adv., 415; as prep., 416, 11.

extrémum—Comp. of, 87, 2; with masc. subj., 211, r. 4; with ut, 553, 4.

exturbáre—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3.
GENERAL INDEX.

exuï—with Acc. of Respect, 338, n. 2; with Dat. and Acc., or Acc. and Abl., 343, n. 1.

facere—early Pf., feced, 131, c; omission of, 209, n. 5; mirum factum, 209, n. 2; fac (ut) for Impv., 271, l; lūdōs and second Acc., 342; with pred. Gen., 366, n. 1; nihil reliqui, 369, n. 2; quod facere possum, 372, n. 3; with reum and Gen., 379, n. 1; with Gen. of Price, 379; boni, ib. 1, n. 2; (sacrum) facere, with Abl. 401, n. 4, 7; finem facere, with Dat. Ger., 429, n. 1; represent, with Acc. and Inf., 527, r. 2; with Pf. part., 537, n. 2; with consecutive clause, 553, l; with Inf., 553, n. 2; facere (faxō) ut as periphrasis, ib. 1; non possum (facere) quin, 556; Sup. of, 436, n.

facilis—comparison of, 87, 3; with Inf., 421, n. 1, c.

facinus—with est and Inf., 422, n. 2.

faex—decl. of, 55, 7, 70, C.

fagus—heterolctite, 68, 5.

falsus—without Comp., 87, 9; with ut, 553, 4.

fama—with est and Inf., 527, r. 2.

fames—heterolctite, 68, 3.

fārī—conj. of, 175, 3, and n.

fās—70, B.; with Inf., 422, n. 2, 423, n. 2; with Abl. Sup., 436, n. 2.

fastening—vbs. of, with ex, ab, dē, 385, n. 2.

fæstidiosus—with Gen., 374, n. 5.

fætūris—with Acc. and Inf., 527, r. 2.

fætūrum—with est and Inf., 422, n. 2, and 423, n. 2.

[faux]—decl. of, 52, 7.

favēre—with Dat., 346, r. 2.

fear—sequence after vbs. of, 515, r. 3; clauses of, and Final Clauses, 543, r. 3; syntax of clause of, 550; Inf. or Indirect question after, ib. NN. 4, 5.

femur—decl. of, 44, 5, 68, 12.

fērō—position of, 677, n. 1.

fērēre—with foedus, 333, 3, r.

fērōx—with est and Inf., 533, r. 1.

ferē—conj. of, 171; lēgem with ut, 546, n. 1; in phrases with ut, 553, l and 2.

festināre—with Inf., 423, n. 2, 2.

ficus—heterolctite, 68, 5.

fidem—habēre with Dat., 346, n. 5.

fidere—with Dat., 346, r. 2 and n. 2; with Abl., 401, n. 6.

fieri—conjugation of, 173 and n.; with two Noms., 206, 304, r. 1; with Gen. of Price, 379; with ex or dē, 396, n. 2; = to be sacrificed, with Abl., 401, nN. 5, 7; with ut, 553, 3; fieri potis est ut, ib. n.

figure—Whole and Part, 323, n. 2; Figures of Syntax and Rhetoric, 688—700; of Prosody, 718—728.

filia—decl. of, 29, n. 4.

filling—vbs. of, with Abl., 405.

filium—heterogeneous, 67, 2, b.

final sentences—with Interrogative particle, 470; general view, 543, 544; Pure, 545; ut nē, or ut nōn, ib. n. 1, 2; Complementary, 546—549; with vbs. of Will and Desire, 546; Inf. instead, ib. r. 1; with vbs. of Hindering, 547—549; Subjv. without ut, ib. r. 2; ut nē, ib. r. 3; with Substantives, ib. n. 2; Inf. instead, ib. n. 3; nē with vbs. of Preventing, 548; quōminus, 549; with vbs. of Fear, 550; eight circumlocutions for, 544, r. 2; sequence in, 512.

final syllables—quantity of, 711—713.

fine—in Gen. or Abl., 378, r. 3.

fine(I)—as prep., 417, 7.

fitness—ads. of, with Dat., 359; with Dat. Ger., 429.

flēgitāre—with Abl. or a, 339, r. 1, and n. 1; with ut, 546, nN. 1, 3.

flēgitānum hominis—369, n. 1, 361, n. 3.

flēmen—defective, 70, D.

flōcī—Gen. of Price, 380, 1.

fluerē—with Abl. of Means, 401, n. 5.

flūmen—with Gen. of App., 361, n. 1.

foedus—with ferēre, 333, 3, r.; in phrases with ut, 546, n. 2.

following—vbs. of, with ut, 553, 3.

foot—in Metre, 733; names of, 734; equality of, 740; conflict of Word and Verse, 750.

forōs—91, 1, d.

forbidding—vbs. of, with Dat., 346; with nē, 546.

forgetting—vbs. of, with Gen. or Acc., 376 and r. 2.

FORMATION OF WORDS—176—200; simple words, 179—192; primitives and derivatives, 179; suffixes, 190; formation of subs., 181; of adj., 182; with suffixes, 183. Suffixes in detail—vowels, 184; gutturals, 185; dentals, 186; labials, 187; s, 188; liquids, 189; formation of vbs., 190; verbālia, 191;
frequentatives or intensives, ib. 1; inchoatives, ib. 2; desiratives, ib. 3; causatives, ib. 4; meditative, ib. 5; dēnominātīva, 192; cpd. words, 193-200; substns., 191-198; vbs., 199, 206; see compounds.

formidāre—with Inf., 423, n.2, and 533, r.1.

fōrsitan—457, n.2.

forte nisi—591, n.4, and n.3.

fortiter—very, 439, n.3.

forum—defective, 70, D.

fraude—as Abl. of Manner, 399, n.1.

fremere—with Acc. and Inf., 533, n.1.

frequentis—in pred. attribution, 325, n.6; with Abl., 405, n.3.

frequentative verbs—formation of, 191,1.

fretum—heteroclite, 68, 5.

frētus—with Abl., 401, n.6.

friendliness—adjs. of, with Dat., 359.

frūcti—85, C.; Comp. of, 90.

frui—with Abl., 407, and n.2, b; personal Ger., 427, n.5.

frūnscī—with Abl., 407, n.2, b.

[frūx]—defective, 70, D.

fugere—with Inf. for Impv., 271, n.2;

fugit mē, with Pr. Inf., 281, n.2.

fugītāns—with Gen., 375, n.2.

fulmentum—heteroclite, 68, 3.

fulness—suffices for, 182, 10.

fulness—adjs. of, with Gen., 374; vbs. of, with Gen., 383, 1.

function—suffices for, 181, 9; in Dat. Ger., 439.

fungi—with Abl., 406 and n.2, c; personal Ger., 427, n.5.

fūstitis—heteroclite, 68, 5.

FUTūRE—112, 3; formation of, 114, 115;

early forms, 130, 3; part. in fūrum for fem., 211, n.1; definition of, 223; usage of, 243; of volō and possum, ib. r.2; as gnomic, ib. n.1; in Impv. sense, 243; periphrastic act., 247; Indic. for Deliberative Subjv., 254, n.2; part. act., 283; part. as subst., 437, n.1; part. as an adj., 438, n.; representation of in Ō. O., 514, 515; periphrastic in Unreal Cond., ib. n.1; Inf., 530; in rel. sentences, 622; syntax of part., 669, 670.

FUTURE PERFECT—112, 3; formation of, 114, 115; in sō, 131, 4, b, 1; defined, 223; syntax of, 244; as Fut., ib. n.1; with nōlo, volō, possum, etc., ib. n.3; in both clauses, ib. r.4; independent use of, ib. n.1; periphrastic, with habeō, ib. n.2; as Impv., 245; Representation of, in Ō. O., 514, 515; Pf. and Plupf. periphrastic in Unreal Condition, 515, n.1; in rel. sentences, 622.

Galliambic Verse—818.

gaudēre—with ai, 542, n.1; gāvisus as Pr., 282, n.

gender—19; common, 21, 1; epicene, ib. 3;

substantiva mūbilia, ib. 2; of 1st Decl., 30; of 2d Decl., 34; of 3d Decl., 33, 43, 48, 49, 55, 58; of 4th Decl., 62; of 5th Decl., 64; concord in, 286; neut. Pl. with feminines, ib. 3.

GENITIVE—defined, 23, 2; of 1st Decl. in ās, āl, um, 29, rr., nn.; of 2d Decl. in ī (from stems in io), in um, in ēl, 33, nn., nn.; of 3d Decl. in us, es, 37, 1; in um, īnum, 38, 2, 54, 57, r.3; of 4th Decl. in os, is, i, īnum, 61, n.1; of 5th Decl. in ās, ēl, ē, 63, n.1; of Greek substns. in ὕ, ὕν, 65, r.1; os, 66, n.1; of adjs., 73; in i, āl, aes, es, um, 75, nn.; of pron. adj. in ǐus, 76, 1; of adjs. of three endings in um, ium, 79, r.2, 82, 83, n.2; of Comp. of part., 89, n.3; of Cardinals, 95, r.2; of Distributives, 97, n.1.

not subj. of pass., 217, r.1; with mille, 283 and n.; with Comp. for Abl., 296, n.2; mel, etc., as objective, 304, 2; nostrum as Part., ib. 3; poss. pron. for Gen., 304, n. 2; in app. to poss. pron., 321, n. 2; Part. Gen. for Part. App., 323, n.; with nōmen est, 349, n.6; general view, 360; translated by abstract subst., ib. n. 2; Adnominal, Appositive, 361; Epexegetical, 361; Possessive, 362; fāgītium hominis, 361, n.1; Family, 362, n.1; Chorographic, ib. n.2; Subjective and Objective, 363; two with one subst., ib. n. 2; 1st and 3d persons as possessive, 364; of Quality, 365; as Pred., 366; with facere, ib. n.1; auctōris, ib.: generis, 368, n.; with prepositional subst., 373; with adjds., 374 and nn.; with participles and verbs, 375; with vbs. of Memory, 376; with vbs. of Emotion, 377; with Judicial vbs., 378; with vbs. of Rating and Buying, 379, 380; with interest and réfert, 381; with vbs. of Fulness, 383, l; with vbs. of Separation, ib. 2; in Exclamations, ib. 3; pred. with Inf., 422, n.5; Ger., 428; with esse, causā, etc., ib. n.
eros—decl. of, 48; id genus, 336, n.2; with Epegeetical Gen. 361, 2.

geri—with Gen., 375, n.2.

GERUND AND GERUNDIVE—112, 5; formation of, 115, 3; early forms, 130, 8; Agent of, in Dat., 215, 2; with esse to form periphrasis, 251; force of Gerundive, ib. n.1; syntax of, 425—433; and Inf., 425; and vb., 426; Gerundive for Gerund, 427; impersonal Gerundive, ib. n.2; from intrans. vbs., ib. n.4; Gen. of, 423; Inf. instead, ib. n.2; depending on vb., ib. n.4; Dat. instead, ib. n.5; Dat. of, 429; Acc. of, 430; Abl. of, 431; paralleled by part., ib. n.3; Acc. of, with prepms., 432; with ad after vbs. of Hindering, ib. r.1; Abl. of, with prepms., 433.

gest—with Inf., 423,2, n.2, 533, r.1.

gigner—(genitus), with Abl. of Origin, 395, n.1.

giving—vbs. of, with Dat. and Acc., or Acc. and Abl., 348; with Inf., 423, n.1.b.; with Acc. Ger., 430.

glöriǎr—with Acc. and Inf., 527, r.2.

glöriosum—with est and Inf., 422, n.3.

Glyconic verse—795.

gracillus—Comp. of, 87, 3.

grati—Gen., 373; with poss. pron., ūb. r.2; with Gen. Ger., 423, r.2; grātīn, as Abl. of Manner, 399, n.1.

gratificār— with Dat., 346, r.2.

gratulār— with Dat., 346, r.2.

gravār— with Inf., 423,2, n.2.

Greek substantive—decl. of, 65; Greek Acc., 338.


guttural—vowels, 2,1; consonants, 6,1; suffixes with, 185.

haberē—with two Noms. in pass., 206; with Pf. part. to denote Maintenance of the Result, 238, 241, n.2, 244, n.2; first Impv. wanting, 267, r.; with two Accs., 340, r.1; with prō, locō, numerō, and a second Acc., ūb.; with Final-Dat., 356, r.2; with Gen. of Price, 379; pēnsī habērē, ūb. n.2; with in and Acc., 385, n.3; with Acc. Ger., 436, n.1; habēō dicendum, ūb. n.2; be able, with Inf., 423,2, n.2.

habit—vbs. of, with Inf., 423 and n.2.

haerēr— with Dat., 346, n.6.

hanging—vbs. of, with ex, ab, de, 385, r.2.

happening—sequence after vbs. of, 513, r.2; vbs. of, with quod clause, 525, 1; ut instead, ūb. n.5; vbs. of, with consecutive clause, 553, 3.

hardening—in a verse, 723.

hau—441 and 443, with nn.; scīō an, 457, 2.

havērē—175, 4.

henni—With Abl., 407, n.2.e.

hendiadys—698.

heteroclites—68.

heterogeneous substantives—67.

heterologia—69, c.


hic—104, 1 and nn.; syntax of, 305; contemptuous character of, 306, n.; and ille, 307, r.1.2; strengthened by quidem, ūb. r.4; two forms of, refer to different subs., ūb. n.3; hic—ille, hic—hinc, hic—inde, hic—illinc, illinc— hic—inde—hic, 482, 2; hōc with ut, 557, r.; hūnus, in Gen. of Price, 380, 1; with Abl. of Time, 393, r.4; in Ō. O., 660, 3; hic as coordinating conjunction, 503.

hiems—decl. of, 40; in Abl. of Time, 393, n.5.

hindering—sequence after vbs. of, 543, r.2 and n.2; vbs. of, with nē, 548; with quin, 554—556; and vbs. of Preventing, 555; and vbs. of Doubt, ūb. 2.

Historical cum—585 and nn.

HISTORICAL INFINITIVE—parallel with Impf., 254, r.; syntax of, 547; conjunctions with, ūb. n.2.

HISTORICAL PERFECT—224; force of, 239; and Pure Pf., 235; and Impf., 231, 240; for Plupf., 239, n.; as Potential of Past, 258, n.2.

HISTORICAL PRESENT—224 and 229; with dum, 229, n., 570.

historical tenses—225.

hodiernus—in pred. Attribb., 325, r.6.

homē—in early Latin, 42, n.

honōr—and honōs, 45, n.

hope—constr. of, vbs. of, 423, n.5; sequence after, vbs. of, 515, r.3; vbs. of, with Acc. and Inf., 527, r.4.

HORACE—Lyric Metres, of 826.
horrēre—with Inf., 423,2,N.2.

horrēscre—with Inf., 423,2,N.2.
horrētāri—with Inf., 423,2,N.2; with ut, 546,N.1: hortātus, as Fr., 282,N.; hortāτι, as Abl. of Cause, 408,N.1.

humilis—Comp. of, 87,3.
humus—in Abl. of Separation, 390,2,N.4; humi, as Loc., 411,R.2.

hypallage—693.

hypertaxis—472.

I—and J., 1.1.2; sound of, 3; weakening of, 8,1; effect of, on preceding vowel, 12,1.2; I-class of vb. stems, 133,vi.; length of final, 707,4.

iam—with Pr. Indic., 230; iam diū, iam prīdem, ib.; with Impf. Indic., 234; iam—iam, 482,1, and n.1; iam vérō, 487,N.3; iam dādum, with Impv., 269.

Iambicus verse—820.

Iambic—law, 716, 717; foot, 734; rhythm, 736; rhythms, 757-757.

ictus—conflict of, with Accent, 749.

Ideal condition—from present point of view, 596,1; from past point of view, ib. 2; = Unreal, ib. n.1; shift to Unreal, ib. n.2; after non possum, ib. r.3; in Ō. O., ib. r.5, 658.

Idem—decl. of, 103,2, and nn.; syntax of, 310; with que, et, atque, ib. n.1; the same as, with qui, ut, atque, cum, or Dat., 310,N.3; 395,N.6; 462,R.1; not used with is, 310,R.3; in Pred. attrib., 325,R.2.

idōneus—constrs. with, 552,R.2; with qui and Subjv., 631,1.

ieceur—decl. of, 44,5, 68,12.

ieōnus—with Gen., 374,N.1.

igitur—position of, 484,R.; usage of, 501; with ergō, 502,N.3; corrol. of si, 590,N.1.

ignorance—adj. of, in pred. app., 325, R. 6; with Gen., 374.

Ignōrāre—with Inf., 527,R.1.

Ignōscere—with Dat., 346,R.2.

Illative sentences—499, 500.

ille—decl. of, 104,3, and nn.; forms from olo, ib. n.1; Syntax of, 307; and hic, ib. n.1,2; et ille, ib. n.2; strengthened by quidem, ib. n.4; repeats a subst., ib. n.2; two forms with different antecedents, ib. n.3; refers to oblique case of is, ib. n.4; with Abl. of Time, 393,R.4; illinc—hinc, hinc—illinc, hic—illic, 482,2; illud with ut, 557,R.; in Ō. O., 660,2.

illūdere—with Dat., etc., 347,R.2.

illūstris—with Abl. of Respect, 397,N.2.

imbecillus—and imbecillus, 64,1.

imber—decl. of, 44,2, 45,R.1.

imberbis—and imberbus, 84,2.

immēne—with quantum and Indic., 487,N.

immensus—with quantum and Indic., 487,N.

Immo—use of, 471,c; scansion of, 717,N.1.

Immolāre—with Abl. of Means, 401,N.4.

immūnis—with Abl. of Sep., 390,3,N.1.

imperīntō—with esse and nē, 548, N.1.

impēdere—with Inf., 423,2,N.2; with nē, 548,N.1; with quōminus, 549,N.1.

impellere—with ut, 533,2; impulsus, impulsū, of Cause, 408, NN. 1 and 2.

impendīō—very, 439,N.3.

impendere—with Dat., etc., 347,R.2.

impēnsē—very, 439,N.3.

impērāre—with Dat., 346,R.2; with Inf., 423,2,N.2, 532,N.1; with ut, 548,N.1.

Imperative—112,4; early forms, 130,5;

Subjv. for, 263; answers deliberative question, 285,N.; usage, 266-275; First and Second, 267; strengthening words, 269; negative of, 270; pronouns with, 287,N.; concord with, 211,N.2; paraphrases of, 271; representatives of, 272; of Past, 272,3; tenses of, 273; for Pros- tasis, 593,4; in Subjv. with Ō. O., 652 and 41.1.

Imperfect—112,3; early forms, 130,2;

force of, 223, 231; and Hist. Pr., 232; of Endeavor, Disappointment, and Resistance to Pressure, 233; a tense of Evolution, ib. n.1; overlapping, ib. n.2,562; of Awakening, ib. n.3; with iam, etc., 234; of opposition to Present, 254,R.2; in Apodosis of Action begun, ib. r.3, 597,N.2; as Potential of Past, 258; in Wish, 260; with vellem, ib. r.; Subjv. as Concessive, 264; Subjv. as Impv. of Past, 272,3; tense relations of Subjv., 277; in Sequence, 510,R.; in Coincidence, 513,N.3; Subjv. as Principal Tense, 517, R.2.

Impersonal verbs—208,1 and 2; divine Agt. expressed, ib. 1.n.; vbs. of Saying, etc., 208,2,N.2, 528; in Ger. constr., 427, N.4; with ut, 553,4.
impertire—with Dat. and Acc., or Acc. and Abl., 348.n.1; laborem, with Dat. Ger., 429.1.
impetrae—with ut, 553.1.
implere—with Gen., 383.1.
implorare—with ut only, 546.n.3.
imponere—with in and Acc., 385.n.2.
impone—with Gen., 374.n.3.
imprimere—with in and Abl., 385.n.1.
imprudens—in pred. attrib., 325.r.6.
impullus—as Abl. of Cause, 408.n.1.
in—in composition, 9,4; vbs. prep. with take Acc. or Dat., 331,347; with Countries and Towns, 337.r.1; with Acc. for Dat., 345.r.2; with Acc. for, 348.r.1; with books, 387; throughout, 388.n.; with recipere, 389; with Abl. of Time, 394, r. and n.2; with Abl. of Cause, 408.n.3; position of, 413.n.1; as prep., 413.1; with Acc. Ger., 432, and n.1; with Abl. Ger., 433 and n.1; with part., 437.n.2; in eō quod, 525.n.2.
inanis—with Gen., 374.n.1.
incedere—with Dat., etc., 347.r.2.
incendi—with frā and Inf., 533.r.1; incensus, of Moving Cause, 408.n.2.
incertum—with an and Subjv., 457.2.
incchoative verbs—133, v., 191.2.
icidere—with Dat., etc., 347.r.2.
icideritate—with in and Abl., 385.r.1.
iciperere—with Inf., 423,2.n.2; with Ordinal, 294,n.
icittatus—of Moving Cause, 408.n.2.
iclination—suffices for, 182.2.
iclination—adj.s of, in pred. attr., 325.n.6; vbs. of, with Inf., 423 and n.2.
icludere—with in and Abl., 385.r.1.
incommodare—with Dat., 346.n.1.
incomprehension—of antecedent, 616; quā prudentiē es, 616.1,n.2; of correlative, 619.
icredibile—with Inf., 422,n.3; with quantum and Indic., 467.n.
icrepēre—charge, with Gen., 373.r.1.
icrepērare—charge, with Gen., 378.r.1.
icrubāre—with Dat., etc., 347.r.2.
icumbĕre—with Dat., etc., 347.r.2.
[indagō]—defective, 70,D.
inde—as coördinating conj., 503; in contrast with hinc, 482.2.
indecorous—and indecoris, 84.1.
indefinite pronouns—107; syntax of, 313-319; quidam, 313; aliquis, 314; quis, 315; quispiam, 316; quisquam and ullus, 317; quisque, 318; alter and alius, 319; rel. with Indic., 254,r.4, 625.
indicative—112,4; early forms of, 130,1-4; meaning of, 254; in Apodosis, 254.r.3; with indic. rel., ib. r.4; Fr. for Deliberative Subjv., ib. n.2; tense relations of, 276; neg. of, 257; in questions, 463, 464; after necscio quis, etc., 467.r.1; in Relative Sentences, ib. n.2; in Temporal Sentences, 560.1; to express Design, 630.n.2.
indīgere—with Gen., 383.1, 405.n.2.
indignāri—with Inf., 533.r.1; with si, 542.n.1.
indignus—with Gen., 374,n.10; with qui, ut, or Inf., 552.r.2; with qui and Subjv., 631.1 and n.1.
indigus—with Abl. or Gen., 405.n.3.
induere—with Dat. and Acc., or Acc. and Abl., 348.n.1; indui, with Acc. of Respect, 338.n.2.
indulgēre—with Dat., 346.r.2 and n.2.
inermis—and inermus, 84.2.
ine—will, 457,2.
inesse—with Dat., etc., 347.r.2.
inferior—67,2; with Dat., 296.n.3.
infinite—112,5; formation of, 115,3; early forms, 130,6; aor. in -xe, etc., 131,4,5,4; Fut. in assuere, ib.; act. for pass., 213,n.,c.; usage of, 279; subjunct., 280; after debeo, ib. 2,b,n.3; after decuit, oportuit, ib. 2.d,n.1 and 2; as representative of Indic., 281; after meminisse, ib. 2.n.; syntax of, 419-424; with Acc. as subj., 420; as subj., 421; trace of Locative nature, ib. n.1; as subj., 422; as obj., 423; ut instead, ib. n.4; as pred. with esse, 425; with prep.s, ib. n.; Fut. pass., 435,n.4; sequence after, 518; Acc. and Inf. after vbs. of Saying and Thinking, 527; part. instead, ib. n.1; tenses after these vbs., 529-531; after posse, velle, ib. n.3; after spērēre, ib. n.4; with vbs. of Will and Desire, 532; with vbs. of Motion, 533; ut instead, 532.nn.3,4; in Exclamations, 534; and quod, ib. r.1; Acc. and Inf. as subj., 535; Acc. and Inf. after vbs. of Emotion, 542; with vbs. of Will and Desire, 546.n.3; with vbs. of Fear, 550,n.5; with dignus, etc., 552,n.2; Acc. and Inf. in Relative Sentences, 635; after potius, etc., 644,n.3, 646; in O. O., 650. See Hist. Inf.
Infinitum— with est instead of sit, 254, n.1; with quantum and Indic., 467, n. 

infää—is—70, A.; fre, 333, 2, r. 

infection—17. 

infra—with Abl. of Measure, 403, n.1; as adv., 415; as prep., 416, 12. 

infärns—and infrænsis, 84, 1. 

ingräts—is—as Abl. of Manner, 399, n.1. 

ingeni—is—as Loc., with adjs., 374, n.7. 

ingred—with Inf., 423, 2, n.2. 

inhaerere—with Dat., etc., 347, r.2. 

inhiäre—with Dat., etc., 347, r.2. 

inicere manum—with Acc., 342. 

iniuris—as Abl. of Manner, 399, n.1. 

innäus—with Dat., 347, r.2. 

inner Object—Acc. of, 328, 330, 332; Abl. instead, 333, 2, n. 4; after vbs. of Taste and Smell, ib., 2, n.5. 

inops—with Gen., 374, n.1; with Abl., 405, n.3. 

inquam—175, 2; inquit, impersonal, 208, 2, n.2; in citing O. R., 648, r.2; lacking forms supplied by dicere, ib., r.3. 

inquiring—vbs. of, with two Accs., 339, and r.1, n.1 and 2. 

Inscrhere—with in and Abl., 385, r.1. 

Insculpere—with in and Abl., 385, n.1. 

Inservire—with Dat., 347, r.2. 

Insignis—with Abl. of Respect, 397, n.2; 

Insigniter as adv. of Degree, 439, n.2. 

Insidiärf—with Dat., 345, r.2. 

Insinuäre—with Dat., 347, r.2. 

Insistere—with Dat., 347, n.2. 

Instar—70, B.; with Gen., 373. 

Instäre—with Dat., 347, r.2; with Inf., 423, 2, n.2. 

Instruere—with dē, 339, n.3. 

instrument—suffixes for, 181, 6; in Abl., 214, 401; with ab, 214, r.2; Abl. of contrasted with Abl. of Attention, 392, n.2. 

Instrumental—case, 23, n. 

Insuëtus—with Gen., 374, n.4. 

integrum—with Inf., 422, n.3. 

intellegere—with Inf., 527, r.1; inteläctü as Sup., 436, n. 

intendere—with Inf., 423, 2, n.2; inten-tus, with Abl., etc., 359, n.5. 

intensive verbs—formation of, 191, 1. 

inter—with reflexive to express reciprocal action, 221; vbs. cpd. with, take Acc. or Dat., 331, 347; to designate Time, 394, n.2; position of, 413, r.1; as prep., 416, 13; with Acc. Ger., 432 and n.1; with part., 437, n.2. 

intercaläris—and intercalärius, 84, 2. 

intercédere—with Dat., 347, r.2; with nē, 548, n.1; with quīn, 555, 1. 

interclüdere—with Dat. and Acc., or Acc. and Abl., 348, r.1; with Abl., 390, n.3; with nē, 548, n.1; with quīn, 555, 1. 

intercurrere—with Dat., 347, r.2. 

interdicere—with Abl., 390, 2, n.3; with nē, 548, n.1; with quīn, 555, 1. 

interdum—coördinates with aliä, 482, 1, n.1. 

interesse—with Dat., 347, r.2; interest, with Gen. and Abl., 381; with Nom., ib., n.3; constr. of Object of Concern, 382, 1 and 2; constr. of Thing Involved, ib., 3; with ut, 553, 4. 

Interest—Dat. of Personal, 350. 

interior—87, 2 and 8. 

interjection—16, r.2; no syntax, 201, r.1. 

intermittere—with Inf., 423, 2, n.2. 

internécio—defective, 70, B. 

interpelläre—with nē, 548, n.1. 

interpöñere—with nē, 548, n.1. 

interrogäre—with two Aces., or dē, 339, r.1 and n.1; with Indic., 467, n. 

interrogative pronouns—106; distinguished from rel., 467, r.2; with part., 469; in Final Sentence, 470; doubling of, ib., r. 

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES—450—470; simple and cpd., 452; particles in, 454—457; moods in, 462—467; Indic., 463, 464; Subj., 465, 466; after vb. of Wonder, 542, n.1; after vb. of Fear, 550, n.4; for Protasis, 593, 4; in O. O., 651 and n. 

intervenire—with Dat., 347, r.2. 

inträ—to designate Time, 394, n.2; position of, 413, n.1; as adv., 415; as prep., 416, 14. 

intransitive verbs—used impersonally, 208, 2; used transitively, 213, r.2; construed as pass., 214, n.1; with neut. subj. in pass., 217; with personal Ger., 217, r.2; with Pf. part. pass. used actively, 220, n.1; Gerund of, used impersonally, 251, 2. 

inüsitätum—with ut, 553, 4. 

invädere—with Dat., 347, n.2. 

invénri—with Nom. and Inf., 528, n.1; inventi in Sup., 436, n. 

inverso—dōne, 571, n.6; cum, 591; attraction of rel., 617, n.2. 

invicem—to indicate reciprocity, 221, r.2.
invidiōre—with personal pass., 217,N.1; with Dat., 346,R.2 and N.2; with Inf., 533,N.1.
invidus—conj. of, 359,N.5.
invtus—in pred. app., 325,R.6; invitō est, 353,N.2.
icolou—as Abl. of Manner, 399,N.1.
icoius—heterogeneous, 67,2.
ionic—foot, 734; rhythm, 736; rhythms, 815–819; substitutions for, 815.
ipse—decl. of, 103,3 and N.; ipsus, ib.N.2; syntax of, 311; et ipse, ib.1,R.2; emphases reflexive, ib. 2; used indeclinably, ib. 2,N.; in Ò.O., 660,5.
frā—of Moving Cause, 408,N.2; incendor frā, with Inf., 533,R.1.
frācē—with Dat., 346,B.2.
fre—169,2; omission of, 209,N.5; with Dat., 358,N.2; with Sup., 436,N.1; with Inftīās, etc., 333,2,n.
is—decl. of, 103,1 and N.; strengthened by quidam, 307,R.4; taken up by ille, ib. N.4; two forms with different antecedent, ib. N.3; syntax of, 308; = tālis, ib. N.1; with et, atque, que, ib. R.2; for reflexive, 309,N.1; id temporis, aetātis, 336,N.2; ēō as coordinating conj., 503; ideō, idcirco, ib.; with qui and Subjv., 631,1; with ut, ib. R.1, 557,R.; in Ò.O., 660,2.
Islands—in Local Acc., 337; with in, ib. N.1 and N.3; prep. omitted with Large Islands, ib. N.1.
isē—decl. of, 104,II. and NN.; syntax of, 306; contemptuous character of, ib. N.; strengthened by quidem, 307,R.4; in Ò.O., 660,3.
ita—with ut, 482,4; correlative of si, 590,N.1; yes, 471,a,1.
Italicus Numerus—756.
itaque—usage of, 500; position of, ib. n.; with ergō, 502,N.3.
iter—decl. of, 44,5.
iterative action—566, 567; Subjv. in, ib. N.; with cum, 584; in Relative Sentences, 623.
Ithyphallic—verse, 774.
ibèré—with two Accs., 341,N.2; with Acc. and Dat., 346,N.3; constr. after, 423,N.6; with Acc. and Inf., 523 and N.1; with Inf., 423,2,M.2, 532,NN.1,2; with Subjv., 546,R.2; iüssū, defective, 68,5; iüssū as Abl. of Cause, 408,N.1.
iūdīcāre—with Inf., 423,2,N.2. [iūger]—decl. of, 68,7.
iūntus—with Dat., etc., 359,N.3.
iūs—with Inf., 422,R.2, 428,N.2; with respondēre, 333,2,R.; in phrases with ut, 546,R.2; iūre, 399,N.1; iūre in Abl. of Respect, 397.
iūstō—as Abl. of Respect, 398,N.1.
Iuvāre—with Acc., 346,N.3.
Iuvenis—Comp. of, 87,9.
iūxta—as adv., 415; as prep., 416,15.
Judgment—vbs. of, with Abl. of Standard, 402.
K—sounds of, 1,r.1; name of, ib. n.
knowledge—adjs. of, in pred. attrib., 325, n.6; adjs. of, with Gen., 374.
Labials—6,1; suffixes with, 187.
labörem—with impertīrē and Dat. Ger., 429,1.
laborāre—with Inf., 423,2,R.2; with ut, 546,N.1.
lāc—decl. of, 53,8; 68,12.
laedere—with Acc., 346,N.3.
lætāri—with Acc. and Inf., 533,R.1.
lamentāri—with Acc. and Inf., 533,R.1.
largīrī—with ut, 553,2.
later—defective, 70,D.
lātitūdine—with Acc. of Extent, 335,R.1.
lātus—with Acc. of Extent, 335,R.1.
laurus—heteroclite, 68,5.
leaving—vbs. of, with Acc. Ger., 430.
lectus—heteroclite, 68,5.
length—by nature, 12,1, and n.; by position, ib. 2; representation of long vocals, ib. n.
lengthening—compensatory, 9,6,a.
letters—tenses in, 252; advs. in, ib.; dated from a place, 391,R.3.
letting—vbs. of, with Acc. Ger., 430.
levēre—with Abl. 390,R.2,N.2.
lēx—in phrases with ut, 546,NN.1 and 2; lēge, 397 and N.1, 398,N.1.
liberālis—with Gen., 374,N.1.
liberāre—with Abl., 390,2,R.2.
-libet—added to rels., 111,3; exact use of libuerit, 244,R.3; libēns, in pred. attrib., 325,R.6; with Dat., 346,N.2.
licēre—exact use of Fut. Pf., 244,R.3; with Dat., 346,R.2; with Gen., 379; licet, although, 603–607; with quamvis, ib. N.2; with Indic., ib. N.3.
likeness—suffixes for, 182,4.
\textbf{general index.} 523

\textit{likeness}—adjs. of, with Dat., 349; with atque (āc), 643.
linguals—6,1.n.1.
\textit{linter}—decl. of, 44,2, 45, r.1.
liquids—6,2, A; 3d Decl. stems in, 39–46; suffixes with, 189.
litāre—with Abl. of Means, 401, n.4.
litotes—644, n.1, 700.
litterae—in phrases with ut, 546,n.2.
\textit{living}—vbs. of, with, 401,n.1.
Local Dative—358.
locality—suffixes for, 181,5, 182,9.
\textit{lōcāre}—with Gen., 379; with in and Abl., 386,r.1; with Acc. Gen., 430.
\textit{locative}—23,n.; of 1st Decl., 29,r.2; of 2d Decl., 33,n.3, 35; 3d Decl., 37, 5; forms advs., 91,3; syntax of, 411; in 3d Decl., ἰβ. r.1; other Locs., ἰβ. r.2; app. to, in Abl., ἰβ. r.3; domi, with poss. pron., ἰβ. r.4.
locus—67,2; ἐν locō habēre, 340,r.1; Abl. without in, 385,n.1.
logaeōdic rhythms—790–805.
\textit{logical condition}—595; with Subjv. by Attraction, ἰβ. r.2; with Ideal 2d Person, ἰβ. r.3; sive—sive, ἰβ. r.4; sī quidem, ἰβ. r.5; sī modo, vērō, tāmen, ἰβ. r.6; tenses in, ἰβ. n.2; in O. O., 657, 595, r.1.
longinquus—Comp. of, 87,9.
longitūdine—with Acc. of Extent, 335, r.1.
longum—with est for Subjv., 254,r.1; longē strengthens Comp. or Superlative, 301, 303; with Acc., 335,n.1.
loquī—with Acc. and Inf., 527,r.2; with Indic. question, 467,n.
lubīdē—in phrases with Inf., 422,n.2.
lūdōs facere—with Acc., 342.
lūgēre—with Inf., 533,r.1.
lūx—70,D; in Abl. of Time, 393,r.5.
M—final omitted, 27,n.
macte—85,C, 325,r.1.
maērēre—with Inf., 533,r.1.
māgnificus—Comp. of, 87,4.
māgnītūdine—with Acc. of Extent, 335, r.1.
māgnus—comparison of, 90; constr. with māior, 296,r.5; magis, in comparison of Qualities, 299; māgni, as Gen. of Price, 380,1; mānis, with Inf., 422,n.3; māximī, as Gen. of Price, 380,1; nōn magis quam, 644,n.1.
making—vbs. of, with two Noms., 206; with two Accs., 340.
maledicere—with Dat., 346,n.2.
maledicus—Comp. of, 87,4.
mālle—conj. of, 174 and n.3; mālueram, could have preferred, 254,n.1; mālim, māllem, as Potential, 257,2; 258,n.1; in Unreal Wish, 261,r.; with Abl., 296, n.1; with Abl. of Measure, 403,n.1; with Inf. or ut, 423,2,n.2, 538 and n.3, 546,n.1.
malus—comparison of, 90; male as neg., 439,n.2.
maṇāre—with Abl. of Means, 401,n.5.
mandāre—with ut, 546,n.1.
manēre—as copulative vb., 206,n.1; with Abl., 401,n.6.
māni—as Loc., 411,n.1.
manifestus—with Gen., 374,n.2; with Inf., 421,n.1.c.
Manner—Abl. of, 399 and NN.
maṇīs incicer— with Acc., 342.
mare—in Abl. without in, 385,n.1.
margarita—heteroclite, 68,1.
māteria—heteroclite, 68,2.
Material—Abl. of, 396; indicated by adj., ἰβ.; suffixes for, 182,4.
mātūrāre—with Inf., 423,2,n.2.
mātūrus—Comp. of, 87,1,r.2.
mātūtīnus—in pred. Attr., 325,r.6.
Means—Abl. of, 401, and RR., NN.; suffixes for, 181, 6.
measure—vbs. of, take Abl., 402.
Measure—Abl. of, 402; of Difference, 403; Abl. of, with vbs. involving Difference, ἰβ. n.1; with ante and post, ἰβ. n.4.
medērī—with Dat., 346,r.2 and n.4.
medioximus—87,9,n.
meditārī—with Inf., 423,2,n.2.
meditative verbs—formation, 191,5.
medium—suffixes for, 182,6.
medius—in pred. attrib., 325,n.6; used partitively, 291,r.2; Abl. used without in, 388.
memini—175,5, b; First Impv. wanting, 287,n.; with Pr. Inf., 281,2,n.; with Acc., 376,n.2; with Inf., 423,2,n.2, 527,r.2; with cum and Indic., 580,r.2.
memorātī—as Abl. Sup., 436,n.
memorīā teneō—with Pr. Inf., 281,2,n.
mendment—heteroclite, 68,3.
mēns—in phrases with ut, 557,r.; in mentem venire, with Gen., 376,n.3; in mentem venire, with Inf., 422,n.5.
ne—added to hic, 104,1,3.; to iste, ib. 2, N.3.; to ille, 103,3, N.4.; as interrogative, 454; asseverative, ib. n. 2.; added to interrogatives, ib. n. 3.; = nonne, ib. n. 5.; added to num, 456, N.; strengthens an, 457, N.2.; to introduce double questions, 458; necne or annèn, 459; to introduce second member of an indirect question, 460, 2.

necessity—adj.s of, with Inf., 421, N.1., c.; expressed by Indic., 254, N.1., 255, N.

nèdum—482, 5, R.2.


negative—of Potential, 257; of Opt., 280; of Imprv., 270; non with Opt., 260; nòn with Imprv., 270, R.1.; nòl with Inf., 270, R.2.; advs., 441—449; nòn, 442; hand, 443; nec = nonn, 442, N.3.; nè, 444; subdivision of, 445; combinations, 446; resolution of, ib. n. 3.; positive supplied from, 447, R.; position of, 448, 449; two, 449; nec nòn for et, ib. n. 3.; in Copulative Sentences, 480; in Final and Consecutive Sentences, 543, 4.

negòtiun—in phrases with ut, 546, N.2.; with Inf., 422, N.5.

nèmò—decl. of, 70, D.; and nullus, 108; with Pri. vb., 211, N.1, Ex. a.; with Imprv. Subjv., 270, N.; and quisquam, 317, 2.; as adj., ib.; et nèmò, ib. 2, N.1.; strengthened by ìnus; = nèquis, 446, N.3.

nèquam—85, C.; comparison of, 90.


nequire—conj. of, 170, b.; nequonunt, 133, iv, N.2.; with Inf., 423, 2, N.2.

nerio—decl. of, 41, A.

nesciò—an, 457, 2.; quis, 467, R.1.; quòmodo, ib. n.; with Inf., 423, 2, N.2, 527, N.1.

new, nève—444, 2.; adds Final Clause, 543, 4; neque instead, ib. n. 3.

neuter—decl. of, 76, 108; neutiquam, 442, N.2.

neuter—adj. with masc. subj., 211, R.4.; demonstrative when subst. is expected, ib. n. 3.; Sq. sums up Pl., ib.; Pl. pred. to two fems., 236, 3.; in app. to persons, 321, N.2.; pron. and adj. in Cognate Acc., 333, 1, 341, N.2.; pron. and adj. with Part. Gen., 369.; pron. and adj. not attracted to Ger., 427, N.3.

nève—see neu.

nì—with mirum, 209, N.2.; range of, 591, N.2.


nihilominus—490, R.

nimis—with quam and Indic., 467, N.


nisi—with quod, 525, N.2., 591, b. R.3.; with ut, 557, N.2., 591, b. R.4.; and si non, 591, b.; but, except, ib. b. 2.; si, ib.; nisi forte, vèrò, ib. n. 4.; nisi tamen, ib. n. 1.; in asseverations, 591, b. 2.; with Inf., 635, N.2.; with participle, 667, N.

nìtf—with Abl., 401, N.6.; with Inf., 423, 2, N.2.; with ut, 546, N.1.

nix—decl. of, 52, 7.

no—how translated, 470, b. and c.

noccè—with Dat., 346.

nòlle—conj. of, 174; exact use of nolle—rit, 244, R.3.; nòllim, nòllem, as Potential, 257, 2., 258; not in Unreal Wish, 261, R.; nòlì, with Inf. for Imprv., 270, N.2.; 271, 2.; nòllim, with Subjv. for Imprv.,
obstāre—with Dat., 347,r.2; with nē, 548,N.1; with quīn, 555,l.
obstrepere—with Dat., 347,r.2.
obtemperāre—with Dat., 346,r.2.
obtēstōr—with Inf., 546,N.3.
obtīngere—with Dat., 347,r.2.
obtrectāre—with Dat., 346,r.2 and n.2.
обvenire—with Dat., 347, n.2.
обversāri—with Dat., 347, r.2.
occurre—rere—with Dat., 347, r.2.
occursāre—with Dat., 347, r.2.
ōcior—87,7.
ōdi—conjugation of, 175,5, c; odiō esse as pass. of, ib. n.
office—suffixes for, 181,10.
officere—with Dat., 346,r.2.
officium—in phrases with Inf., 422,N.2; with ut, 546,N.2.
olle—for ille, 104,3,N.1.
oission—of vowels, 8,2, 701,r.2,a; of consonants, 9,6; of subj., 207; of copula, 209; of other vbs., ib. N.5; of esse in Pr. Inf. pass., 280,2,r.2 and c; of conjunction, 474,N., 481,433,N., 492,N.; of non, 482,5,n.1; of vb. of saying, 545,r.3; of vb. with sīn, 592,n.; of sī, 598; of vb. of Protasis, 599; of Protasis, 600; of Apodosis, 601; of vb. after quasi and tamquam, 602,N.1; of vb. of comparative clause, 640.
mittere—with quod, 525.1,N.1; with Inf., 423,3,N.2; mitte, with Inf. for Impv., 271,N.2.
mitter—vbs. of, with quod, 555,1; vbs. of, with Inf., 423,2.
ominō—yes, 471,a.1.
omnis—in Abl., without in, 388; omnia, as Acc. of Respect, 338,2.
onus—with Inf., 422,N.2.
onustus—with Gen., 374,N.1; with Abl., 405,N.3.
operam—in phrases with Dat. Ger., 429,1 and N.1; with Inf., 422,N.5; with ut, 546,NN.1 and 2.
opīniō—in phrases with Inf., 527,r.2; with ut, 557,r.; opīniōne as Abl. of Respect, 398,N.1.
opītūlārī—with Dat., 346,r.2.
opert—Indic. for Subjv., 254,r.1; with Pr. part. pass., 280,2,b,r.2; with Inf. or Subjv., 635,r.2; with ut, 553,4,n.1.
opīdō—very, 439,N.3; with quantum, 467,N.
opīdum—has pred. adj. in agreement,
subject, ib. n.3; with Inf., 422,n.4; with quod, 542.

palam—as prep., 417,8.

palatal—vowels, 2; consonants, 6,1,n.

palumbes—heteroclite, 68,7.

pānis—heteroclite, 68,12.

pār—with est instead of Subjv., 254,n.1; with Gen. or Dat., 359,n.1; with Dat. Ger., 429,n.1.

parāre—with Inf., 423,2,n.2; parātus, with Inf., 421,n.1,c.

parataxis—472.

par cere—with Dat., 346,n.2; parce, with Inf. for Impv., 271,2,n.2.

parenthetical ut and nē—545,n.3.

parēre—with Dat., 346,n.2.

pariter—pariter, 482,3.

pars—with Pl. vb., 211,n.1,Ex.a; in Abl. without in, 385,n.1; tuam partem, 334,n.2.


partial obliquity—508,3, 663.

particeps—with Gen., 374,n.2.

participle—adj. of, with Gen., 374.

participial sentences—664—670; to express Time, 685; Cause, 666; Condition and Concession, 667; relative clauses, 668; Future similarly used, 669,670.

participle—decl. of, 80,32; Abl. of, 83; Nom. and Acc. Pl. of, ib. n.1; comparison of, 88,89; Abl. of Comp., ib. n.1; Nom. Pl. of, ib. n.2; Gen. Pl. of, ib. n.3; defined, 112,5; formation of, 115,3; early forms of, 130,7; Pf. pass., 135,1; Fut. Act., ib. II.; Pf. pass. of Deponents as act., 167,n.1; Pf. pass. of Intrans. vbs. used as act., 220,n.1; Pf. with habeō and teneō, 233; Fut. periphrastic, 247; Pr. periphrastic with esse, ib. n.2; Pf. with fut., 250; as adj., ib. n.2; as pred., 251,n.1; usage of Pr. and Pf., 288; usage of Fut. act., 283; concord with two subj. in Abl. Abs., 285,n.3; Pr. with Gen., 375; contrasted with adj., ib. n.1; Comp. of, with Gen., ib. n.2; of Birth with Abl., 395; Pf. pass. with opus and ūsus, 406; in Abl. Abs., 409, 410, and nn.; Pf. pass. parallel with Ger., 428,n.2; 427,n.1; as subst., 437; Fut. as subst., ib. n.1; as adj., 438; Fut. as adj., ib. n.1; parallel with rel. and Subjv., ib. r.; with interrog., 469; sequence after, 518; after vbs. of Perception, etc., 527,n.1, 536; after vbs. of causation, etc., 537; equiv. to cum, 585, n.; for Prot., 599,2; for Prot. in Comparative Sentence, 602,n.3; Concessive, 609; for rel., 637.

comparative—474; adversative, 483; disjunctive, 492; causal, 498; illative, 499; position of, 679.

parative apposition—322.

Partitive Genitive—367—372; with subs. of Quantity, etc., 368; with neut. Sg., 369; with numerals, 370; with pronouns, 371; with comparatives and superlatives, 372; prep. instead, ib. n.2; with uterque, 371,r.1; extensions of, 372.

NN.: contrasted with Gen. of Characteristic, 368,n.1.

parts of speech—16.

parvus—Comp. of, 90; in Gen. of Price, 380,1.

passive—voice, 112,2; vbs. with two Noms., 206; vb. agrees with pred., 211, n.1, Ex. b; defined, 214; Pf. with Dat. of Agent, 215,1; as reflexive, 218; of something endured, 219; periphrastic forms of, 248—251; with Acc. of Respect, 338,n.2; impersonal, 346,r.1.

pati—with ut, 553,2; with Inf., ib.n.

patronymics—182,11.

paulō, paulum—with ante and post, 403,n.4,b.

pause—in Verse, 742.

pavēre—constr. of, 550 and n.1.

pāx—decl. of, 70,D; in Abl. of Time, 393, n.5, 394,r.1.

pecūliāris—with Gen. or Dat., 359,n.1.

pecus—heteroclite, 68,12.

pellerē—with Abl. of Separation, 390, n.1.

pendēre—with Gen., 379.

penes—position of, 413,n.1; use of, as prep., 416,17.

pentameter—elegiac, 785; Pf. Inf. in, 280,2,b,n.2; position of words in, 683.

pennīt—11.

penus—heteroclite, 68,11.

per—vbs. cpd. with take Acc., 331; with Acc. of Extent, 335, 336; to express Time Within Which, ib. n.2, 393,n.1; here and there in, 355,r.3; for Abl. of Manner, 399,n.1; with Person Through Whom, 401; position of, 413,n.1, and n.2; use as prep., 416,18.

perceiving—vbs. of, with Object Clause, 523; with Acc. and Inf., 526, 527; with
plenus—with Gen., 374,N.1; with Abl., 405,N.3.
pleonasm—692.
pléraque—as Acc. of Respect, 338,2.
pluere—with Abl. of Means, 401,N.5.
pluperfect—112,3; formation of, 114, 115; Aor. forms of, 131,4,b,3; defined, 223; force of, 241; translated by Impf., ib. r.; used as Aor., ib. n.; periphrastic, with habeo, ib. n.2; Subjv. as Potential of Past, 258,N.2; in Wish, 260; with vellem, 261,r.; Subjv. as Concessive, ib. n.; Subjv. as Impv. of Past, 273,3; tense force in Subjv., 277; in Final Sentences, 512,N.1; to express Resulting Condition, 563,1; Indic. in Apod. of Unreal Condition, 597,r.2.
plural—of abstracts, 204,n.5; used for Sg., ib. nn.6,7; pred. with two subsjs., 255; neut. pred. to two fems., 286,3.
plūs—quam omitted with, 296,r.4; plūris, with vbs. of Rating and Buying, 380,1; plūrimum, with quantum, 467, n.; plūrimi, as Gen. of Price, 360,1.
poema—heteroclitc, 68,7.
pollière—with Inf., 423,2,n.2.
polliecē—with Inf., 527,r.2, 531,n.4.
pollis—decl. of, 41,4.
pondō—defective, 70,A.
pōne—usage of, 416,19.
pōnerē—with in and Abl., 386,r.1 and n.2; suppose, with Inf., 527,r.2.
pōscere—with two Aecs., 339 and n.1; with a and Abl., ib. r.1; with Inf. or ut, 546, nn.1,3.
position—adj.s. of, in pred. attrib., 325,n.6; of advs., 440; of neg., 448 and NN.; of rel., 612; of correlative clause, 620; poetical peculiarities in, 663.
positive—degree lacking, 87,2,7,8, and 9; with prep. to express disproportion, 298,r.; in comparing qualities, 299; with quam after Comp., 299,n.2; with Part. Gen., 372,n.2; supplied from neg., 447, n.
posse—conj. of, 118; potis for posse, 209, n.2; use of Fut. and Fut. Pf. of, 242, r.2, 244, r.3; needs no periphrasis, 248,r.; Indic. for Subjv., 254,r.1; Impf. Indic. of Disappointment, ib. n.2; with Pf. Inf. act., 280,2,b, and n.1; with quam, etc., to strengthen suplicative, 303; omitted, with quam, ib. n.1; with Inf., 423,2,n.2; non possum non, 449,r.1; in simple questions, 453,n.1; for periphrastic, 513,r.3, 531,n.3 and 4; in Apod. of Unreal Condition, 597,r.5,c; restrictions with, 627,r.2; in Logical Condition, 657,n.; in Unreal Condition in O.O., 659,n.
Possession—Dat. of, 349; compared with Gen., ib. r.2; of qualities, ib. n.3; Gen. of, 362; in 1st and 2d person, ib. n.1; omission of governing word, ib. n.3.
possessive pronouns—100-102, 106,n.4; usage of suus, 309,4 and NN.; syntax of, 312; intense use of, ib. n.1; for Gen. of personal pron., 304,2,n.2; with Gen. in app., 321,r.2; for 1st and 2d persons in Subjective Gen., 364; as pred., 366,r.3; with interest and rēfērt, 381; with domi, 411,n.4; position of, 676,r.1.
possibility—in Indic. rather than Subjv., 254,r.1, 255,r.
pot—vbs. cpd. with, take Dat., 247; with Abl. or Acc. of Measure, 403,n.4; position of, 403,n.4,b, 413,r.1; omission of, with rel., 403,n.4; as adv., 415; as prep., 416,20; with Pf. part. pass., 437, n.2.
potestāquam—see postquam.
poterum—defective, 74,n.2; Comp. of, 87,2 and 7.
postquam—with Hist. Pf. or Pr., 561; with Impf., 562; with Plupf., 563; range of tenses with, ib. nn.1-3; with Subjv., ib. n.4; Can sal with Pr. and Pf., 564 and n.1; in Iterative action, 566,567.
potridiē quam—577,n.5.
pōstulāre—with a and Abl., 339,r.1 and n.1; with Inf., 423,2,n.2, 546,n.3; with ut, ib. n.3.
potēns—with Gen., 374,n.3.
potential subjunctive—257-259; for Pr. and Fut., 257; for Past, 258; in questions, 259; for Indic., 257,n.3; not conditional, 257,n.2, 606,2; offset coincides with Unreal of Present, 258,n.2.
potīrī—with Abl., 407 and n.2,d; with personal Ger., 427,n.5.
potis, e—85,C; potior, 87,7; potius strengthens comparative, 301; potius quam, with Subjv. or Inf., 577,n.6, 631, 3,r.2, 644,r.3; see posse.
power—adj.s. of, with Gen., 374; vbs. of, with Inf., 423 and n.3; sequence after vb. of, 515,r.3; in Indic. rather than Subjv., 254,r.1, 255,r.
prae—to express disproportion, 296, N.3; vbs. cpd. with take Dat., 347; gives Preventing Cause, 403, N.4; as adv., 415; as prep., 417, 9; prae quod, 525, 2, N.2.

praecellere—with Abl. of Respect, 397, N.2.

praecipere—with Inf., 423, 2, N.2; with ut, 546, N.1; used personally in pass., 217, N.2; praeceptum, with ut, 546, N.2.

praecipitäre—with Abl., 390, 2, N.3.

praecipuum—with ut, 557, N.

praeesse—with Dat. Ger., 429, 1.

praeficere—with Dat. Ger., 429, 1.

praegestäre—with Inf., 423, 2, N.2.

praesenti—for the present, 394, N.

praesidäre—with Dat., 347, N.2.

praestäre—with Dat., 347, R.2; with Abl. of Respect, 397, N.2; with Abl. of Measure, 403, N.1; with ut, 553, 1.

praestlári—with Dat., 346, N.2.

praeter—to express disproportion, 296, N.3; vbs. cpd. with take Acc., 331; position of, 413, N.3; use as prep., 416, 21; with Pf. part. pass., 437, N.2; id quod, quam quod, quod, 525, N.3.

praeterire—with quod, 525, N.1.

præcari—with ut, 546, N.1.

predicate—and copula, 205; with copulative vbs., 206; concord of, 211; violation of concord of, ib. R.R.1-6, N.N.1-3; in Pl. with two subjs., 235; in Pl. with neque, neque, ib. N.1; concord of, in Gender, 286; in Person, 237; Attribution, 325; Apposition, ib. and n.6; with Abl. Abs., 410, N.6; after Inf., 538.

prepositions—assimilation of in composition, 9, 4; defined, 16, 6; repeated with cpd. vbs., 331, N.R.2, 3; with Countries and Towns, 337, R.R.1-4; with domum, ib. n.3; omitted with Countries and Towns, 337, N.N.1-3; instead of Dat., 347, R.1; omitted with vbs. and adjis. of Separation, 390, 2 and 3; with Abl. of Origin, 395, N.N.2, 3; syntax of, 412-416; origin of, 412; position of, 413, 678; repetition and omission of, 414; as advs., 415; with Acc., 416; with Abl., 417; with Acc. and Abl., 418; two with same case, 414, R.4; improper, 412, N.; with participles for abstract substantives, 437, N.2.

present—112, 3; System, 114, 3, a; rules for formation of, 121, 1; notes on System, 130; formation of Stem, 133; de-
INDEX.

profusus—with Gen., 374, n. 1.
prōgnātus—with Abl. of Origin, 395, n. 1.
prohibēre—with two Accs., 341, n. 2; with Abl., 390, n. 2; with Inf., 423, n. 2; with nē, 548, and n. 1; with quōminus, 549, and n. 1; with Inf., 532, n. 1, 549, n. 1.
prohibītīng—vbs. of, with Dat., 345, n. 1.
proinde—strengthens Impv., 260; as coordinating conj., 503; and proin, ib. prolepsis—of subj. of leading clause, 468.
promissing—vbs. of, with Inf., 423, n. 5, 527, n. 4; 531, n. 4.
promittere—with Pr. Inf., 527, n. 2, 531, n. 4.
pronouns—defined, 16, 3; compared with nouns, ib. n. 2; decl. of, 17; Personal, 100–102; Determinative, 103; Demonstrative, 104; Relative, 105; Interrogative, 106; Indefinite, 107; Pronominal Adjectives, 108; Possessive, 100–102; omitted, 207; with Impv., 267, n. 3; syntax of, 304–319; Personal, 304; Demonstrative, 305–307; hic, 305; iste, 306; ille, 307; Determinative is, 308; Reflexive, 309; idem, 310; ipse, 311; Possessive, 312; Indefinite, 313–319; qui, dam, 313; aliquis, 314; quis, 315; quispiam, 316; quisquam and ullus, 317; quisque, 313; alter and alius, 319; with Part. Gen., 371; in Ó. O., 660.
pronūntiāre—used personally in pass., 217, n. 2.
pronus—constr. of, 359, n. 5.
prop—as adv., 416; as prep., 416, 22; position of, 673, n. 1; propīor and proximus, 87, 8; with Acc. or ab, 359, n. 1.
properē—with Inf., 423, n. 2.
propīnāre—with Acc. Ger., 430, n. 1.
propinquus—Comp. of, 87, 9.
prōpōnere—with Acc. Ger., 430, n. 1.
prōpositum—est, with Inf., 423, n. 2; with ut, 546, n. 2.
prōprīus—with Gen. or Dat., 359, n. 1; with ut, 557, n. 1.
propter—compared with Abl. of Cause, 408, n. 3; position of, 413, n. 1; as adv., 415; as prep., 415, 22; with Acc. Ger., 432 and n. 1.
proptereā—503.
prosody—701–823.
prōspicere—with Dat., 346, n. 2; with Inf., 527, n. 1; with ut, 546, n. 1.
prōstāre—with Gen. of Price, 379.
protasis—defined, 589; equivalents of, 593; omission of vb. of, 599; total omission of, 600.
protraction—743.
providēre—with ut, 546, n. 1.
providing—vbs. of, with Abl., 401, n. 1.
prōvidūs—Comp. of, 37, 5.
proximum—in phrases with ut, 557, n. 1.
prūūdos—in pred. attrib., 325, n. 6; with Gen., 374, n. 4.
ptē—added to personal pronouns, 102, n. 3.
pudet—with Gen., 377 and n. 1; with subj. ib. n. 2.
puer—Voc. of, 33, n. 2.
pūgnāre—with Dat., 346, n. 6; with ut, 546, n. 1.
purpose—in Inf., 423, n. 1; in Dat. Ger., 429, 2; in Sup., 435; in Fut. part., 438, n.; sequence in clauses of, 512; reflexive in clauses of, 521; rel. clauses of, 630; see Final Sentences.
pūrus—with Abl. of Sep., 390, n. 3.
putāre—with Gen. of Price, 379; with two Noms. in pass., 206; (non) putāveram, 254, n. 1; puta, ut puta, for example, 274; with Inf., 527, n. 2.
putting—vbs. of, with Dat. and Acc., or Acc. and Abl., 348.
Quā—quā, 482, 3.
quaeōre—with ā, dē, ex, 339, n. 1; with Inf., 423, n. 2; with Direct Question, 467, n.
quaeōs—175, 6; with Impv., 289; without Inf., 546, n. 3.
quālis—in phrases instead of Comparative, 296, n. 3.
Quality—possession of, 349, n. 3; Gen. of, 365 and n. 1; Gen. and Abl. of, ib. n. 2; 400, n. 1; Gen. of, as pred., 366; Abl. of, 400; personified quality as person, ib. n. 2; Comparison of qualities, 299.
quām—after comparatives, 296 and n. 1; omission of, ib. n. 4; prep. instead, ib. n. 3; atque instead, ib. n. 4; with prō, ut, qui, to express disproportion, 298; with positive for comparative, 299, n. 2; in comparison of qualities, 299; with po-tuit and superlative, 303; with qui and superlative, ib. n. 2; magis, non aliter, quam ut, 557, n. 2; quam si, with Subj. of Comparison, 602; with qui or ut after comparatives, 631, 3; with quam qui and superlative, 642, n. 5;
moods in, 462-467; Indic. in, 463, 464; Subjv. in, 465, 466; indirect, 467; genuine, 463; disconnected, 467, n.; exclamatory, 558.
quí interrogative—106 and n.
quí relative—105 and n.; with quam and Subjv. to express disproportion, 293; after digneus, etc., 552, n.2, equiv. to si quis, 625, 2; explicative, 628, strengthened by ut, utpote, quippe, ib. n.1; quod sciam, 627, n.1; equiv. to cum is, 626, n., 633, 634; equiv. to ut is, 630, 631; after comparatives with quam, 631, 3; equiv. to adj., ib. 4; sed qui, qui tamen, 636, n.2; quó quisque, with comparative, 642, n.2; see quó and quâ.
quía—after vbs. of Doing and Happening, 525, n.4; origin of and, correlatives with, 538, nn.1, 2; with Causal Indic., 540; with Subjv., 541; early use, 538, n.3, 580, n.3; conditional use, 590, n.3.
quándoque—with causal clause, 541, n.5; quantity—rules for, 702-706; of final syllables, 707-713; of polysyllables, 707-709; of monosyllables, 710-713; of stem syllables, 714; of cpds., 715; in early Latin, 716, 717.
quantity—12; substs. of, with Gen., 368.
quantum—with mirum, nímium, etc., 209, n.2, 467, n.; with máximus and potuit to strengthen superlative, 303; quantum qui, with superlative, ib. n.2; quanti, with vbs. of Rating and Buying, 390; with advs. and Indic., 467, n.
quantumvis—603 and n., 606.
quasi—with subst., 439, n.4; with Subjv. of Comparison, 602; with Indic., ib. n.1; to apologize, ib. n.2; to give an Assumed Reason, ib. n.4, 666, n.
quátenu—nus as a Causal particle, 538, n.5.
quattuor—early forms of, 95, n.3.
què—added to rels., 111, 2; syntax of, 476 and nn.; for quoque, 479, n.2; adds third member, 481, n.
quemadmodum—sfc, 482, 3, n.
quér—in with Acc. and Inf., 533, r.1.
questions—with Potential Subjv., 259; deliberative, 265, 465; passionate equiv. to command, 273, 463, n.2; predicate and nominal, 451; rhetorical, 265, 461, n.2, 464, 466; direct simple, 453-457; equiv. to Condition, 453, n.3; with ne, 454; with nónne, 455; with num, 456; with an, 457; direct disjunctive, 458; neg. of, 459; particles in indirect, 460.
quosquam—107,3, and n.2; syntax of, 317; strengthened by inus, ib. 1,n.1; negative of, ib. 2; as adj., ib. 1,n.3.
quisque—107,5, and n.; quisquis instead, 108,N.4; with Pl. vbs., 211,n.1,Ex.a; with ordinal, 294,N., 318,2; syntax of, 318; with superlatives, ib. 2; with reflexives, ib. 3; attraction of, ib. 2; suum quisque, ib. n.4; with quō and comparative, 642,n.2; ut quisque, with superlative, ib.
quisquis—105; as adj., ib. n.4; with Indic., 254,4, 626.
quīvis—107,4 and n.
quō—as Causal conjunction, 541,n.2; non quō in Final Clauses, 545,2; quōnē, ib. n.1; quō setius, 549,n.4.
quoad—force of, 568; of complete coextension, 569; until, with Indic., 571; with Subjv., 572; until, with Subjv., ib. n.5.
quod—in Inner Obj., 333 1,n.1; introduces Object Sentences, 524; after vbs. of Adding and Dropping, 525,1; after demonstratives, ib. 2; and ut, ib. 1,n.5; quid est quod, ib. 1,n.2; after verba sentendi, ib. n.7; after demonstratives, with preps., ib. 2,n.2; as to the fact that, with Subjv., ib. 2,n.3; with Subjv. in O. O., ib. 3; after vbs. of Motion, ib. 1, n.6; gives Ground in Exclamations, 534, n.1; with Causal Sentence in Indic., 540; with Causal Sentence in Subjv., 541; after vbs. of Emotion, 542; with diceret, ib. n.3; non quod, ib. n.2; magis quod, 541,n.2; correlatives of, 538,n.1; and quia, ib. n.2; nisi quod, 591,r.3; quod si, 610,r.2.
quom—see cum.
quōminus—force of, 547; with vbs. of Preventing, etc., 549; for nē, 548,n.2, and quīn, 549,n.3.
quōmodo—with Direct Question, 467,n.
quonium—with Causal Indic., 540; with Snbjv., 541; original force of, 538,n.3; early usage of, 590,n.3.
quoque—syntax of, 470; and etiam, 479, n. and n.1; que instead, ib. n.2; with sed and vērum, 482,5 and n.1.
Rating—vbs. of, with Gen. and Abl., 379,380.
ratiō—in Abl. of Manner, 399,n.1; with ut, 546,n.2.
recēns—with Abl., 390,3,n.1.
recipere—with Abl. or in, 389; reciprocal relations—given by inter sē, 221; by alter alterum, etc., ib. n.1; by invicem, mútuo, etc., ib. n.2.
recitation of verses—754.
recordāri—with Pr. Inf., 231,2,n.; with Acc., 376,r.2.
rectum—with Inf., 422,n.3.
recessūre—with Inf., 423,2,n.2; with nē, 548,n.1; with quōminus, 549 and n.1; constr. with, 549,n.1.
red—in composition, 9, 715,r.3.
reddere—with Pr. part., 537,n.2; reddi and fieri, 206,n.1, 340,r.1.
reduplication—in Pr. stem, 133,II.; in Pf. stem, 134,III.; omitted in Pf. of cpd. vbs., ib.
Reference—Dat. of, 352.
refērt—with Gen. and Abl., 331,382; Nom. with, 381,n.3; origin of, ib. n.5; expression of Degree of Concern, 382,1 and 2; expression of Thing Involved, ib. 3.
refertus—with Gen., 374,n.1.
reflexive—218; passive used for, 218; approaches deponent, 218,r.; pronouns, 399; is retained instead of reflexive, ib. n.1; strengthened, ib. n.2; suum quique, 318,n.3; with ipse, 311,2; with Acc. of Respect, 338,n.2; in subordinate clauses, 520–522; not in Consecutive Sentences, 521,r.1; refers to real subj., 309,2, 521,r.2; free use of, ib. r.3; Indic. Relative Sentences, ib. r.4; ambiguity in, ib. n.3; demonstrative instead of, ib. r.1,n.3.
reformidāre—with Inf., 423,2,n.2.
refrāgāri—with Dat., 346,r.2.
refraining—vbs. of, with quīn, 555,1.
refusing—vbs. of, with nē, 548; with quōminus, 549; with Inf., 548,r.2; with quīn, 555,1.
Relātīnus Versus—822.
regiō—in Abl. without in, 385,n.1.
relationship—suffixes for, 181,8.
relative pronouns—105; made indefinite, 111,1; or universal, ib. 2; in Inner Obj., 333,1,n.2; instead of app. with refērt, 381,n.2; contrasted with interrogative, 467,r.2, 611,n.2; indefinite with Indic., 354,r.4; with Subjv., 567,n.; advs. instead, 611,r.1; continued by demonstrative, 636,n.1; repetition of, 615.
RELATIVE SENTENCES—610-637; for Pro- 
tasis, 593,1; general consideration of, 
610; how introduced, 611; position of, 
612; antecedent in, 613; concord in, 614 
and nn.; id quod, etc., in app. to a sen-
tence, "ib. n.2; incorporation of app., "ib. 
n.4; repetition of antecedent, 615; in-
corporation of antecedent, 616; attrac-
tion of, 617; correlative of, 618; absorp-
tion of correlative, 619; position of correlative, 620; indefinite antecedent, 
621; tenses in, 622,623; in Iterative 
action, 623; moods in, 624-635; indefini-
tive and generic relatives with Indic., 
254,n.4, 625,1; or Subjv., "ib. n.; condi-
tional, 625,2; explanatory, 626; Subjv. 
in explanatory, 627; quod sciam, etc., 
"ib. n.1; restrictions with esse, posse, 
attinet, "ib. n.2; with Subjv. by Partial 
Obliguity, 628; with Subjv. by Attraction, 
629; Final, 630; attraction of 
dicet, "ib. n.3; Consecutive, 631; after 
definite antecedent, "ib. 1; after indefi-
tinite antecedent, "ib. 2; after compara-
tive, "ib. 3; parallel to adj., "ib. 4; with 
quim, 632; Causal, 633; Concessive and 
Adversative, 634; in Inf., 635; combina-
tion of, 636; participle instead, 637,668; 
in O. O., 655 and nn.
relātū—as Sup., 436,n.
reliēving—vbs. of, with Abl., 390,2.
reliquum est—with ut, 553,4.
reliquus—used partitive with Subst., 
291,n.2; aliud for, 319,n.1; reliqua, 
as Acc. of Respect, 333,2.
remembering—vbs. of, with Gen., 376; 
with Acc., "ib. n. 2.
reōmex—defective, 70, D.
reminding—vbs. of, with Gen., 376; with 
Abl. or Acc., "ib. RR.1,2.
removing—vbs. of, with Abl., 390,2.
rendering—vbs. of, with Inf., 421,n.1,b.
reperirī—with Nom. and Inf., 523,n.1.
repetition of relative, 615.
replētus—with Gen., 374,n.1.
repōnēre—with in and Acc., 385,n.2.
repōscere—with two Aces., 339 and n. 1, 
representation—654 and n., 656,n.1.
repetition—vbs. of, with Acc. and Inf., 
528, 527; with part., 527,n.1, 536.
reprimēre—with nē, 548,n.1.
reputānare—with Dat., 346,n.2; with nē, 
548,n.1.
requīes—heteroclitē, 68,8.
requiring—vbs. of, with two Aces., 339 
and n.1,n.1; with ab, "ib. n.2.
rēfrī—part. of, with Pr. force, 282,n.
rēs—for neut., 204,n.4; construed like 
neut., 211,n.2; with Appositorial Gen., 
361,1; in phrases with Inf., 422,n.2; 
dīvinam rem facere, with Abl., 401,n. 
4; rem certāre, 333,2,r.
resistere—with Dat., 346,n.2; with nē, 
548,n.1; with quīn, 555,1.
resisting—vbs. of, with Dat., 346.
resolution—of long syllable, 732.
resolving—vbs. of, with Inf., 423 and n.2; 
with ut, 546.
Respect—Acc. of, 338; with vbs. of Cloth-
ing, etc., "ib. n. 2; Abl. of, 397; Abl. of, 
with comparatives, 398; Abl. of, with 
words of Eminence or Superiority, 397, 
n.2; prep. instead, "ib. n.1.
respie—with Direct Question, 467,n.
responde—with Direct Question, 467,n.; 
īs respondēre, 333,2,r.
rest—conceived as end of Motion, 412, 
n.2.
restat—with ut, 553,4.
restrictions—in Relative Sentences, 627, 
rr.1,2.
result—for Sentences of, see Consecutive 
Sentences.
rētē—heteroclitē, 68,12.
retinēre—with nē, 548,n.1.
reus—with Gen., 374,n.2; 373,r.1.
ridēre—with Acc. and Inf., 533,r.1.
rhotacism—47.
rhythm—in arrangement, 627,2,b; de-
 fined, 739; ascending or descending, 
735; names of, 736; classes of, 737; 
rhythmical series, 738; union of lan-
guage with, 748.
rōbur—decl. of, 44,5, 45,r.2.
rogāre—with two Aces., 339, and n.1; with 
Acc. Ger., 430,n.1; with ut, 548,n.1; 
with Direct Question, 467,n.; rogātū, 
of Moving Cause, 408,n.1; with Inf. or 
ut, 546,n.3.
root—defined, 25,1,n., 177.
rudis—with Gen., 374,n.4.
rūs—as limit of Motion, 337; in Abl. 
of Separation, 390,2; rūrif in Loc., 411, 
n.2.
S—final omitted, 27,n., 703,b.3; suffixes 
with, 188.
out ὀ in Wishes, ἰδ. n.1; sis, sōđēs, sultis, with Impv., 269; in Indirect Question after vbs. of Trial, 460,1 b; in Iterative action, 566, 567; sign of Condition, 590 and n.1; sīquidem, ἰδ. n.2, 595.r.5; si nōn and nisi, 591; sin, 592; si modo, tamen, vērā, 595.r.6; si forte, ἰδ. n.1; Concessive, 604, r.1; with Inf., 635, n.2.
sibilants—6,2, A; suffixes with, 188.
sic—coordinate with other particles, 482, 4,n.; correlative of sf, 590, n.1.
fíc—gives Assumed Reason, 502, n.4.
firmāre—with Inf., 527, r.2.
signum—in phrases with ut, 546, n.2.
silentis—as Abl. of Manner, 399, n.1.
similis—compared, 87, 3; with Gen. or Dat., 359, n.1 and n.4.
simul—as prep., 417, 12; simul—simul, 482, 1 and n.1; Temporal, with atque (Ac), as soon as, 561–563; Causal with Pr. and Pf., 564 and n.; with Fut. and Fut. Pf., 565 and n.
simulāre—with Inf., 527, r.2.
sīn—use of, 592; strengthened by minus, etc., ἰδ. n.
sine—position of, 413, r.1; as prep., 417, 13; with Abl. Ger., 433, n.2.
sinere—with Inf., 423, n.6, 553, 2, n.; with ut, 532, n.1, 553, 2.
singular—in collective sense for Pl., 204, n.8; Voc. with Pl. vb., 211, n.2; neut. sums up preceding Pl., ἰδ. n.3; as a subj., combined with cum and another word, 285, n.2.
singulāre—in phrases with Inf., 422, n.3; in phrases with ut, 553, 4.
singulus—with numerals, 295.
sīquidem—590, n.2, 595, r.5.
sinister—Comp. of, 87, 1, r.1.
sis—strengthens Impv., 269.
sisti—as copulative vb., 206, n.1.
sīve—use of, 496; sīve—sīve, ἰδ. 2595, r.4; or ἰδ. n.1; and seu, ἰδ. n.3.
smell—vbs. of, with Inner Object, 333, 2, n.5.
socer—and socerus, 32, 1, n.
sōđēs—strengthens Impv., 269.
solēre—with Inf., 423, 2, n.2; solitūs, as Abl. of Respect, 398, n.1.
sollicitāri—with Acc. and Inf., 533, n.1.
sōlūs—decl. of, 76; in pred. attrib., 325, r.6; nōn sōlūm sed, etc., 482, 5, and r.1; with qui and Subjv., 631, 1.
solvere—with Abl., 390, 2, n.2.
somniāre—with Acc. and Inf., 527, r.1.
sontans—6, 2, B.
sortīō—as Abl. of Manner, 399, n.1.
Sotadean—verse, 816.
sound—vbs. of, with neut. Acc. of Inner Object, 333, 2, n.6.
Specification—Gen. of, 361.
spectāre—with ex and Abl., 402, n.2.
specus—heteroclite, 88, 9.
sprēāre—with Inf., 527, r.2; with Pr. Inf., 531, n.4.
spēs—with est and Pr. Inf., 531, n.4; in phrases with Inf., 527, r.3; with ut, 546, n.2; in Abl. of Respect, 398, n.1.
splinter—defective, 70, B.
sponte—defective, 70, A.
Standard—Abl. of, 402, 403; ex and Abl. instead of Abl., 402, n.2; Abl. of, with ante or post, 403, n.4; Acc. of Extent for Abl., ἰδ. n. 3; of comparison omitted, 297.
stāre—with Gen. of Price, 379; to abide by, with Abl., 401, n.6; to persist in, with Inf., 423, 2, n.2.
statuere—with in and Abl., 385, r.1; with Inf., 423, 2, n.2; with ut, 546, n.1.
status—in phrases with ut, 557, r.
stem—25, 1, 132; Present, 114, 3, a, 133; Perfect, 114, 3, b, 134; Supine, 114, 3, c, 135; Formation of Verb stem, 132–135; varies between Conjugations, 136; quantity of stem syllables, 714.
stem-characteristic—26, 120; euphonic changes in, 121, r.
stillāre—with Abl., 401, n.5.
studēre—with Dat., 346, r.2; with Dat. Ger., 429, 1 and n.1; with Inf., 423, 2, n.2; with ut, 546, n.1.
studīōsus—with Gen., 374, n.5.
stultītia—in phrases with Inf., 422, n.2.
suādēre—with Dat., 346, r.2, and n.2; with Inf., 423, 2, n.2; with ut, 546, n.1.
sub—in composition, 9, 4; vbs. cpd. with, take Acc. or Dat., 331, 347; with condicioñe, etc., 399, n.3; usage of, as prep., 418, 2.
subesse—with Dat., 347, r.2; timōrem, with Acc. and Inf., 533, r.1.
subject—201; in Nom., 203; in Acc. with Inf., ἰδ. r.1; forms of, 204; omitted, 207; of impersonal vbs., 208, r.1, n. and 2, n.1; Multiplication of, 285, f.; Qualification of, 288, f.; prolepsis of subj. of
dependent clause, 468; of Inf. omitted, 527, n. 3, 532, r. 2 and n. 2; Acc. and Inf. as, 535; attraction of pred. after Acc. and Inf., ib. r. 3.


Subjunctive—112, 4; early forms of, 130, 4; Aorist forms of Pf. and Plupf., 131, 4, 5, 23; Indic. for Deliberative, 254, n. 2; with generic relatives, ib. n. 6, 625, r.; force of, 255; Indic. with vbs. of Possibility, etc., ib. r.; Ideal and Unreal, 256, 1; Potential and Opt., ib. 2 Potential of Pr. and Fut., 257-259; Potential for Indic., ib. n. 3; Potential of Past, 258; Potential of Past with vellem, etc., ib. n. 1; Opt., 260; negs. of Opt., ib., particles with Opt., 261; Impf. for Unreal wish, ib. n. 2; in Assseverations, 262; as Impv., 263, 267, 270, r. 272; as concessive, 264 and n.; tense relations of, 277; with quam ut or quam qui to express disproportion, 298; in Delibrative or Rhetorical questions, 265, 465, 466; in Indirect questions, 467; after vb. with Fut. character, 515, r. 3; Original in dependence, 519; with quod, as to the fact that, 525, n. 3; in Final and Consecutive Sentences, 543, 4; with ut for Inf., 557, n. 1; in Temporal Clauses, 560, 2, 563, n. n. 4, 5; in Iterative action, 567, n.; in Contemporaneous action, 572, 573; in Subsequent action, 577; with cum, 585, 588; in Relation Sentences, 627, 628; by Attraction, 509, 4, 629; after potius, 644, r. 3; in Ó. O., 650-652.

Sublimis—in pred. attrib., 325, n. 6.

Subolet—with Inf., 422, n. 4.

Subordination—defined, 472; syntax of Subordinate Clauses, 504, ff.; division of, 505-507; moods in, 508; Sequence of Tenses in, 509-519.

Subsequent action—syntax of Sentences of, 574-577; with Indic., 574-576; with Subjv., 577.

Substantives—defined, 16, 1, and r. 1, n. 1; inflection of, 17; division of, 18; gender of, 19, 20: mòbilia, 21, 2; epicene, ib. 3; irregular, 67-71; heterogeneous, 67; heteroclitic, 68; metaplasts, ib.; defective, 69; singulària tantum, ib. A; pluràlla tantum, ib. B; heterologa, ib. C; formation of, 180, 181; without suffixes, 183; adjs. and parts. used as, 204, n. n.; Pl. of abstracts, ib. nn. 5, 6; agreement of pred., 211 and r. r., n.; with several adjs. in Sg., 290, r. 2; common surname in Pl., 290, n. 1; verbal with Acc., 330, n. 3, 337, n. 5; verbal with Dat., 356, n. 3, 357, 358, n. 2; in Abl. Abs., 410, n. 5; with Dat. Ger., 428, n. 5; with Inf. for Gen. Ger., ib. n. 4; in phrases with Final Sentence, 546, r. 2; in phrases with Consecutive Sentence, 557 and n.

Subter—vbs. cpd. with take Acc., 331; as adv., 415; as prep., 418, 2.

Subvenire—with Dat., 347, r. 2.

Succedere—with Dat., 347, r. 2.

Succèscere—with Dat., 347, r. 2.

Sucumbere—with Dat., 347, r. 2.

Succurrere—with Dat., 347, n. 2.

Sudàre—with Abl. of Means, 401, n. 5.

Suffère—Pf. of, 171, n. 2.

Suffixes—180; primary and secondary, ib. n. 1; of substantives, 181; of adjs., 182; forming diminutives, 181, 12, 182, 12; in detail, 184-189; with vowels, 184; with gutturals, 185; with dentals, 186; with labials, 187; with s, 188; with liquids, 189.

Suffràgàri—with Dat., 346, n. 2.

Suf—decl. of, 102 and n. 1; with -met, ib. n. 2; with -pte, ib. n. 3; circumlocution for Part. Gen., 304, 3, n. 2; usage of, 309, 520-522; complement of Inf., 309, 3; is instead, ib. n. 1; with suus, ib. n. 2.

Sultis—strengthens Impv., 269.

Sum—see esse.

Summus—comparison of, 87, 2; used partitively, 281, r. 2.

Supellèx—decl. of, 44, 5.

Super—vbs. cpd. with, take Acc or Dat., 331, 347; as adv., 415; as prep., 418, 4; with Acc. Ger., 432, n. 1; with Abl. Ger., 443; id quod, quam quod, 525, 2, n. 2.

Superàre—with Acc. of Respect, 397, n. 2.

Superesse—with Dat., 347, r. 2.

Superior—97, 2 and 7.

Superiority—vbs. of, with Acc. of Respect, 397, n. 2.

Superlative—in insissimus, 86; inimus, 87, 1; in limus, ib. 3; in entissimus, ib. 4 and 5; lacking, ib. 9; of parts, 99; of advs., 93; meaning of, varies with position, 291, n. 2, 302; strengthened, 303; with quam, quantum, qui, ib. n. 2, 642.
n.5; with quisque, 318;2; with Part. Gen., 372; with preps., ib. r.2; with ut, 642; r.2.
supersedēre—with Abl., 390;2,3.
supertext—Gen. or Dat., 359;2.
supina—112;5; system, 114;3; formation of, 115;3, 121;3; stem, 135; in Abl. of Sep., 390;3,3.3, 436;N.4; in Abl. of Respect, 397;1; with opus, 406;N.5; defined, 434; Acc. of, 435; Abl. of, 436.
suppetaea—defective, 70;B.
supplex—with Dat., 346;N.5.
supplicare—with Dat., 346;N.2 and N.4.
supra—with quam after a comparative, 296;N.3; with Abl. of Measure, 403;N.1; as adv., 415; as prep., 416;25.
surds—6,2;B.
surname—common, in Pl., 290;N.1.
sus—decl. of, 59.
suscēnsēre—with Dat., 346;N.2.
sucipere—with Acc. Gen., 430;N.1.
süspicāri—with Acc. and Inf., 527;N.2.
süspicere—with Acc. and Inf., 527;N.1.
süspirāre—with Acc. and Inf., 533;N.1.
sustinēre—with Inf., 423;N.2.
suns (os)—102; syntax of, 309; emphatic, ib. 2; with prep. phrases, ib. 4; is instead, ib. N.1; sum quisque, ib. N.3.
suō tempore, ib. 4; with Gen. Ger., 428;N.1; in dependent clauses, 521; suōm with ut, 557;B.
syllaba anceps—741.
syllables—division of, 10; names for, 11; open, 11; close, ib.; length of, 12; common, 13; quantity of final, 707-713; of polysyllables, 707-709; of monosyllables, 710-713.
syclepsis—690.
synaphia—728.
syncope—725-743; in Pf. forms, 131; ff.
synecdoche—696.
synothis—727.
syntax—defined, 201.
systole—722.

t—sound of, 7; t-class of vbs., 133;III.
tābes—heteroclite, 68;8.
tābē—defective, 70;A.
taedet—with Gen., 377; with pronoun as subj., 377, N.2.
taking—vbs. of, with two Accs., 340; End For Which given by Dat. or ad, ib. N.2; vbs. of Taking Away, with Dat., 347;N.5; with Acc. Ger., 430.
tālāris—and tālārius, 84;2.
tālis—with quī or ut and Subjv., 631;1 and N.1.
tam—with quam, quantum, quī, and superlative, 303;N.2; with quī or ut and Subjv., 631;1 and N.1.
tamen—the, with Subst., 439;N.4; with Subjv. of Comparison, 602; with Indic., ib. N.1; to give an Assumed Reason, ib. N.4; with part., 666;N.; tamquam si, 602;N.4; coordinate with sic, 482;N.
tantil—as Gen. of Price, 380;1.
tantidem—as Gen. of Price 380;1.
tantus—with quī or ut and Subjv., 631;1 and N.1; tantis, with vbs. of Rating and Buying, 380; tantum est, it is worth while, ib. N.1; tantum, with quam, quantum, quī, and superlative, 303;N.2; tantum, for Abl. of Measure, 413;N.2; non tantum sed, etc., 482;5; tantum quod, 528;N.2; tantum abest ut, 552;N.1.
taste—vbs. of, with Inner Obj. 333;N.2, N.5; teaching—vbs. of, with two Accs., 339 and N.2;3.
temperāre—with Dat., 346;N.2 and N.2; with nē, 548;N.1; temperāns, with Gen., 375;N.2.
templum—omitted, 362;3.
TEMPORAL SENTENCES—559-588; division of, 559; moods in, 560; Antecedent Action, 561-567; Iterative Action, 566, 587; Contemporaneous Action, 568-573; Sequential Action, 574-577; with cum, 578-588; general view of, 579; Temporal cum, 580; cum inversum, 581; Explative cum, 582; Conditional cum, 583; Iterative cum, 584; Circumstantial cum, 585-588; Historical cum, 585; Causal cum, 586; Concessive cum, 587; cum—tum, 588; in O. O., 655.
temptēre—with Inf., 423;N.2.
tempus—with Inf. or Ger., 428;N.2; tempore or in tempore, 394;N.; id temporis, 336;N.2; with Inf., 422;N.2; tempīri, 411;N.1.
tendency—suffixes for, 182;3.
tendere manuS— with Dat., 358, n.3.
tenere— with Pf. part. to denote Maintenance of Result, 238; memoriaS
teneo, with Pr. Inf., 281, 2, n.; (s) with nS, 548, n.1; with quominus, 549;
with quin, 555,1; with ut, 553,1; teneri, with Gen. of Charge, 378, r.1.
tenses— 112, 3; signs of, 114, 2; formation
of, 114, 115, 121; syntax of, 222-225; definitions, 223; of continuance, attainment,
or completion, 224; Pr. 227-230; Impf., 231-234; Pure Pf., 235-236; Hist. Pf.,
239, 240; Plupf., 241; Fut., 242, 243; Fut. Pf., 244, 245; periphrastic, 246-251; in Letters, 252; of Indic., 276;
of Impv., 278; Sequence of, 509; in Final and Consecutive Sentences, 543,
3; in Relative Sentences, 622, 623; in O. O., 653-655; in Inf., 279, 653; of
Subjv., 277, 554, 655: Representatio, 654, n.
tenus— position of, 413, r.1; usage of, as
prep., 417,14.
terminations of cases— 27.
terra— in Abl. without in, 386, n.1; ter-
rae as Loc., 411, r.2.
tertium— est with ut, 553,4.
testis est— with Acc. and Inf., 527, r.2.
thematic class of verbs— 133,1.
thickness— how expressed, 335, r.1.
thinking— vbs. of, with two Noms., 206;
with Object Sentence and quod, 523.
525,1, n.7; with Inf., 527; vbs. of, attracted
into Subjv. after quod, 541, n.3;
vbs. of, with quin, 555, 2.
threat— vbs. of, with Inf., 423, 1.5.
Tiburi— as Loc., 411, r.1.
time— adjs. of, in pred. attrib., 325, r.6;
suffixes for, 182, 8; when, in Abl., 393;
how long, in Acc., 336; within which, in
Abl., 393; with per, 336, 393, r.1; with
totus, ib. r.2; when = for which, ib. n.3;
with hic, ille, ib. n.4. prep. for Abl.,
394; lapses of, with cum, 580, 8, 3; given
by part., 665, 670,1.
timere— constr. of, 550 and n.1; with
Inf., 423, 2, n.2.
timor— est, with Inf., 550, n.5; timoR
subesse, with Inf., 533, r.1.
titles— position of, 678, r.4.
tmesis— 728.
totus— decl. of, 76; in pred. attrib., 325,
r.6; with Abl. of Place Where, 388; with
Time How Long, 393, r.2.
towns— with Acc., 337; in Abl. of Place
Where, 388; in Abl. of Place Whence, 391;
in Loc., 411; with preps., 337, n.3, 391,
r.1; with appositives, 337, r.2, 386, n.1,
391, r.1, 411, n.3.
transactu— as Sup., 346, n.
trade— suffixes for, 181, 4.
tragede— with Acc. Ger., 430, n.1; with
Acc. and Inf., 527, r.2.
tradesman— suffixes for, 181, 3.
training— vbs. of, with Abl., 401, n.1.
projection— 696.
trans— in composition, 9, 4; vbs. cpd.
thrust, with take Acc., 331; as prep., 416, 26.
transitive verb— defined, 213; used in-
trans., ib. r.5; transposition— of consonants, 9, 8.
tres— decl. of, 95.
trial— vbs. of, with sI, 460, 1, 0; with implied
protasis, 601.
tribes— in Abl. of Origin, 395, n.2.
tribuere— with ut, 553,2.
tributum— heteroclite, 68, 5.
tricorporis— defective, 85, 1.
trin— 97, r.3.
tritum— with Inf., 422, n.3.
trochee— shortened by iambic Law, 717;
trochaic foot, 734; rhythm, 738; rhythms,
768-776.
tu— decl. of, 101 and n.1; synizesis in, ib.
N.4; with met and -pte, 102, n.2, 3; vest-
tri and vestrum, 304, 2, and 3, 364, n.;
poss. pron. for, 304, 2, n.2; tuI, vestri,
with Ger., 428, r.1.
tuere— with Acc. and Inf., 527, r.1.
tum— with subst., 439, n.4; with etiam,
478, n.1; as coordinating particle, 482, and
n.1; tum— tum, 482, 1 and n.1;
cum— tum, 583; correlative of si, 590,
n.1.
tus (us)— 101 and n.3; tum with ut,
557, r; tuI with Gen. Ger., 428, r.1.
U— length of Final— 707, 6.
ubi— as soon as, with Indic., 561-563;
Causal, with Indic., 564, 1.565 and n.1;
with Iterative action, 566, 567; with
Subjv., 567, n.; Conditional, 509, n.3.
uillus— decl. of, 76; and quisquam, 107,
3, n.2, 108; syntax of, 317.
uls— 418, 27.
ulterior— 87, 8; ultimus in pred. attrib,
325, r.6.
ultimate— defined, 11.
ultrā—with Abl. of Measure, 403,n.1; position of, 413,n.1; as adv., 415; as prep., 416,27.
uncertainty—vbs. of, with quin, 555,2. understatement—definition of, 700.
unnamus—defective, 88,2.
unlikeness—adj. of, with atque (āc), 643.
unREAL condition—597; with Impf. of opposition to Past, ib. r.1; with Indic. in Apod., ib. r.n.2,3; in O. O., ib. r.4, 659; Apod. in, after vb. requiring Subjv., 597,n.5; with absque, ib. n.
unus—decl. of, 76, 95.n.1; Pl. with plū-rālia tantum, 95,n.1; as distributive, 97,n.3; with superlative, 303; with quidam, 313,n.3; with quisquam, 317,1,n.1; with nēmō, nullus, 317,2,n.3; in pred. attrib., 325,n.6; with prep. for Part. Gen., 372,n.2; with qui and Subjv., 631,1.
unusquisque—107,5.
urbs—with name of Town, requires prep., 337,n.2, 386,n.1, 391,r.1, 411,n.3; with Appositional Gen., 361,n.1.
urgeri—with Gen. of Charge, 373,n.1.
urging—vbs. of, with ut, 546.
usque—with Acc. of Motion Whither, 337,n.4; usage of, as prep., 416,28.
usus—with Abl., 406; with other constr., ib.n.5; as pred., ib.; with Pf. part., 406, 437,n.2; in phrases with ut, 557,n.; usū venit, with ut, 553,3.
ut—in wishes, 261; with quam, to express disproportion, 298, 631,3,n.1; omitted, 298,n.2; with potuit, to strengthen superlative, 303; ut—itsa, 492,4; after vbs. of Adding and Happening, 525,1,n.5; in Final and Consecutive Sentences, 543; ut nōn, ib. 4, 545,n.2, 552; parenthetical, ib. r.3; ut nē, 545,r.1, 546,r.3; after vbs. of Fear, 550 and n.1; to add restriction, 552,n.3; after vbs. of Causation, 553,1; after vbs. of Compelling and Permitting, ib. 2; after vbs. of Happening, ib. 3; after impersonals, ib. 4; Explanatory, 557; Exclamatory, 558; with magis quam, 557,n.2; ut primum, as soon as, with Indic., 561-563; Causal, 564,n.; with Iterative sentences, 566, 567; nisi ut, 557,n.2, 591,r.3; with se and Subjv., 602; with Subjv., to give an Assumed Reason, ib. n.4; Concession, 608 and r.1; with qui, 626,n.1; after comparatives, 631,3,n.1; with quisque and superlative, 642,n.2; prō eō ut, as Causal, ib. r.4; ut qui, with superlative, ib. r.5; introduces Ō. O. after vbs. of Will and Desire, 652,r.1; with part. to give Assumed Reason, 666,n.
ūter, bag—decl. of, 44,2, 45,r.1.
uter, which—decl. of, 76, 106; quis for, 300,n.; utrum as interrogative particle, 458; in Indirect Question, 460,2,n.3; utrum, whether or no, 459,n.2.
uterlibet—103.
uterque—decl. of, 108; with Pl. vb., 211, r.1, Ex.2, 292,n.; to express reciprocal action, 221,r.1 and 2; force of, 292; with Part. Gen., 371,r.1.
uterum—heterogeneous, 32,1,n.
utervis—108.
ūtī—with Abl., 407 and n.2,a; other constrs. of, ib. n.3; with personal Ger., 427, n.5.
ūtinam—in wishes, 261 and n.1.
uptote—with qui, 562,n.1.
V—and u, 1,n.2; pronunciation of, 7.
vacāre—with Dat., 346,n.2; attraction of pred. after, 535,n.3.
vacuus—with Gen., 374,n.8.
vae—with Dat., 343,1,n.1.
validū—very, 439,n.3; with quam and Indic., 467,n.
valēre—with Inf., 423,2,n.2; with ut, 553,1.
validus—with Abl. or Gen., 405,n.3.
vās—heterochtite, 68,7.
ve—usage of, 495; ve—ve, ib. n.2.
vehementer—very, 439,n.3.
vel—with superlative, 303; usage of, 494; vel—vel, ib. 2; for example, ib. n.1; as well as, ib. n.3.
velle—conjigation of, 174; exact use of Fut. or Fut. Pf., 242,n.2 and n.6; has no periphrasis, 248,n.; 531,3,n.3; velim, 257,2; vellēm, as Potential, 258,n.1; vellēm, as Unreal, 261,n.; with Subjv. for Impv., 270, n.2; with Pf. Inf. act., 230,2,b, and n.1; with Pf. Inf. pass., 230,2,c,n.; volēns in pred. attrib., 325,r.6; sībī velle, 351,n.2; volenti est, 353,n.2; with Inf. or ut, 532, and n.3, 546, r.1; with Inf., 423,2,n.2; with ut, 546,n.1.
velut—with Subjv., 602; with part. to give Assumed Rcazon, 666.N.
velutus—with Subjv., 602.
venēlis—with Abl., 404,N.4.
vendere—with Gen. of Price, 379; bene vendere, 380,2,r.
venire—omitted, 209, N.5; venit minē
in mentem, with Gen., 379,r,3; with Sup., 438,N.1; ventūrus as adj., 438, n.; in sūspicium, with Nom. and Inf., 528,N.2; with Inf., 422,N.5; sūsū venit, with ut, 533,3.
vēnire—pass. of vendere, 169,2,r,1; with Gen. of Price, 379.
venter—decl. of, 44,3,45,1,1.
verbals—defined, 179,1; pred. agreement of, 211; subst. with Acc., 330,N.3, 337, n.5; adj. with Acc., ib. N.4; in blis, with Dat., 355,N.; in ax, with Gen., 375; formation of verbālia, 191.
veres—defined, 16,4; conjugation of, 17; inflection of, 114; deponents, 113; personal endings, 114; regular, 120,ff.; classes of, 133; Stem or Thematic class, 133,1; Reduplicated Class, ib. II.; T-class, ib. III.; Nasal class, ib. IV.; Inchoative class, ib. V.; i-class, ib. VI.; mixed class, ib. VII.; listof, 137-162; Deponents, 163-166; Semi-deponents, 167; Irregular, 168-174; Defective, 175; formation of, 190,200; division of, 190; Verbalis, 191; Denominative, 192; composition of, 199,200; Impersonal, 208; intrans. used personally, ib. 2; Concord of, 210, 211, 285-287; trans. and intrans., 213; trans. used as intrans., ib. n.a.; intrans. used as trans., ib. n.b.
verbum—with Appositional Gen., 381,1; in phrases with ut, 546,N.2.
verēri—constr. with, 550 and n.1; veritus as Pr., 282,N.; with Inf., 423,2,N.2, 533,1,n.
verēsimilē—in phrases with Inf., 422,N. 3; in phrases with ut, 553,4.
verō—position of, 413,N.3; yes, 471,a,1; with atque, 477,N.2; with sed, 485,N.3; syntax of, 487; with nisi, 591,4; with sin, 592.
verse—745; methods of combining, 746; Italic, 755; Saturnian, 756; compound, 820, 823.
versification—729-823; anacrustic scheme of, 739.
versus—position of, 413,r,1; usage prep., 416,29; versus Italicus—755.
vertere—with Final Dat., 356,N.2.
verūm—introduces contrast to demonstrative, 307,r,4; yes, 471,a,1; v
etiam, 482,5 and n.1; syntax of, with Inf., 422,N.3; with ut, 553,4.
very—translations of, 439,N.3.
vescī—with Abl., 407 and n.2,e; v
personal Ger., 427,N.5.
vesper—decl. of, 68,10; in Abl. of Time, 393,N.5; vesperī—37,5,411,N.1.
vester—101 and n.3.
vētēre—with Acc., 346,N.3; with Inf., 423,2,N.3 and 6, 532,N.1 and 2.
vetus—decl. of, 82,2; comp. of, 87,1,n.
vīē—as Abl. of Manner, 399,N.1.
vicissim—gives reciprocal relation, 22, r.2; as coördinating particle, 482, n.2.
vidēre—with Acc. and Inf., 527,N.2; with ut, 546,N.1; with nē, 548,N.1; with Direct Question, 467,N.; with two Noms. in pass., 206; vidēri, and vidētur, 528,N.2; vidē, with Subjv. for Impv., 271,N.2, 548, N.3; vidēris, a Impv., 245,N.
vīlis—with Abl. of Price, 404,N.2.
vincere—with Abl. of Respect, 397,N.2 causam, 333,2,n.
vīolentus—and violēns, 84,1.
virus—defective, 70,C.
vīs—70,D; with Pl. vb., 211,r,1,Ex.a; vi
as Abl. of Manner, 399,N.1.
-vīs—with relatives, 111,3.
vītium—with Epexegetical Gen., 361,2; with Inf., 422,N.2; vītīo as Abl. of Manner, 399,N.1.
vīvere—with Abl., 407,N.2,e.
[vīx]—70,D; tuam vicem, 334,N.2.
vocative—defined, 23,5; in 1, 33,2; i adj. of 1st and 2d Decl., 73; no syntax of, 201,N.1; Nom. instead, ib. r.2; it app., ib. r.3; in prod., 211,r,3; 5g with Pl. vb., ib. N.2; Nom. instead, 321, N.1; in prod. app., 325,r,1; with 5 or prō, 343,1,n.1.
vocē—112,2; 212; act., 213; pass., 214; middle, 212,N.
voluntās—in phrases with ut, 548,N.2; voluntāte as Abl. of Manner, 399,N.1.
volup—indeclinable, 85,C.
vōmer—decl. of, 45,r.2.
vowels—2; sounds of, 3; phonetic varia-
ions in, 8; weakening of, ib. 1; omission of, ib. 2; ephenthesis of, ib. 3; assimilation of, ib. 4; quantity of final, '07; suffixes with, 184.
A—withe Appositional Gen., 361,1.
A—as Abl. of Manner, 399, N.1.
A—heteroclite, 68,5.
int—vbs. of, with Abl., 405; adj. of, with Gen. and Abl., 415, N.3.
arming—vbs. of, with ut, 546.
weakening of vowels—8, 1; 701, N.2.
right—substs. of, with Gen., 389.
ill—vbs. of, with Inf., 280, 2, c, 423, 2, 532; sequence after vbs. of, 515, N.3; ut instead of Inf. after, 532, N.1–4; with Final sentence, 546; with Inf. instead, ib. n.1; with simple Subjv., ib. n.2.
wishes—in Subjv., 260, 261; apodosis omitted with, 601.
without—translated by ut nōn, 552, N.4; quin, 556; cum nōn, 587, N.2.
wonder—constr. with vbs. of, 542, N.1.
Y—r.3; length of final, 707, 3.
yes—trans. of, 471, a and e.
yielding—vbs. of, with Dat., 346.
Z—when introduced, 1, r.3; sound of, ib. n.
zeugma—690.

SYNTAX OF INDIVIDUAL AUTHORS.

The syntactical usage of individual authors is treated as follows:

CICERO—358, N.1; 525, N.1.
FRANCIUS—498, N.1.
PULCHER—336, N.1; 365, N.; 406, N.3; 498, N.1; 591, N.3; 607, N.3; 626, N.1.
AElius—574, N.
AESAR—208, N.2; 209, N.5; 223, N.1; 239, N.; 250, N.1 and 2; 260; 280, 2, c, N.; 285, N.2; 286, 3, N.; 311, N.2; 323, N.1; 324, N.3; 335, N.; 336, N.2; 337, N.1; 341, N.2; 349, N.5; 354, N.2; 355, N.2 and 3; 358, N.3; 359, N.1; 369, N.2; 372, N.2 and 3; 374, N.1 and 9; 376, N.2; 381, N.4; 386, N.; 391, N.; 395, N.2; 401, N.7; 407, N.2, d; 410, N.4; 413, R.1; 415, 416, 2, 3, 16, 16, 19, 22, and 24; 418, 2; 422, N.2; 423, N.2 and 3; 427, N.2; 428, N.1; 432, N.1; 435, N.2; 436, N.1; 443, N.3; 458, N.1; 460, N.1 and 2; 467, N.; 475, N.3; 476, N.5; 478, N.2; 480, N.2 and 3; 482, 3; 482, 5, R.2 and N.1; 496, N.1; 503; 512, N.1; 513, N.1 and 2; 525, N.3; 527, R.3; 528, N.1; 538, N.4; 541, N.1 and 3; 542, N.1; 545, R.1; 548, N.1 and 2; 563, N.2 and 3; 567, N.; 569, N.1; 571, N.3; 591, R.2 and N.2; 602, N.5; 615, N.; 616, N.1; 626, N.1; 627, R.2; 636, N.1; 644, R.3; 647, N.2; 650, N.; 666, N.
B. Hisp.—407, N.2, d; 416, 8.
B. Afr.—407, N.2, d; 417, 7.
CATO—285, N.2; 394, N.1, 3; 401, N.7; 407, N.2; 417, 7; 418, 4; 437, N.2; 477, N.5; 548, N.3; 574, N.
CATULLUS—207, N.; 236, N.; 380; 417, 3; 454, N.2; 455, N.; 458, N.1; 477, N.5; 480, N.3; 546, N.3; 567, N.; 644, N.2.
CELSUS—602, N.4.
CICERO—204, N.7; 206, N.1; 209, N.3 and 5; 211, R.4 and N.3; 214, R.2; 228, N.1; 239, N.; 242, R.3; 245, N.; 250, N.1 and 2; 252, N.; 254, R.6 and NN.1, 2; 257, N.1; 261; 269; 271, 2, N.2; 280, 2, C, N.; 285, N.2; 293, N.; 296, N.1; 299, N.1; 301; 311, R.2; 318, N.1; 319, N.2; 323, N.1; 324; 336, N.2; 337, N.1, 2, and 4; 341, N.2; 343, N.1; 346, N.1 and 2; 347, R.2; 349,
GENERAL INDEX.

r.5; 351, n.1; 352, n.; 354, n.2; 356, r.3 and n.3; 357; 358, n.3 and 5; 361, n.1; 362, n.1; 364, n.1; 369, n.2; 372, n.2 and 3; 374, n.1,2,4, and 5; 375, n.2 and 3; 376, n.1,2, and 3; 380, n.1 and 4; 383, n.1; 385, n.1; 386, n.; 390, n.2 and 3; 391, n. 1; 395, n.1 and 2; 396, n.1; 398, n.1; 403, n.4; 406, n.5; 407, n.2,4; 410, n.4; 411, r.1 and 2, and n.1; 413, r.1; 416, n.1,2,3,5,7,13,14,15, 16,19,24,25,28, and 29; 417, n.3 and 14; 418.4; 422, n.2,3, and 5; 423, n.2 and 3; 427, n.2 and 5; 428, n.2 and n.1; 429, n.1; 432, n.1; 435, n.1; 436, n.1; 439, n.3; 476, n.3,4; 477, n.8; 480, n.1; 482, n.3; 498, n.1; 500, r.; 525, n.1,2; 533, r.1; 536, n.1; 536, n.5; 541, n.5; 553, n.3; 569, n.1; 591, n.2; 592, n.; 616, n.1,2; 644, n.2.

Juvenal—602, n.4; 605, n.

Livy—204, n.8; 209, n.3; 211, r.1, Ex. a. n.; 247, n.1; 249, n.; 250, n.1 and 2; 285, Ex. 3 and n.2; 293, n.; 311, r.2, n.2; 317, n.1; 319, n.1; 323, n.1; 335, n.; 337, n.4; 338, n.1; 346, n.2, 347, r.2; 350, n.1; 351, n.1; 353, n.2; 356, n.2; 359, n.1 and 4; 363, r.1; 366, r.1; 371, n.; 372, n.1 and 4; 373, r.1; 374, n.2 and 3; 333, n.1; 385, n.1; 390, n.2,3; 391, n. and 395, n.1; 399, n.1 and 3; 401, n.2 and 6; 403, n.3; 406, n.3; 410, n.2,3, and 4; 411, r.1 and n.1; 413, n.1; 415; 416, n.7,15,16,22,23, 24, and 28; 241, r.7,18,10,11, and 14; 418, r.2, and 4; 423, n.2; 427, n.2; 429, n.1; 430, n.1; 435, n.2,4; 436, n.1,2; 438, n.; 439, n.3 and 4; 442, n.3; 443, n.4;

457, n.1,3; 458, n.1; 460, n.2; 467, n.; 477, n.4,5 and 9; 478, n.1; 482, n.1,2, and 3, and 4; 484, n.1 and 2; 486, n.1; 488, n.1 and 2; 491, n.1; 493, n.1; 494, n.1; 496, n.1; 497; 498, n.3,4,6 and 8; 501; 503; 511, r.4; 513, r.1 and nn.1,2; 525, n.1,4 and 2, n.2, 2, and 3; 527, r.1 and 3, and n.2; 528, n.1 and 2; 532, n.1 and 3; 533, r.1; 536, n.1; 538, n.4; 541, n.1,2,3 and 5; 542, r. n.1; 543, n.3; 548, n.3; 549, n.1,2,4 and 5; 550, n.1,2 and 5; 553, 1,55, r.1; 563, n.2,3,4 and 5; 567, n.; 569, n.1; 571, n.2 and 3; 573, n.2; 574, n.; 576, n.; 577, n.4 and 5; 580, n.3; 590, n.1; 591, r.4 and n.2; 602, n.5; 604, r.2; 605, n.; 606, n.1; 608; 615, n.; 616, n.1,2 and 2, n.; 617, n.1; 626, n.1; 627, r.1 and 2; 635, n.1 and 2; 636, n.1; 643, n.4; 644, r.3; 647, n.2; 666, n.; 677, n.

Columella—592, n.

Cornificius—439, n.3; 500, r.; 549, n.4.

Curtius—416,16; 532, n.1.

Dictys—545, r.1.

Ennius—411, r.2; 476, n.5.

Florus—467, n.; 525, n.2, n.2.

Fronto—525, n.3.

Gaius—525, n.3.

Gellius—580, n.3.

Hirtius—423, n.2; 532, n.1.

Horace—211, r.1, Ex. a. n.; 271, n.2; 301; 346, n.2; 351, n.1; 416, n.17,19, and 21; 417,8; 418,4; 421, n.1,c; 422, n.4; 427, n.2; 439, n.3; 454, n.2; 457, n.2; 458, n.1 and 2; 460, n.3,3; 477, n.8; 480, n.1; 482, n.3; 498, n.1; 500, r.; 525, n.1,2; 533, r.1; 536, n.1; 536, n.5; 541, n.5; 553, n.3; 569, n.1; 591, r.2; 592, n.; 616, n.1,2; 644, n.2.

Lucan—254, n.1; 468, n.1.

Lucilius—383, n.2, r.2; 496, n.1.

Lukrettus—372, n.2; 383, n.2; 405, n.3; 406, n.6; 422, n.4; 459, n.1; 480, n.2; 482, n.1, n.1; 496, n.1; 500, r.; 525, n.1,1; 533, r.1; 564, n.1; 571, n.4; 606, n.1; 636, n.1.

Martial—230, b.1, n.1.

Naevius—533, n.1.

Nepos—249, n.; 250, n.2; 356, n.3; 408, n.2, c; 416,10; 513, n.1; 536, n.1; 555, n.2, n.1; 571, n.3; 605, n.; 606, n.1; 687.

Ovid—270, n.; 280, b.1, n.1; 349, r.5; 364, n.1; 401, n.7; 411, r.2; 416,7; 417,7; 427, r.2; 494, n.3; 525, n.1; 545, r.1; 616, n.2.
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